

Formulation and
training

Formulation
Training

Learning and
predictions

Learning
Prediction

Simulation
Energy-based
Shape-based

Outro



Aalto University

Probabilistic machine learning | Intro (E)

Introduction to machine learning

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Formulation and
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Formulation
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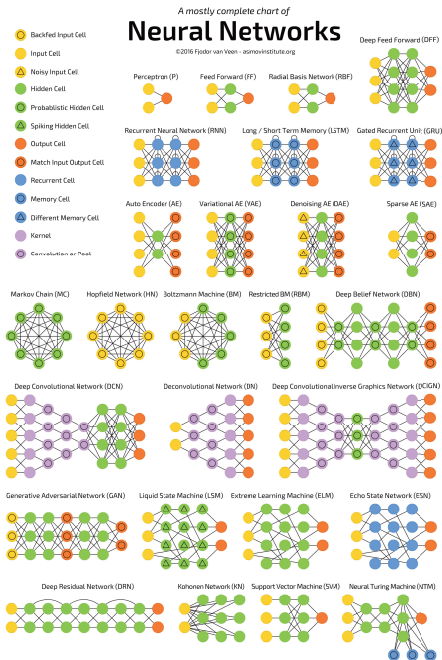
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Many neural network models are made of neurons

~> A single lonely 😞 neuron can learn, too

It must be interesting to understand it in detail

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Formulation and training

The neuron

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The neuron

Architecture

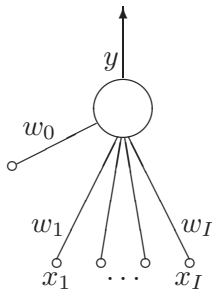
A neuron has a number I of inputs x_i and one output y

Associated with each input is a weight w_i ($i = 1, \dots, I$)

- There may be an additional parameter w_0
- The bias, the weight for the input x_0
- Input x_0 is permanently set to 1

The neuron is a feedforward computational device

- Connections go from inputs to output



Activity

The activity of the neuron consists of two steps

- ① In response to the presented input $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_I)$, the **activation**

$$a = \sum_i w_i x_i$$

Sum is over $i = 0, \dots, I$ if there is a bias

↪ ($i = 1, \dots, I$ otherwise)

- ② The output y , or **activity**, is set as a function $f(a)$ of the activation

$$y = f(a) = f\left(\sum_i w_i x_i\right)$$

There are several activation functions

↪ Deterministic and stochastic

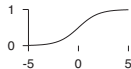
Formulation (cont.)

Popular activation functions (deterministic)

- Linear (identity)

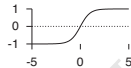
$$y(a) = a$$

- Sigmoid (logistic function)



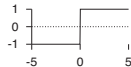
$$y(a) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-a}}, \quad y \in (0, 1)$$

- Sigmoid (tanh)



$$y(a) = \tanh(a), \quad y \in (-1, +1)$$

- Threshold (sign)



$$y(a) = \text{sign}(a) = \begin{cases} +1, & a > 0 \\ -1, & a \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

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Popular activation functions (stochastic)

Stochastic activation functions, y is randomly selected from $\{-1, +1\}$

- Heat bath

$$y(a) = \begin{cases} +1, & \text{with probability } \frac{1}{1 + e^{-a}} \\ -1, & \text{with probability } 1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-a}} \end{cases}$$

- ...

Formulation (cont.)

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The neuron implements a function $y(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{w}) = y[a(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})]$, with $a = \sum_i w_i x_i$

The output y is often a nonlinear function of the inputs \mathbf{x}

- The function is parameterised by weights \mathbf{w}

The logistic sigmoid

We study a neuron which produces an output $y \in (0, 1)$, as function of \mathbf{x}

- We consider the logistic function (sigmoid)

$$y(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}}}$$

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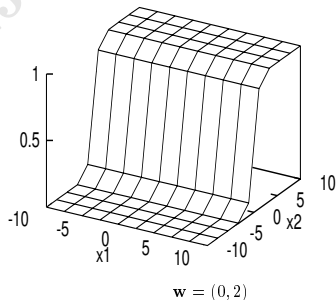
The case where input vector and parameter vector are two-dimensional

$$y(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}}}$$

- $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)$ and $\mathbf{w} = (w_1, w_2)$
- The implemented function y

$$y(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2)}}$$

- (Temporarily, no bias)



Along a line perpendicular to the direction of \mathbf{w} , the output is constant

Along a line in the direction of \mathbf{w} , the output is a sigmoid function

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The weight space

The parameter/weight space of the neuron is a space whose dimensionality equals the number of weights and onto which weights can take on values

- Each point \mathbf{w} in weight space corresponds to a function of \mathbf{x}

In our case study, there are two parameters (weights) w_1 and w_2

- The weight space is two-dimensional
- We see functions $y(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{w})$ in place

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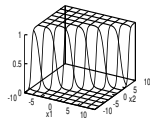
2

