

Machine learning principles and applications in physics

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Image generated with Midjourney « A representation of deep learning merging with physics »



Given by: Myself and PIERRE Sébastien.



Format: 3 lectures + projects.



Exam: Oral presentation of your “solution” to the projects.



Aim: Introduce you to the basics of ML allowing to workout applications in physics.



Quick syllabus:

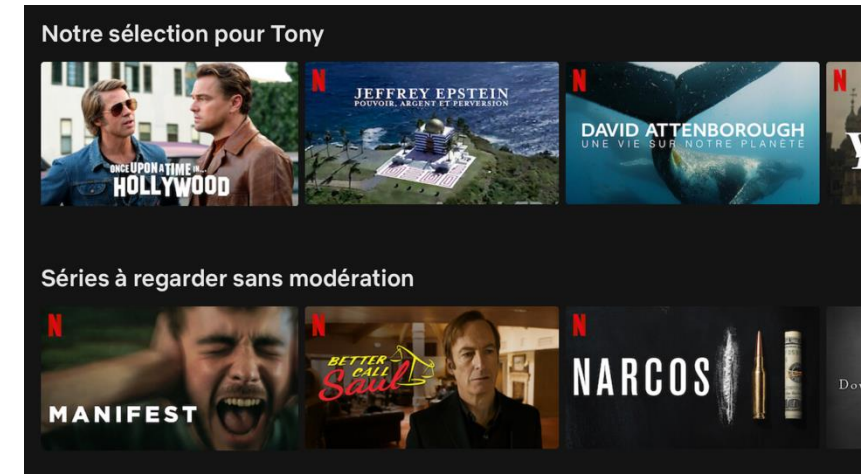
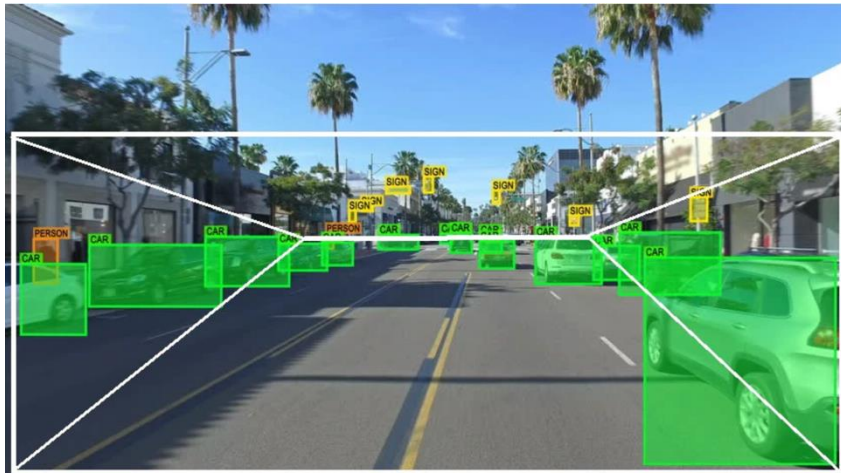
1. (today 02/09) **Crash course on ML: introduction, linear models and learning principles.**
2. (03/09) Tree-based methods and ensembling + beginning of DL + tutorial
3. (05/09) : end of DL (feed-forward networks, CNN) + optimization + tutorial + **projects**

Some references:

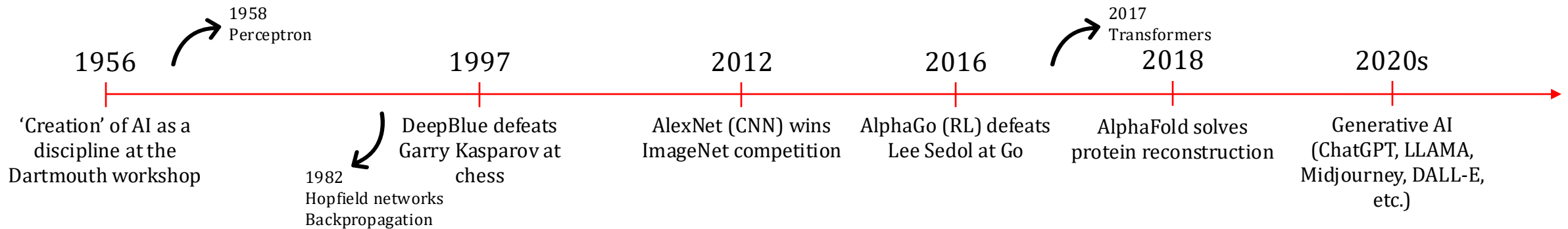
- [Deep Learning: Foundations and Concepts](#), Bishop & Bishop, 2023
- [Pattern recognition and Machine Learning](#), Cristopher Bishop, 2006
- [Deep Learning](#), Goodfellow, Bengio and Courville, 2016
- [Learning Theory from First Principles](#), Francis Bach, 2024
- <https://challengedata.ens.fr/>: a bank of data science challenges to apply all the things we will learn in this course

