

Fundamentals / Foundation

Data Science 9CFU Computer Science 6CFU

of Data Science

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From Manual Features to Learned Representations

In traditional machine learning (e.g., SVMs, Logistic Regression), the model's performance depends entirely on the quality of the input features.

Human's Job: A domain expert must manually engineer features from the raw data.

Example (Spam Detection):

- **Raw Data:** "Buy Viagra now for cheap!!!"
- **Manual Features:**
 - contains_word_"viagra" = 1
 - number_of_exclamation_points = 3
 - uses_all_caps = 1
 - contains_word_"cheap" = 1

Problem: This is time-consuming, requires expert knowledge, and is brittle. What if we miss the most important features?

Representation Learning

This is the core paradigm shift.

- **Definition:** Representation Learning is a set of techniques that allows a model to **automatically learn the most useful features (or "representations")** directly from the raw data.
- **Goal:** Instead of a human hand-crafting features, the model *discovers* the optimal way to represent the data to best accomplish the task (e.g., classification or regression).

Deep Learning

Deep Learning is the most powerful and popular method for representation learning.

- **Definition:** Deep learning uses a **hierarchy of layers** to learn multiple levels of representation at increasing levels of complexity.
- **The Hierarchy:** The model doesn't learn everything at once. It builds complex concepts from simpler ones, layer by layer.

Image Recognition

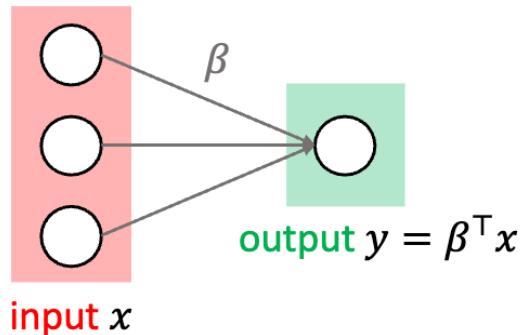
Imagine a deep neural network learning to recognize a face:

- **Layer 1 (Low-Level):** Learns to "see" simple features like **edges**, **corners**, and **colors** from raw pixels.
- **Layer 2 (Mid-Level):** Learns to **combine edges** to form simple **shapes** and **textures** (e.g., an "oval," a "line," a "patch of skin").
- **Layer 3 (High-Level):** Learns to **combine shapes** to form "**object parts**" (e.g., an "eye," a "nose," a "mouth").
- **Final Layer (Abstract):** Learns to **combine the parts** into the final, abstract concept of a "**face**."

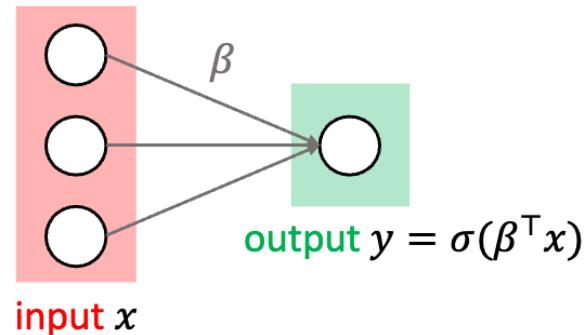
A Unifying View

Linear transformation of input features followed by an activation function

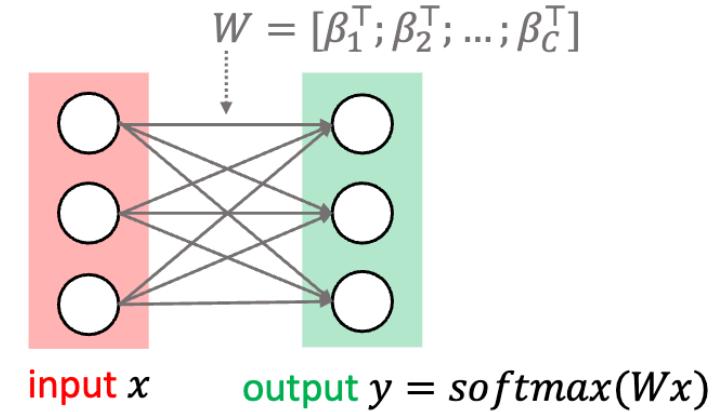
Linear Regression



Binary Classification

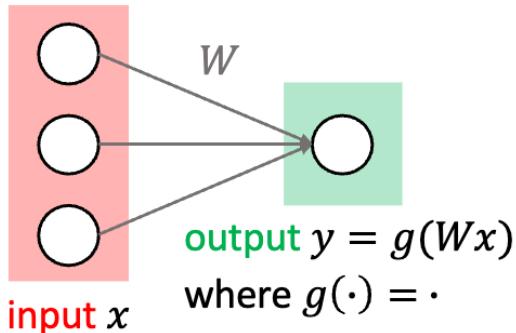


Multi-Class Classification

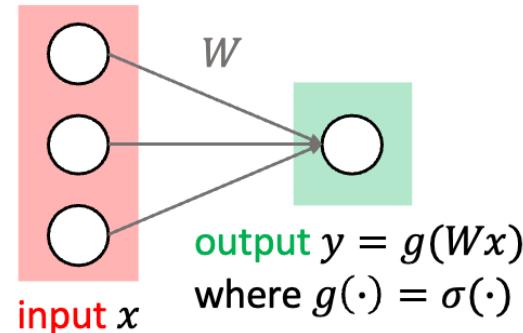


Linear transformation of input features (Wx) followed by an activation function $g(\cdot)$

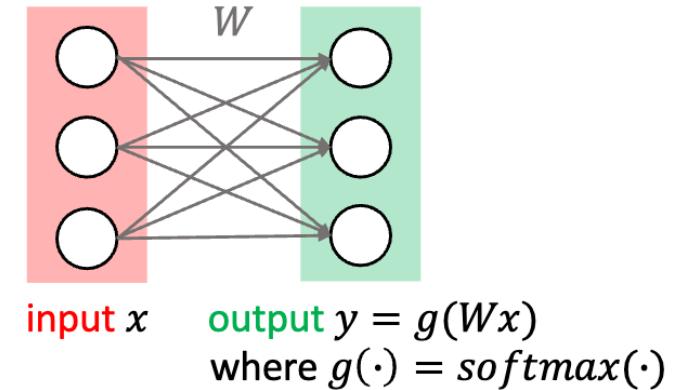
Linear Regression



Binary Classification



Multi-Class Classification



$W \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times D}$ where D is the input dimension and C is the output dimension.

History

1943: Perceptron model (McCulloch & Pitts)

- Intended as theoretical model of biological neurons

1969: Perceptrons cannot learn XOR (Minsky & Papert)

- Highly controversial (may have helped cause “AI winter”)

1997: Long Short-term Memory Networks (Hochreiter, Schmidhuber)

- This breakthrough enabled models to effectively learn from long sequences

1998: Convolutional neural networks for MNIST (Lecun)

- Human-level performance on handwritten digit recognition

Modern History

2012: ImageNet breakthrough (Krizhevsky, Sutskever, & Hinton)
Reduced error on image classification by 50%

2017: Transformer architecture (Vaswani et al.)

2018: Turing award (Bengio, Hinton, & Lecun)

2018: Improving Language Understanding by Generative Pre-Training
(OpenAI)

2019: Language Models are Unsupervised Multitask Learners
(OpenAI)

2020: Language Models are Few-Shot Learners (OpenAI)

Now and the Future

The Nobel Prize in Chemistry 2024 (Barker, Hassabis, Jumper)

The Nobel Prize in Physics 2024 (Hopfield, Hinton)

Generative AI & LLMs

Why Do We Need Non-Linear Activation Functions?

Deep learning is powerful because it builds **complex, non-linear models**.  The **activation function** is what makes this possible.

Let's build a multi-layer network **using only linear operations**.

3-Layer Linear Network

$$y = W_3(W_2(W_1x)) = (W_3W_2W_1)x = W_{\text{stacked}}x$$

“deep” stack of **linear layers** is **mathematically equivalent** to a single linear layer.

Loss Functions & Capacity

Same principles as in single-layer models

Regression:

- *Mean Squared Error (MSE)*

Classification:

- *Binary Classification: Binary Cross-Entropy (BCE)*
- *Multi-Class Classification: Cross-Entropy (CE)*

Model Capacity

Capacity of a feed-forward neural network is affected by both:

- Depth: number of hidden layers
- Width: number of neurons in each hidden layer

More neurons = more capacity

Optimization

Backpropagation

The core algorithm for training neural networks.

It's a direct application of the **chain rule** from calculus.

- Computes the error at the final layer.
- Propagates this error signal **backward**, one layer at a time.
- **Modern Practice:** You don't do this by hand!
 - Modern frameworks (PyTorch, Jax) handle it automatically using Automatic Differentiation (Autodiff).

Example shallow network

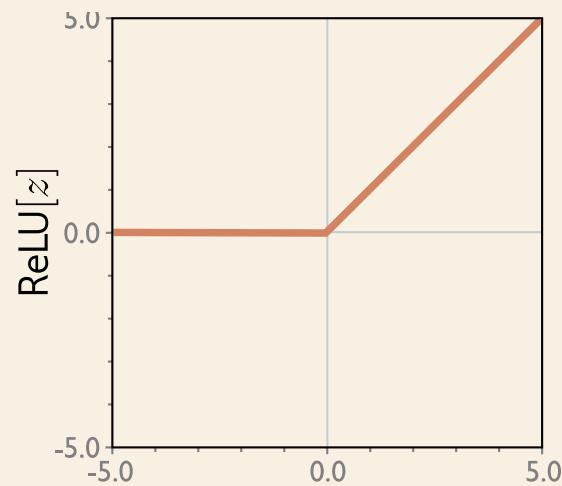
$$y = f[x, \phi]$$

$$= \phi_0 + \phi_1 a[\theta_{10} + \theta_{11}x] + \phi_2 a[\theta_{20} + \theta_{21}x] + \phi_3 a[\theta_{30} + \theta_{31}x]$$

Activation function

$$a[z] = \text{ReLU}[z] = \begin{cases} 0 & z < 0 \\ z & z \geq 0 \end{cases}.$$

Rectified Linear Unit



Example shallow network

$$\begin{aligned}y &= f[x, \phi] \\&= \phi_0 + \phi_1 a[\theta_{10} + \theta_{11}x] + \phi_2 a[\theta_{20} + \theta_{21}x] + \phi_3 a[\theta_{30} + \theta_{31}x]\end{aligned}$$

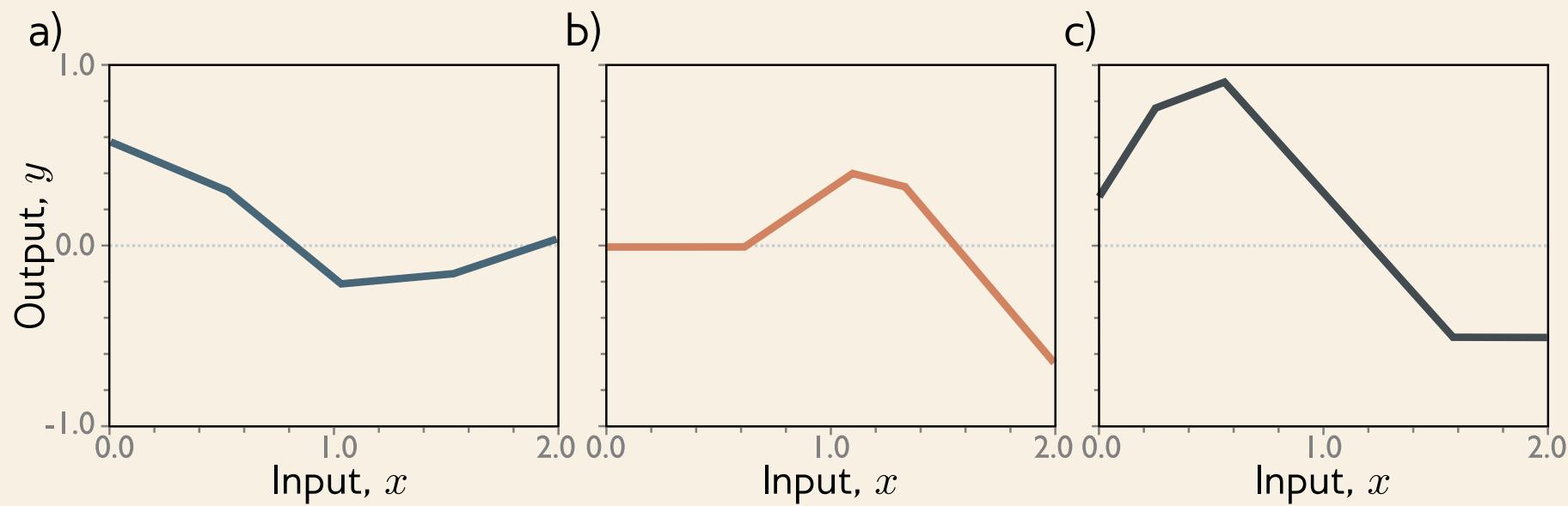
This model has 10 parameters:

$$\phi = \{\phi_0, \phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \theta_{10}, \theta_{11}, \theta_{20}, \theta_{21}, \theta_{30}, \theta_{31}\}$$

