

PHYS 139/239: Machine Learning in Physics

**Lecture 5:
Neural networks**

Javier Duarte — January 24, 2023

Homework

- Some typos in Homework 1 solutions! Please check latest file!
- Homework 1 final/corrections due Wednesday 1/25 5 5pm
- Homework 2 to be released Wednesday 1/25 as well
- Draft due Friday 2/3 5pm
- Final/corrections due Wednesday 2/8 5pm

Note: This last part turned out to be more difficult than I anticipated so all answers should get credit.

My initial idea for a solution of two engineered features that would allow the spiral pattern to be linearly separated was $r = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}$ and $\theta = \arctan 2(x_1, x_2)$. The four-quadrant $\arctan 2(x_1, x_2)$ has an output range that covers the full $[-\pi, \pi]$ range as defined in <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Atan2>. I also had to swap $x_1 \leftrightarrow x_2$ from how you would usually define this because of a bug in the TensorFlow Playground code! See <https://github.com/tensorflow/playground/blob/02469bd3751764b20486015d4202b792af5362a6/src/datasets#L145-L146>.

*However, if we plot these two features, we see that the resulting dataset is **not** linearly separable! After staring at the source code of how the dataset is generated and some trial and error, we can come up with an engineered feature that (together with r) lets the dataset be linearly separated, namely $(\theta - 2r) \bmod 2\pi$ (and there are many variations possible). See the figure below.*

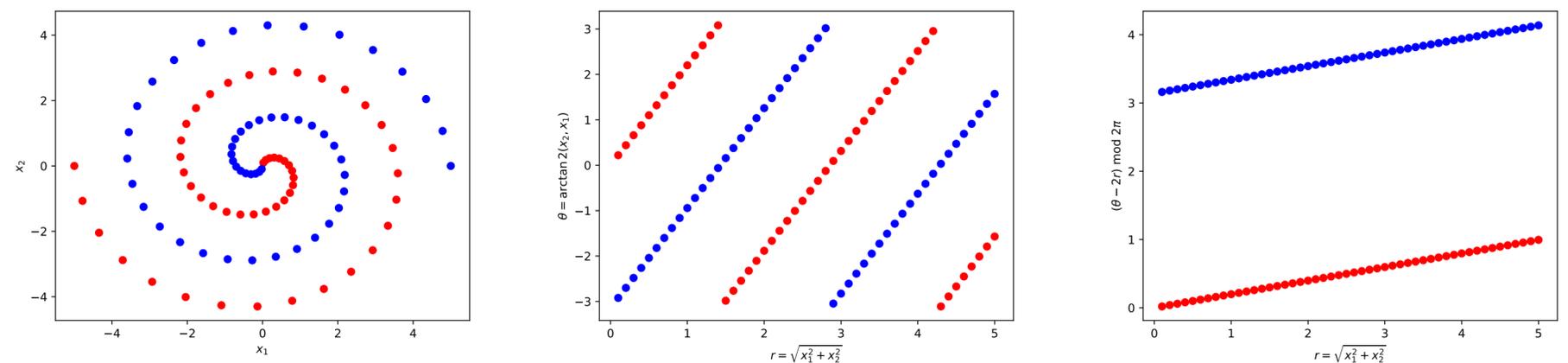
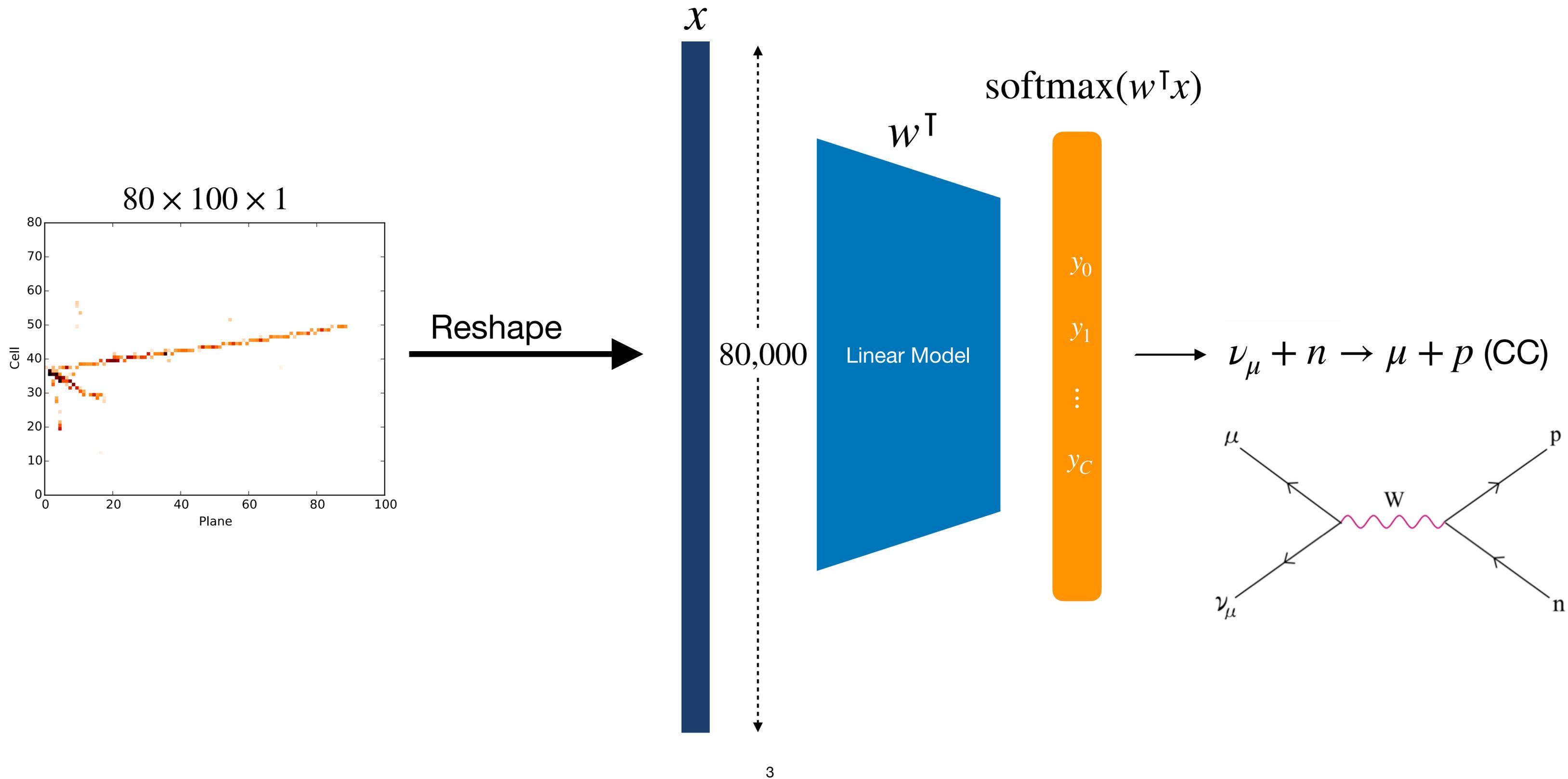