AI goal

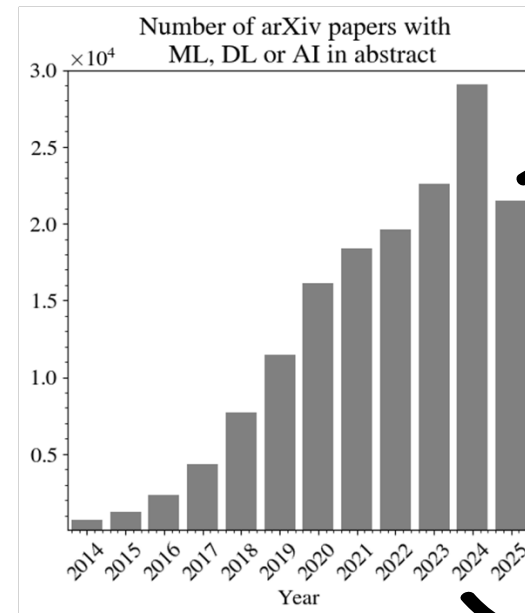
Design **systems** capable of performing complex tasks requiring *intelligence* (i.e. using reasoning, perception or language) **to take decisions** and **make predictions**.



Some (selected) AI breakthroughs



AI in science



2025 not over yet!

80 papers a day in average in 2024 (!)

Some scientific applications

Healthcare

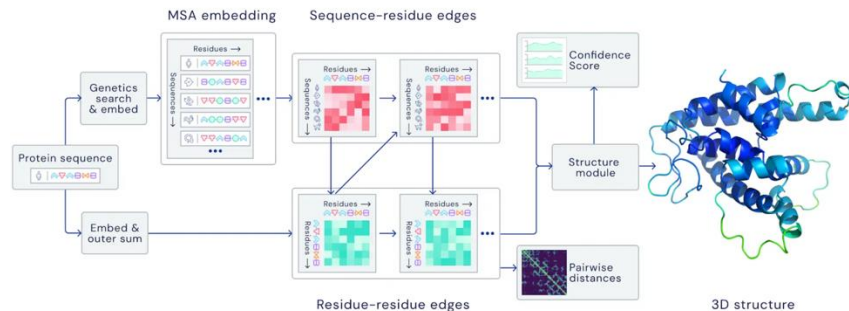
- Drug discovery
- Protein structure reconstruction

Astrophysics and cosmology

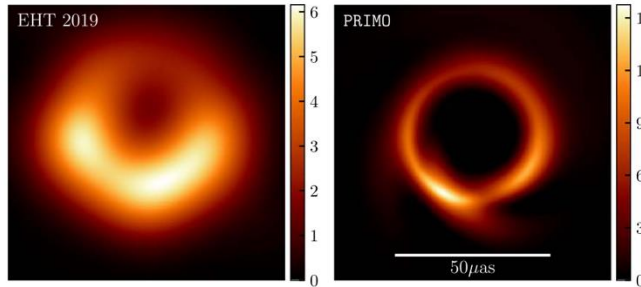
- Galaxy deblending
- Image restoration
- Source separation

Theoretical physics

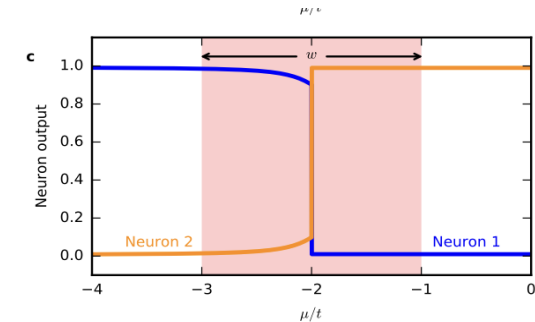
- Study phase transitions
- Discover experiments and equations