1

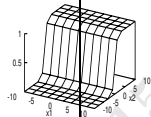
0

-1

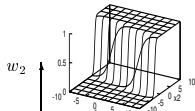
-2



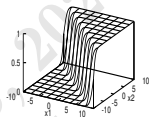
$$\mathbf{w} = (-2, 3)$$



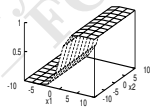
$$\mathbf{w} = (0, 2)$$



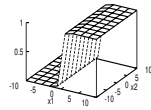
$$\mathbf{w} = (1, 4)$$



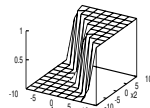
$$\mathbf{w} = (2, 2)$$



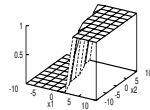
$$\mathbf{w} = (1, 0)$$



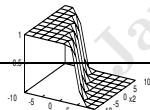
$$\mathbf{w} = (3, 0)$$



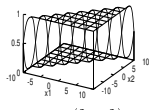
$$\mathbf{w} = (5, 4)$$



$$\mathbf{w} = (5, 1)$$



$$\mathbf{w} = (-2, -1)$$



$$\mathbf{w} = (2, -2)$$

w_2

w_1

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The E-uD-uE-uA-uF-AN(u)N

The central idea of a supervised neuron (and also neural networks, I suppose)

↪ Given examples of the relation between input vectors \mathbf{x} and targets t

$$\{(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}, t^{(n)})\}_{n=1}^N$$

↪ We wish to make the neuron $y(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{w})$ learn the map from \mathbf{x} to t

For any given \mathbf{x} , a successfully trained neuron will return some output y

- Output is expected to be close (in some sense) to target value t

Training the neuron means searching in weight space for some optimal $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$

- A value $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ that produces a function $y(\mathbf{x}|\hat{\mathbf{w}})$ that fits the data well
- That is, output values y that are close to target values t

The error function

A function that measures how well a neuron with weights \mathbf{w} solves the task

Often, the error function is a sum of terms, one for each input/target pair

- It measures how close output $y(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{w})$ is to target t
- Each term is a function of \mathbf{w} , given the input \mathbf{x}

Training the neuron is an exercise in function minimisation (optimisation)

↪ Find the \mathbf{w} so that the error (objective) function is minimal

Binary classification

We have a lonely neuron whose output $y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})$ is bounded in $(0, 1)$

- The activation function is the logistic sigmoid

$$y(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}}}$$

They gave us a set of input data with binary labels

$$\{(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}, t^{(n)})\}_{n=1}^N$$

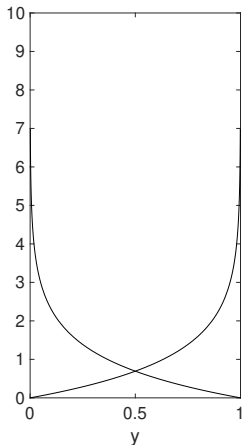
How do we train the neuron to binary classify the data?

- Firstly, we need to define some error function
- Then, we need to find a \mathbf{w} that minimises it

Training (cont.)

We consider the following error function

$$G(\mathbf{w}) = - \sum_n \{ t^{(n)} \ln [y(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}|\mathbf{w})] + (1 - t^{(n)}) \ln [1 - y(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}|\mathbf{w})] \}$$



The term in error function

- Bounded below, by zero
- When $y(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}|\mathbf{w}) = t^{(n)}$
- (for each n)

The neur(on)al model

$$y(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}}}$$

Training (cont.)

$$G(\mathbf{w}) = - \sum_n \left\{ t^{(n)} \ln \left[\underbrace{y(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}|\mathbf{w})}_{y^{(n)}} \right] + (1 - t^{(n)}) \ln \left[1 - \underbrace{y(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}|\mathbf{w})}_{y^{(n)}} \right] \right\}$$

The derivative $\mathbf{g} = (\cdots, g_j, \cdots)$ of $G(\mathbf{w})$ with respect to \mathbf{w}

$$\begin{aligned} g_j &= \frac{\partial G(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_j} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^N - \left[t^{(n)} - y^{(n)} \right] x_j^{(n)} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^N - e^{(n)} x_j^{(n)} \end{aligned}$$

Quantity $e^{(n)} \equiv [t^{(n)} - y^{(n)}]$ is the mismatch on case n

The derivative $\frac{\partial G(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$, the gradient $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} G(\mathbf{w})$, is a sum of terms $\mathbf{g}^{(n)}$

$$g_j^{(n)} \equiv - \left[t^{(n)} - y^{(n)} \right] x_j^{(n)}, \text{ for } n = 1, \dots, N$$

An online algorithm is designed by feeding each input to the neuron, one at a time, and then adjusting \mathbf{w} a bit in the direction opposite to $\mathbf{g}^{(n)}$ (a stochastic gradient descent)

Sequential training

Architecture: A lonely \odot neuron with I inputs x_i and one output y

- Associated with each input is a weight w_i ($i = 1, \dots, I$)

Activity: In response to inputs \mathbf{x} , we compute the neuron activation

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} \\ &= \sum_i w_i x_i \end{aligned}$$

The output y is set as a logistic sigmoid of the activation $a = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}$

$$y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}}}$$

Training (cont.)

Training

The teacher supplies a target value $t \in \{0, 1\}$

- The correct label t of input \mathbf{x}

We compute the neuron error with weights \mathbf{w}

$$e = t - y$$

We adjust all the weights to reduce the error

$$\Delta w_i = \eta \underbrace{(t - y)}_{-g_i^{(\cdot)}} x_i$$

- They call η the ‘step-size’

Activity and training are repeated for each supplied pair (\mathbf{x}, t)

- A change in weight is made after every pair is presented

With fixed-size sets of data, we can cycle thru multiple times

Training (cont.)

