



# M2177.003100

## Deep Learning

### [1: Foundations of Deep Learning]

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# Outline

Introduction to Deep Learning

Additional Theory and Practice

Machine Learning Basics

Development Strategy

Linear Models

Summary

# References

- *Deep Learning* by Goodfellow, Bengio and Courville
  - ▶ Chapters 1–5
- online resources:
  - ▶ *Deep Learning Specialization (coursera)* [▶ Link](#)
  - ▶ *Stanford CS231n: CNN for Visual Recognition* [▶ Link](#)
  - ▶ *Machine Learning Yearning* [▶ Link](#)

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Introduction to Deep Learning

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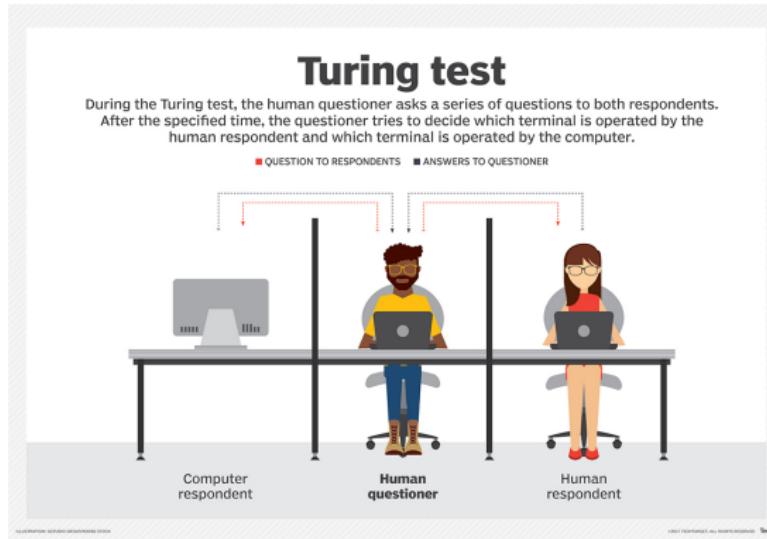
Summary

# Artificial intelligence (AI)

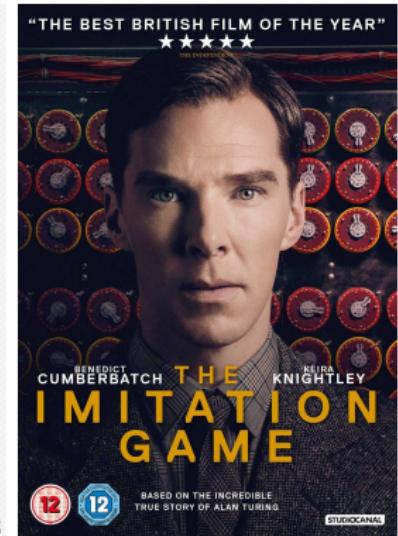
- objective
  - ▶ to create a machine that can think and/or act like humans
  - ▶ AI = computational intelligence
- rationality in engineering
  - ▶ refers to maximizing **expected utility**
- evaluation metric
  - ▶ human-level performance (suggested from day one)

↑  
think/act **rationally**

- Turing test: the imitation game metric

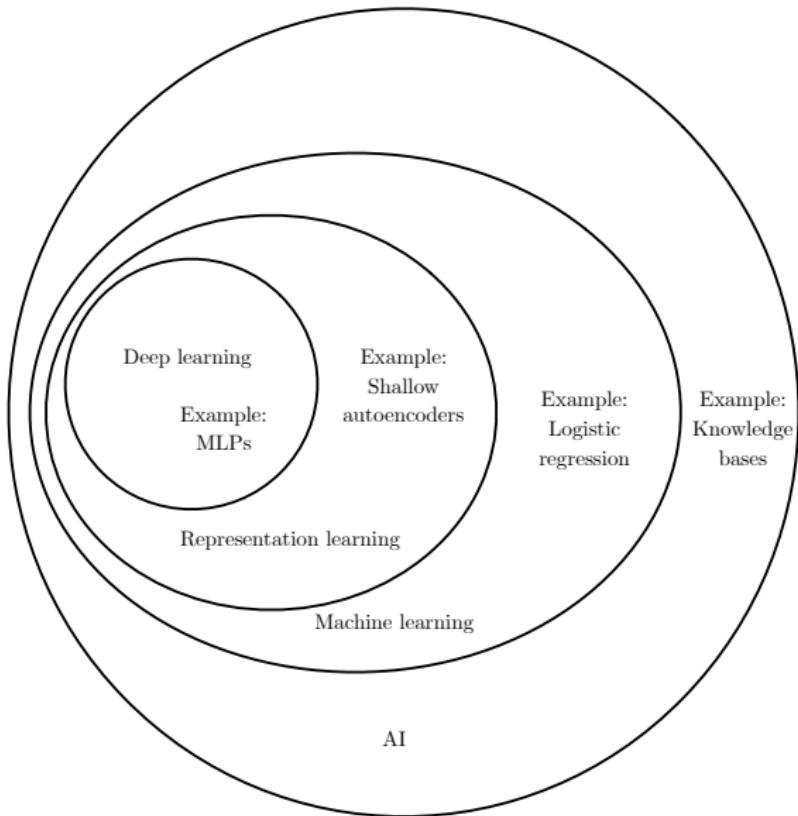
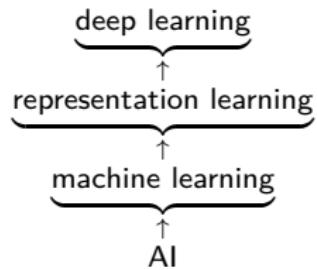


(source: <http://searchenterpriseai.techtarget.com>)



- Google Duplex ▶ Clip
- ▶ human-level intelligence?

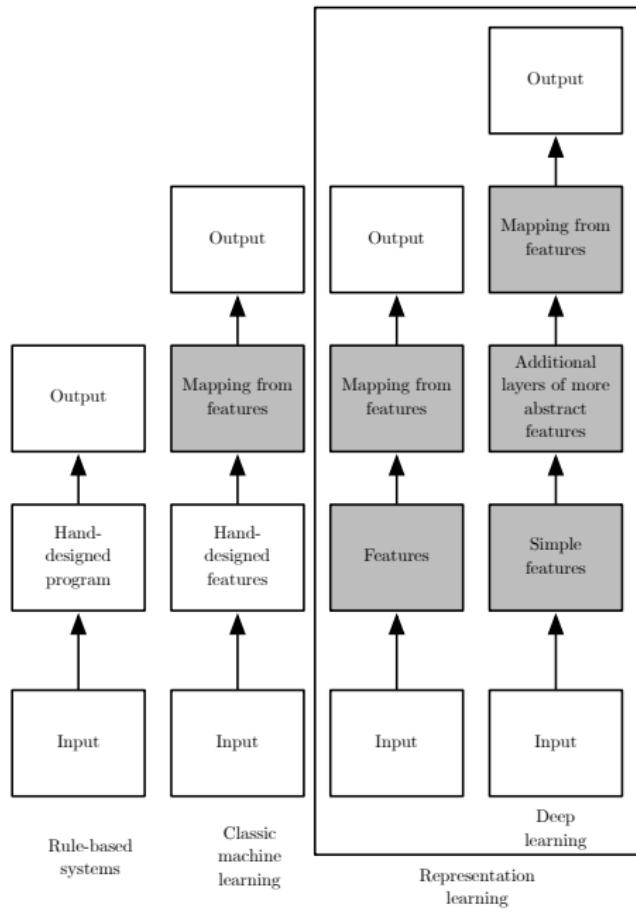
# Comparison



# Deep learning

- hierarchical representation learning
  - ▶ implementation: neural nets
  - ▶ fueled by big data
  - ▶ workhorse: GPU
- each layer in neural nets
  - ▶ feature representation
- main applications
  - ▶ tasks humans can do well

(shaded boxes: components that are able to learn from data)



# Three waves of DL development

## 1. “cybernetics”: 1940’s–1960’s [neuroscience]

- ▶ perceptron,  $\delta$ -rule, stochastic gradient decent
- ▶ essentially linear models  $\Rightarrow$  limitations (*e.g.* XOR)

