# First Principles of Deep Learning

Steve Avsec

Illinois Institute of Technology

March 4, 2024

#### Overview

1 A Little Information Theory

Overview

## Entropy

Entropy is a measure of disorder or uncertainty in a system.

#### Entropy

Entropy is a measure of disorder or uncertainty in a system.

For a probability distribution, p:

$$H(p) = -E_p[log(X)] = -\sum_{j=1}^n p_j \log(p_j)$$

#### Entropy

Entropy is a measure of disorder or uncertainty in a system.

For a probability distribution, p:

$$H(p) = -E_p[log(X)] = -\sum_{j=1}^n p_j \log(p_j)$$

Maximized when p is the uniform distribution.

Let p and q be two probability distributions. Then

$$D_{KL}(p||q) = E_p[\log(\frac{p(X)}{q(X)})] = \sum_{j=1}^n p_j \log(p_j) - \sum_{j=1}^n p_j \log(q_j)$$

Let p and q be two probability distributions. Then

$$D_{KL}(p||q) = E_p[\log(rac{p(X)}{q(X)})] = \sum_{j=1}^n p_j \log(p_j) - \sum_{j=1}^n p_j \log(q_j)$$

KL Divergence is a measure of "surprise": If q is the assumed distribution and p is the actual,  $D_{KL}(p||q)$  can be interpreted as a difference between these realities.

Let p and q be two probability distributions. Then

$$D_{KL}(p||q) = E_p[\log(\frac{p(X)}{q(X)})] = \sum_{j=1}^n p_j \log(p_j) - \sum_{j=1}^n p_j \log(q_j)$$

KL Divergence is a measure of "surprise": If q is the assumed distribution and p is the actual,  $D_{KL}(p||q)$  can be interpreted as a difference between these realities.

The *cross-entropy* of two distributions p and q is defined by

$$H(p,q) = -E_p[\log(q(X))] = -\sum_{j=1}^n p_j \log(q_j)$$

Let p and q be two probability distributions. Then

$$D_{KL}(p||q) = E_p[\log(\frac{p(X)}{q(X)})] = \sum_{j=1}^n p_j \log(p_j) - \sum_{j=1}^n p_j \log(q_j)$$

KL Divergence is a measure of "surprise": If q is the assumed distribution and p is the actual,  $D_{KL}(p||q)$  can be interpreted as a difference between these realities.

The *cross-entropy* of two distributions p and q is defined by

$$H(p,q) = -E_p[\log(q(X))] = -\sum_{j=1}^{n} p_j \log(q_j)$$

Often, we want to minimize  $D_{KL}(p||q)$ , but because

$$H(p,q) = H(p) + D_{KL}(p||q)$$

we often minimize H(p, q).



#### Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Let  $\mathbf{X}$  be a data set drawn from some unknown probability distribution  $p_{data}$ 

#### Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Let  $\mathbf{X}$  be a data set drawn from some unknown probability distribution  $p_{data}$ 

Let  $p_{model}(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$  be a parameterized family of models.

#### Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Let  $\mathbf{X}$  be a data set drawn from some unknown probability distribution  $p_{data}$ 

Let  $p_{model}(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$  be a parameterized family of models.

 $p_{model}(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$  is an estimate to  $p_{data}(\mathbf{x})$  for a fixed  $\theta$ .

#### **MLE Continued**

$$\begin{split} \theta_{\textit{ML}} &= \text{argmax}_{\theta} p_{\textit{model}}(\mathbf{X}, \theta) \\ &= \text{argmax}_{\theta} \prod_{j=1}^{N} p_{\textit{model}}(\mathbf{x}_{j}, \theta) \\ &= \text{argmax} \max_{\theta} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \log(p_{\textit{model}}(\mathbf{x}, \theta)) \\ &= \text{argmax} \max_{\theta} E_{\hat{p}_{\textit{data}}} \log(p_{\textit{model}}(\mathbf{x})) \end{split}$$

#### **MLE Continued**

$$\begin{split} \theta_{\textit{ML}} &= \text{argmax}_{\theta} p_{\textit{model}}(\mathbf{X}, \theta) \\ &= \text{argmax}_{\theta} \prod_{j=1}^{N} p_{\textit{model}}(\mathbf{x}_{j}, \theta) \\ &= \text{argmax} \max_{\theta} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \log(p_{\textit{model}}(\mathbf{x}, \theta)) \\ &= \text{argmax} \max_{\theta} E_{\hat{p}_{\textit{data}}} \log(p_{\textit{model}}(\mathbf{x})) \end{split}$$

and we can conclude that the maximum likelihood estimator  $\theta_{ML}$  coincides with the minimizer of  $H(p_{data}, p_{model})$ 



# Linear Models vs. Deep Learning

**Goal:** Optimize

$$f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$$

according to some loss function given a data set (X, y).

# Linear Models vs. Deep Learning

**Goal:** Optimize

$$f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$$

according to some loss function given a data set (X, y).

Linear models:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^K c_j f_j(\mathbf{x})$$

where  $f_i \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathcal{F}$  is some appropriate class fo functions.

# Linear Models vs. Deep Learning

**Goal:** Optimize

$$f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$$

according to some loss function given a data set (X, y).

Linear models:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^K c_j f_j(\mathbf{x})$$

where  $f_j \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathcal{F}$  is some appropriate class fo functions.

Deep learning:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f^{(K)} \circ \cdots \circ f^{(2)} \circ f^{(1)}(\mathbf{x})$$

where  $f^{(k)}: \mathbb{R}^{d_k} \to \mathbb{R}^{d_{k+1}}$  and  $d_{K+1} = 1$ .