[Jumper et al., 2021](#)



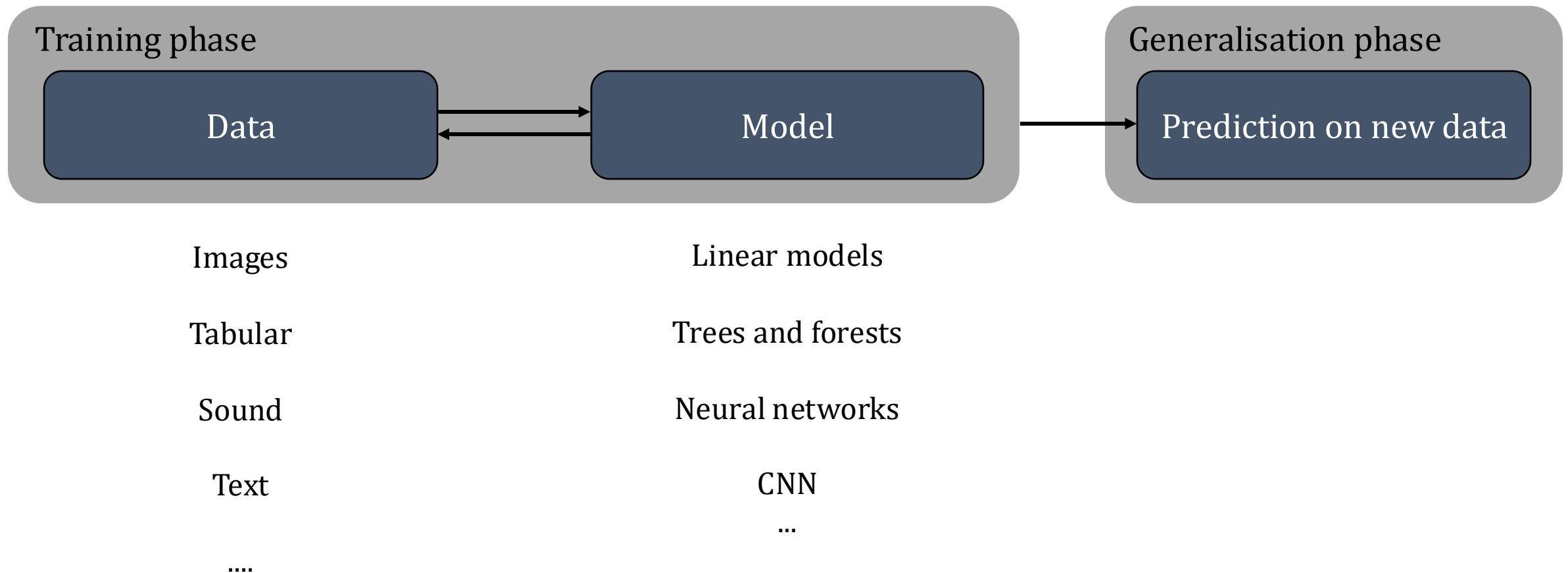
[Medeiros et al., 2023](#)



[Van Nieuwenburg et al., 2017](#)

... And many more (climate forecast, fraud detection in cybersecurity, binding energies in quantum chemistry)

Machine Learning came as a solution to design intelligent systems, replacing handcrafted decision rules by **learnt rules** using **training data** and **optimisation** of **parameterised models**.

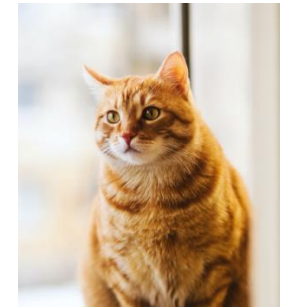
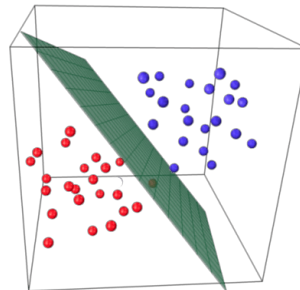
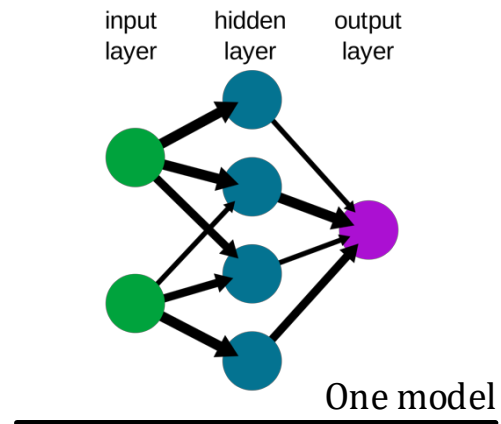


