Introduction to Deep Learning for Scientists and Engineers

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Summary

- Part I
 - Problem definition (rely on supervised learning)
 - Compute graph and gradients
 - A little about deep learning libraries.
- Part II
 - Need for different architectures
 - Convolution networks
 - Recurrent networks
- Not covered
 - Diagram of neurons
 - History
 - Recent advances and business context
 - Tutorial on pytorch or keras
- Expectation and whats next

Extending derivatives to functions that accept vectors

For a function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, or, equivalently, $y = f(\vec{x})$, the gradient is:

t is: J:
$$\nabla_x f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$
 (1)

For finding minima, use gradient descent (iterate):

$$\vec{x} = \vec{x} - \eta \nabla_x f \tag{2}$$

Extending this to $f:\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$, or $\vec{y}=f(\vec{x})$, we define the Jacobian as:

Jacobian as:
$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_{11}} & \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_{12}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_{1n}} \\ \vdots & & & \\ \frac{\partial y_m}{\partial x_{11}} & \frac{\partial y_m}{\partial x_{12}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_m}{\partial x_{1n}} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3)

Note: Gradient is defined for $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

- Can we define another function $L(\vec{y}): \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}$?
- What does this function mean?

Matrix multiplication as a function

$$x \in \mathbb{R}^n, y \in \mathbb{R}^m, w \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} w_{11} & w_{12} & \dots & w_{1n} \\ w_{21} & w_{22} & \dots & w_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ w_{m1} & w_{m2} & \dots & w_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{y} = w\vec{x}$$

Derivatives

For
$$m=2, n=3$$

$$y_1 = w_{11}x_1 + w_{12}x_2 + w_{13}x_3 \tag{4}$$

$$y_2 = w_{21}x_1 + w_{22}x_2 + w_{23}x_3 \tag{5}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_2} & \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_3} \\ \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_2} & \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} w_{11} & w_{12} & w_{13} \\ w_{21} & w_{22} & w_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$
(6)

$$\frac{d\vec{y}}{d\vec{x}} = w \tag{7}$$

Element wise operations

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} \tag{8}$$

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

$$\frac{d}{dx}\sigma(x) = \sigma(x)(1 - \sigma(x))$$
(8)

$$\sigma\begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_m \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma(z_1) \\ \sigma(z_2) \\ \vdots \\ \sigma(z_m) \end{bmatrix}$$
 (10)

Derivatives in multiple dimensions

Partial derivatives of $f(x, y, z) = sin(x^2y) + e^z$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2xy\cos(x^2y) \tag{11}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2xy\cos(x^2y)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x^2\cos(x^2y)$$
(11)

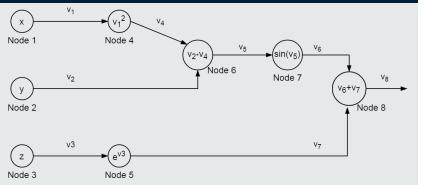
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = e^z \tag{13}$$

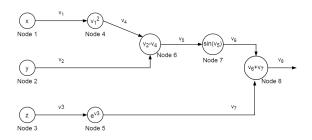
Computing the derivative

- Analytically (shown above)
- Numerically $f'(x) \approx \frac{f(x+\delta x)-f(x-\delta x)}{2\delta x}$
- Auto-diff. Deep learning libraries use reverse mode auto-diff.