 The model described here is a feedforward neural network.

- The model described here is a feedforward neural network.
- The functions  $f^{(k)}$  are often referred to as "hidden" layers.

- The model described here is a feedforward neural network.
- The functions  $f^{(k)}$  are often referred to as "hidden" layers.
- The depth of a neural network is the number of layers (K).

- The model described here is a feedforward neural network.
- The functions  $f^{(k)}$  are often referred to as "hidden" layers.
- The depth of a neural network is the number of layers (K).
- The *width* of a neural network is the maximum dimension  $\max_{1 \le k \le K} d_k$ .



## Some building blocks

• Loss functions (also commonly called cost functions in the DL literature).

## Some building blocks

- Loss functions (also commonly called cost functions in the DL literature).
- Activation functions
  - ReLU (rectified linear unit)

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

## Some building blocks

- Loss functions (also commonly called cost functions in the DL literature).
- Activation functions
  - ReLU (rectified linear unit)

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Hyperbolic tangent

$$g(x) = \tanh(x)$$



## **Output Units**

• Linear (Gaussian):

$$y = W^t h + b$$

## **Output Units**

• Linear (Gaussian):

$$y = W^t h + b$$

Sigmoid (Bernoulli):

$$y = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^t \mathbf{h} + b)$$

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

## **Output Units**

Linear (Gaussian):

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}^t \mathbf{h} + \mathbf{b}$$

Sigmoid (Bernoulli):

$$y = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^t \mathbf{h} + b)$$

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

Softmax (Multinomial):

$$\operatorname{softmax}(\mathbf{z})_i = \frac{e^{z_i}}{\sum_{k=1}^K e^{z_k}}$$

where 
$$z_i = \log(y = i|\mathbf{h}) = \mathbf{W}^t\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{b}$$



#### Gradients

Feedforward neural networks lose *convexity* of their loss function with respect to model parameters.

#### Gradients

Feedforward neural networks lose *convexity* of their loss function with respect to model parameters.

This loss of convexity means that solutions are sensitive to initial parameters and convergence is not guaranteed.

#### Gradients

Feedforward neural networks lose *convexity* of their loss function with respect to model parameters.

This loss of convexity means that solutions are sensitive to initial parameters and convergence is not guaranteed.

It is called *saturation* when a function becomes very flat and its gradient becomes close to 0.

#### Architecture

Layers are typically broken down by

$$\mathbf{h}^{(1)} = g^{(1)}(\mathbf{W}^{(1)t}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)})$$
  
 $\mathbf{h}^{(2)} = g^{(2)}(\mathbf{W}^{(2)t}\mathbf{h}^{(1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)})$ 

et cetera.

#### **Architecture**

Layers are typically broken down by

$$\mathbf{h}^{(1)} = g^{(1)}(\mathbf{W}^{(1)t}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)})$$
  
 $\mathbf{h}^{(2)} = g^{(2)}(\mathbf{W}^{(2)t}\mathbf{h}^{(1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)})$ 

et cetera.

#### Theorem (The Universal Approximation Theorem)

A feedforward neural network with at least one hidden layer and a linear output layer and any "reasonable" activation function can approximate any "reasonable" function.

#### **Architecture**

Layers are typically broken down by

$$\mathbf{h}^{(1)} = g^{(1)}(\mathbf{W}^{(1)t}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)})$$
  
 $\mathbf{h}^{(2)} = g^{(2)}(\mathbf{W}^{(2)t}\mathbf{h}^{(1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)})$ 

et cetera.

#### Theorem (The Universal Approximation Theorem)

A feedforward neural network with at least one hidden layer and a linear output layer and any "reasonable" activation function can approximate any "reasonable" function.

The downside: While such a neural network can *represent* any function, due to optimization issues with non-convex functions, there is no guarantee that such a representation can be learned.

#### The Chain Rule

#### Let

- $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,
- $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be some activation function,
- **W** be an *d*-dim vector,
- and b be some offset.

#### The Chain Rule

#### Let

- $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,
- $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be some activation function,
- **W** be an *d*-dim vector,
- and b be some offset.

lf

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = g(\mathbf{w}^t \mathbf{x} + b)$$

then

#### The Chain Rule

#### Let

- $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,
- $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be some activation function,
- **W** be an *d*-dim vector,
- and b be some offset.

lf

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = g(\mathbf{w}^t \mathbf{x} + b)$$

then

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = g'(\mathbf{w}^t \mathbf{x} + b) \times \mathbf{w}^t$$

$$\textbf{1} \text{ Let } \textbf{g} = \nabla_{\hat{\textbf{y}}} \textit{L}(\textbf{y}, \hat{\textbf{y}}).$$

- 1 Let  $\mathbf{g} = \nabla_{\hat{\mathbf{y}}} L(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}})$ .
- 2 For k = I, I 1, ..., 1:

1 Let 
$$\mathbf{g} = \nabla_{\hat{\mathbf{y}}} L(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}})$$
.

2 For 
$$k = I, I - 1, ..., 1$$
:

- 1 Let  $\mathbf{g} = \nabla_{\hat{\mathbf{y}}} L(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}})$ .
- 2 For k = I, I 1, ..., 1:

  - **2** Gradients wrt  $\mathbf{b}^{(k)}$  and  $\mathbf{W}^{(k)}$  can be expressed by

• 
$$\nabla_{\mathbf{b}^{(k)}} L = \mathbf{g} + \text{reg}$$
.

• 
$$\nabla_{\mathbf{W}^{(k)}} L = \mathbf{g} + \text{reg}$$
.

• 
$$\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{W}^{(k)t}\mathbf{q}$$