What is “learning”? An example

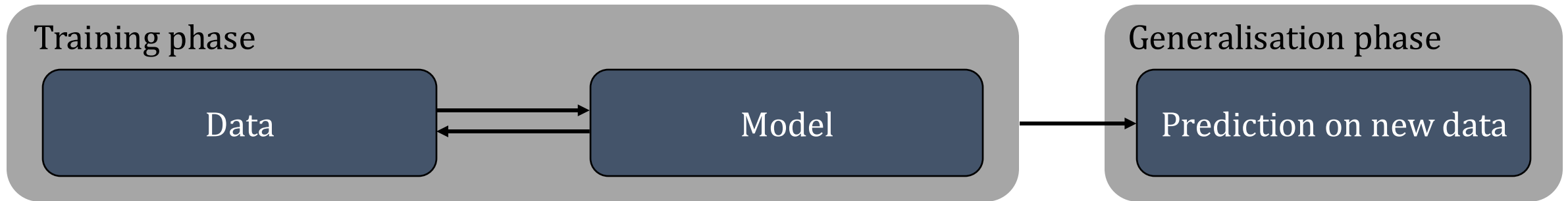
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Images of a “cat” or “dog”

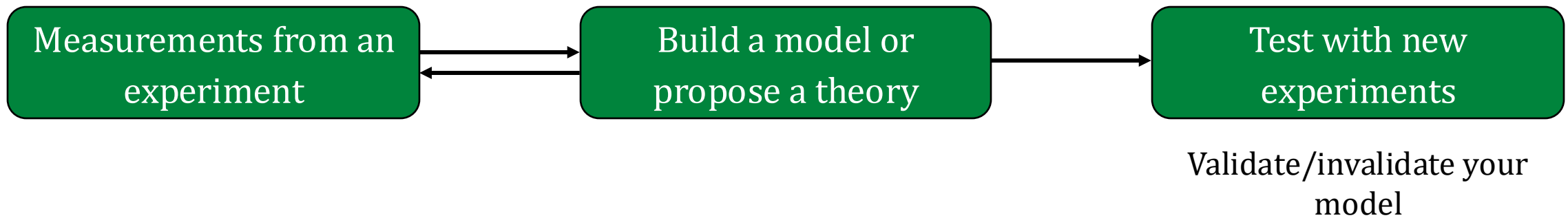


“cat” or “dog” ?

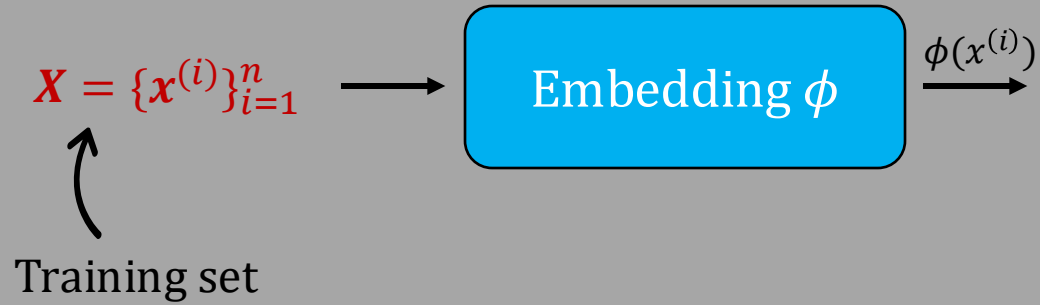


...In fact, all this is close to what you know!