An alternative training paradigm is to go through a batch of examples

- Compute all the outputs $y^{(n)}$ and errors $e^{(n)}$
- Accumulate all the changes, $\Delta w_i = \eta e x_i$
- Apply cumulative change at the end

Batch training

For each input-output pair $\{\mathbf{x}^{(n)}, t^{(n)}\}$, we compute $y^{(n)} = y(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}|\mathbf{w})$

$$y(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\sum_i w_i x_i)}$$

Define the term $e^{(n)} = [t^{(n)} - y^{(n)}]$ and compute for each weight w_i

$$g_i^{(n)} = -e^{(n)} x_i^{(n)}$$

Then, let

$$\Delta w_i = -\eta \sum_n g_i^{(n)}$$

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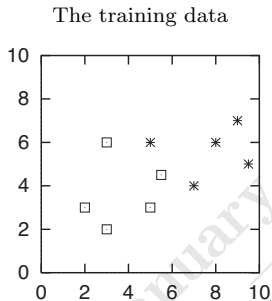
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Batch-mode (gradient descent)

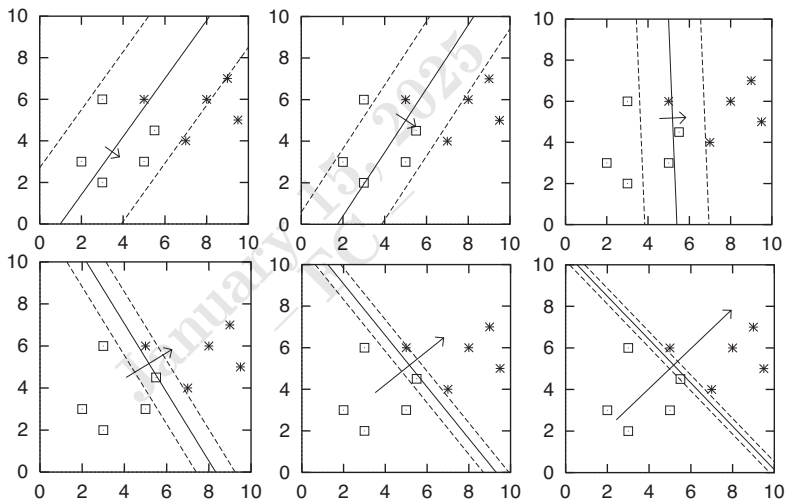
- Step-size $\eta = 0.01$

Each data point consists of a two-dimensional input vector \mathbf{x} and a t value

- \times for $t = 1$
- \square for $t = 0$

Training (cont.)

The performed function after 30, 80, 500, 3K, 10K and 40K iterations



Contours correspond to $a \in \{-1, 0, +1\}$, namely at $y \in \{0.27, 0.50, 0.73\}$

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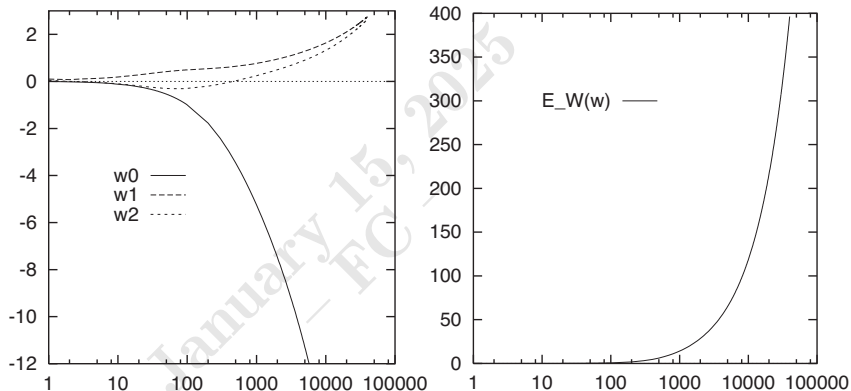
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Training (cont.)

(a) Evolution of the weights as a function of the (log) number of iterations



(b) Magnitude of the weights as a function of the (log) number of iterations

$$E_W(\mathbf{w}) = 1/2 \sum_i w_i^2$$

Training (cont.)

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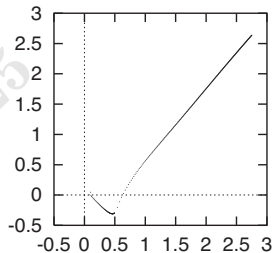
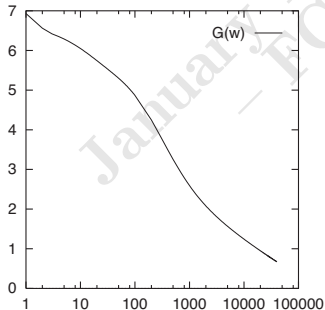
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Evolution of the weights

- In weight-space



The error function as a function of
number of iterations (on log scale)

Training (cont.)