Computation graph

Compute graph of $f(x, y, z) = sin(x^2y) + e^z$





$$\frac{\partial v_8}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial v_8}{\partial v_7} \frac{\partial v_7}{\partial v_3} \frac{\partial v_3}{\partial z} \qquad (14) \qquad \frac{\partial v_8}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial v_8}{\partial v_6} \frac{\partial v_6}{\partial v_5} \frac{\partial v_5}{\partial v_2} \frac{\partial v_2}{\partial y} \quad (17)$$

$$= 1.e^{v_3}.1 (15) = 1.\cos(v_5).v_4.1$$

$$\frac{\partial v_8}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = e^{v_3} = e^z \qquad (16) \qquad \qquad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial v_8}{\partial y} = \cos(v_5)v_4 \quad (19)$$

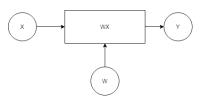
$$= cos(v_2v_4)v_4 \tag{20}$$

$$= cos(v_1^2 y)v_1^2$$
 (21)

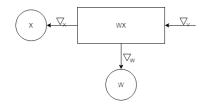
$$= cos(x^2y)x^2 \tag{22}$$

(18)

Unit operations (and a little bit of python)



```
class MultiplicationLayer1D:
       def __init__(self):
            self.cache = {}
 3
       def forward (self, x, w):
           self.cache['x'] = x
           self.cachel'w'l = w
           return w * x
9
       def backprop(self, incoming_grad):
           x_grad = self.cache['w']
           w_grad = self.cache['x'
           x_grad *= incoming_grad
13
           w_grad *= incoming_grad
15
           return x_grad, w_grad
```



```
class AdditionLayer:
    def __init__(self):
        self.cache = {}

def forward(self, x, w):
        self.cache['x'] = x
        self.cache['w'] = w
    return w + x

def backprop(self, incoming_grad):
        x_grad = incoming_grad
        w_grad = incoming_grad
        return x_grad, w_grad
```

Fitting a function to data

Description (supervised learning)

Given a set of data $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$, can we find a function y = f(x) that "fits" this data?

Questions

- What is this function f(x)?
- What does "fit" mean?
- How do we know this works?
- What kinds of problems can we solve?

More about f(x)

Class of functions

Starting with a function $f(x; \theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_n)$ where x is the input to the function and θs are its parameters, we need to find the set of θs that best "fits" the give data $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$

Class of linear functions

Consider f(x)=ax+b. If we can say, with some confidence, that our data is linearly related, we need to find $\theta_1=a$, $\theta_2=b$ that fits the given data. We can also write it as f(x;a,b)=ax+b. Preferred,

$$f(x;\theta_1,\theta_2) = \theta_1 x + \theta_2 \tag{23}$$

Fit

Mean squared Euclidean distance as one possible measure of fit

Let L_i be the squared Euclidean distance between the predicted value, $\hat{y}_i = f(x_i)$ and the actual, y_i . Then,

$$L_i = z_i^2 \tag{24}$$

$$z_i = y_i - f(x_i) \tag{25}$$

$$= y_i - \theta_1 x_i - \theta_2 \tag{26}$$

Minimizing L_i with respect to the parameters θ_1 and θ_2 ,

$$\frac{\partial L_i}{\partial \theta_1} = \frac{\partial z_i^2}{\partial z_i} \frac{\partial z_i}{\partial \theta_1} \tag{27}$$

$$\frac{\partial L_i}{\partial \theta_2} = \frac{\partial z_i^2}{\partial z_i} \frac{\partial z_i}{\partial \theta_2} \tag{28}$$

For n data points, mean loss is

$$L = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} L_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} (y_i - \theta_1 x_i - \theta_2)^2$$

In practice

- Choose a small (64 or 128) random subset of training data.
- Compute predicted values, then loss.
- Compute gradients of loss W.R.T. parameters then update parameters.

An **epoch** refers to a single iteration over all training data.

Two different spaces

- Space spanned by x and y. Optimization tries to find the surface (model) in this space that best fits the data.
- Space spanned by θs . We minimize the loss function in this space.

Using sigmoid

Definition

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} \tag{29}$$

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

$$\frac{d}{dx}\sigma(x) = \sigma(x)(1 - \sigma(x))$$
(29)

Assuming a non-linear function (sigmoidal + affine prior)

Let our function be $y = \sigma(\theta_1 x + \theta_2)$.