The scientific method



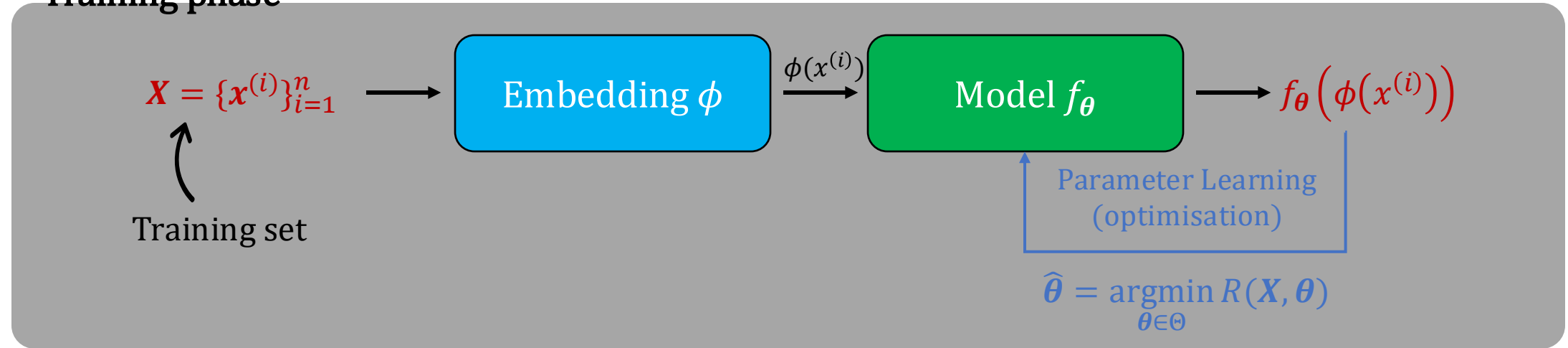
Training phase



1. Data X are **unstructured**, sometimes **noisy** and **unprocessed** like pixels of an image or sequence of characters or words.
2. The embedding $\phi(x^{(i)})$ is a **structured, numerical** vector representation of the data whose elements are **meaningful features**. It depends on the data and the purpose. It can be **handcrafted or learnt**.

Finding a good embedding is a central part of ML: it eases the problem by preserving the essential structure of the data that matters for the task.

Training phase

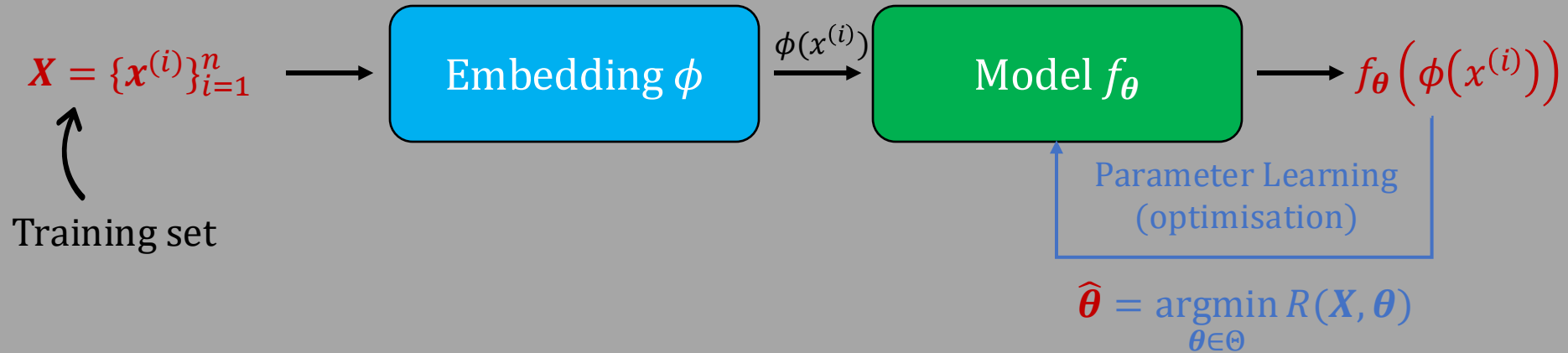


Some notations and terminologies:

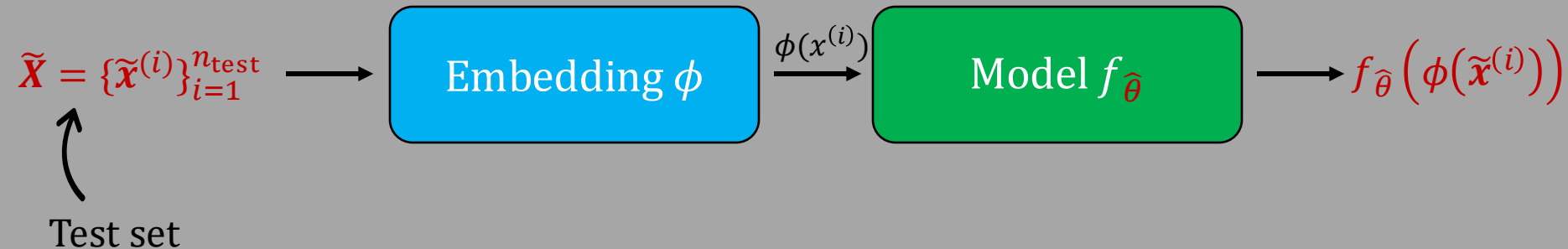
- $x^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is *one training data* (there are n of them),
- $\phi(x^{(i)}) \in \mathbb{R}^{d'}$ is an embedding of $x^{(i)}$ sometimes called *feature vector*,
- $\theta \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^p$ are the *parameters* of the model,
- $R(X, \theta)$ is the *risk* and measures the error of the model with parameters θ on data X .

At the end of the training procedure, we have a model $f_{\hat{\theta}}$ committing an error of $R_{\text{train}} = R(X, \hat{\theta})$ on the training set.

Training phase



Generalisation phase



Using the test set, we can evaluate the test error $R_{\text{test}} = R(\tilde{X}, \hat{\theta})$ and compare it to R_{train} to detect **generalisation issues** (overfitting or underfitting).

Supervised learning

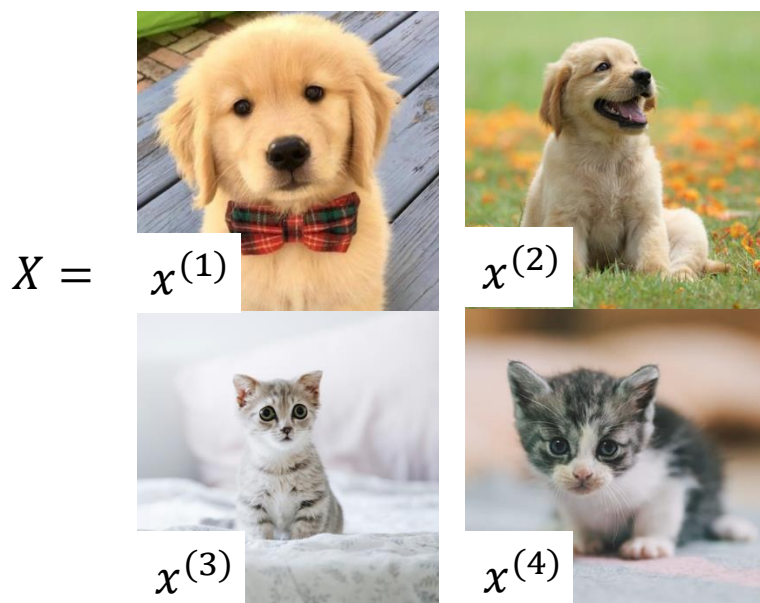
- Training data are actually X and Y coming as pairs

$$X = \{(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^n, \quad (\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}^{(i)}) \in \mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$$

- If \mathbb{Y} is continuous, then the task is called **regression**, and if \mathbb{Y} is discrete, then it is a **classification** problem.



$\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ is the i th **data vector** of the training base, and $\mathbf{y}^{(i)}$ is called the **target (or predicted) variable**



Example: Determine if an image encodes a cat or a dog (called a **classification** task)

$$Y = \{1, 1, 0, 0\}$$

$$f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(i)}$$



$$f_{\hat{\theta}}$$

$$\hat{\theta} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmin}} R(X, \theta)$$

Training data

Model

Optimisation

Supervised learning

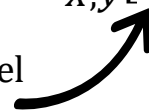
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$$\mathbf{X} = \{(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^n, \quad (\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}^{(i)}) \in \mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$$

- If \mathbb{Y} is continuous, then the task is called **regression**, and if \mathbb{Y} is discrete, then it is a **classification** problem.
- Ideally, we would like to minimise the **expected risk**, i.e. the **expected value of a loss function** $\ell(y, \hat{y})$

$$R(\mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}}[\ell(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}})]$$

Loss function: measures how bad your model
is on a single example



However, we do not know $p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y})$ so in practice we rely on the **empirical risk** instead

$$\hat{R}(\mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(\mathbf{y}^{(i)}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(i)}).$$

Supervised learning

- Training data are actually X and Y coming as pairs

$$\mathbf{X} = \{(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^n, \quad (\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}^{(i)}) \in \mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{Y}$$

- If \mathbb{Y} is continuous, then the task is called regression, and if \mathbb{Y} is discrete, then it is a classification problem.