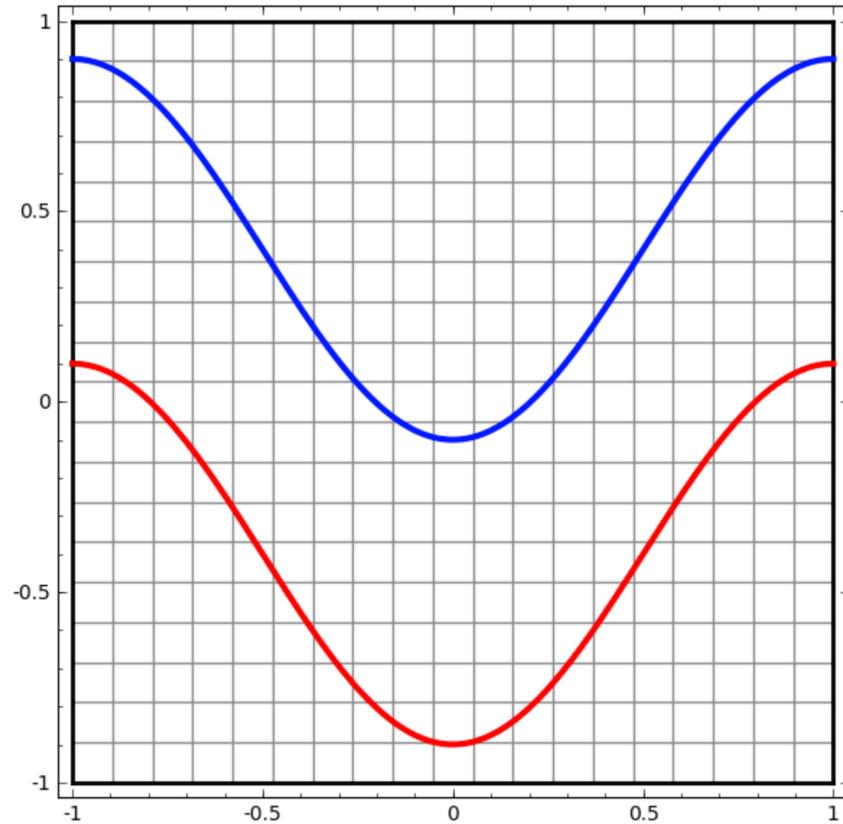
Figure 11: Spiral dataset in (x_1, x_2) (left), in (r, θ) (center), and in $(r, (\theta - 2r) \bmod 2\pi)$ (right).