## 2. “connectionism”: 1980’s–1990’s [cognitive science]

- ▶ simple units achieve intelligence when networked together
- ▶ neural nets, distributed representation<sup>1</sup>, back propagation
- ▶ training issues  $\Rightarrow$  eclipsed by kernel/graphical models

## 3. “deep learning”: 2006–present [multidisciplinary]

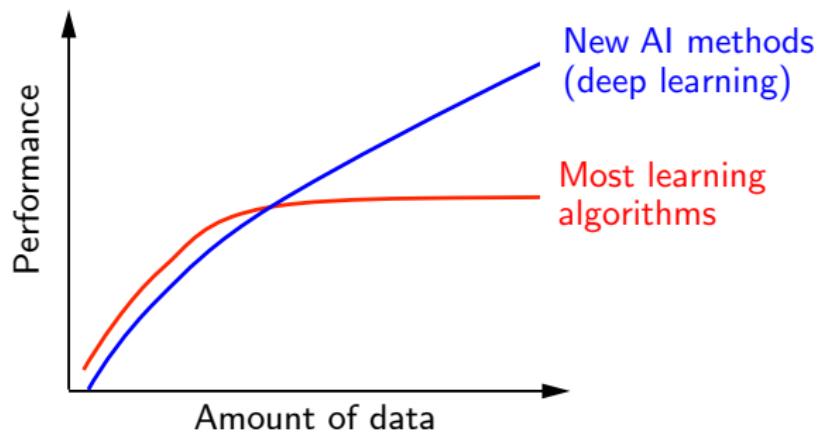
- ▶ early breakthroughs: restricted Boltzmann machine, CNN
- ▶ unsupervised  $\rightarrow$  supervised/reinforcement  $\rightarrow$  unsupervised ...

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<sup>1</sup>each input to a system should be represented by many features, and each feature should be involved in the representation of many possible inputs

# Deep learning is in its prime time

- three key driving forces
  1. big data
  2. parallel/distributed computing
  3. advances in algorithms



(source: Ng)

# Status quo

- subhuman performance
  - ▶ general intelligence
  - ▶ domains with small/pricey data, expensive human experts (*e.g.* medical)
- human-level performance
  - ▶ some perception tasks: visual/speech recognition
- superhuman performance
  - ▶ domains with extremely big data (*e.g.* recommendation, online AD)
  - ▶ some perception tasks (*e.g.* massive surveillance), game play

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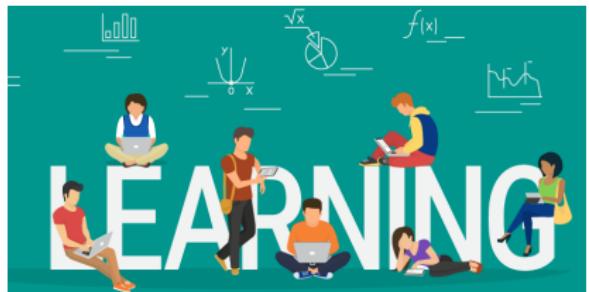
# Machine learning

- learning from data
- what do we mean by learning?

- ▶ Mitchell (1997):

"A computer program is said to learn from **experience  $E$**  with respect to some class of **tasks  $T$**  and **performance measure  $P$** , if its performance at tasks in  $T$ , as measured by  $P$ , improves with experience  $E$ ."

- common types:
  - ▶ supervised
  - ▶ unsupervised
  - ▶ reinforcement
  - ▶ many more



# Tasks in ML

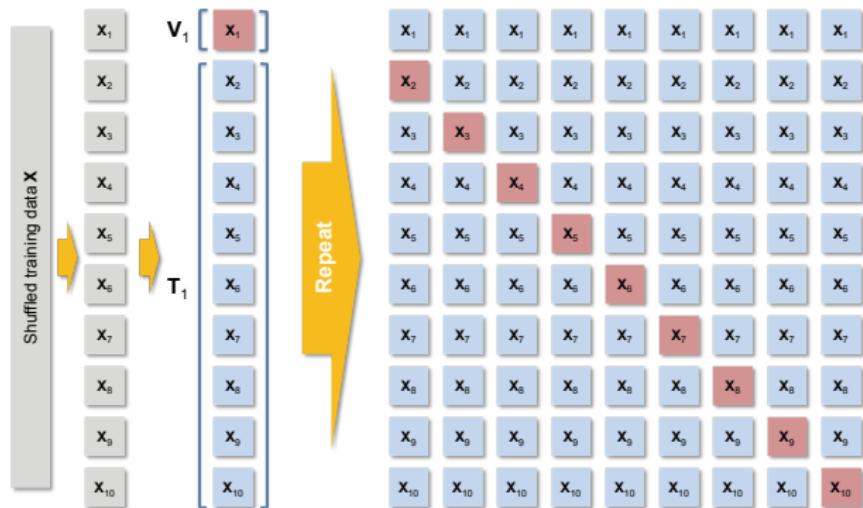
- described in terms of how to process an **example**
- an “example”:
  - ▶ a collection of **features** quantitatively measured from object/event
  - ▶ represented as a vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  (each entry  $x_i$  : a feature)
- e.g. features of an image: pixels values
- common ML tasks:

T1. classification	T6. structured output
T2. classification with missing inputs	T7. anomaly detection
T3. regression	T8. synthesis and sampling
T4. transcription	T9. imputation of missing values
T5. machine translation	T10. denoising
	T11. density/pmf estimation

# Data set

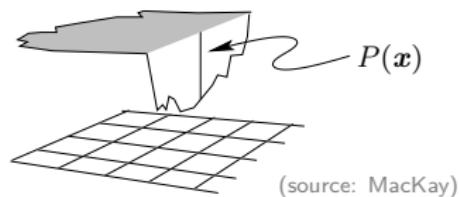
- a collection of examples
  - ▶ **training** set: for fitting
  - ▶ validation set (“**dev** set”): for model selection
  - ▶ **test** set: for estimation

10-fold  
cross-validation:



# Performance measure

- specific to task  $T$ 
  - e.g. classification: accuracy, **error rate E**       $\leftarrow$  we focus on this for a while
  - density estimation: average log-probability the model assigns to examples
- evaluated using data sets
  - ▶ training/dev/test sets  $\Rightarrow E_{\text{train}}, E_{\text{dev}}, E_{\text{test}}$
- often challenging to choose
  1. difficult to decide what to measure
    - e.g. penalize frequent mid-sized mistakes or rare large mistakes?
  2. know ideal measure but measurement is undoable
    - e.g. density estimation



a lake whose depth at  $x = (x, y)$  is  $P(x)$

(source: MacKay)

# Central challenge in ML

- generalization
  - ▶ ability to perform well on previously unobserved examples
- generalization error  $E_{\text{gen}}$ 
  - ▶ expected error on a new example  $\Rightarrow$  implausible to calculate
- training error  $E_{\text{train}}$ 
  - ▶ measured on a training set  $\Rightarrow$  bad proxy for  $E_{\text{gen}}$
- test error  $E_{\text{test}}$ 
  - ▶ measured on a test set (not used in training)  $\Rightarrow$  better proxy for  $E_{\text{gen}}$

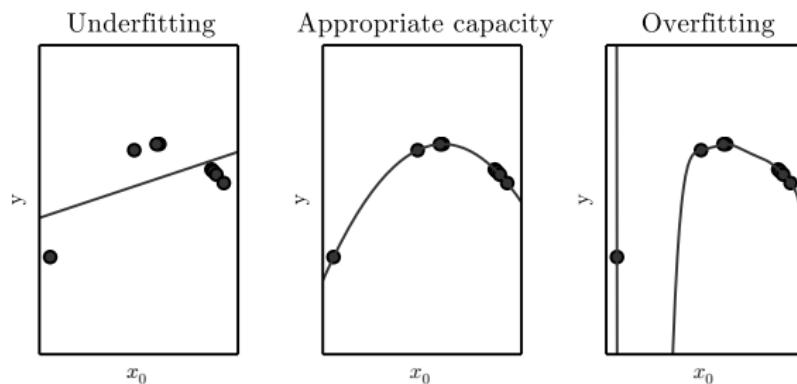
## Two specific objectives

- objective:  $E_{\text{gen}} = 0$  in theory or  $E_{\text{test}} \simeq 0$  in practice
- split into two objectives:
  1.  $E_{\text{test}} \simeq E_{\text{train}}$
  2.  $E_{\text{train}} \simeq 0$
- objective 1: make  $E_{\text{test}} \simeq E_{\text{train}}$ 
  - ▶ failure: overfitting → high variance
  - ▶ cure: regularization, more data + lower capacity(layer 수나 feature 수를 줄임)
- objective 2: make  $E_{\text{train}} \simeq 0$ 
  - ▶ failure: underfitting → high bias
  - ▶ cure: optimization, more complex model