- Represents a family of functions
- Parameters determine particular function
- Given parameters can perform inference (run equation)
- Given training dataset $\{\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i\}_{i=1}^I$
- Define loss function $L[\phi]$ (least squares)
- Change parameters to minimize loss function

Example shallow network

$$y = \phi_0 + \phi_1 a[\theta_{10} + \theta_{11}x] + \phi_2 a[\theta_{20} + \theta_{21}x] + \phi_3 a[\theta_{30} + \theta_{31}x].$$



Piecewise linear functions with three joints

Hidden units

$$y = \phi_0 + \phi_1 a[\theta_{10} + \theta_{11}x] + \phi_2 a[\theta_{20} + \theta_{21}x] + \phi_3 a[\theta_{30} + \theta_{31}x].$$

Break down into two parts:

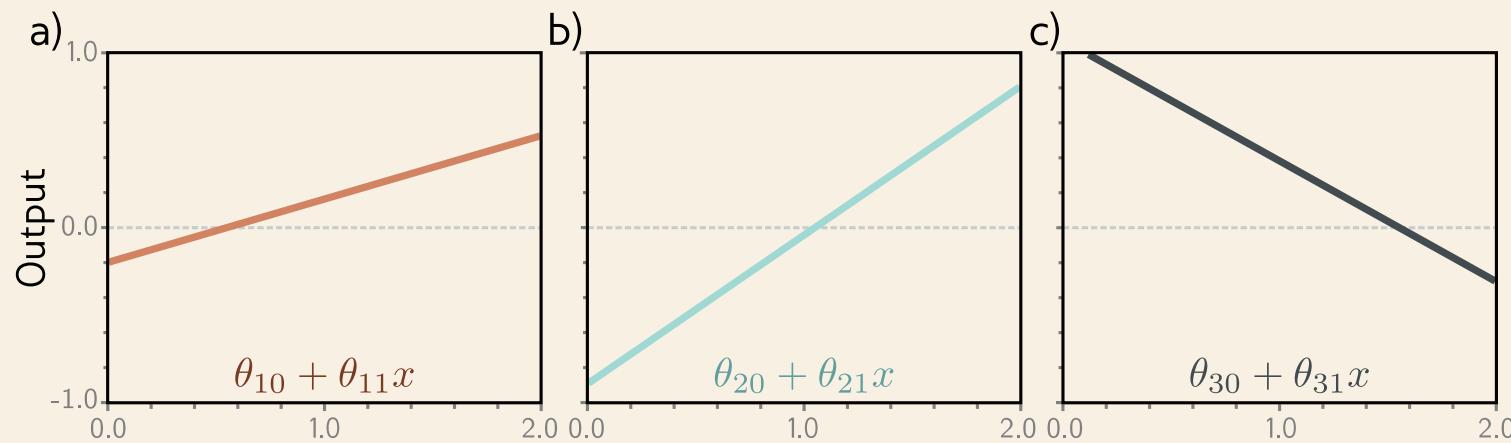
$$y = \phi_0 + \phi_1 h_1 + \phi_2 h_2 + \phi_3 h_3$$

where:

Hidden units

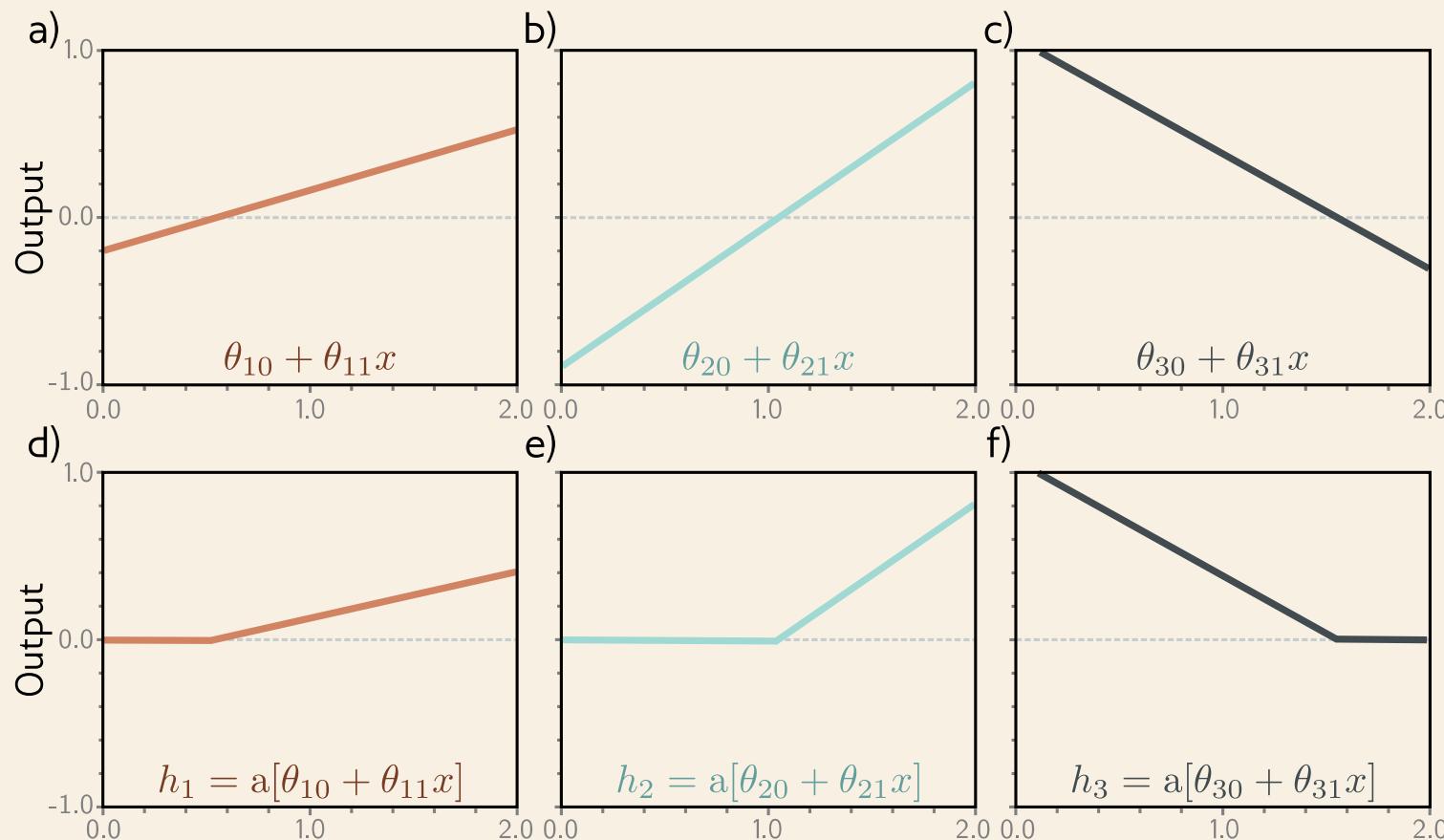
$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} h_1 = a[\theta_{10} + \theta_{11}x] \\ h_2 = a[\theta_{20} + \theta_{21}x] \\ h_3 = a[\theta_{30} + \theta_{31}x] \end{array} \right.$$

1. compute three
linear functions

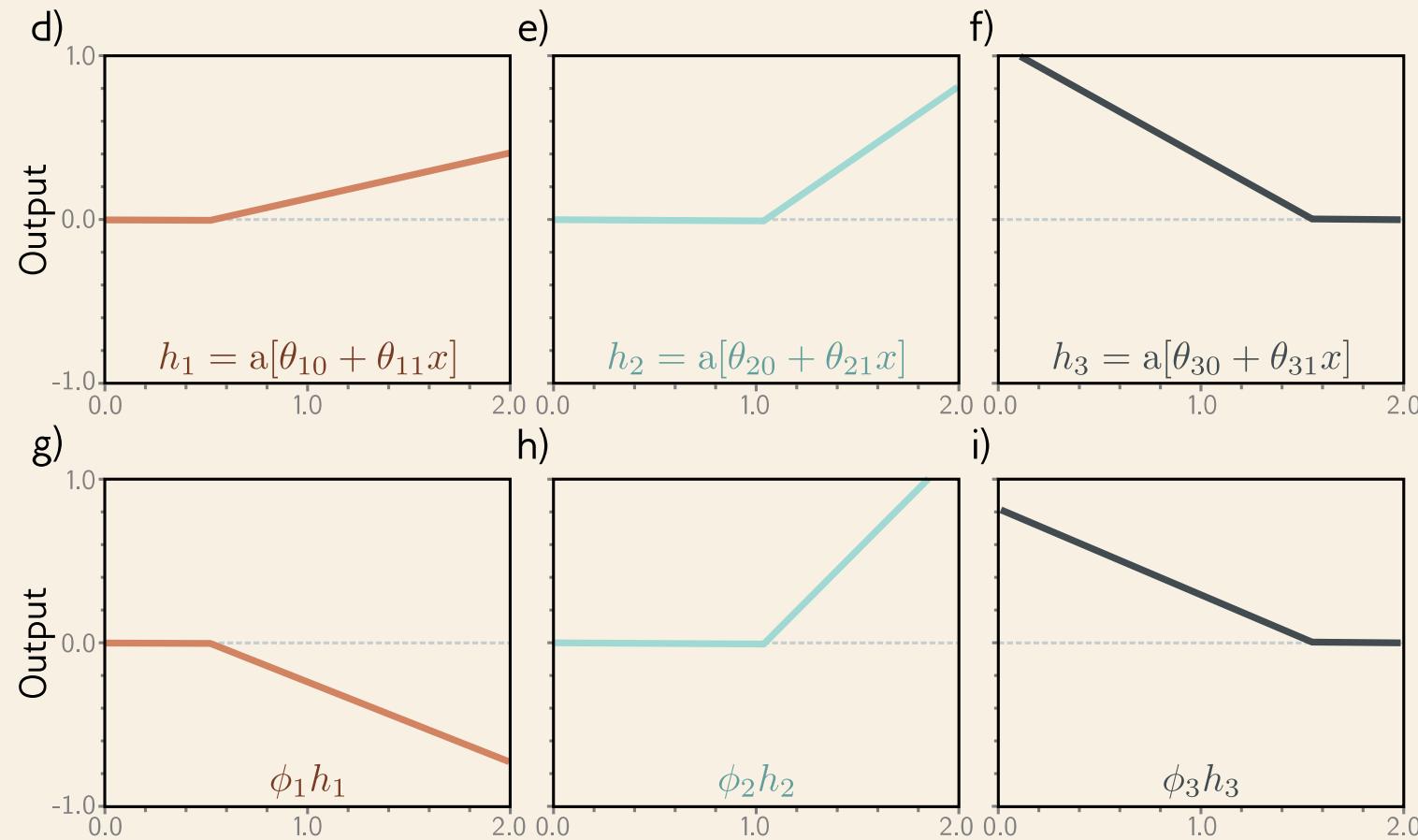


2. Pass through ReLU functions (creates hidden units)

$$h_1 = a[\theta_{10} + \theta_{11}x]$$
$$h_2 = a[\theta_{20} + \theta_{21}x]$$
$$h_3 = a[\theta_{30} + \theta_{31}x],$$