Examples of
tasks

Classification

Regression

Timeseries prediction

Segmentation

Examples of
models

Artificial Neural network

Random forest

Linear regression

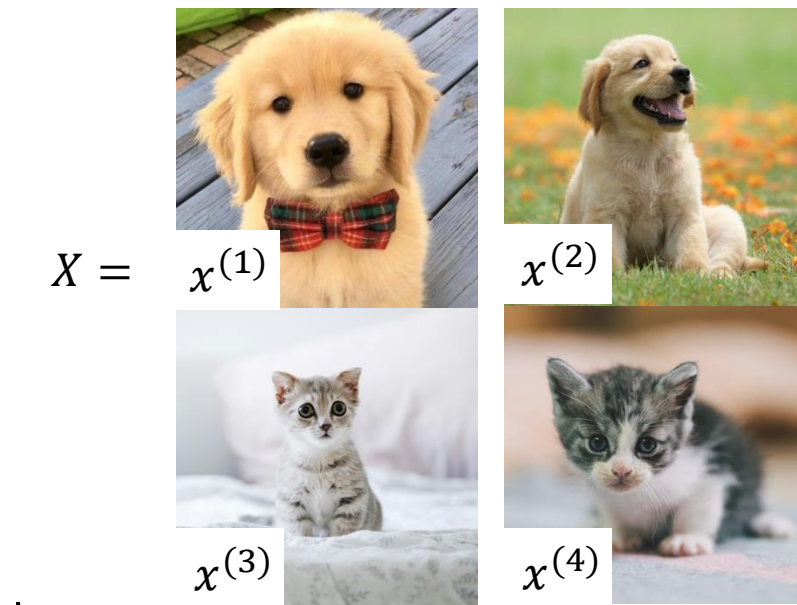
Logistic regression

Naïve Bayes

Nearest neighbours

Unsupervised learning

- Training data are the set of $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$'s only; no known results to predict
- In unsupervised learning, one seeks **patterns or structures** in X without prior labels
- Usually boils down to model the probability distribution of the dataset



Training data

Example: Generate new images of cats and dogs (called a **generation** task)

$$f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$$



$$f_{\hat{\theta}}$$

$$\hat{\theta} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmin}} R(\mathbf{X}, \theta)$$

$$\text{such that } p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \approx p(\mathbf{x})$$

Model

Optimisation

Unsupervised learning

- Training data are the set of $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$'s only; no known results to predict
- In unsupervised learning, one seeks **patterns or structures** in X without prior labels
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Examples of
tasks

Clustering

Data augmentation

Dimensionality reduction

Sampling

Examples of
models

Autoencoder

Boltzmann Machine

Diffusion models

Gaussian mixture model

Generative Adversarial network

Reinforcement learning

- The philosophy is different: the model does not try to “imitate” like in supervised learning nor to find patterns but “tries” things
- It is based on an **agent** interacting with an **environment**
- The agent tries to find the best possible sequence of states and actions to **maximise a reward**