# Capacity of a model

capacity 조절으로 under/  
overfitting 조절 가능

- the ability of the model to fit various functions  
↑  
representation (+ learning algorithm)
- altering capacity controls over/underfitting
  - example (truth: quadratic; fit: linear, quadratic, degree-9)



# Choosing a model (conventional advice)

전통적 : simple한게 제일

좋음

현대적 : 복잡한 모델 쓰고

regularization 잘하는게

좋음

- Occam's razor (a principle of parsimony)
  - ▶ among competing hypotheses, choose the "simple" one

- why? **VC generalization bound**: for any  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $N > 0$

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\underbrace{|E_{\text{train}}(f) - E_{\text{test}}(f)|}_{\text{bad event}} > \epsilon\right] \leq \underbrace{4 \cdot (2N)^{\overbrace{d_{\text{VC}}}^{\text{capacity}}} \cdot e^{-\frac{1}{8}\epsilon^2 N}}_{\text{VC bound}}$$

- ▶  $N$  : # of training examples
- ▶  $f$  : a model ( $d_{\text{VC}}$  : its *VC dimension*, a measure of model capacity)

- in words: discrepancy between  $E_{\text{train}}$  and  $E_{\text{test}}$

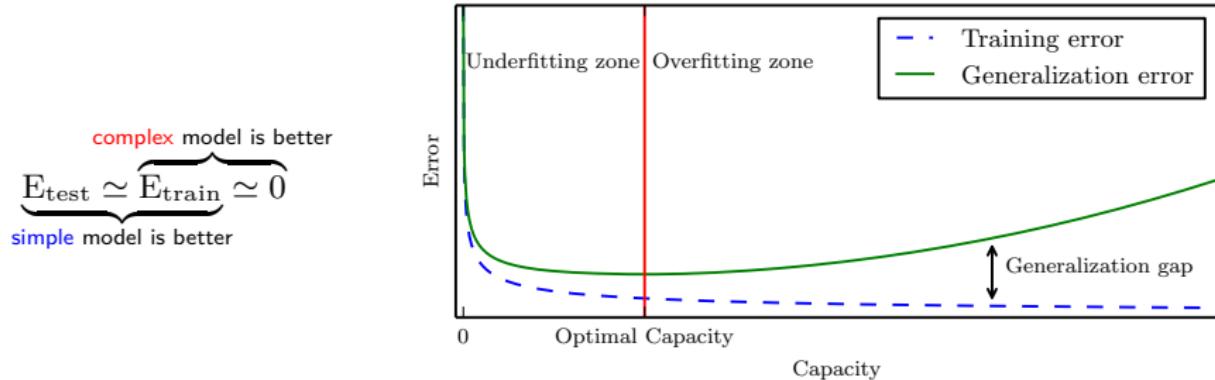
- ▶ grows as model capacity grows

(but shrinks as  $N$  increases)

↑  
power of big data

# A tradeoff: the main challenge in ML

- approximation-generalization tradeoff or bias-variance tradeoff



- in theory: choose **simpler** functions
  - better **generalization** (smaller gap between training/test error)
- in practice: must still choose a **sufficiently complex** hypothesis
  - to achieve low **training error**

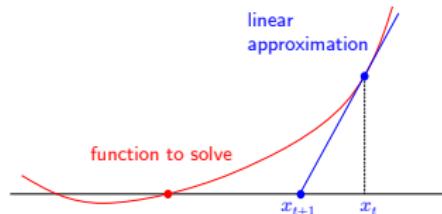
# Two major weapons to fight the tradeoff

- **optimization:** bias reduction (better approximation)
  - ▶ finds model parameters that minimize error
- **e.g.** stochastic gradient descent
- **regularization:** variance reduction (better generalization)
  - ▶ constrains model capacity by reflecting prior knowledge
- **e.g.** dropout, weight decay

# Optimization examples

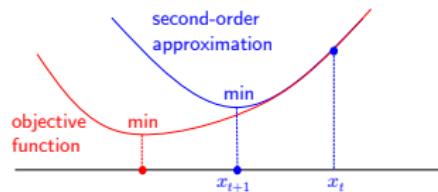
- Newton's method
  - ▶ zero-finding

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \frac{f(x_t)}{f'(x_t)}$$



- ▶ minimization/maximization

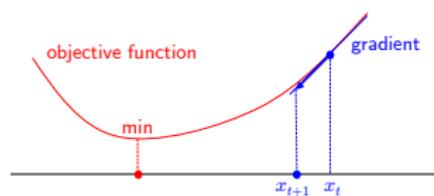
$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \frac{f'(x_t)}{f''(x_t)}$$



- gradient descent

- ▶ minimization/maximization

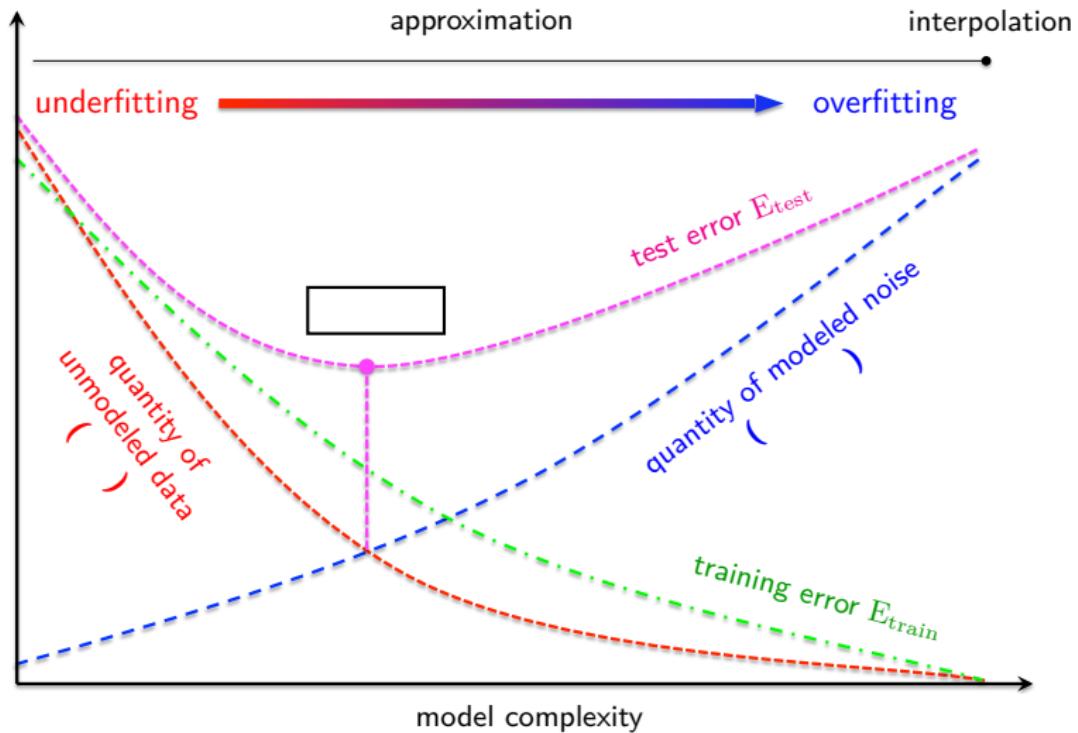
$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \epsilon f'(x_t)$$



# Choosing a model (modern advice)

- complex model + effective regularization + big data
- complex model
  - ▶ higher chance of fitting data  $\rightarrow E_{\text{train}} \simeq 0$
- regularization + big data
  - ▶ reduces generalization gap  $\rightarrow E_{\text{test}} \simeq E_{\text{train}}$

# Big picture



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**Linear Models**

Summary

# Linear models

- basis for more sophisticated models
- has many advantages → worth trying first
  - ▶ simplicity: easy to implement, test, and interpret
  - ▶ generalization: higher chance of  $E_{\text{test}} \simeq E_{\text{train}}$  than complex models
  - ▶ extension: nonlinear transform, kernel trick, neural nets
- can solve three important problems
  1. classification
  2. regression
  3. probability estimation (*aka* logistic regression)
  - ▶ come with different but related algorithms

# Example: credit card application

- given:
  - ▶ applicant information →
- decide:
  - ▶ approve a credit card or not?



feature	value
age	23 years
gender	female
annual salary	\$30,000
years in residence	1 year
years in job	1 year
current debt	\$15,000
...	...