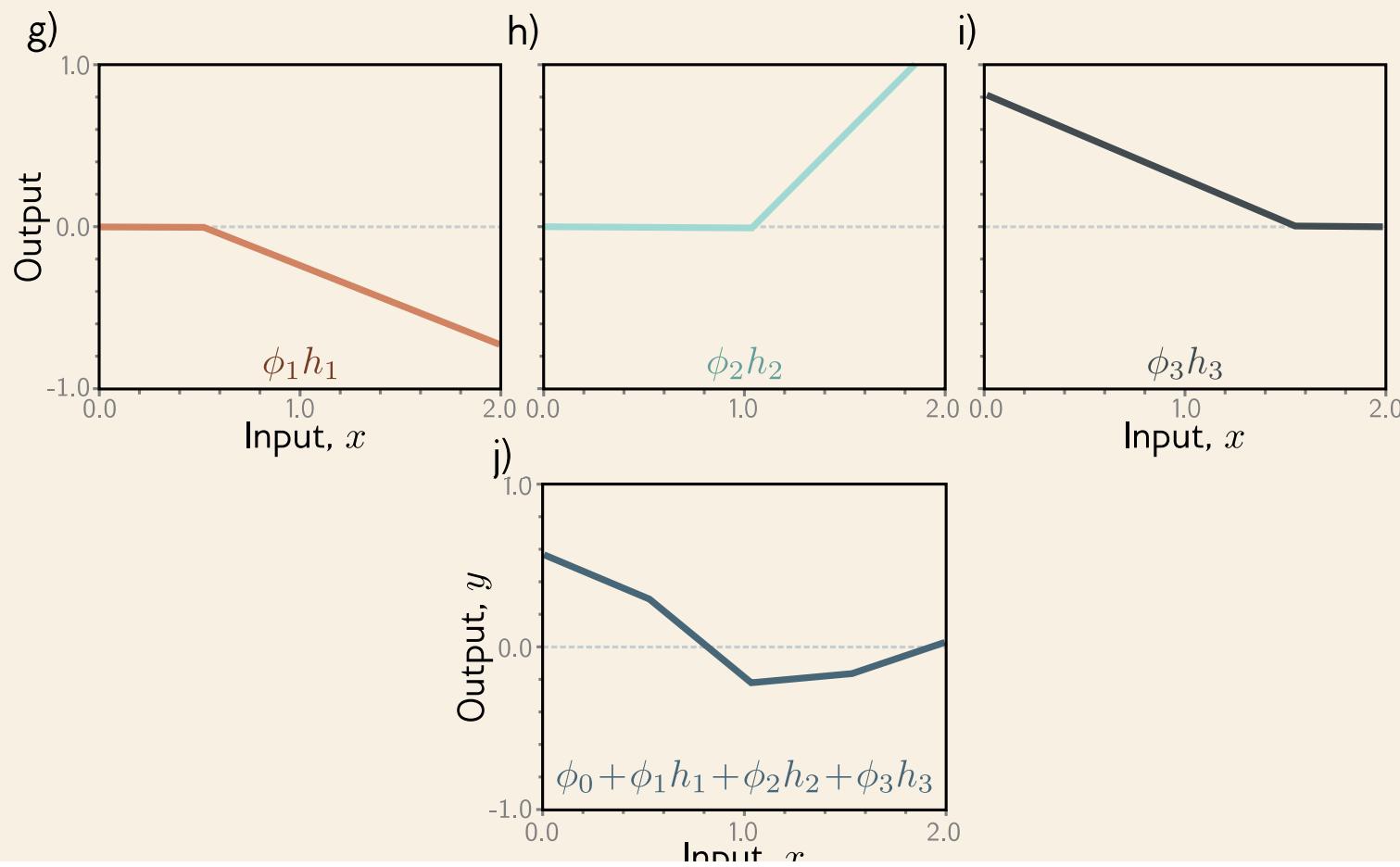


3. Weight the hidden units



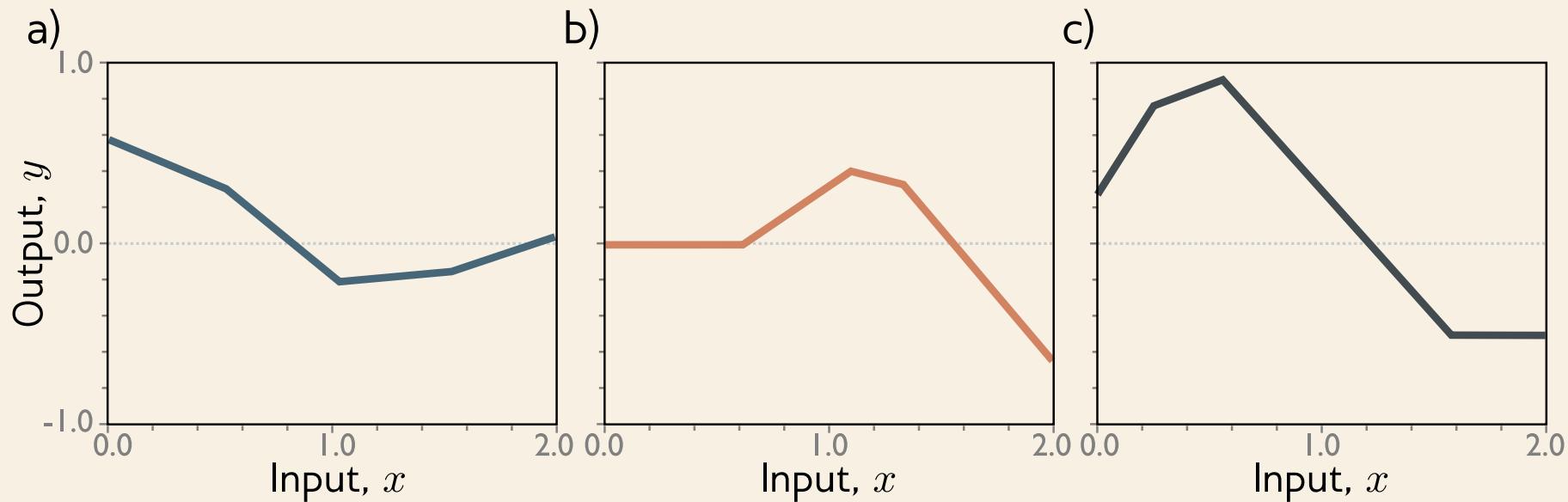
4. Sum the weighted hidden units to create output

$$y = \phi_0 + \phi_1 h_1 + \phi_2 h_2 + \phi_3 h_3$$



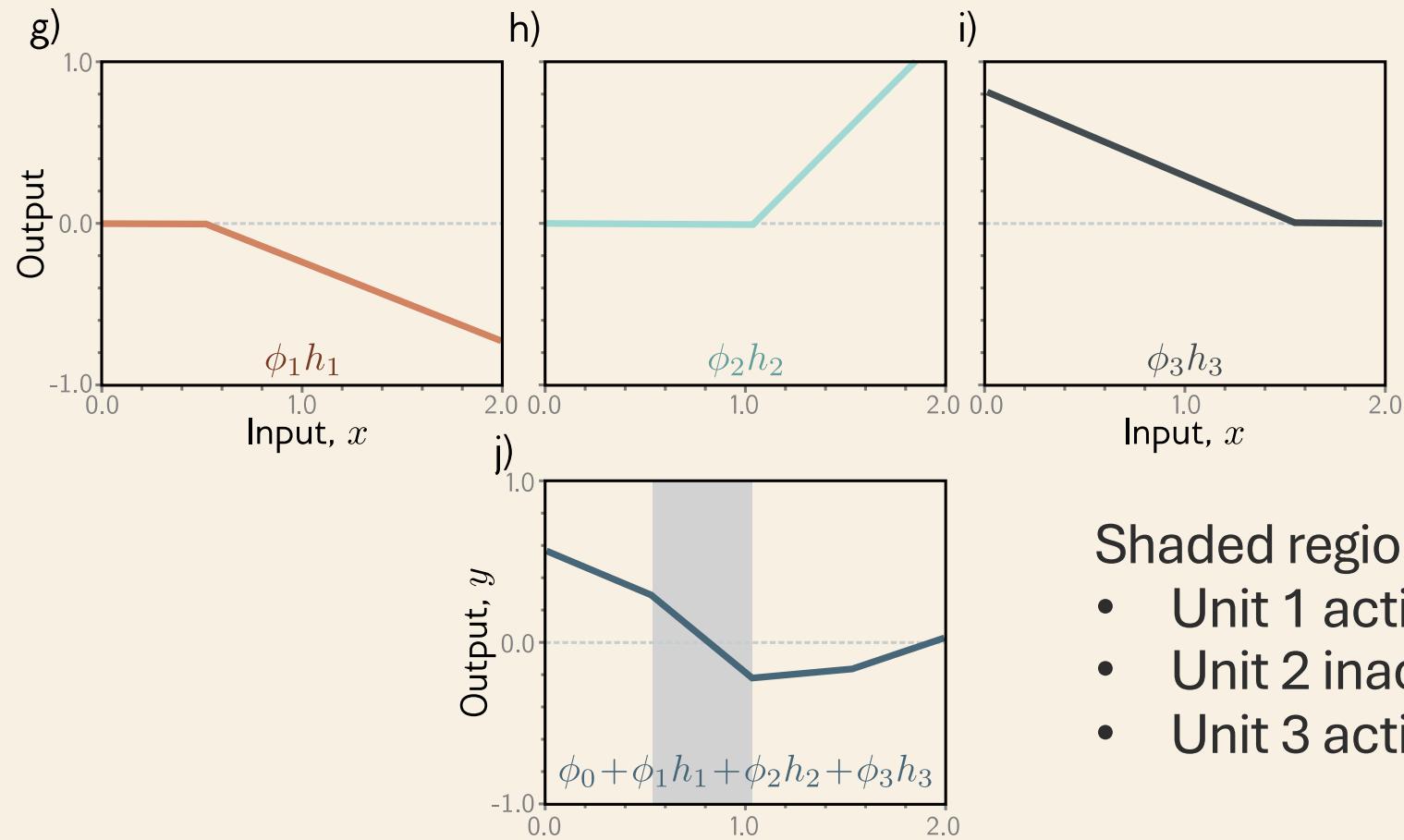
Example shallow network

$$y = \phi_0 + \phi_1 a[\theta_{10} + \theta_{11}x] + \phi_2 a[\theta_{20} + \theta_{21}x] + \phi_3 a[\theta_{30} + \theta_{31}x].$$



Example shallow network = piecewise linear functions
1 “joint” per ReLU function

Activation pattern = which hidden units are activated



- Shaded region:
- Unit 1 active
 - Unit 2 inactive
 - Unit 3 active

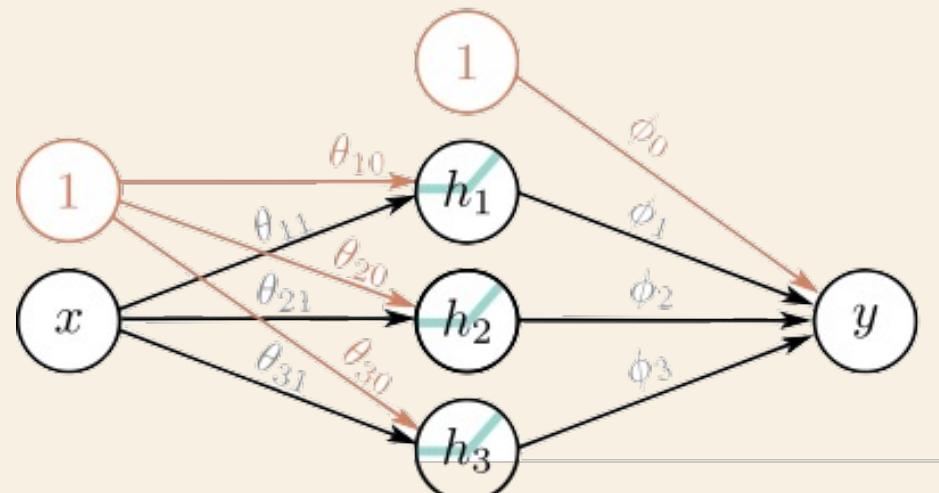
Depicting neural networks

$$h_1 = a[\theta_{10} + \theta_{11}x]$$

$$h_2 = a[\theta_{20} + \theta_{21}x]$$

$$h_3 = a[\theta_{30} + \theta_{31}x]$$

$$y = \phi_0 + \phi_1 h_1 + \phi_2 h_2 + \phi_3 h_3$$



Each parameter multiplies its source and adds to its target

Depicting neural networks

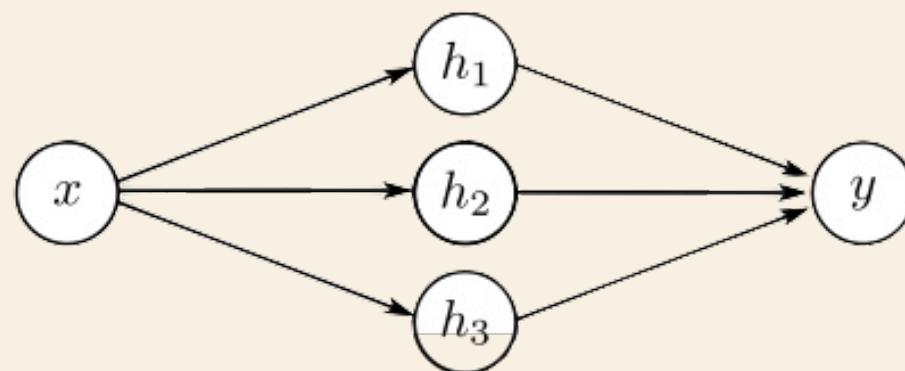
$$h_1 = a[\theta_{10} + \theta_{11}x]$$

$$h_2 = a[\theta_{20} + \theta_{21}x]$$

$$h_3 = a[\theta_{30} + \theta_{31}x]$$

$$y = \phi_0 + \phi_1 h_1 + \phi_2 h_2 + \phi_3 h_3$$

b)