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This training algorithm works, if η is set to an appropriate value

- It finds a \mathbf{w} that correctly classifies examples

For linearly separable examples, the neuron finds the separation

- With time, weights diverge to ever-larger values
- It is a manifestation of overfitting (undesirable)

Note to self: It's dumb to early-stop an algorithm meant to do minimisation

- It is more principled to use regularisation

Regularisation

We augment the error function so that we penalise solutions we dislike (large weights)

- Them sharp boundaries arising from large weight values
- We penalise large (half-)norms of the parameter vector

$$\begin{aligned}E_W(\mathbf{w}) &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_i w_i^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2\end{aligned}$$

We augment the error function $G(\mathbf{w})$ with a weight-decay regulariser $E_W(\mathbf{w})$

$$M(\mathbf{w}) = G(\mathbf{w}) + \alpha E_W(\mathbf{w})$$

- α is a regularisation constant (it is a hyper-parameter)

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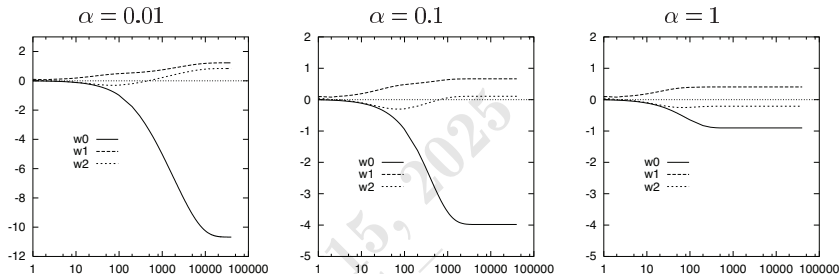
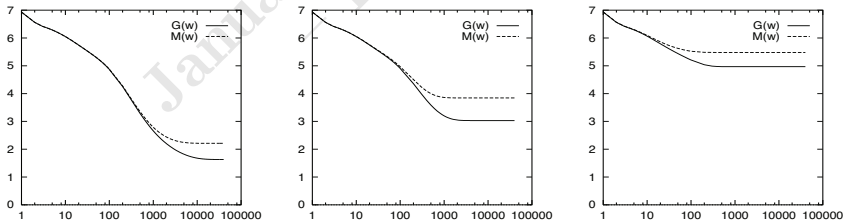
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$$M(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{- \sum_n \left\{ t^{(n)} \ln [y(\mathbf{x}^{(n)} | \mathbf{w})] + (1 - t^{(n)}) \ln [1 - y(\mathbf{x}^{(n)} | \mathbf{w})] \right\}}_{\text{Error function: } G(\mathbf{w})} + \alpha \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \sum_i w_i^2}_{\text{Regularizer: } E_W(\mathbf{w})}$$

Influence of weight decay on the neuron batch training, gradient descent

- $\alpha \in \{0.01, 0.1, 1\}$

Training (cont.)

(a) Evolution of weights w_0 , w_1 and w_2 , as a function of number of iterations(c) Objective $M(w)$ and error function $G(w)$, against number of iterationsFormulation and
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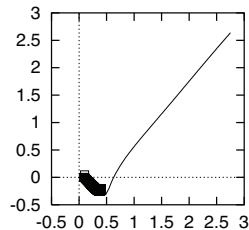
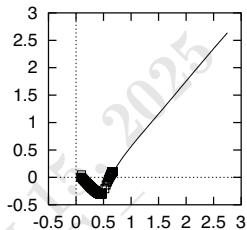
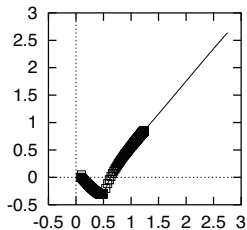
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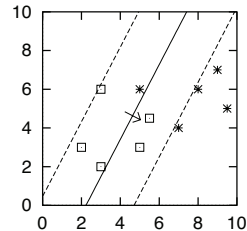
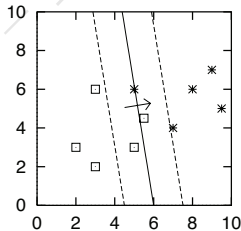
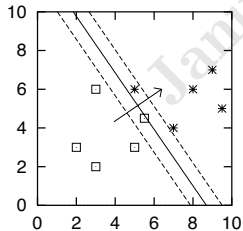
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Training (cont.)

(b) In weight space, with trajectory in the case of zero weight-decay



(d) The function performed by the neuron, after 40 000 iterations



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We trained the neuron to behave as a linear classifier

- Minimisation of an objective function

$$M(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{- \sum_n \left\{ t^{(n)} \ln [y(\mathbf{x}^{(n)} | \mathbf{w})] + (1 - t^{(n)}) \ln [1 - y(\mathbf{x}^{(n)} | \mathbf{w})] \right\}}_{\text{Error function: } G(\mathbf{w})} + \alpha \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \sum_i w_i^2}_{\text{Regularizer: } E_W(\mathbf{w})}$$

The neuron's output $y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})$ defines the probability that an input \mathbf{x} belongs to class $t = 1$, rather than to the alternative $t = 0$, when the parameter values \mathbf{w} are all given

Values of \mathbf{w} define the different hypothesis about the probability of class 1

- Relative to class 0, as function of input \mathbf{x}

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Assume the inputs $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}_{n=1}^N$ to be given (sure variables, not to be modelled)

Let D be the observed target data $D = \{t_n\}_{n=1}^N$

To infer parameters \mathbf{w} given data D , we require a likelihood function

- The joint probability of all of the data, given parameters

Plus some prior probability over \mathbf{w}

Learning (cont.)