# Formalization

- let  $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$  be the input space
  - ▶  $\mathbb{R}^d$ : the  $d$ -dimensional Euclidean space
  - ▶ input vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$ :  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d)$
- let  $\mathcal{Y} = \{+1, -1\}$  be the output space
  - ▶ denotes a \_\_\_\_\_ decision
- in our credit example
  - ▶ coordinates of input  $\mathbf{x}$ : salary, debt, and other fields in a credit card application
  - ▶ binary output  $y$ : approved or denied

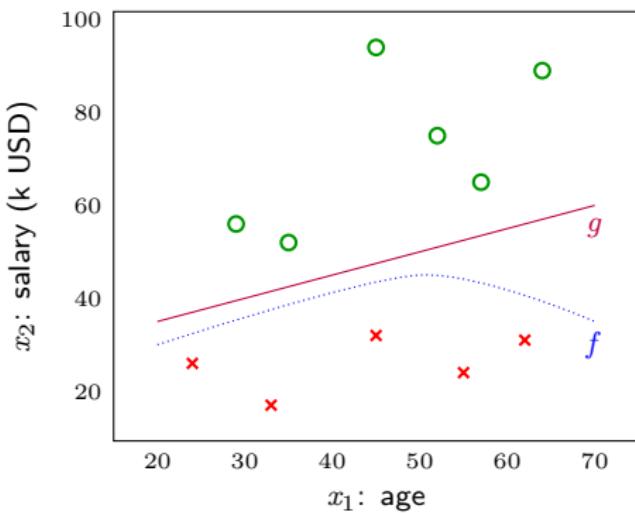
component	symbol	credit approval metaphor
input	$\mathbf{x}$	customer application
output	$y$	approve or deny
target function	$f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$	ideal approval formula
data	$(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), \dots, (\mathbf{x}^{(N)}, y^{(N)})$	historical records
hypothesis	$g : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$	formula to be used

- ▶  $f$ : unknown target function
- ▶  $\mathcal{X}$ : input space (set of all possible inputs  $\mathbf{x}$ )
- ▶  $\mathcal{Y}$ : output space (set of all possible outputs)
- ▶  $N$ : the number of input-output examples (*i.e.* training examples)
- ▶  $\mathbb{X} \triangleq \{(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), \dots, (\mathbf{x}^{(N)}, y^{(N)})\}$ : data set where  $y^{(n)} = f(\mathbf{x}^{(n)})$

## Example

- $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$  where  $x_1$ : age and  $x_2$ : annual salary in USD
- $N = 11$ ,  $d = 2$ ,  $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^2$ , and  $\mathcal{Y} = \{\text{approve}, \text{deny}\}$
- data set  $\mathcal{D}$ :

$n$	$x_1$	$x_2$	$y$
1	29	56k	approve
2	64	89k	approve
3	33	17k	deny
4	45	94k	approve
5	24	26k	deny
6	55	24k	deny
7	35	52k	approve
8	57	65k	approve
9	45	32k	deny
10	52	75k	approve
11	62	31k	deny



# Decision making

- to make a decision
  - ▶ weighted coordinates are combined to form a ‘credit score’
  - ▶ the resulting score is then compared to a \_\_\_\_\_
- in our credit card approval example
  - ▶ for input  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_d)$ , ‘attributes of an applicant’:   
  
 approve the application if  $\sum_{i=1}^d w_i x_i > \text{threshold}$   
  
 deny the application if  $\sum_{i=1}^d w_i x_i < \text{threshold}$

# The perceptron

- this linear formula can be written more compactly:

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign} \left( \left( \sum_{i=1}^d w_i x_i \right) - \text{threshold} \right) \quad (1)$$

$$= \text{sign} \left( \left( \sum_{i=1}^d w_i x_i \right) + b \right) \quad (2)$$

where  $b$  is called the \_\_\_ and  $\text{sign}(z)^2 = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } z > 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } z < 0 \end{cases}$

- this model: called the **perceptron**
  - ▶ a simple linear classifier

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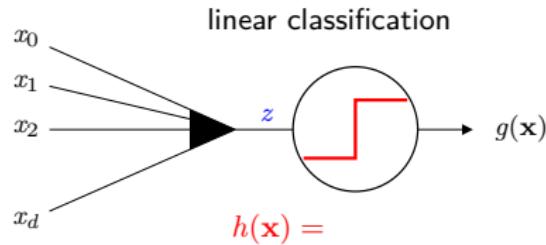
<sup>2</sup>value of  $\text{sign}(z)$  when  $z = 0$  is a simple technicality we can ignore

- different parameters  $\theta = (\underbrace{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_d}_{\text{weights}}, \underbrace{b}_{\text{bias}})$ 
  - ▶ yield different hyperplanes  $w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + \dots + w_dx_d + b = 0$
- for simplification
  - ▶ treat bias  $b$  as a weight  $w_0 \equiv b$
  - ▶ introduce an artificial coordinate \_\_\_\_\_
- with this convention,  $\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=0}^d w_i x_i$ 
  - ▶ this gives the perceptron in vector form:

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}) \quad (3)$$

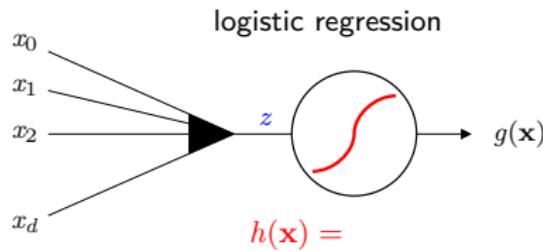
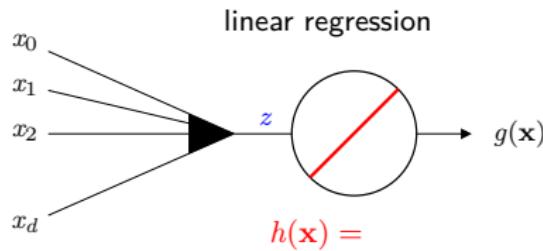
- ▶  $\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}$ : called **signal**

# Linear models



- based on  
“signal”  $z$ :

$$z = \sum_{i=0}^d w_i x_i$$



# Comparison

	linear classification	linear regression	logistic regression
$y$	$\{-1, +1\}$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\{-1, +1\}$ $0 \leq \text{output} \leq 1$
$\hat{y} = g(\mathbf{x})$	$\text{sign}(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x})$	$\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}$	$\theta^*(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x})$
	0-1 loss	squared error	cross-entropy error
$e(\hat{y}, y)$	$\llbracket \hat{y} \neq y \rrbracket$	$(\hat{y} - y)^2$	$\llbracket y=+1 \rrbracket \ln \frac{1}{\hat{y}}$ $+ \llbracket y=-1 \rrbracket \ln \frac{1}{1-\hat{y}}$
$E_{\text{train}}(h)$	$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \llbracket h(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}) \neq y^{(n)} \rrbracket$	$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (h(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}) - y^{(n)})^2$	$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \ln \left( 1 + e^{-y^{(n)} \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}^{(n)}} \right)$
training	combinatorial optimization (NP-hard)	set $\nabla E_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{w}) = 0$ (closed-form solution exists)	set $\nabla E_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{w}) = 0$ iterative optimization (e.g. gradient descent)

\* logistic sigmoid  $\theta(z) = 1/(1 + e^{-z})$

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Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Manifold Learning