With 3 hidden units:

$$h_1 = a[\theta_{10} + \theta_{11}x]$$

$$h_2 = a[\theta_{20} + \theta_{21}x]$$

$$h_3 = a[\theta_{30} + \theta_{31}x]$$

$$y = \phi_0 + \phi_1 h_1 + \phi_2 h_2 + \phi_3 h_3$$

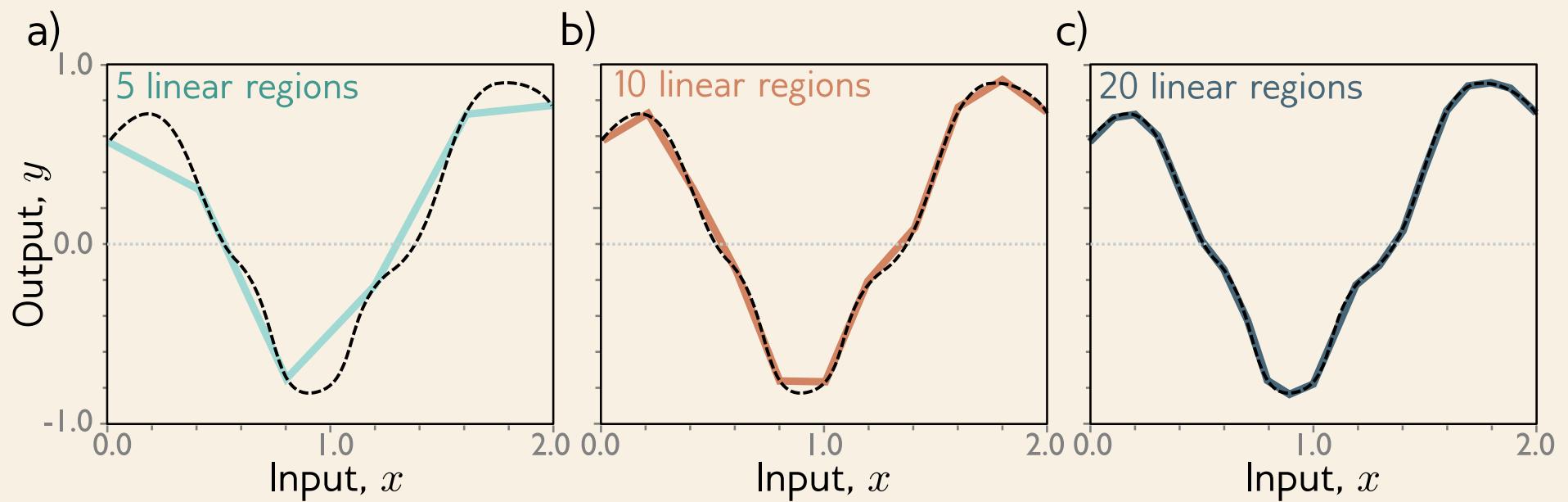
With D hidden units:

$$h_d = a[\theta_{d0} + \theta_{d1}x]$$

$$y = \phi_0 + \sum_{d=1}^D \phi_d h_d$$

With enough hidden units...

... we can describe any 1D function to arbitrary accuracy



Universal approximation theorem

“a formal proof that, with enough hidden units, a shallow neural network can describe any continuous function on a compact subset of \mathbb{R}^D to arbitrary precision”

Two outputs

- 1 input, 4 hidden units, 2 outputs

$$h_1 = a[\theta_{10} + \theta_{11}x]$$

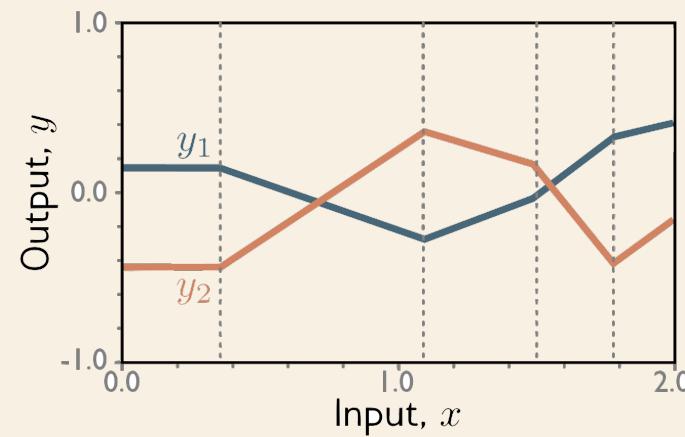
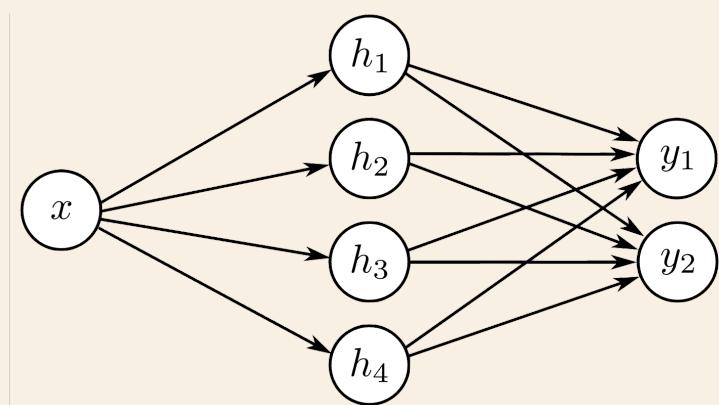
$$h_2 = a[\theta_{20} + \theta_{21}x]$$