Making a non-linear function

New function and the squared error

$$z = \sigma(\hat{y}) \tag{31}$$

$$\hat{y} = \theta_1 x + \theta_2 \tag{32}$$

Error L_i for the ith data point

$$L_i = (\sigma(\theta_1 x_i + \theta_2) - y_i)^2 \tag{33}$$

Finding best θ s

Minimizing L_i

$$L_i = \Delta_i^2 \tag{34}$$

$$\Delta_i = z_i - y_i \tag{35}$$

$$z_i = \sigma(\hat{y}_i) \tag{36}$$

$$\hat{y}_i = \theta_1 x_i + \theta_2 \tag{37}$$

$$\frac{\partial L_i}{\partial \theta_1} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial \Delta_i^2}{\partial \Delta_i} \frac{\partial \Delta_i}{\partial z_i} \frac{\partial z_i}{\partial \hat{y}_i}}_{\text{(38)}} \frac{\partial \hat{y}_i}{\partial \theta_1}$$

$$\frac{\partial L_i}{\partial \theta_2} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial \Delta_i^2}{\partial \Delta_i}}_{} \frac{\partial \Delta_i}{\partial z_i} \frac{\partial z_i}{\partial \hat{y}_i} \frac{\partial \hat{y}_i}{\partial \theta_2}$$
(39)

Finding best θ s

Updates to θ_1 and θ_2

$$\frac{\partial L_i}{\partial \theta_1} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial \Delta_i^2}{\partial \Delta_i} \frac{\partial \Delta_i}{\partial z_i} \frac{\partial z_i}{\partial \hat{y}_i}}_{\text{d}\theta_1} \frac{\partial \hat{y}_i}{\partial \theta_1} \tag{40}$$

$$\frac{\partial L_i}{\partial \theta_2} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial \Delta_i^2}{\partial \Delta_i} \frac{\partial \Delta_i}{\partial z_i} \frac{\partial z_i}{\partial \hat{y_i}}}_{\mathbf{d}\theta_2} \frac{\partial \hat{y_i}}{\partial \theta_2} \tag{41}$$

$$\theta_{1_{p+1}} = \theta_{1_p} - \eta \frac{\partial L_i}{\partial \theta_1}$$

$$\theta_{2_{p+1}} = \theta_{2_p} - \eta \frac{\partial L_i}{\partial \theta_2}$$
(42)

$$\theta_{2_{p+1}} = \theta_{2_p} - \eta \frac{\partial L_i}{\partial \theta_2} \tag{43}$$

Finding best θ s

Updates to θ_1 and θ_2

$$\theta_{1_{p+1}} = \theta_{1_p} - \eta \frac{\partial L_i}{\partial \theta_1} \tag{44}$$

$$\theta_{1_{p+1}} = \theta_{1_p} - \eta \frac{\partial L_i}{\partial \theta_1}$$

$$\theta_{2_{p+1}} = \theta_{2_p} - \eta \frac{\partial L_i}{\partial \theta_2}$$

$$(44)$$

Vectorized format

$$\vec{\theta_{p+1}} = \vec{\theta_p} - \eta \vec{\nabla_{\theta}} L \tag{46}$$

Using vectors

$x \in \mathbb{R}^n, y \in \mathbb{R}^m, w \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

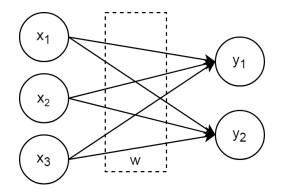
$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} w_{11} & w_{12} & \dots & w_{1n} \\ w_{21} & w_{22} & \dots & w_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ w_{m1} & w_{m2} & \dots & w_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

For $m = \bar{2}, n = 3$

$$y_1 = w_{11}x_1 + w_{12}x_2 + w_{13}x_3 + b_1 (47)$$

$$y_2 = w_{21}x_1 + w_{22}x_2 + w_{23}x_3 + b_2 (48)$$

Mandatory network diagram



More layers

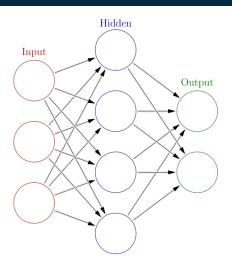


Image from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Artificial_neural_network