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# Miscellaneous

- scalar  $a$ , vector  $\mathbf{a}$ , matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , tensor  $\mathbf{A}$
- element-wise product (aka  $\text{inner}$  product)

$$\mathbf{A} \odot \mathbf{B}$$

- **broadcasting**: implicit copying of a vector to many locations

e.g.  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{b}$

where  $C_{i,j} = A_{i,j} + b_j$  (*i.e.* vector  $\mathbf{b}$  is added to each row of matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ )

- $f = (\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ :  $f$  is a function of  $\mathbf{x}$  parameterized by  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$

▶ neural net parameters: weight and bias

- parameter vs hyperparameter

▶ learn by machine vs set by human

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**Information Theory**

Maximum Likelihood Estimation  
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# Information theory

- can quantify how much information is present in a signal
  - ▶ originally invented in communication
- *i.e.* send messages from discrete alphabets over a noisy channel

usage:

- communication
  - ▶ design optimal codes
  - ▶ calculate the expected length of messages sampled from specific probability distributions using various encoding scheme
- ML
  - ▶ characterize probability distributions
  - ▶ quantify \_\_\_\_\_ between them

# Basic intuition



- example:
  - ▶ “the sun rose this morning”: so uninformative  $\Rightarrow$  unnecessary to send
  - ▶ “a solar eclipse occurred this morning”: very informative
- we quantify information in a way that formalizes this intuition
  - ▶ certain events: no information content
  - ▶ likely events: low information content
  - ▶ less likely events: higher information content
  - ▶ independent events: additive information<sup>3</sup>

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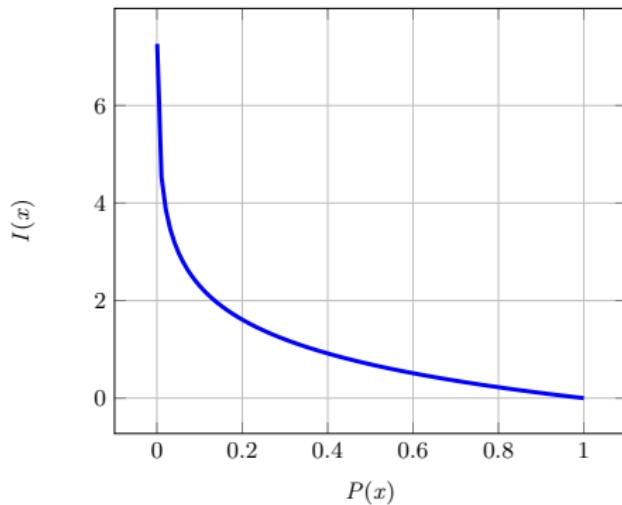
<sup>3</sup> e.g. finding out that a tossed coin has come up as heads twice should convey twice as much information as finding out that a tossed coin has come up as heads once

# Self-information

- to satisfy all these properties, we define **self-information** of an event  $x = x$  :

$$I(x) = -\log P(x)$$

- ▶ unit: **nats** (base  $e$ ) or \_\_\_\_ (base 2)



# Shannon entropy

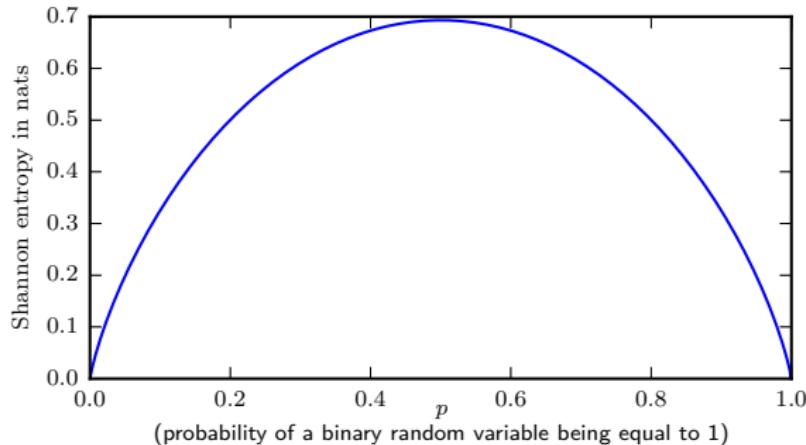
- self-information deals only with a **single outcome**
- **Shannon entropy** allows us to quantify
  - ▶ the amount of uncertainty in an **entire probability distribution**

$$H(x) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim P}[I(x)] = -\mathbb{E}_{x \sim P}[\log P(x)]$$

- $H(P)$ : Shannon entropy of a distribution  $P$ 
  - ▶ expected amount of information in an event drawn from  $P$
  - ▶ gives a *lower bound* on the *number of bits needed* on an average to encode symbols drawn from  $P$

- example: low vs high entropy Bernoulli distributions (parameter  $p$ )

- ▶ Shannon entropy:  $-(1 - p) \log(1 - p) - p \log p$



- ▶ low entropy: distributions that are nearly deterministic ( $p$ : near 0 or 1)
  - ▶ high entropy: distributions that are closer to uniform (max at  $p = 0.5$ )

Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence (relative entropy)

- assume: two separate probability distributions  $P(x)$  and  $Q(x)$
  - **KL divergence** can measure how different these two distributions are:

$$D_{\text{KL}}(\textcolor{blue}{P} \parallel \textcolor{red}{Q}) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \textcolor{blue}{P}} \left[ \log \frac{\textcolor{blue}{P}(x)}{\textcolor{red}{Q}(x)} \right] = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \textcolor{blue}{P}} [\log \textcolor{blue}{P}(x) - \log \textcolor{red}{Q}(x)] \\ = -H(\textcolor{blue}{P}) - \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \textcolor{blue}{P}} [\log \textcolor{red}{Q}(x)]$$

- for discrete variables:  $D_{\text{KL}}(P \parallel Q)$  gives

- ▶ amount of information needed to send a message  
contains symbols drawn from  $P$

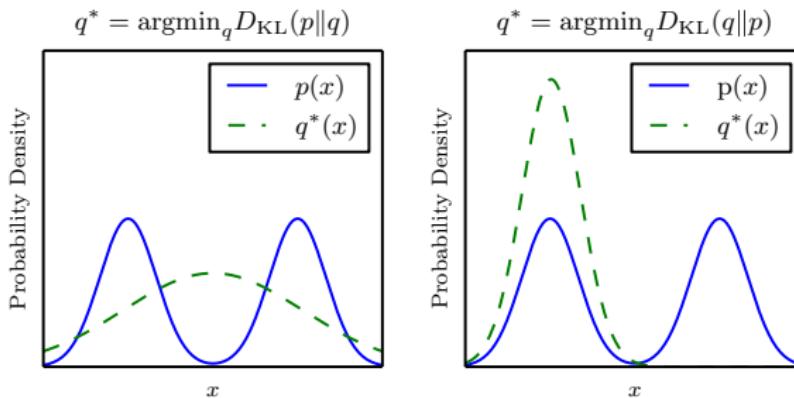
when using a code designed to minimize the length of messages

contain symbols drawn from *Q*

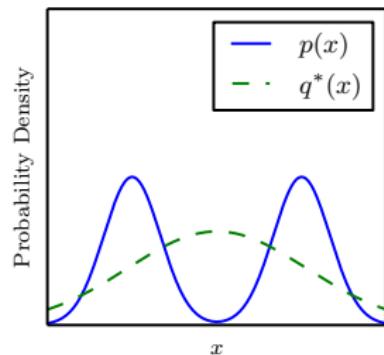
# Properties of KL divergence

- non-negative
- zero if and only if  $P$  and  $Q$  are
  - ▶ the same distribution (discrete variables)
  - ▶ equal “almost everywhere” (continuous variables)
- conceptualized as measuring distance between two distributions
- not symmetric:  $D_{\text{KL}}(P \parallel Q) \neq D_{\text{KL}}(Q \parallel P)$ 
  - ⇒ not a true distance measure