Recap: (Multiclass) logistic regression

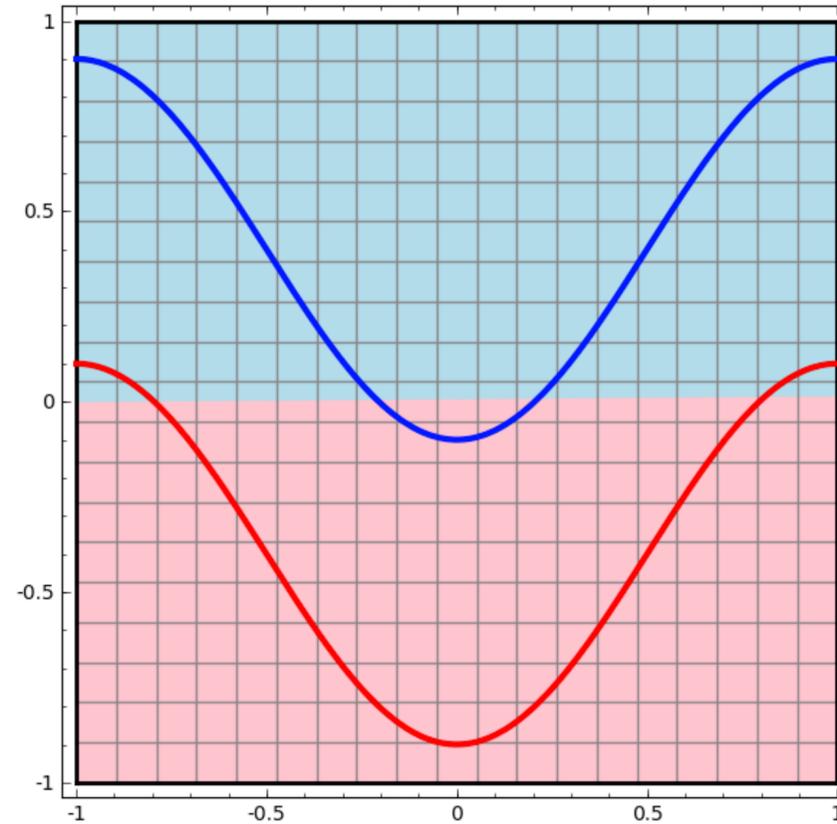


Linear models & embeddings

Data

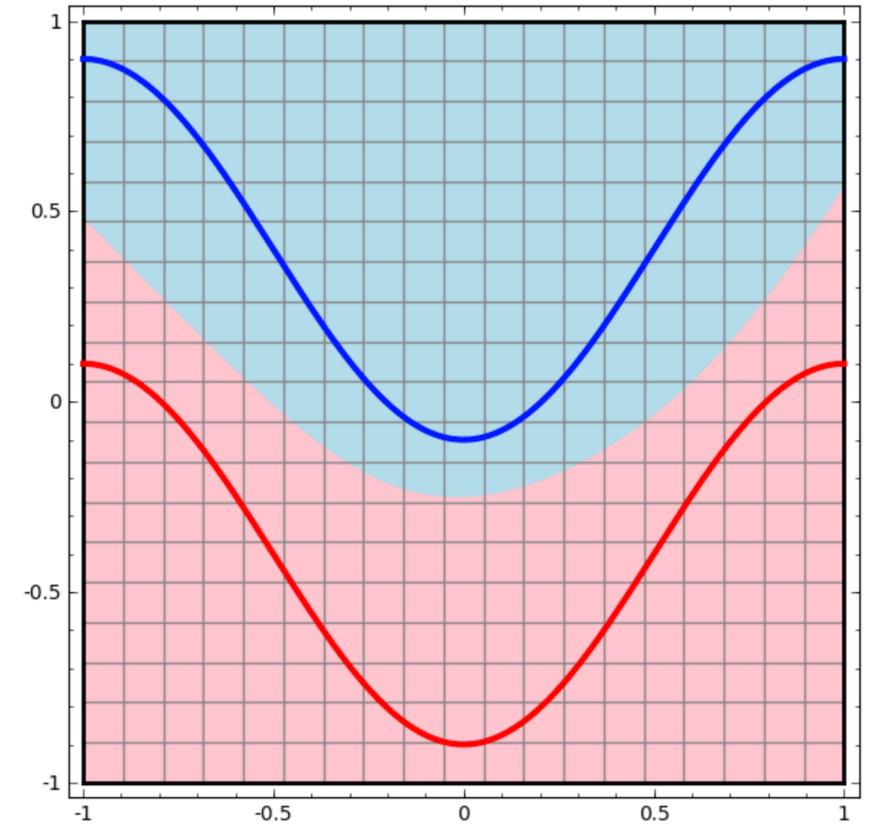


Linear classifier



$$y = \text{softmax}(w^T x)$$

Embedding + Linear classifier



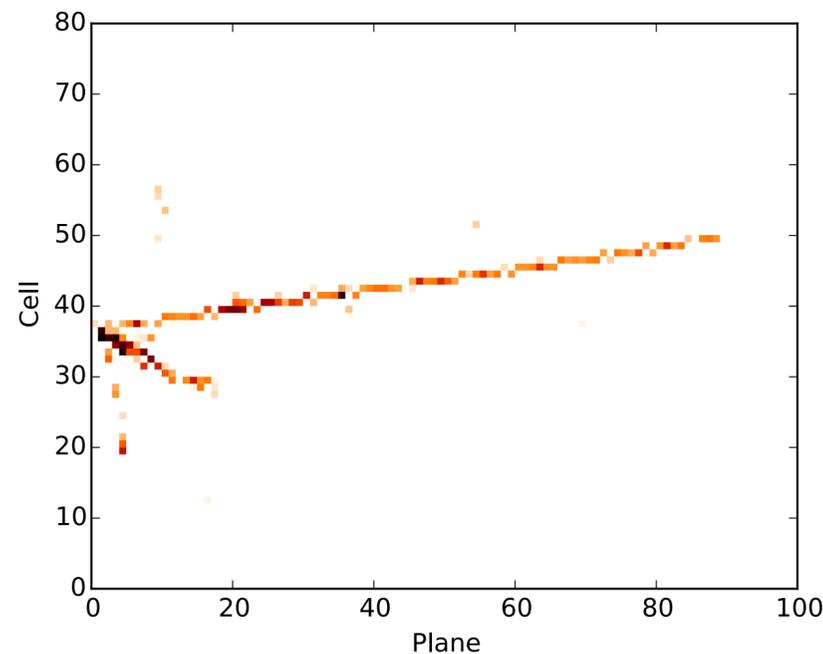
$$y = \text{softmax}(w^T \phi(x))$$

We have seen the polynomial embedding:

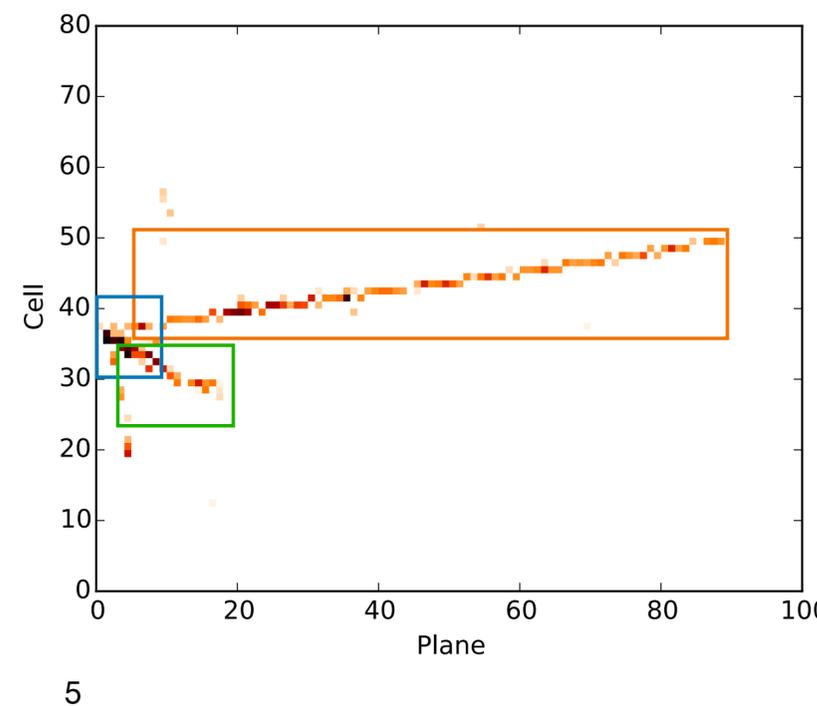
$$\phi(x) = (1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n)$$

Limitations of linear models

- **Problem:** A linear model considers each feature $x^{(i)}$ **independently** and regresses the weight $w^{(i)}$ with which it contributes to the label
- But often individual low-level features (e.g., pixels in an image) are not meaningful. What matters is the relationship between pixels
- Example: To recognize a $\nu_\mu + n \rightarrow \mu + p$ interaction, we need to look at **parts** and the **relationship between parts**