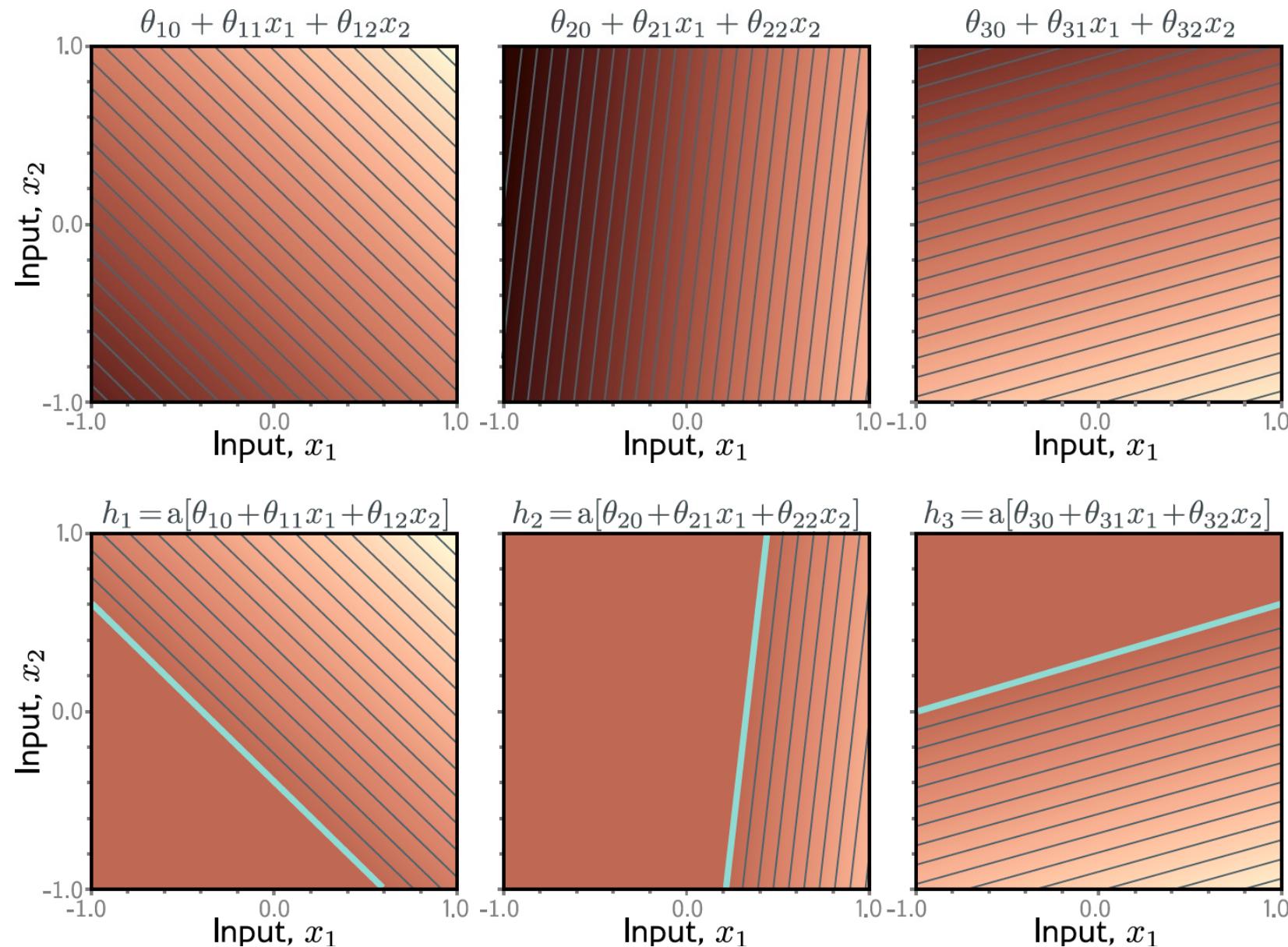
$$h_3 = a[\theta_{30} + \theta_{31}x]$$

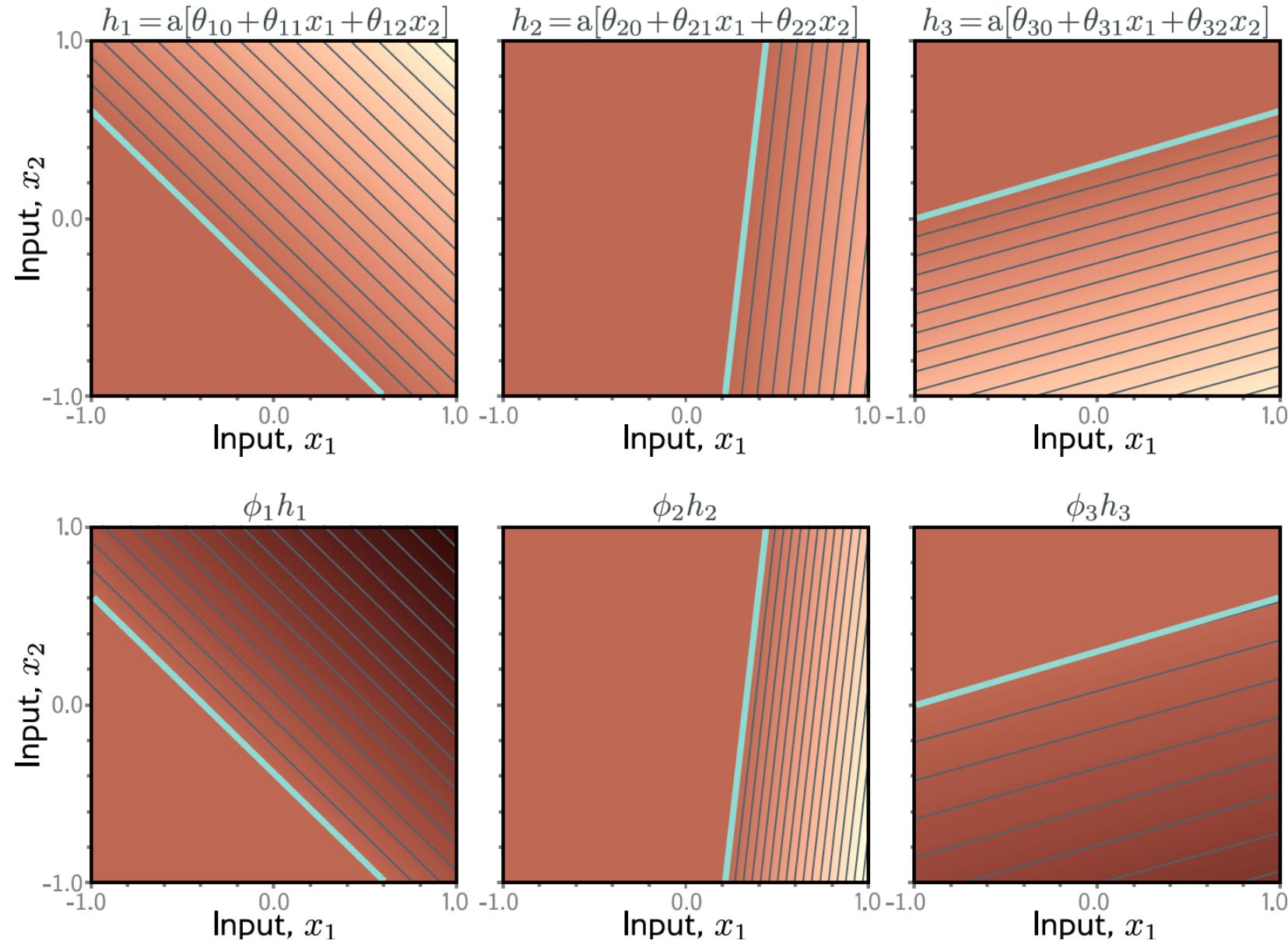
$$h_4 = a[\theta_{40} + \theta_{41}x]$$

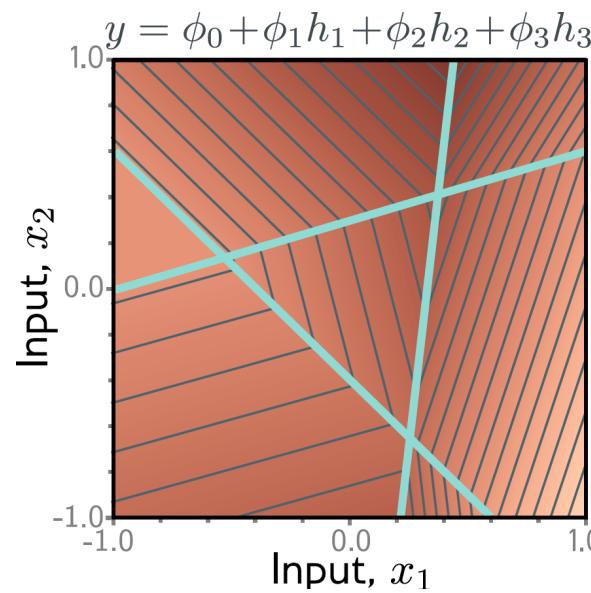
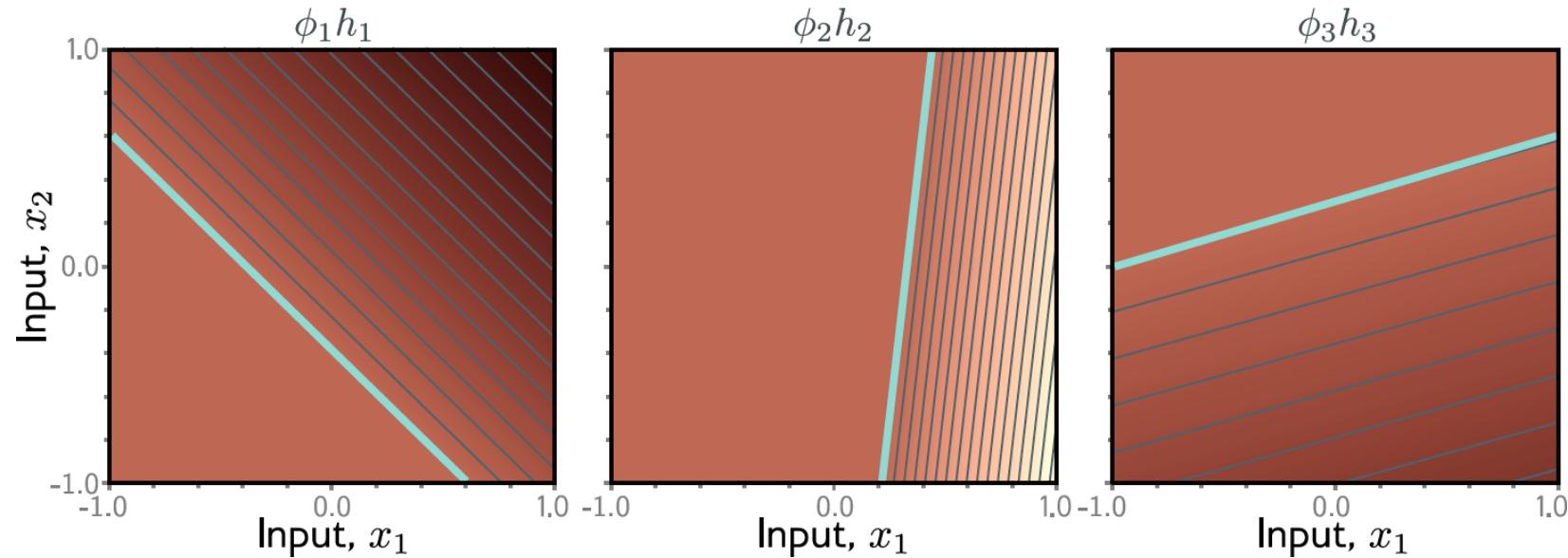
$$y_1 = \phi_{10} + \phi_{11}h_1 + \phi_{12}h_2 + \phi_{13}h_3 + \phi_{14}h_4$$

$$y_2 = \phi_{20} + \phi_{21}h_1 + \phi_{22}h_2 + \phi_{23}h_3 + \phi_{24}h_4$$



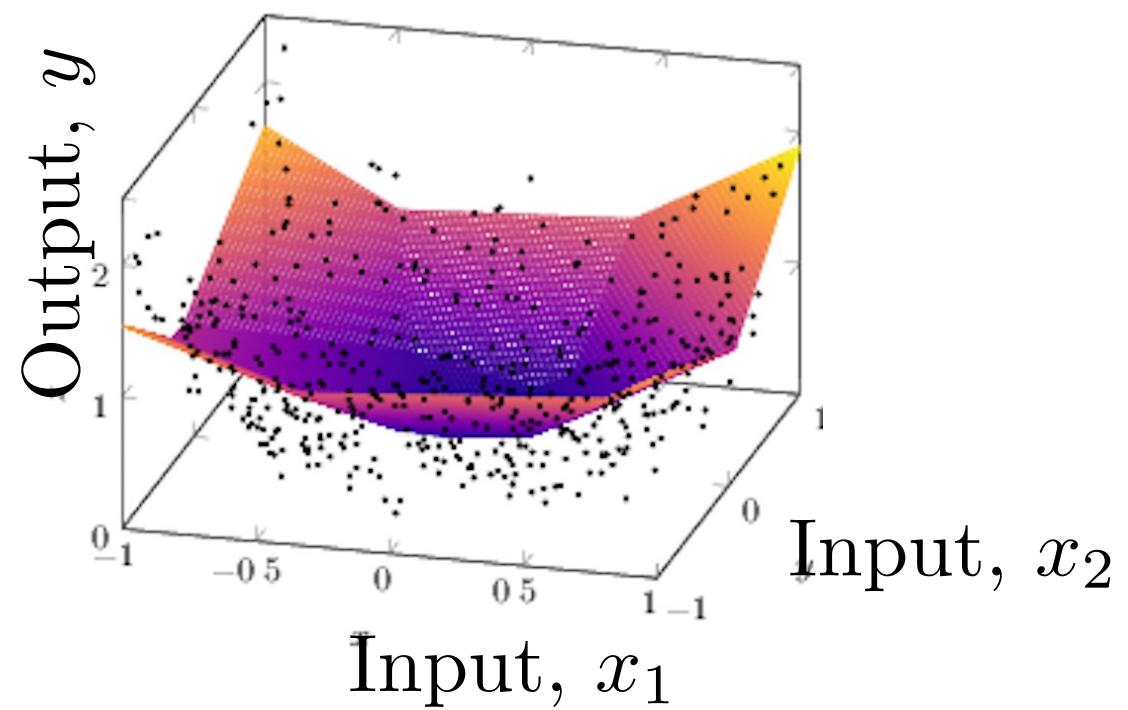
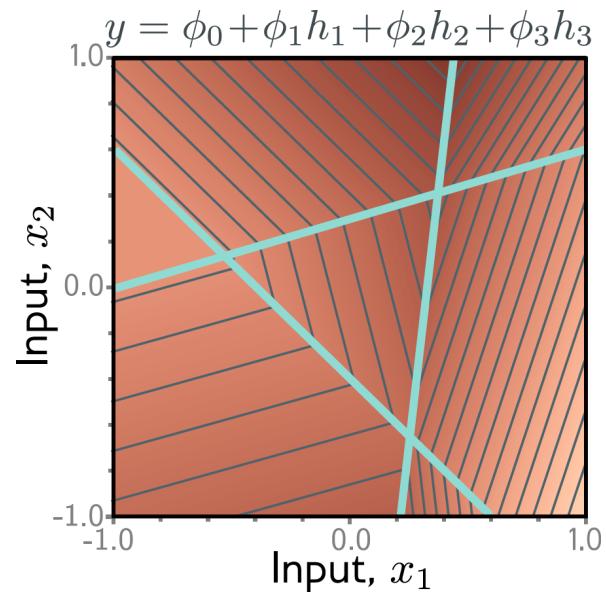






Convex polygons

Fitting

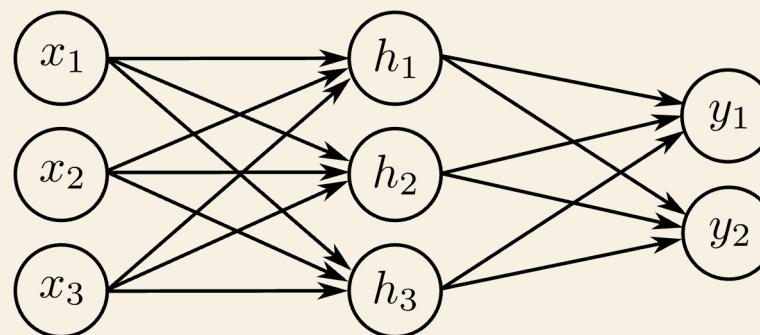


Arbitrary inputs, hidden units, outputs

- D_o Outputs, D hidden units, and D_i inputs

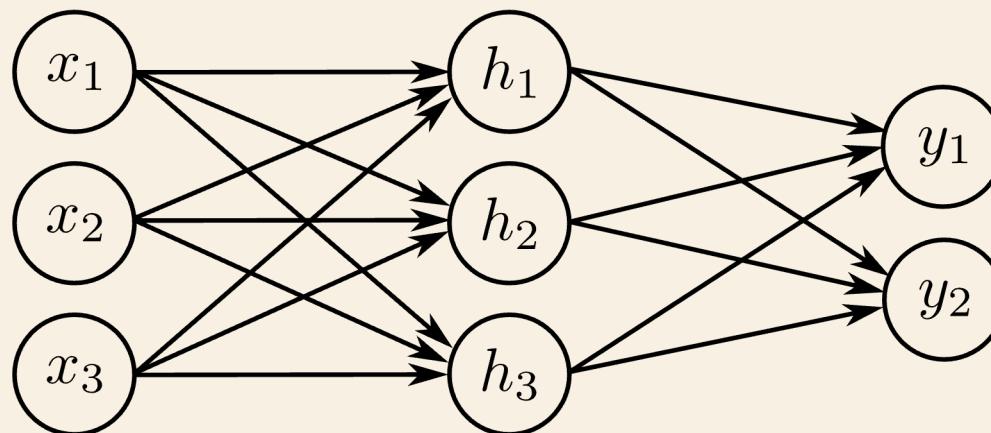
$$h_d = \text{a} \left[\theta_{d0} + \sum_{i=1}^{D_i} \theta_{di} x_i \right] \quad y_j = \phi_{j0} + \sum_{d=1}^D \phi_{jd} h_d$$