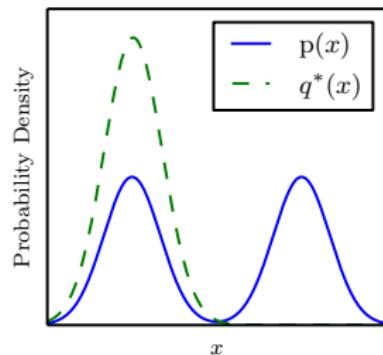
- task: approximate distribution  $\overbrace{p(x)}$  with distribution  $\overbrace{q(x)}$ 
    - dilemma: minimize  $D_{\text{KL}}(p \parallel q)$  or  $D_{\text{KL}}(q \parallel p)$ ?
  - choice:           -dependent
    - some apps require: high  $q(x)$  anywhere  $p(x)$  is high  $\Rightarrow \min D_{\text{KL}}(p \parallel q)$
    - others require: rarely high  $q(x)$  anywhere  $p(x)$  is low  $\Rightarrow \min D_{\text{KL}}(q \parallel p)$
- e.g.  $p$ : a mixture of two Gaussians,  $q$ : a single Gaussian



$$q^* = \operatorname{argmin}_q D_{\text{KL}}(p \| q)$$



$$q^* = \operatorname{argmin}_q D_{\text{KL}}(q \| p)$$



$p$ : truth, $q$ : approximation	$D_{\text{KL}}(p \  q)$	$D_{\text{KL}}(q \  p)$
names	forward inclusive	reverse exclusive
characterizing properties	mean-seeking zero avoiding	mode-seeking zero forcing
normalization wrt $p$ computation	required inconvenient	not required convenient

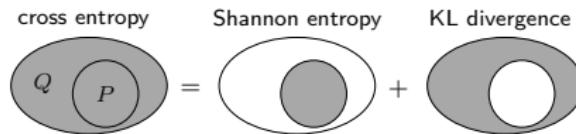
- ▶ more details: [▶ Link 1](#) [▶ Link 2](#)
- ▶ some generative models minimize  $D_{\text{KL}}(q \| p) \Rightarrow$  \_\_\_\_\_ issue

# Cross-entropy

- defined for two probability distributions  $P$  and  $Q$ :

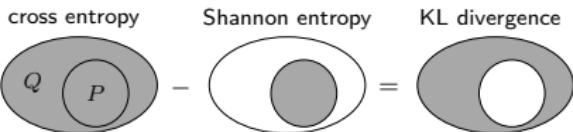
$$\begin{aligned} H(P, Q) &= H(P) + D_{\text{KL}}(P \parallel Q) \\ &= -\mathbb{E}_{x \sim P}[\log Q(x)] \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ closely related to KL divergence



- minimizing cross-entropy wrt  $Q$  = minimizing KL divergence
  - ▶ this is also related to **maximum** \_\_\_\_\_ estimation

# Comparison



- self information:

$$I(x) = -\log P(x)$$

- Shannon entropy:

- ▶ min # of bits per msg needed (on average) to encode events from  $P$

$$H(P) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim P}[I(x)] = -\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim P}[\log P(x)]$$

- KL divergence (relative entropy):

- ▶ expected # of extra bits per message to encode events from true  $P$  if using an optimal code for  $Q$  (rather than  $P$ )

$$D_{\text{KL}}(P \parallel Q) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim P} \left[ \log \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} \right] = -H(P) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim P}[\log Q(x)]$$

- cross entropy:

- ▶ expected # of total bits per message to encode events from true  $P$  if using an optimal code for  $Q$  (rather than  $P$ )

$$H(P, Q) = H(P) + D_{\text{KL}}(P \parallel Q) = -\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim P}[\log Q(x)]$$

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**Maximum Likelihood Estimation**

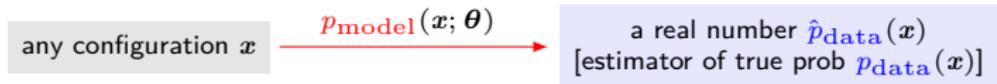
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# Maximum likelihood estimator

- consider a set of  $m$  examples  $\mathbb{X} = \{\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(m)}\}$ 
  - ▶ drawn independently from  $\underbrace{p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{the true but unknown } \_\!\_ \text{ distribution}}}$
- let  $p_{\text{model}}(\mathbf{x}; \theta)$  be a parametric family of  $\underbrace{\text{probability distributions}}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ (\text{over the same space as } p_{\text{data}}, \text{ indexed by } \theta)}}$



- maximum likelihood estimator for  $\theta$ :

$$\theta_{\text{ML}} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} p_{\text{model}}(\mathbb{X}; \theta) \quad (4)$$

$$= \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \prod_{i=1}^m p_{\text{model}}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}; \theta) \quad (5)$$

$$= \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \sum_{i=1}^m \log p_{\text{model}}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}; \theta) \quad (6)$$

$$= \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \log p_{\text{model}}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}; \theta)$$

$$= \boxed{\underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim \hat{p}_{\text{data}}} \log p_{\text{model}}(\mathbf{x}; \theta)} \quad (7)$$

(4)  $\rightarrow$  (5): from independence assumption

(5)  $\rightarrow$  (6): to get more convenient but equivalent optimization

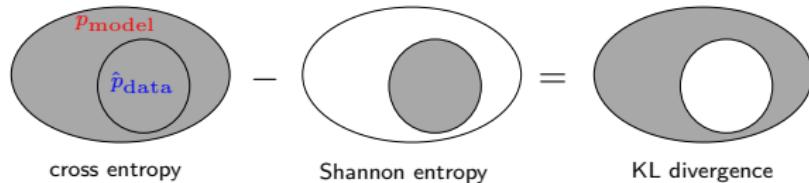
(6)  $\rightarrow$  (7): optimization criterion is expressed as an expectation

- ▶ wrt the empirical distribution  $\hat{p}_{\text{data}}$  defined by training data

# Interpretation

- MLE = minimizing the \_\_\_\_\_ between
  - ▶ empirical distribution  $\hat{p}_{\text{data}}$  (defined by training set), and
  - ▶ model distribution  $p_{\text{model}}$
- dissimilarity measure:
  - ▶ KL divergence (from  $p_{\text{model}}$  to  $\hat{p}_{\text{data}}$ )

$$\begin{aligned} D_{\text{KL}}(\hat{p}_{\text{data}} \parallel p_{\text{model}}) &= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim \hat{p}_{\text{data}}} [\log \hat{p}_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}) - \log p_{\text{model}}(\mathbf{x})] \\ &= \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim \hat{p}_{\text{data}}} [-\log p_{\text{model}}(\mathbf{x})]}_{H(\hat{p}_{\text{data}}, p_{\text{model}})} - \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim \hat{p}_{\text{data}}} [-\log \hat{p}_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})]}_{H(\hat{p}_{\text{data}})} \\ &\quad \text{cross entropy} \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{entropy} \end{aligned}$$



- entropy  $H(\hat{p}_{\text{data}})$ 
  - ▶ a function only of the data generating process, not the model
- this means when we train the model to minimize the KL divergence
  - ▶ we need only minimize
$$-\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim \hat{p}_{\text{data}}} [\log p_{\text{model}}(\mathbf{x})]$$
  - ▶ which is the same as the maximization in eq (7)
- minimizing this KL divergence
  - ≡ minimizing cross-entropy between the distributions

- any loss consisting of a negative log-likelihood (NLL)
  - ▶ is a \_\_\_\_\_ between
    - ▷ empirical distribution (defined by training set) and
    - ▷ probability distribution defined by model
- e.g. mean squared error: cross entropy between
  - ▷ empirical distribution and a Gaussian model

we can thus see maximum likelihood as an attempt to

- ▶ make model distribution match empirical distribution  $\hat{p}_{\text{data}}$

- ideally, we would like to match
  - ▶ true data-generating distribution  $p_{\text{data}}$
  - ▶ but have no direct access to this distribution

## Bottom line

maximum likelihood

- = minimization of negative log-likelihood (NLL)
- = minimization of cross entropy
- = minimization of KL divergence

- when maximizing likelihood or minimizing KL divergence
  - ▶ optimal  $\theta$  : the same
  - ▶ values of objective functions: different

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# Modeling assumptions

- to model  $p(x)$  given data, we should make some assumptions
  - ▶ "You can't do inference without making assumptions." (MacKay)