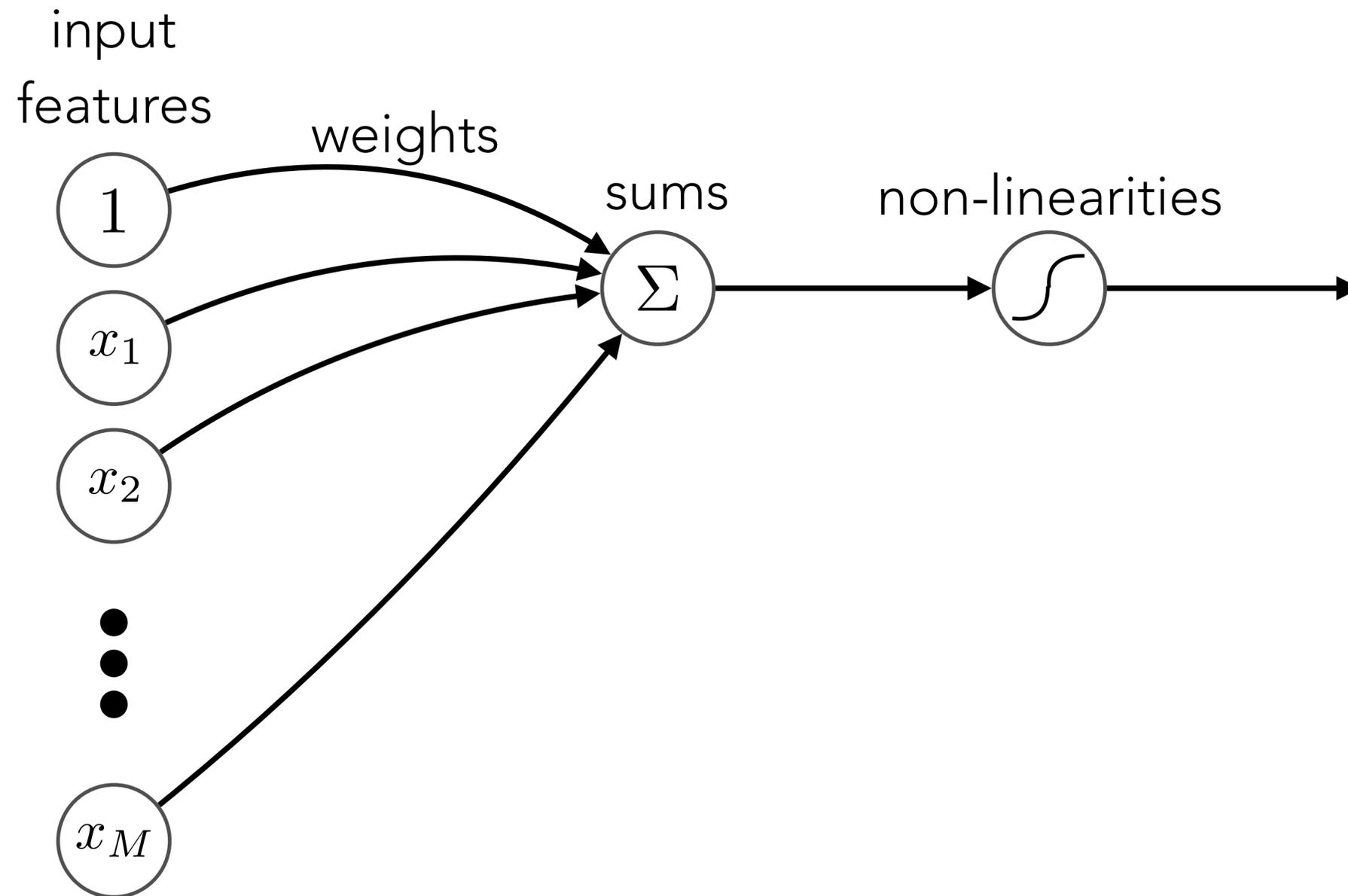
+



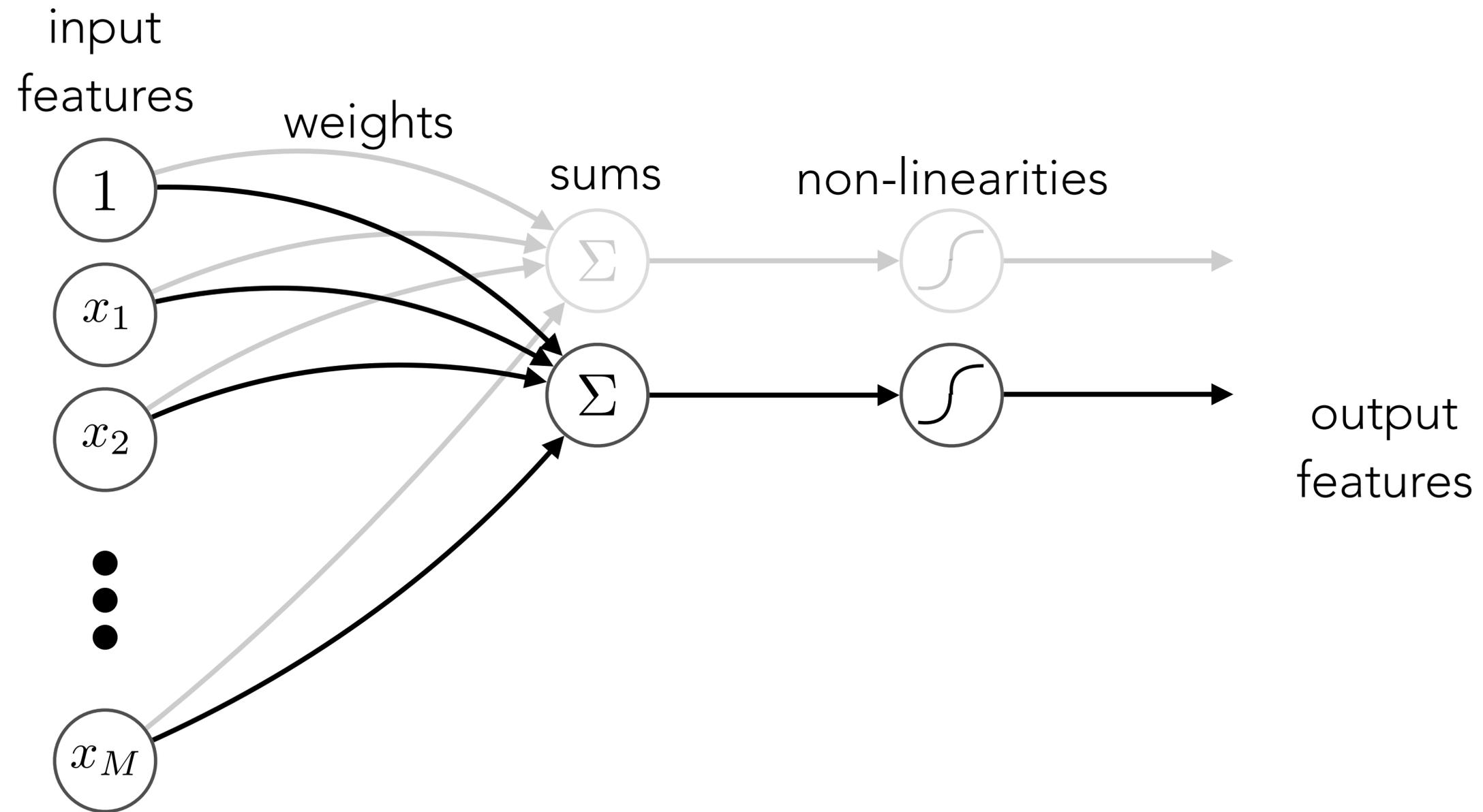
→ ν_μ CC

In theory, we can learn an embedding $\phi(x)$ that encodes all this (and this is done), but can we learn it?