Multiple layers

Layers (composition) of ax + b style functions



$$y = \mathbb{W}x + b$$

$$z = \mathbb{U}y + c = \mathbb{U}(\mathbb{W}x + b) + c$$

$$= (\mathbb{U}\mathbb{W})x + (\mathbb{U}b + c) = \mathbb{V}x + d$$

Introducing non-linearity with element-wise sigmoid

$$y = \sigma(\mathbb{W}x + b)$$
$$z = \sigma(\mathbb{U}y + c)$$

Multi-layer, feed forward, non-polynomial

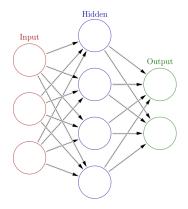
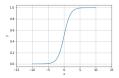


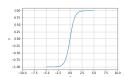
Image from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Artificial_neural_network

Activation functions

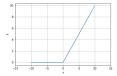
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$



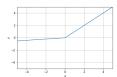
$$f(x) = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}$$



$$f(x) = max(x, 0)$$



$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x, & \text{if } x \ge 0 \\ 0.1x, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



What can these functions (neural networks) do?

A standard multilayer feed-forward network with a locally bounded piecewise continuous activation function can approximate any continuous function to any degree of accuracy if and only if the network's activation function is not a polynomial.

-Leshno et al.,1993

In particular, we show that arbitrary decision regions can be arbitrarily well approximated by continuous feed forward neural networks with only a single internal, hidden layer and any continuous sigmoidal nonlinearity.

-Cybenko, 1989

Python code

```
# Build the network
import core.np.Activations as act
import core.np.Loss as loss
from core.np.utils import to one hot
import core.np.Optimization as autodiff optim
                                                        Model
import core.np.regularization as reg
from core import info, debug, log at info
import time
import matplotlib.pvplot as plt
x node = node.VarNode('x')
v target node = node.VarNode('vt')
linear1 = node.DenseLaver(x node, 100, name="Dense-First")
relu1 = act.RelUNode(linear1, name="RelU-First")
linear2 = node.DenseLayer(relu1, 200, name="Dense-Second")
relu2 = act.RelUNode(linear2, name="RelU-Second")
linear3 = node.DenseLayer(relu2, 10, name="Dense-Third")
loss_node = loss.LogitsCrossEntropy(linear3, y_target_node, name="XEnt")
```

Steps

- Settle on a class of function with parameters to be optimized.
- Define a secondary function the loss function.
- Split data into training set, validation set and test set. Use randomization. For the following discussion, we ignore validation set.
- Initialize model weights (W's or θ s), typically using small random numbers.
- Iterate over the data in batches
 - compute the predicted value
 - compute the loss
 - compute gradients
 - update parameters
- Keep track of loss and stop when loss stops decreasing.
 - Compute loss for test set.

Why now?

- Activation functions
- Initialization approaches
- New optimization algorithms*
- Architectures for better propagation of gradients
- Availability of massive amounts of data generation + storage
- Advances in processor speeds and GPUs
- New ways of working and collaborating

Learning, libraries etc.

Why use libraries

- Define compute graph easily
- calculates gradient
- Move between CPU and GPU
- Model libraries, trained models, utilities

Libraries

- Torch and Theano
- Tensorflow
- Keras
- Pytorch

Next

Part II

- Autoencoders and PCA
- Convolution neural networks
- Recurrent neural networks
- Transfer learning
- GANs (possibly!)

References



Automatic differentiation in machine learning: A survey

Atilim Gunes Baydin, Barak A. Pearlmutter & Alexey Andreyevich Radul arxiv http://arxiv.org/abs/1502.05767