## 1. **smoothness** assumption

- ▶ points that are close each other are more likely to share a label

## 2. **cluster** assumption

- ▶ the data form discrete clusters; points in the same cluster are likely to share a label

manifold

=> high dimension에서 모든 공간에

uniform하게 분포하지 않고 보통 특정 주변에

## 3. **manifold** assumption

존재하는 특징

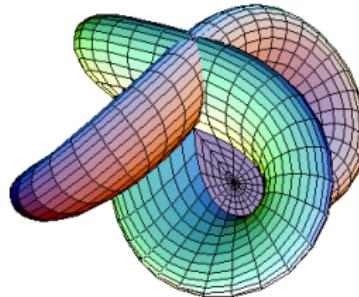
- ▶ the data lie on a **manifold of much lower dimension** than input space

high dimension input

=> 중요한 점을 갖는 lower  
dimension input으로 바꿈

# A manifold

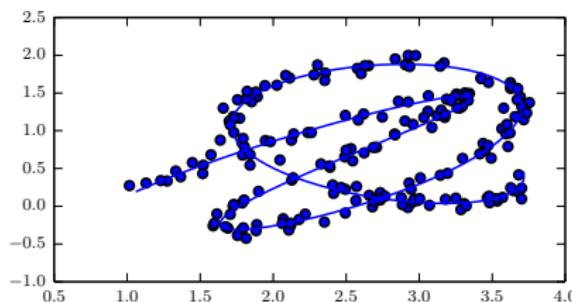
- refers to a connected region
- mathematically
  - ▶ a set of points, associated with a neighborhood around each point



- in everyday life
  - ▶ we experience the surface of the world as a 2D plane
  - ▶ but it is in fact a manifold in 3D space

# Manifold in ML context

- the term “manifold” tends to be used more loosely
  - a manifold in ML: designates a connected set of points
    - ▶ that can be approximated well by only a small number of degrees of freedom/dimensions embedded in a higher-dimensional space
    - ▶ each dimension = a local direction of variation
- e.g. training data lie near a 1D manifold embedded in 2D space



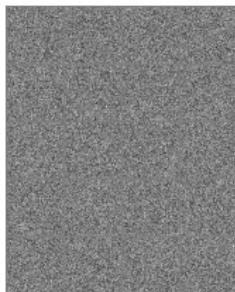
solid line: underlying  
the learner should infer

# Evidence #1 for manifold assumption

images, texts, sounds 등의 real media는 uniform이 아니라 편중되어있음

probability distribution over real images/texts/sounds: highly

- random image/text/sound (uniform noise)
  - ▶ essentially never resemble structured inputs from these domains



random image  
(uniformly sampled pixels)

alskdfjljl;sdafjld;l  
1409ul,msf 3 4-0i24-  
0;lweft lk w e-92  
3pkjwf v`23-  
qeg;rmsfPIOUJ V 23P042  
;LMFA., 32- 2  
3elk23p;om ;34

random text  
(uniformly sampled letters)

- real image/text/sound => 극히 편중되어있음
  - ▶ occupy a **negligible proportion** of volume of image/text/sound space

## Evidence #2 for manifold assumption

given a real-world example, we can imagine highly similar examples

e.g. given an image, we can gradually

- ▶ dim/brighten the lights
- ▶ move/rotate objects in the image
- ▶ alter the colors on the surfaces of objects
- ⇒ corresponds to tracing out a manifold in image space

• this helps to establish:

- ▶ the examples we encounter: connected to each other by other examples
- ▶ similar examples: reached by transformations to traverse the manifold

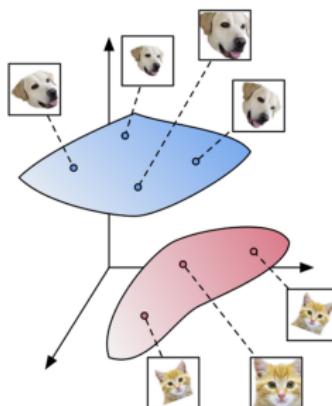
# Manifold learning

=> highly concentrated한 manifold를 찾아야 함

- ML problems seem hopeless
  - ▶ if want to learn functions with interesting variations across all of  $\mathbb{R}^n$
- **manifold learning** algorithms surmount this obstacle by assuming
  - (1) most of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  consists of **invalid** inputs, and
  - (2) interesting inputs occur only along a **collection of manifolds**

=> manifold 내부의 이동이나 manifold간의 이동에 관심이 있음

=> manifold는 전체 데이터 중 극히 일부에 존재



(source: Chung)

- these manifolds contain a small subset of points
  - ▶ interesting variations in the output of the learned function
    - ▷ occur only along directions that lie on manifold, or
    - ▷ happen only when we move from one manifold to another
- key idea: probability concentration

# Extracting manifold coordinates

when the data lies on a low-dimensional manifold:

- it can be most natural for ML algorithms to represent the data
  - ▶ in terms of coordinates on the manifold (not in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ )
- e.g. roads: viewed as 1D manifolds embedded in 3D space
  - ⇒ we give directions in terms of 1D addresses (not 3D coordinates)
- extracting these manifold coordinates:
  - ▶ challenging but promising to improve many ML algorithms

2D manifold  
corresponding to two  
angles of rotation



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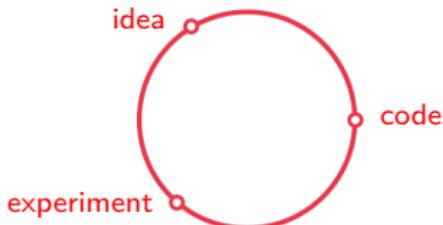
Summary

# Motivation

- deep learning

코딩 => 실험 => 재코딩...

- ▶ highly iterative process



- many knobs to tweak

- ▶ data, metric, optimizer, regularizer, hyperparameters/architecture, ...



- how to accelerate this iterative process?
  - ▶ before autoML comes on earth

# Data breakdown

generalization performance가 궁극적인 목표

train: train을 위한 data

dev: validation을 위한 data

test: generalization performance를 approximate

big data의 경우 dev와 test의 비율을 줄여도 충분히 많음

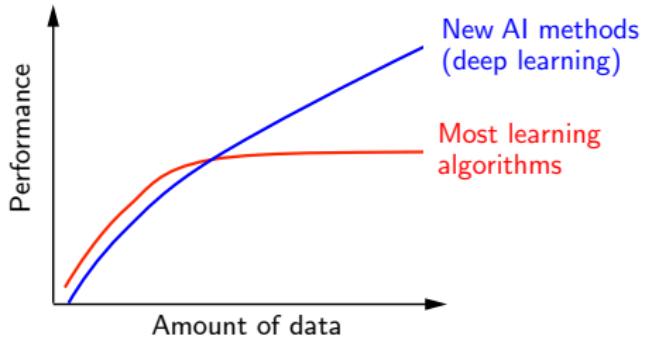
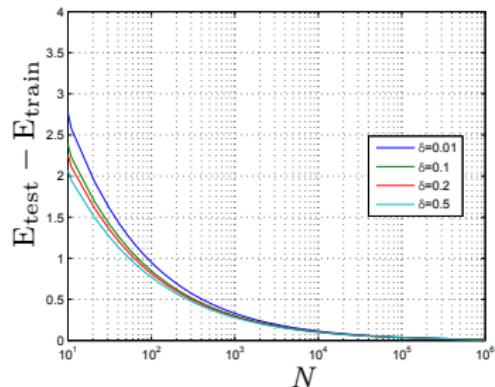
- small data ( $n \approx 100\text{-}10,000$ ):



- big data ( $n \approx 1,000,000$ ):



# Power of big data



- as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ 
  - ▶  $E_{\text{out}} - E_{\text{in}} \rightarrow 0$  regardless of model/statistical confidence<sup>4</sup>
  - ▶ performance generally improves

<sup>4</sup>  $\delta$  in left plot

# How much data?

- highly dependent on each problems
- a rough rule of thumb (Goodfellow et al., 2016):
  - ▶ 5000 labeled examples per category
    - ▷ to achieve acceptable performance by supervised deep learning
  - ▶ at least 10 million labeled examples
    - ▷ to match/exceed human performance
- active research areas
  - ▶ pre-training and/or transfer learning
  - ▶ un/semi-supervised learning to use unlabeled data