The likelihood measures how well various parameters \mathbf{w} predict the observed data

- It is the probability assigned by the model to the observed data t

$$p(t = 1 | \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}) = y(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x})$$

$$p(t = 0 | \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}) = 1 - y(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x})$$

Each observed datum is assumed to be Bernoulli with parameter y

$$\begin{aligned} p(t | \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}) &= y^t (1 - y)^{1-t} \\ &= \exp [t \ln(y) + (1 - t) \ln(1 - y)] \end{aligned}$$

For independent and identically distributed data, the probability of the data

$$\begin{aligned} p(\{t\} | \mathbf{w}, \{\mathbf{x}\}) &= \prod_n \{ y(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_n)^{t_n} [1 - y(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_n)]^{1-t_n} \} \\ &= \prod_n e^{\{ t_n \ln [y(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_n)] + (1-t_n) \ln [1 - y(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_n)] \}} \\ &\leadsto \exp \left(\underbrace{\sum_n \{ t_n \ln [y(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_n)] + (1 - t_n) \ln [1 - y(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_n)] \}}_{-G(\mathbf{w})} \right) \end{aligned}$$

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$$p(\{t\}|\mathbf{w}, \{\mathbf{x}\}) = \exp \left(\underbrace{\sum_n \{t_n \ln [y(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_n)] + (1 - t_n) \ln [1 - y(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_n)]\}}_{-G(\mathbf{w})} \right)$$

This is the probabilistic interpretation of the cross-entropy objective

The error function $G(\mathbf{w})$ can be interpreted as negative log likelihood

$$p(\{t\}|\mathbf{w}) = \exp [-G(\mathbf{w})]$$

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The regulariser is interpreted as log prior probability over the parameters \mathbf{w}

$$P(\mathbf{w}|\alpha) = \frac{1}{Z_W(\alpha)} \exp \left[-\alpha E_W \right]$$

If E_W is quadratic, then the corresponding prior distribution is Gaussian

$$\begin{aligned} P(\mathbf{w}|\alpha) &= \frac{1}{Z_W(\alpha)} \exp \left[-\alpha E_W \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{Z_W(\alpha)} \exp \left[-\frac{\alpha}{2} \sum_i w_i^2 \right] \end{aligned}$$

- ~ I is the number of parameters in \mathbf{w}
- ~ $Z_W^{-1}(\alpha)$ is equal to $(\alpha/2\pi)^{I/2}$
- ~ The variance $\sigma_W^2 = 1/\alpha$
- ~ The mean $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{0}$

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Outro

Why is it natural to interpret the error functions as log probabilities?

- Probabilities are multiplicative, for independent events
- Error functions are often additive, over multiple data
- The log fixes the correspondence

Generalised Gaussian priors

$$E_W(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i |w_i|^q$$

If E_W is a q -norm, the prior distribution is a generalised Gaussian

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\alpha) = \left[\frac{q}{2} \left(\frac{\alpha}{2} \right)^{1/q} \frac{1}{\Gamma(1/q)} \right]^I \exp \left[- \frac{\alpha}{2} \sum_i |w_i|^q \right]$$

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The objective function $M(\mathbf{w})$ is inference of parameters \mathbf{w} , given data D

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(\mathbf{w}|D, \alpha) &= \frac{P(D|\mathbf{w})P(\mathbf{w}|\alpha)}{P(D|\alpha)} \\
 &= \frac{1}{P(D|\alpha)} e^{-G(\mathbf{w})} \frac{1}{Z_W(\alpha)} e^{-\alpha E_W(\mathbf{w})} \\
 &= \frac{1}{Z_M(\alpha)} \exp[-M(\mathbf{w})]
 \end{aligned}$$

The \mathbf{w} by minimising $M(\mathbf{w})$ is interpreted as the most probable vector $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$

The partition function (normalisation constant)

$$Z_M(\alpha) = \int d\mathbf{w} \exp[-M(\mathbf{w})]$$

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Estimator $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$, the product of traditional learning is a point in the weight-space

- $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ maximises the posterior probability density

In a sensible sense, the product of learning is an ensemble of plausible values

- We do not choose one particular hypothesis \mathbf{w}
- We rather evaluate the posterior probabilities

The posterior distribution, the likelihood times a prior distribution over \mathbf{w}

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Outro

For a neuron with two inputs and no bias

$$y(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2)}}$$

We can plot the posterior probability of \mathbf{w}

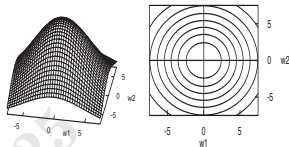
$$p(\mathbf{w}|D, \alpha) \propto \exp[-M(\mathbf{w})]$$

Each data point consists of a two-dimensional input vector \mathbf{x} and a t value

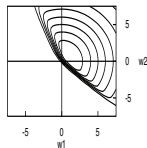
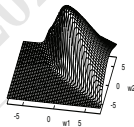
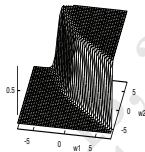
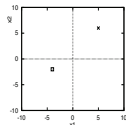
- \times for $t = 1$
- \square for $t = 0$

$N = 0$

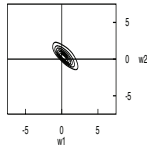
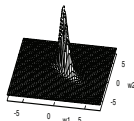
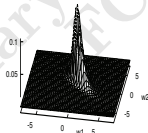
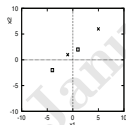
(constant)