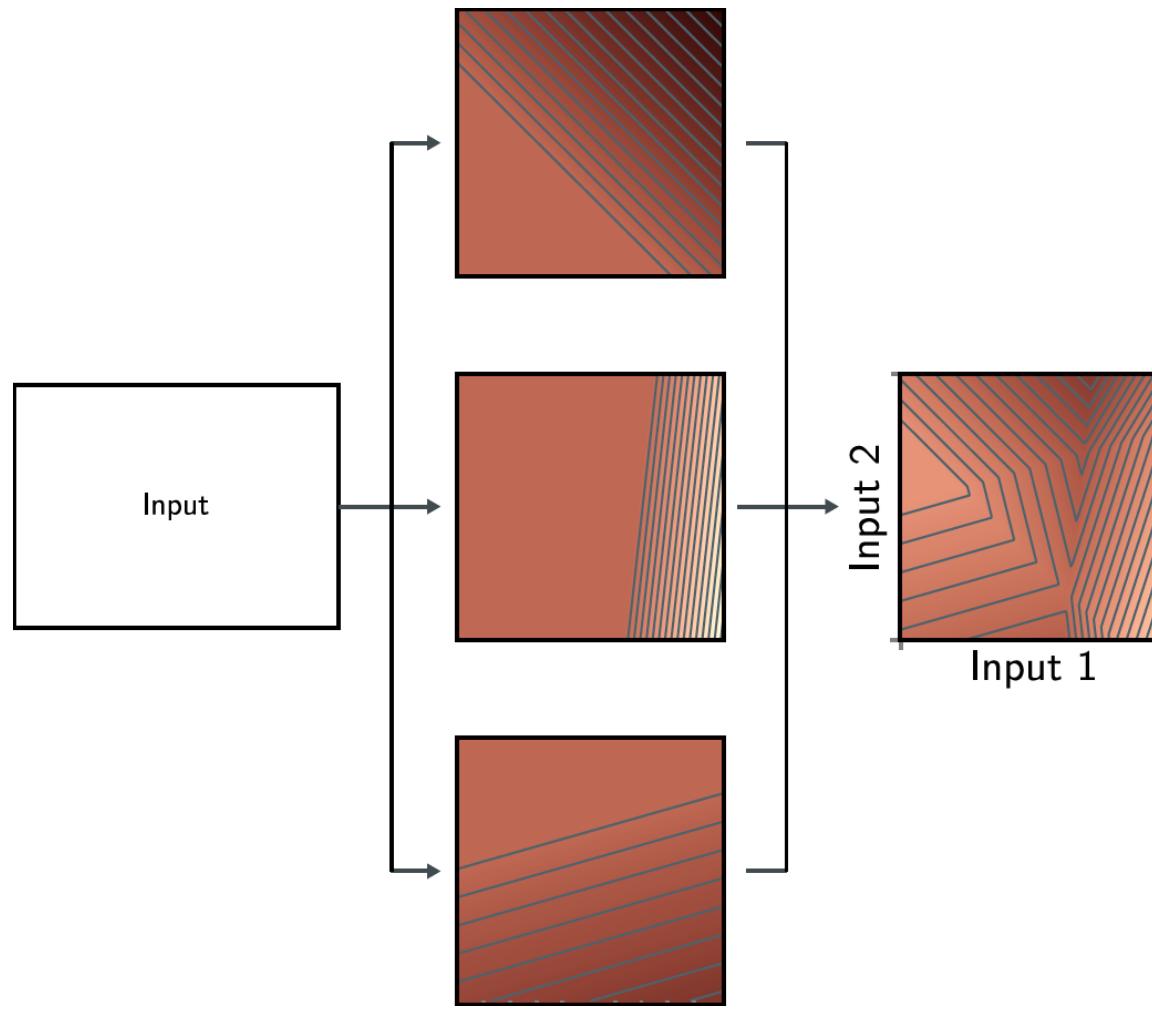
- e.g., Three inputs, three hidden units, two outputs

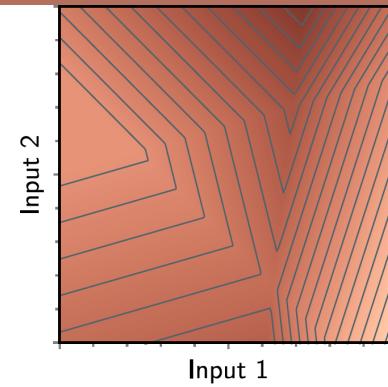
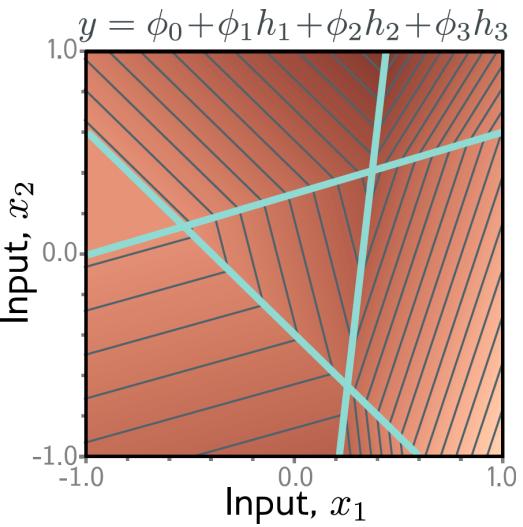
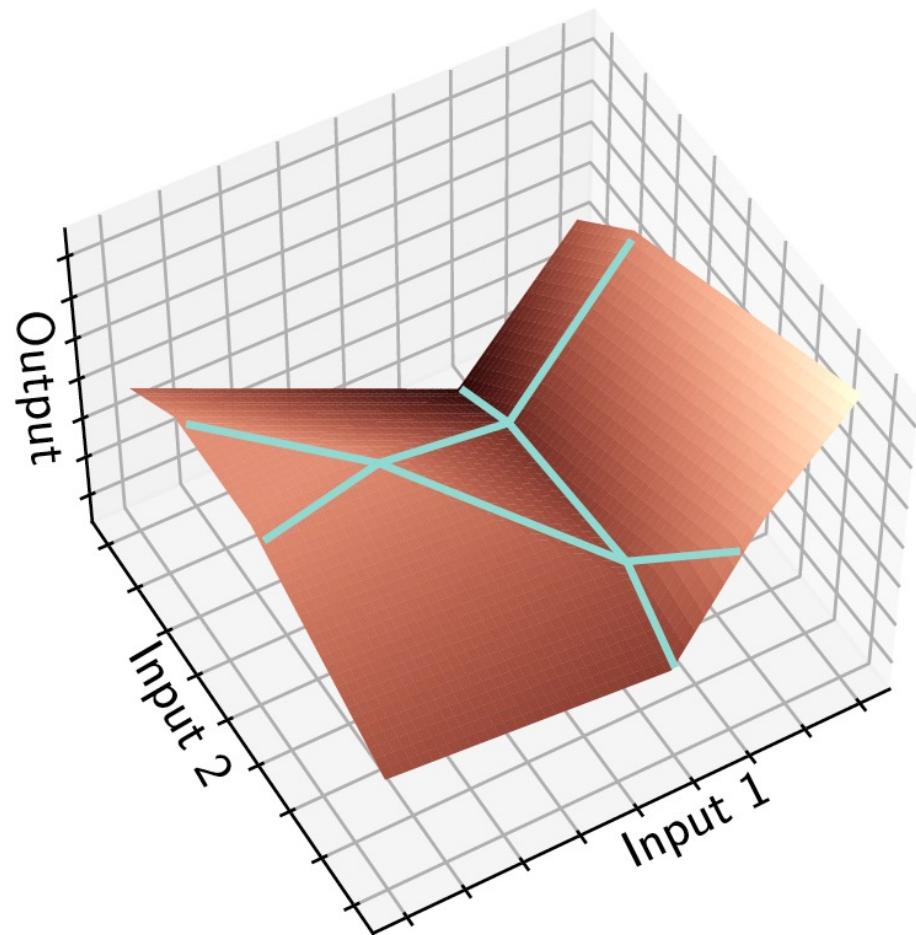


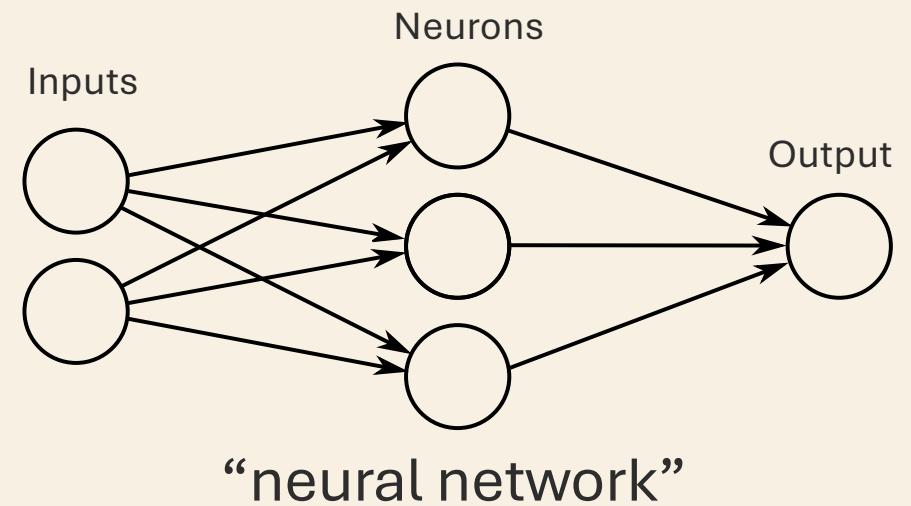
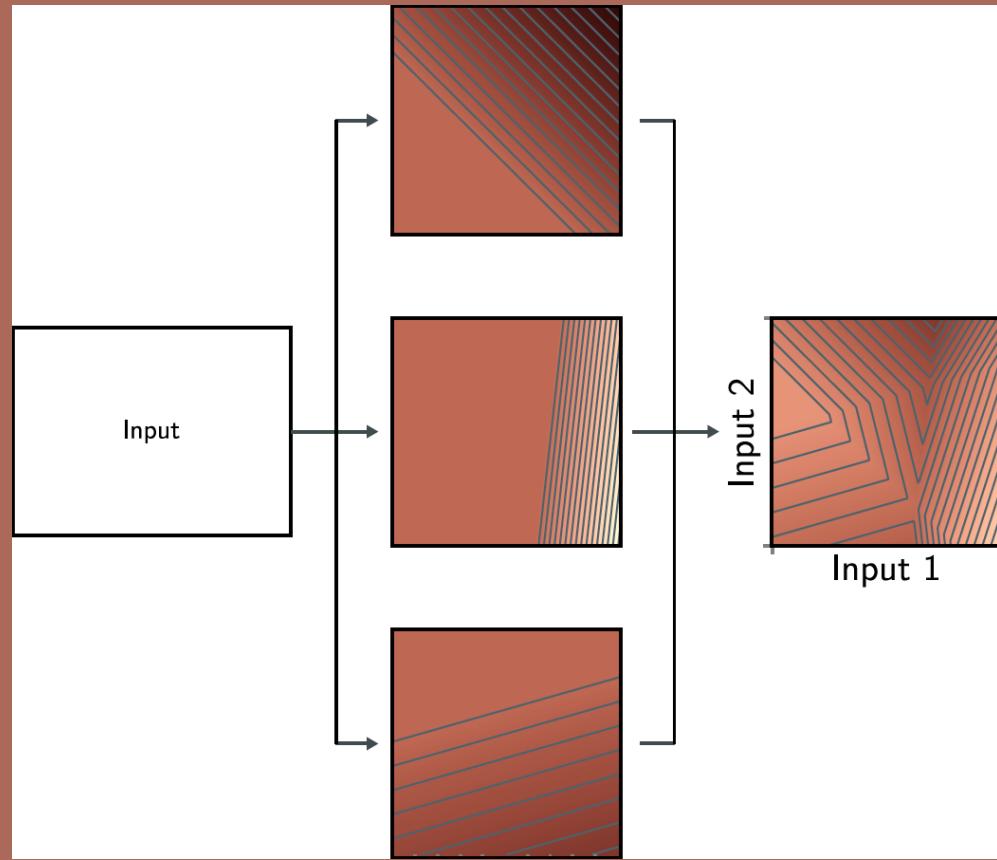
Question:

- How many parameters does this model have?