# When you do not have enough data

1. data augmentation 작은 변형을 통해 새로운 데이터를 만들어내는 효과

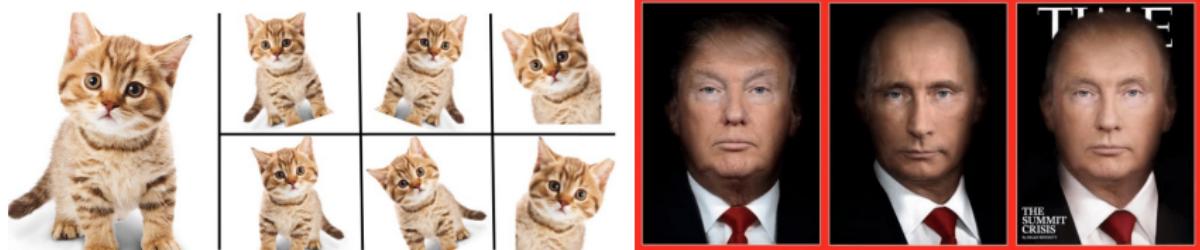
- ▶ rotation, noise, translation

2. simulation simulation  
=> 답이 있는 문제의 경우 실제로 simulate해봄

- ▶ AlphaGo Zero

3. generation => 답이 없지만 비슷한 상황을 만들어서 train

- ▶ generative adversarial net (GAN)

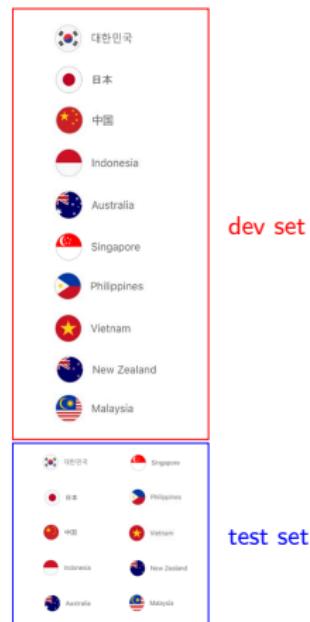


# Match data distributions

dev set과 test set의 data distribution이 같을수록 좋음

xpnt dev distr  $\neq$  test distr

- dev distr  $\approx$  test distr (better)



# Orthogonalization

어떤 기능을 위해서는 combination이 아니라  
independent한 (= orthogonal knobs)  
것이어야 함(simple)



(source: Porsche)

- :( to open window, press 0.3 of bttn 1 + 0.2 of bttn 2 + 0.5 of bttn 3
  - : just press bttn open
- ▶ orthogonal knobs → more effective control

- orthogonalization in training ML models

desired task	if you fail, try the following:	
	(orthogonal knob)	(less orthogonal knob)
fit train set well	bigger network better optimizer	early stopping
fit dev set well	regularization bigger training set	
fit test set well	bigger dev set	
perform well in real world	change dev set change cost function	

- early stopping (terminating training prematurely)
  - affects both training and validation performance  $\Rightarrow$  less orthogonal
  - sometimes not recommended in deep learning training

# Choosing a metric

- using a single real number evaluation metric
  - ▶ clear objective  $\Rightarrow$  can speed up the iterative process
- **optimizing** and **satisficing** metrics
  - ▶  $M$  metrics  $\Rightarrow$  1 optimizing metric +  $(M - 1)$  satisficing metrics
  - ▶ example
    - optimizing: 최적화할 요소
    - satisficing: 상수로 놓을 요소(minimum 설정)

classifier	accuracy	runtime
A	90%	80ms
B	92%	95ms
C	95%	1,500ms

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{maximize} && \overbrace{\text{accuracy}}^{\text{optimizing metric}} \\ & \text{s.t.} && \underbrace{\text{runtime}}_{\text{satisficing metric}} \leq 100\text{ms} \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow$  optimal: B

# Setting (and adjusting) a target

- learning target: set by a metric + dev/test sets
  - ▶ bullets: shot by training sets

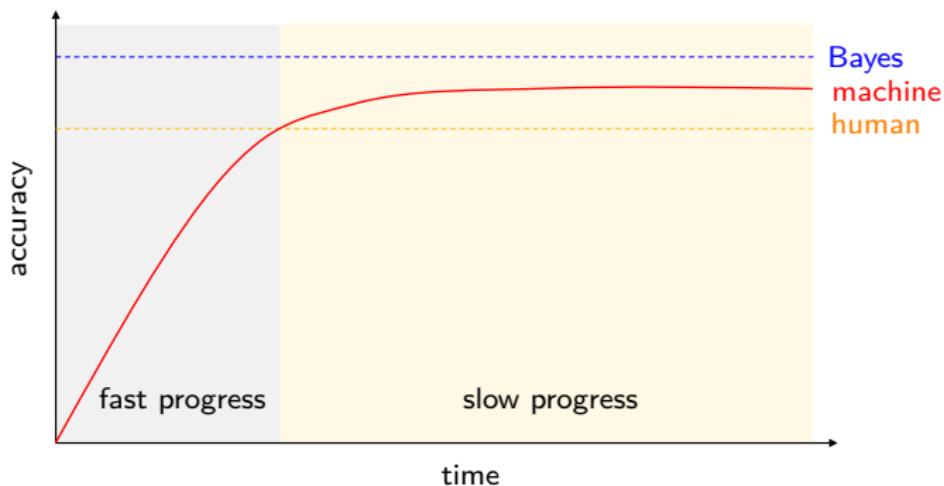


- change your metric and/or dev/test sets
  - ▶ if you experience bad generalization  
(*i.e.* have low test error but cannot handle new inputs well)

generalization이 실패하면  
metric이나  
train/dev/test set을 변경해야함

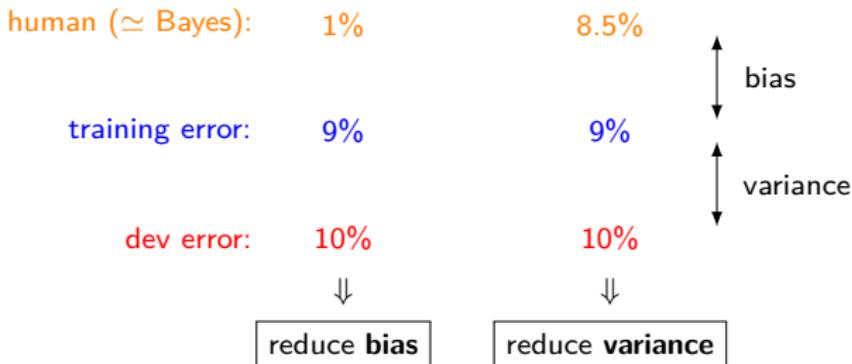
# Referencing human-level performance

- bayes error (irreducible error): lowest possible error
- human error
  - ▶ often close to Bayes error (especially for natural perception tasks)
  - ⇒ used as a proxy for Bayes error ⇒ target for ML



- when ML performance < human performance: tools exist
  - ▶ more labeled data from humans
  - ▶ manual error analysis (why did humans get things right?)
  - ▶ better bias-variance analysis
- when ML performance > human performance:
  - ▶ the above tools no longer useful
  - ▶ more difficult to improve machine learning

# Bias-variance analysis



- reducing bias

bias 줄이기 =>  
complexity를 늘린다  
optimizer를 좋은거 쓴다

- ▶ more complex model, longer training, better optimization
- ▶ better hyperparameter/architecture

- reducing variance

variance 줄이기 =>  
more data  
regularization

- ▶ more data, regularization
- ▶ better hyperparameter/architecture

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# Summary

- deep learning: hierarchical representation learning
  - ▶ driving forces: big data, parallel hw (GPU), advanced algorithms
- machine learning: learn from data to achieve generalization
  - ▶ objectives: making  $E_{\text{test}} \simeq E_{\text{train}}$  + making  $E_{\text{train}} \simeq 0$
  - ▶ challenge: approximation-generalization or bias-variance tradeoff
  - ▶ weapons: big data, optimization, regularization
  - ▶ example: linear models for classification/regression/prob estimation
- data sets: train/dev/test
  - ▶ breakdown in big data era: train/dev/test  $\simeq 98\%/1\%/1\%$
  - ▶ handling data scarcity: data augmentation, simulation, generation
- machine learning strategy: needed to accelerate iterative process
  - ▶ orthogonalization, optimizing/satisficing metrics, bias-variance analysis