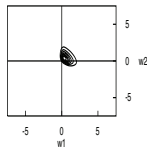
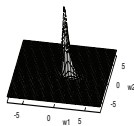
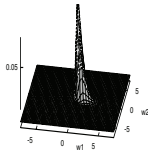
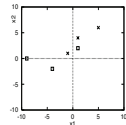
$N = 2$



$N = 4$



$N = 6$



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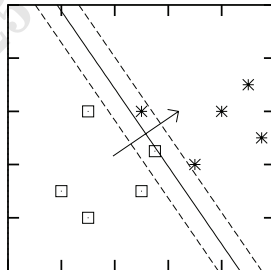
Prediction

The neuron

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The task is making predictions using the neuron we trained as classifier

$$y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2)}}$$



Training by minimising $M(\mathbf{w}) = G(\mathbf{w}) + \alpha E(\mathbf{w})$, optimized for $\alpha = 0.01$

We consider the task of predicting class $\mathbf{t}^{(N+1)}$ for a new input $\mathbf{x}^{(N+1)}$

- We could just use the neuron, weights set to $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$

Prediction (cont.)

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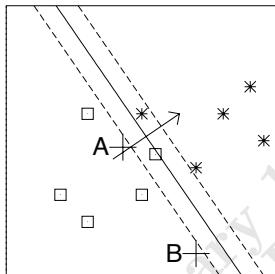
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Consider two new data points

- A and B

Both are assigned to class 1

- With probability 0.2
- $\hat{\mathbf{w}}_{\mathbf{x}}^{(A)} = \hat{\mathbf{w}}_{\mathbf{x}}^{(B)}$

These predictions would be correct, if we really really knew \mathbf{w} was $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$

- But we do not, parameters are uncertain
- We placed a prior over them
- We even got its posterior

Prediction of a new datum $\mathbf{t}^{(n)}$ involves marginalising over the parameters

- Well, over anything else that is endowed with uncertainty
- We assume that we only have the weight \mathbf{w} uncertain
- Weight-decay α and model \mathcal{H} are assumed to be sure

$$p(\mathbf{t}^{(N+1)}|\mathbf{x}^{(N+1)}, D, \alpha) = \int d^K \mathbf{w} P(\mathbf{t}^{N+1}|\mathbf{x}^{(N+1)}, \mathbf{w}, \alpha) P(\mathbf{w}|D, \alpha)$$

Predictions are weighted by weighting the predictions, for all possible \mathbf{w}

- $P(\mathbf{t}^{(N+1)} = 1|\mathbf{x}^{(N+1)}, \mathbf{w}, \alpha) = y(\mathbf{x}^{(N+1)}|\mathbf{w})$
- $P(\mathbf{t}^{(N+1)} = 0|\mathbf{x}^{(N+1)}, \mathbf{w}, \alpha) = 1 - y(\mathbf{x}^{(N+1)}|\mathbf{w})$

The weights are given by the posterior probabilities of \mathbf{w}

- $P(\mathbf{w}|D, \alpha) = 1/Z_M \exp[-M(\mathbf{w})]$
- $Z_M = \int d^K \mathbf{w} \exp[-M(\mathbf{w})]$

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We get predictions if we find a way of computing the integral

$$p(\mathbf{t}^{(N+1)} | \mathbf{x}^{(N+1)}, D, \alpha) = \int d^K \mathbf{w} y(\mathbf{x}^{(N+1)} | \mathbf{w}) \frac{1}{Z_M} \exp \left[-M(\mathbf{w}) \right]$$

Expectation of function y under the posterior distribution

$$\langle y(\mathbf{w}) \rangle \simeq \frac{1}{R} \sum_r y(\mathbf{w}_r)$$

Average the output at $\mathbf{x}^{(N+1)}$, under the posterior of \mathbf{w}

$$\{\mathbf{w}_r\}_{r=1}^R, \quad \text{simulated}$$

Prediction (cont.)

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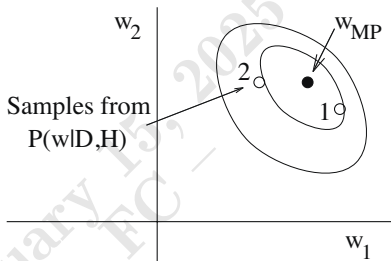
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We average together predictions made by each possible value of weights w

- Each value receives a(nother) weight proportional to its probability
- The probability is under the posterior ensemble

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Simulation

Need to simulate a density $P(\mathbf{x})$, known to within a multiplicative constant

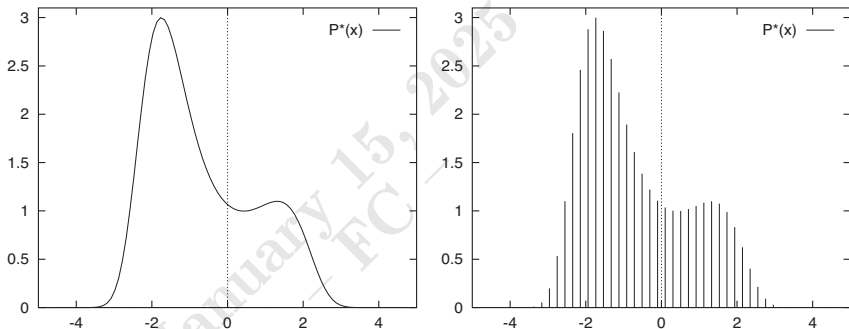
- We can evaluate a function $P^*(\mathbf{x})$ such that $P(\mathbf{x}) = P^*(\mathbf{x})/Z$

$Z = \int d^N \mathbf{x} P^*(\mathbf{x})$ is unknown, and even if we knew it we would not know how to simulate P w/o listing ALL states (may take a few universe ages)

- Best evaluations come from places where P is big

Simulation (cont.)