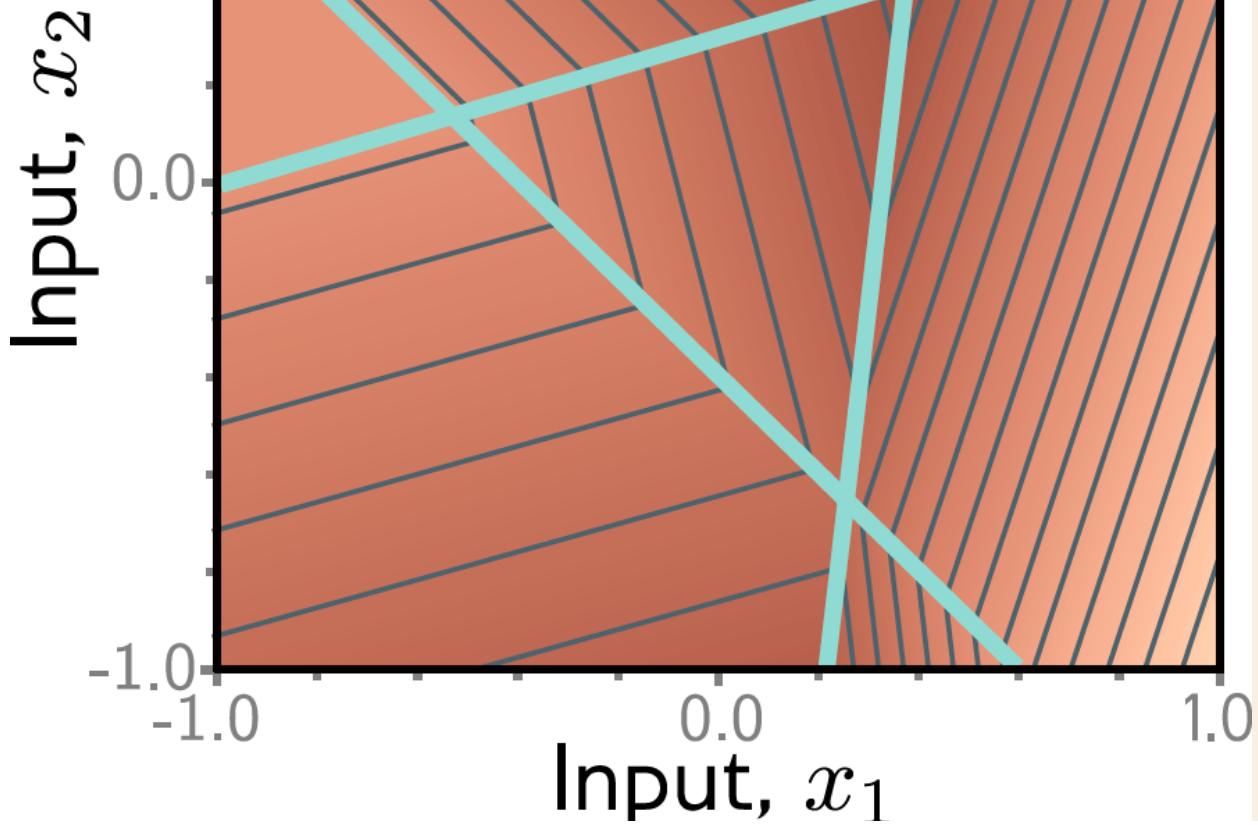
$$y = \phi_0 + \phi_1 h_1 + \phi_2 h_2 + \phi_3 h_3$$

$$h_1 = a[\theta_{10} + \theta_{11}x_1 + \theta_{12}x_2]$$

$$h_2 = a[\theta_{20} + \theta_{21}x_1 + \theta_{22}x_2]$$

$$h_3 = a[\theta_{30} + \theta_{31}x_1 + \theta_{32}x_2]$$

$$y = \phi_0 + \phi_1 h_1 + \phi_2 h_2 + \phi_3 h_3$$

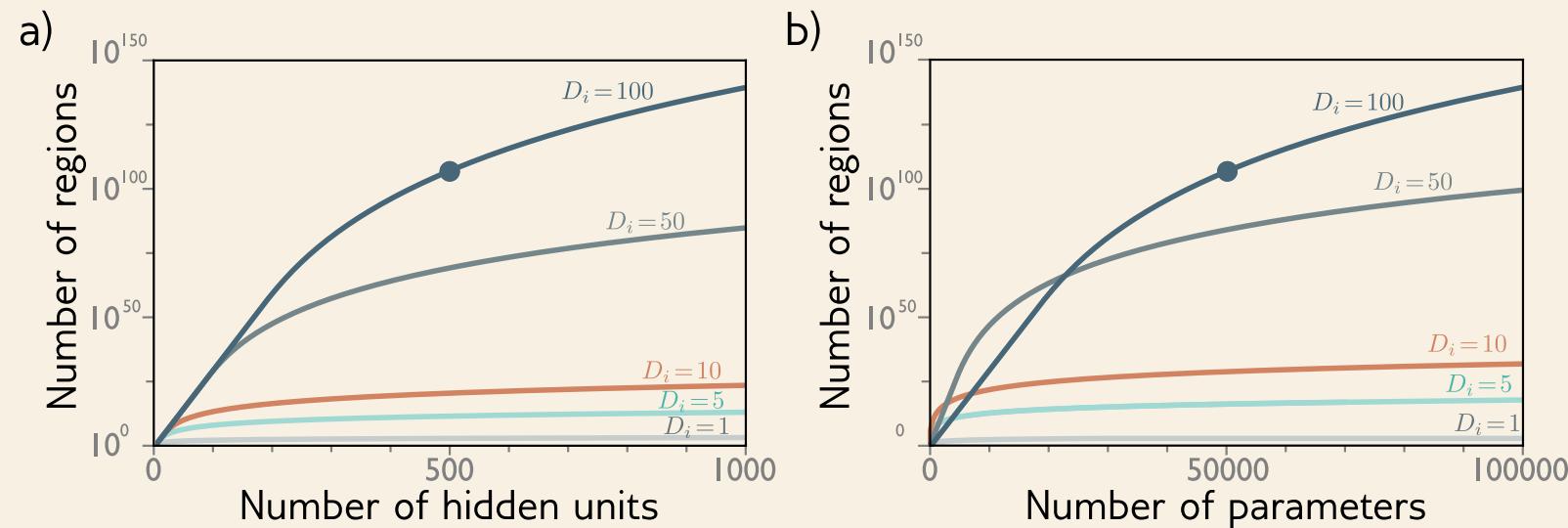


Number of output regions

- In general, each output consists of D dimensional convex polytopes
- With two inputs, and three outputs, we saw there were seven polygons.

Number of output regions

In general, each output consists of D dimensional convex polytopes



Highlighted point = 500 hidden units or 51,001 parameters

Number of regions:

- Number of regions created by $D > D_i$ planes in D_i dimensions was proved by Zaslavsky (1975) to be:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{D_i} \binom{D}{j}$$

← Binomial coefficients!

- How big is this? It's greater than 2^{D_i} but less than 2^D .

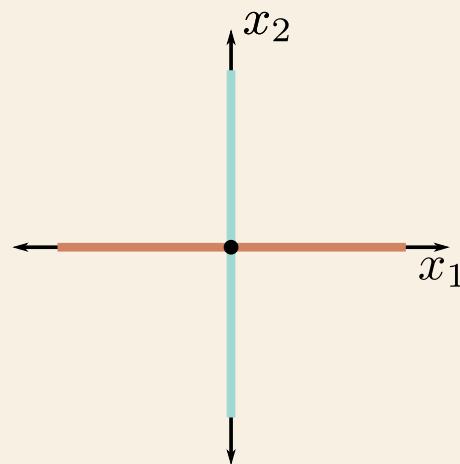
Proof that more regions than 2^{Di}

a)



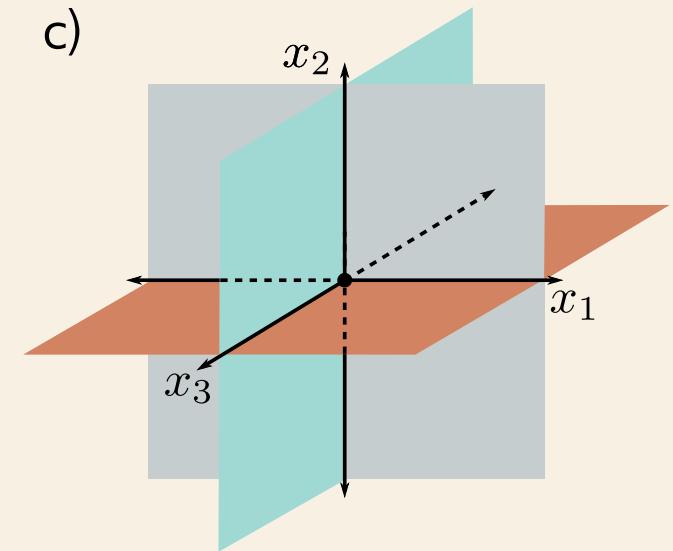
1D input with 1 hidden
unit creates two regions
(one joint)

b)



2D input with 2 hidden
units creates four regions
(two lines)

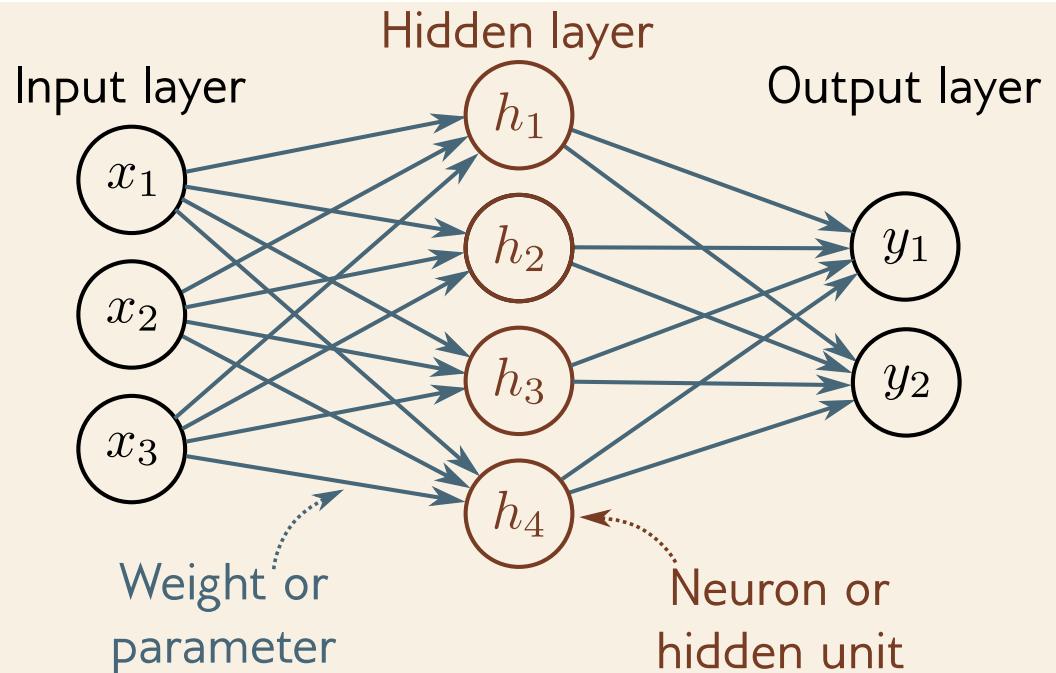
c)