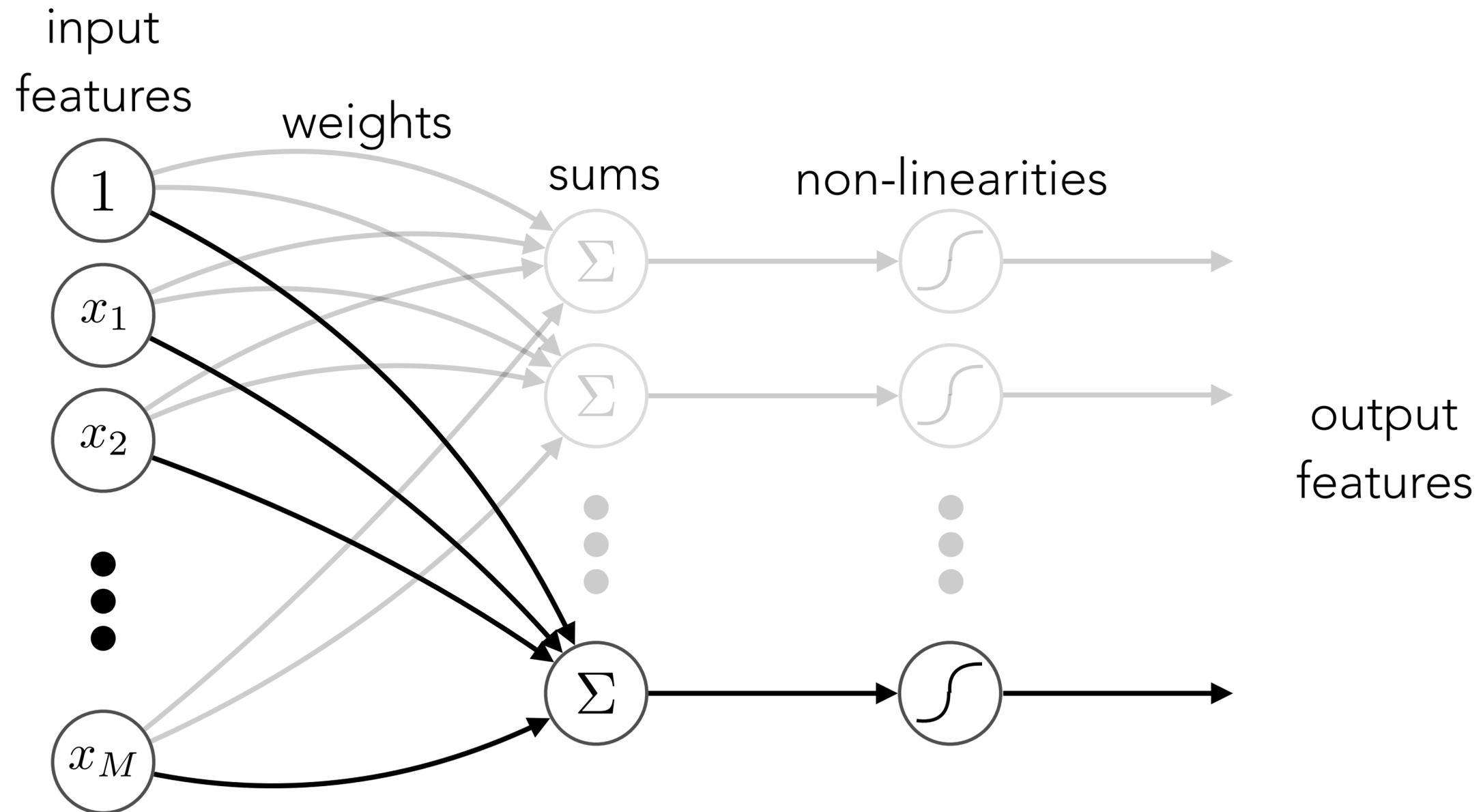
One artificial neuron



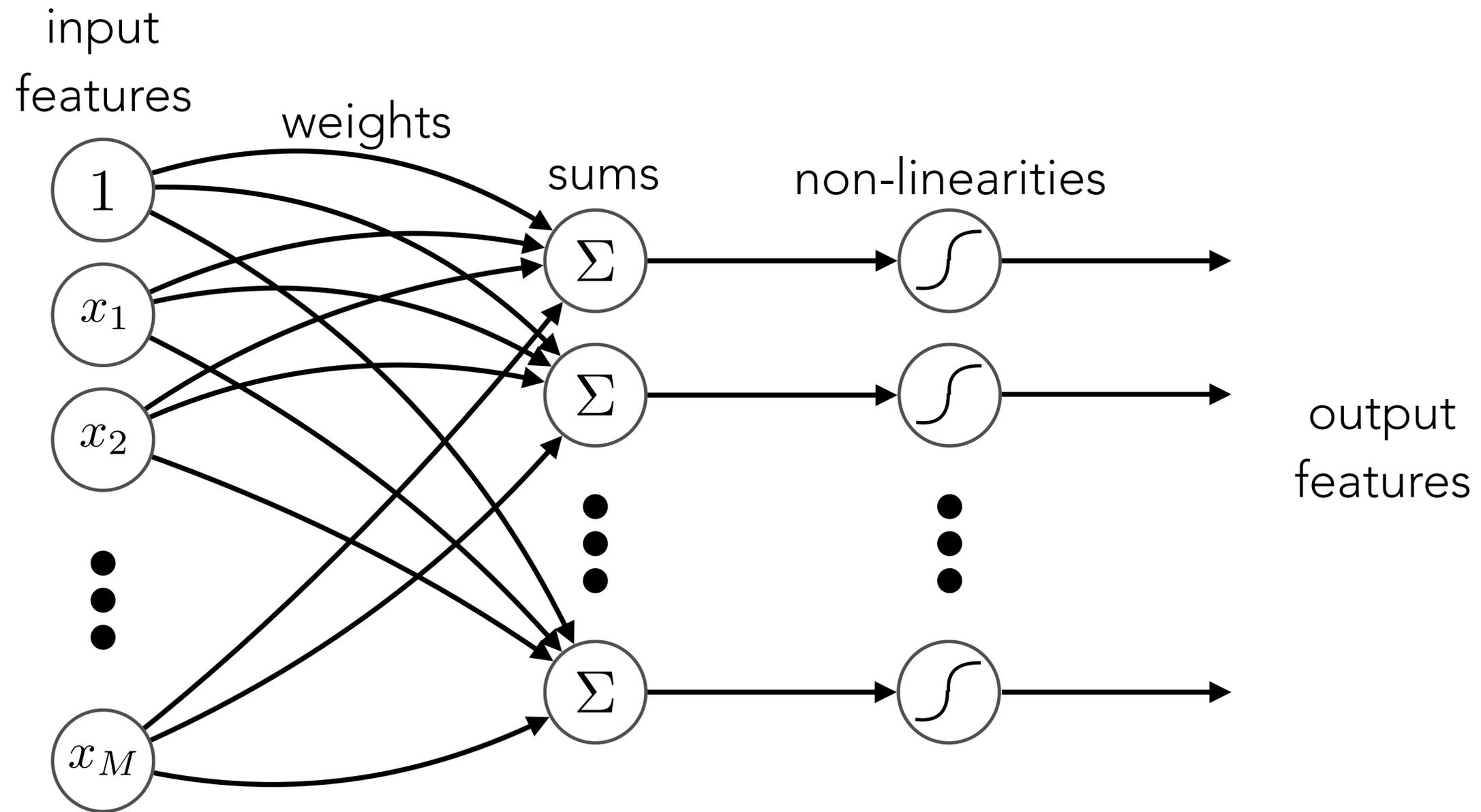