Examples of tasks

Game theory

Robotics

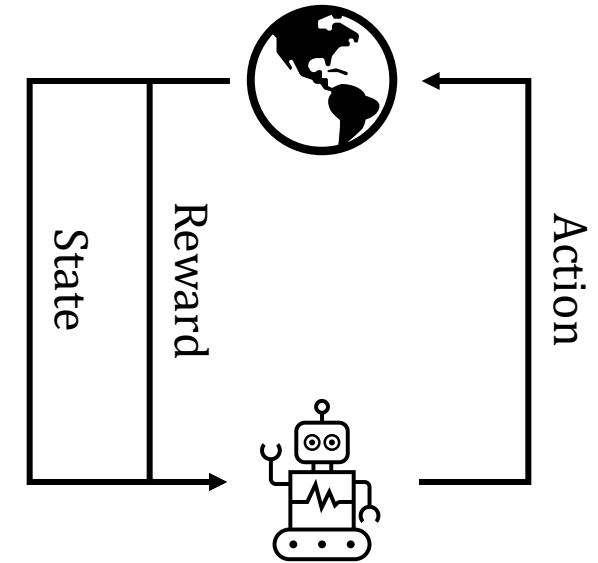
Autonomous driving

Examples of models

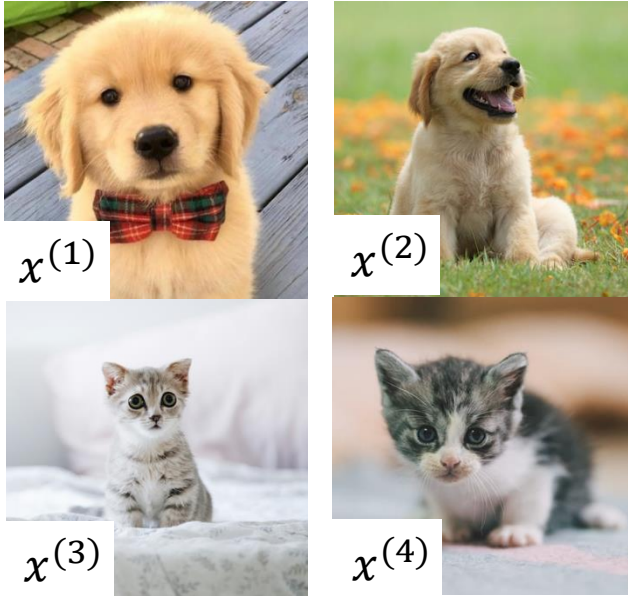
Markov decision processes

Q-networks

Deep policy gradient



Not discussed in this course, but a very good reference is [Reinforcement Learning – An introduction, Sutton and Barto, 2018](#)



$d \approx 10^6$

- To sample a $[0,1]^d$ space with a shortest distance to a test point at most ϵ , we need $n_{\text{train}} \geq \epsilon^{-d} = e^{-d \log \epsilon}$
- $d \approx 80$ requires more samples than the number of atoms in the universe

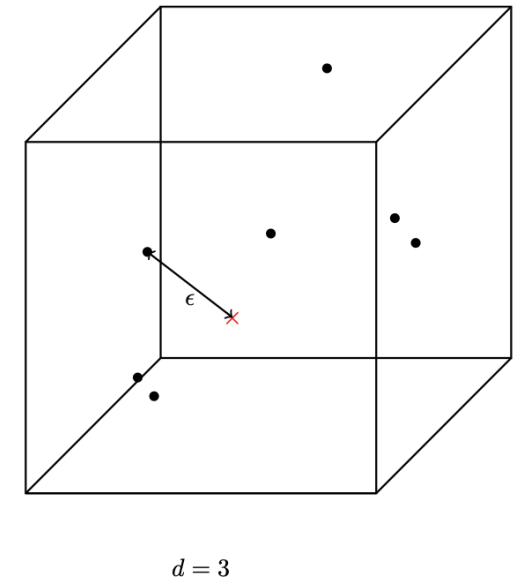
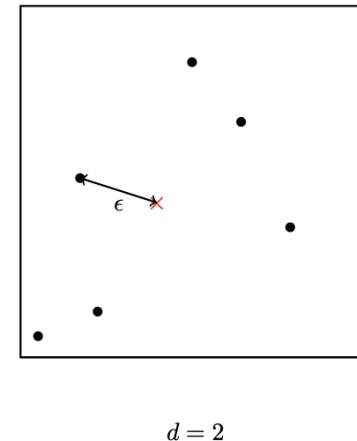
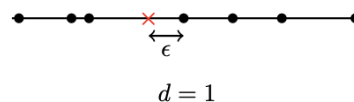
1-nearest neighbour

- A simple classification rule is for instance associating to a data the label of its closest neighbour in the d -dimensional space.

$$\hat{y} = y^{(m)} \text{ with } m = \operatorname{argmin}_i \|x - x^{(i)}\|_2^2$$

- In this case $R_{\text{train}} = 0$ but R_{test} is very large! Why?

Curse of dimensionality





Traditional methods typically break down in high-dimensional spaces (**curse of dimensionality**) and it is impossible to design handcrafted decision rules for complex tasks.



IF THERE IS ONLY ONE THING TO REMEMBER FROM THIS CLASS

The **curse of dimensionality** is the **central problem of machine learning**. To fight it, ML relies on **prior information** about the problem:

- **Reduce the dimensionality**: select a subset of meaningful features (or their interactions) through appropriate embeddings.
- Exploit **structures** in the data (invariances, sparsity, long/short range correlations, etc.) to define the model,
- **Penalise** complex models leading to poor generalisation performances using regularisation.