We wish to draw samples from some $P(x) = P^*(x)/Z$, we can plot $P^*(x)$



Potentially, we could discretise the support of variable x , and ask for samples from the discrete probability distribution over the finite set of uniformly spaced points $\{x_i\}$, no?

$$\bullet \quad p_i^* = P^*(x_i) \quad \longrightarrow \quad Z \simeq \sum_i p_i^* \quad \longrightarrow \quad p_i = p_i^*/Z$$

↪ Samples from the empirical distribution $\{p_i\}$

Simulation (cont.)

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What's the cost of evaluating (just) Z ?

- We have to visit every site x_i ?
- Yes! Well, 50 P^* evaluations

- In 1000 dimensions, 50^{1000}
- We do not need a 50-grid!
- A 2-grid is good enough
- 2^{1000} , a lot better
- Not really!

① Energy-based simulations

② Shape-based simulations

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We do not simulate $P(\mathbf{w}|D, \alpha)$, but another (simpler) density $Q(\mathbf{w}|\Theta)$

- $Q(\mathbf{w}|\Theta)$ must be easy to simulate and similar to $P(\mathbf{w}|D, \alpha)$
- We pick a new $Q(\mathbf{w}|\Theta)$ at each simulated state \mathbf{w}_r

The $Q(\mathbf{w}|\Theta, \mathbf{w}_r)$ depends on the system's energy

$$H(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{p}) = \underbrace{E(\mathbf{w})}_{\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}} + \underbrace{K(\mathbf{p})}_{\mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{p}/2}$$

\mathbf{p} are momentum variables

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Langevin thermostats

We create, asymptotically, samples from the joint distribution

$$\begin{aligned} P_H(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{p}) &= \frac{1}{Z_H} \exp[-H(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{p})] \\ &= \underbrace{\frac{1}{Z_H} \exp[-E(\mathbf{w})]}_{\text{desired density}} \exp[-K(\mathbf{p})] \end{aligned}$$

- ① Draw $\mathbf{p} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{p}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{I})$
- ② Calculate gradient $\mathbf{g} = \partial E(\mathbf{w})/\partial \mathbf{w}$
- ③ Make a step in \mathbf{w} -space $\Delta \mathbf{w} = -\gamma^2 \mathbf{w} + 2\gamma \mathbf{p}$
- ④ Accept/reject proposal \mathbf{w} based on changes in $M(\mathbf{w})$ and \mathbf{g}

Energy-based simulations (cont.)

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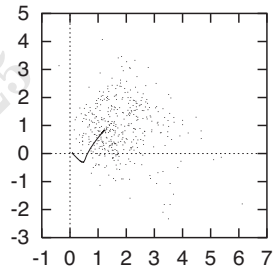
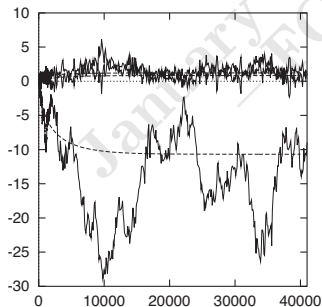
Simulation

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Weights' 'evolution'

- In weight-space



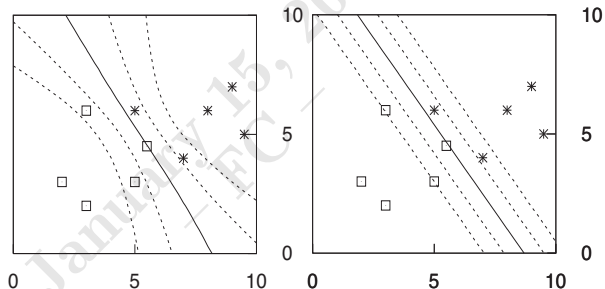
Energy-based samples

- Convergence in 10 K
- Acceptance rate 93%

Energy-based simulation (cont.)

Samples from iteration 10 000 to 40 000, every 1000 iterations

(a) The predictive function by averaging predictions from 30 samples



- Contours at $a = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2\}$, $y = \{0.5, 0.27, 0.73, 0.12, 0.88\}$

(b) Predictions by the ‘most probable’ setting of neuron parameters

Energy-based simulation (cont.)

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The behaviour of functions $G(\mathbf{w})$ and $M(\mathbf{w})$ during sampling

- Compared with values of G and M at $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$

Function $G(\mathbf{w})$ fluctuates around $G(\hat{\mathbf{w}})$, unsymmetrically

Function $M(\mathbf{w})$ also fluctuates, but not around $M(\hat{\mathbf{w}})$

- It cannot go lower than the optimum
- Actually, it rarely even gets closer

Energy-based simulations (cont.)