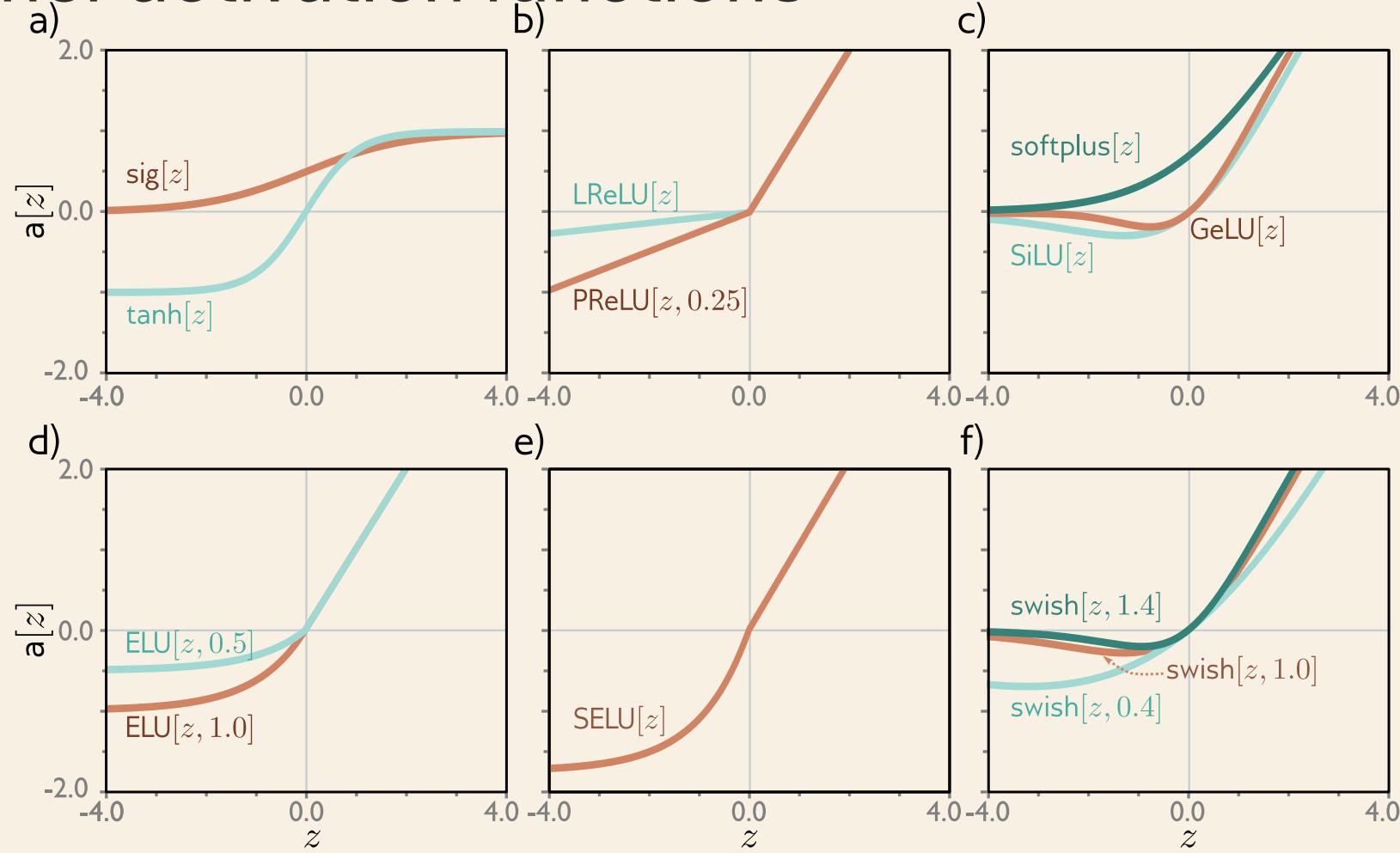
3D input with 3 hidden
units creates eight regions
(three planes)

Nomenclature

- Y-offsets = **biases**
- Slopes = **weights**
- Everything in one layer connected to everything in the next = **fully connected network**
- No loops = **feedforward network**
- Values after ReLU (activation functions) = **activations**
- Values before ReLU = **pre-activations**
- One hidden layer = **shallow neural network**
- More than one hidden layer = **deep neural network**
- Number of hidden units \approx **capacity**



Other activation functions



A Simple Neural Network for Binary Classification

We'll explore a minimal neural network that predicts whether an input belongs to **class 0 or 1**

Data

- (X, y) : dataset and corresponding labels $X \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times 2}$, $y \in \{0, 1\}^N$,

Model

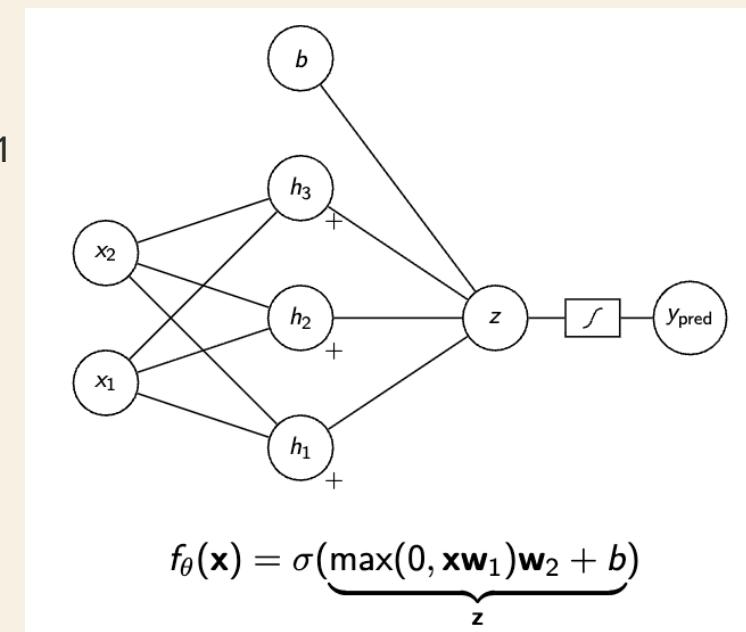
- $f_\theta(x) : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow [0, 1]$ outputs the **probability** that x belongs to class 1
- θ : all **learnable parameters** (weights and biases)

Activation Functions

- **ReLU**: $+(x) = \max(0, x)$.
- **Sigmoid**: $\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$

Binary Cross-Entropy (BCE) Loss

- Average over all samples: $\mathcal{L}(p, y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \ell_i(p_i, y_i)$



Computing Gradients

We want to calculate the **gradient of the Binary Cross-Entropy (BCE) loss** with respect to the network parameters w_1, w_2 , and b .

- **Binary Cross-Entropy Loss**

- $\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \ell_i f(x)$

- Where our objective:

- $\nabla_{w_1, w_2, b} \mathcal{L}(f_\theta, (X)y)$

Chain Rule

Output layer

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial w_2} = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \hat{y}} \cdot \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial w_2} . \quad \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial b} = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \hat{y}} \cdot \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial b}$$

Hidden Layer

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial w_1} = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \hat{y}} \cdot \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial h} \cdot \frac{\partial h}{\partial (xw_1)} \cdot \frac{\partial (xw_1)}{\partial w_1} \quad \text{Where } h=\max(0, xw_1)$$

Gradient of the Loss w.r.t. Predictions

The gradient of the scalar loss with respect to the prediction vector is itself a **vector**:

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \hat{y}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \hat{y}_1} \\ \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \hat{y}_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \hat{y}_N} \end{bmatrix}^T = \frac{\hat{y} - y}{\hat{y}(1 - \hat{y})}$$

Each component measures how the loss changes when a single prediction \hat{y}_i changes.

Derivative of Predictions w.r.t. Pre-Activations

Both \hat{y} and z are vectors of size N . Since the output activation is applied **element-wise**: $\hat{y} = \sigma(z)$ then the derivative is also **element-wise**:

$$\frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z} = \sigma(z)(1 - \sigma(z)) = \hat{y}(1 - \hat{y})$$

Computing $\frac{\partial z}{\partial h}$ and $\frac{\partial h}{\partial w_2}$

$$z = hw_2 + b, \text{ in matrix form } \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ \vdots \\ z_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} h_{11} & h_{12} & h_{13} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ h_{N1} & h_{N2} & h_{N3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_{2,1} \\ w_{2,2} \\ w_{2,3} \end{bmatrix} + b$$

where $h \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times 3}$, $w_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 1}$, and $b \in \mathbb{R}$ (broadcasted over all N samples).

The gradient of z with respect to a single weight $w_{2,j}$ depends on **all samples**:

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial w_{2,j}} = \begin{bmatrix} h_{1j} \\ h_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ h_{Nj} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Gradient with respect to the Bias b

In the equation $z = h w_2 + b$, the bias term b is **broadcasted** across all N samples. We can make this explicit as:

$$z = h w_2 + \mathbf{1}^\top b,$$

where $\mathbf{1} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ is a vector of ones.

Derivative $\frac{\partial z}{\partial b} = \mathbf{1}^\top$

Computing $\frac{\partial z}{\partial h}$

$$z = hw_2 + b, \text{ in matrix form } \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ \vdots \\ z_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} h_{11} & h_{12} & h_{13} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ h_{N1} & h_{N2} & h_{N3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_{2,1} \\ w_{2,2} \\ w_{2,3} \end{bmatrix} + b$$

where $h \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times 3}$, $w_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 1}$, and $b \in \mathbb{R}$ (broadcasted over all N samples).

For each sample i : $z_i = h_{i1}w_{2,1} + h_{i2}w_{2,2} + h_{i3}w_{2,3}$.

The gradient of z_i with respect to the row vector h_i is: $\frac{\partial z_i}{\partial h_i} = w_2^\top$.

Computing the Gradient with respect to w_1

To compute $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_1}$, we need two components: $\frac{\partial h}{\partial(xw_1)}$ and $\frac{\partial(xw_1)}{\partial w_1}$.

For the ReLU function $h = \text{ReLU}(xw_1)$, the derivative is given by:

$$\frac{\partial h_{ij}}{\partial(xw_1)_{ij}} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } (x, w_1)_{ij} > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad \text{or equivalently } \frac{\partial h}{\partial(xw_1)} = \mathbf{1}_{xw_1 > 0},$$

a binary mask that passes gradients only where activations are positive.

Derivative of the linear transformation

The forward pass is: $h = xw_1$ where:

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ x_{N1} & x_{N2} \end{bmatrix}, w_1 = \begin{bmatrix} w_{1,11} & w_{1,12} & w_{1,13} \\ w_{1,21} & w_{1,22} & w_{1,23} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus, the gradient of xw_1 with respect to w_1 depends directly on the input matrix x :

$$\frac{\partial(xw_1)}{\partial w_1} = x.$$

Each **column** of w_1 interacts with **all input features**, since every output dimension receives contributions from all columns of x .

Solution

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_2} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \hat{y}} \cdot \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial w_2} = \frac{\hat{y} - y}{\hat{y}(1 - \hat{y})} \cdot (\hat{y}(1 - \hat{y})) \cdot (h)$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial b} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \hat{y}} \cdot \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial b} = \frac{\hat{y} - y}{\hat{y}(1 - \hat{y})} \cdot (\hat{y}(1 - \hat{y})) \cdot (1^T)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_1} &= \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \hat{y}} \cdot \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial h} \cdot \frac{\partial h}{\partial (xw_1)} \cdot \frac{\partial (xw_1)}{\partial w_1} \\ &= \frac{\hat{y} - y}{\hat{y}(1 - \hat{y})} \cdot (\hat{y}(1 - \hat{y})) \cdot (w_2^\top) \cdot (1_{xw_1 > 0}) \cdot (x)\end{aligned}$$

Slides from Understanding deep learning S. Prince Chapter 3