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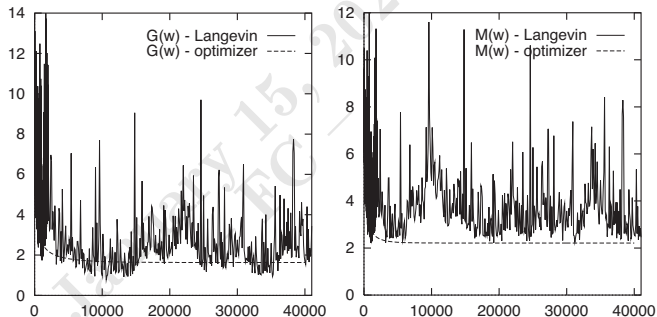
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(a) The error function as a function of the (log) number of iterations

- The error function during optimisation



(b) The objective function as a function of the (log) number of iterations

- The objective function during optimisation

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Near-Gaussian simulations

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An old trick with nonlinearities is to take them and locally linearise them

An old trick with distributions is to approximate them with Gaussians

- Such approximations may be a good alternative to evaluate

$$p(\mathbf{t}^{(N+1)} | \mathbf{x}^{(N+1)}, D, \alpha) = \int d^K \mathbf{w} y(\mathbf{x}^{(N+1)} | \mathbf{w}) \frac{1}{Z_M} \exp[-M(\mathbf{x})]$$

- ~ The actual name of the method is saddle-point approximation
- ~ The actual name of the method is Laplace's approximation
- ~ The actual name of the method is Gaussian approximation

Near-Gaussian simulations

Interest in an unnormalised probability density $P^*(x)$, peak at some x_0

- $Z_P \equiv \int P^*(x) dx$ is the normalising constant

We Taylor-expand the logarithm of $P^*(x)$ around its peak

$$\ln [P^*(x)] \simeq \ln [P^*(x_0)] - \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \left\{ -\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \ln [P^*(x)] \right\}_{x_0}}_c (x - x_0)^2 + \dots$$

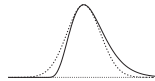
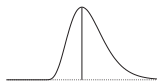
$$\simeq \ln [P^*(x_0)] - \frac{c}{2} (x - x_0)^2 + \dots$$

We approximate $P^*(x)$ by an unnormalised Gaussian

$$Q^*(x) \equiv P^*(x_0) \exp \left[-\frac{c}{2} (x - x_0)^2 \right]$$

Z_P is approximated by its normalising constant

$$Z_Q \equiv P^*(x_0) \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{c}}$$



We start by making a Gaussian approximation to the posterior probability

- We go to the bottom of $M(\mathbf{w})$ and there we Taylor-expand it

$$M(\mathbf{w}) \simeq M(\hat{\mathbf{w}}) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{w} - \hat{\mathbf{w}})^\top \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{w} - \hat{\mathbf{w}}) + \text{h.o.t.}$$

\mathbf{A} is the matrix of second derivatives (the Hessian) of $M(\mathbf{w})$

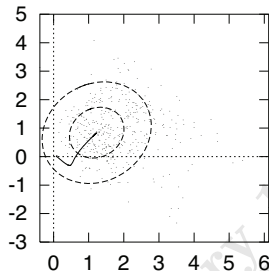
$$A_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial w_i \partial w_j} M(\mathbf{w}) \Big|_{\hat{\mathbf{w}}}$$

- Then, we define the Gaussian approximation

$$Q(\mathbf{w}|\hat{\mathbf{w}}, \mathbf{A}) = \left[\det \left(\frac{\mathbf{A}}{2\pi} \right) \right]^{1/2} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{w} - \hat{\mathbf{w}})^\top \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{w} - \hat{\mathbf{w}}) \right]$$

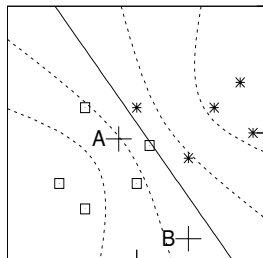
Q is a normal with covariance matrix \mathbf{A}^{-1}

Shape-based simulations (cont.)

(a) A projection of the Gaussian approximation onto the (w_1, w_2) -plane

- One and two standard deviation contours
- The trajectory of the optimizer
- Near-normal samples

$$p(\mathbf{t}^{(N+1)} | \mathbf{x}^{(N+1)}, D, \alpha)$$



(b) The predictive function obtained from the Gaussian approximation

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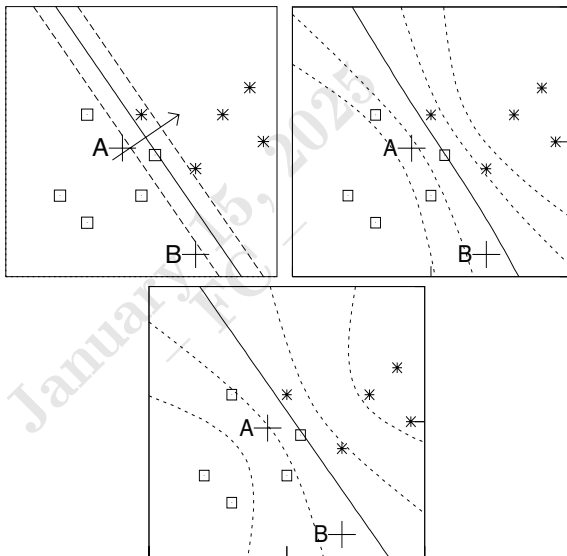
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