Two artificial neurons



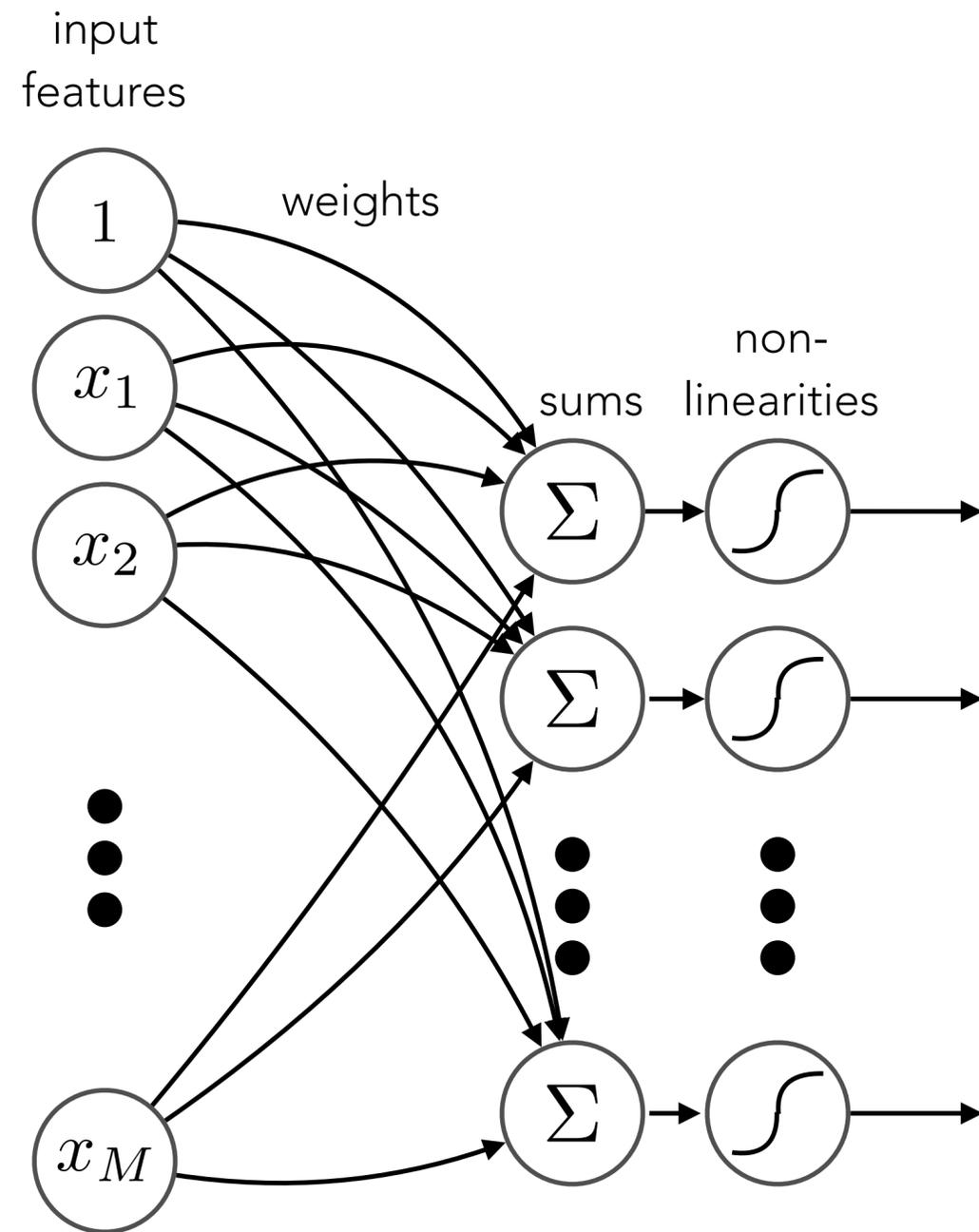
N artificial neurons



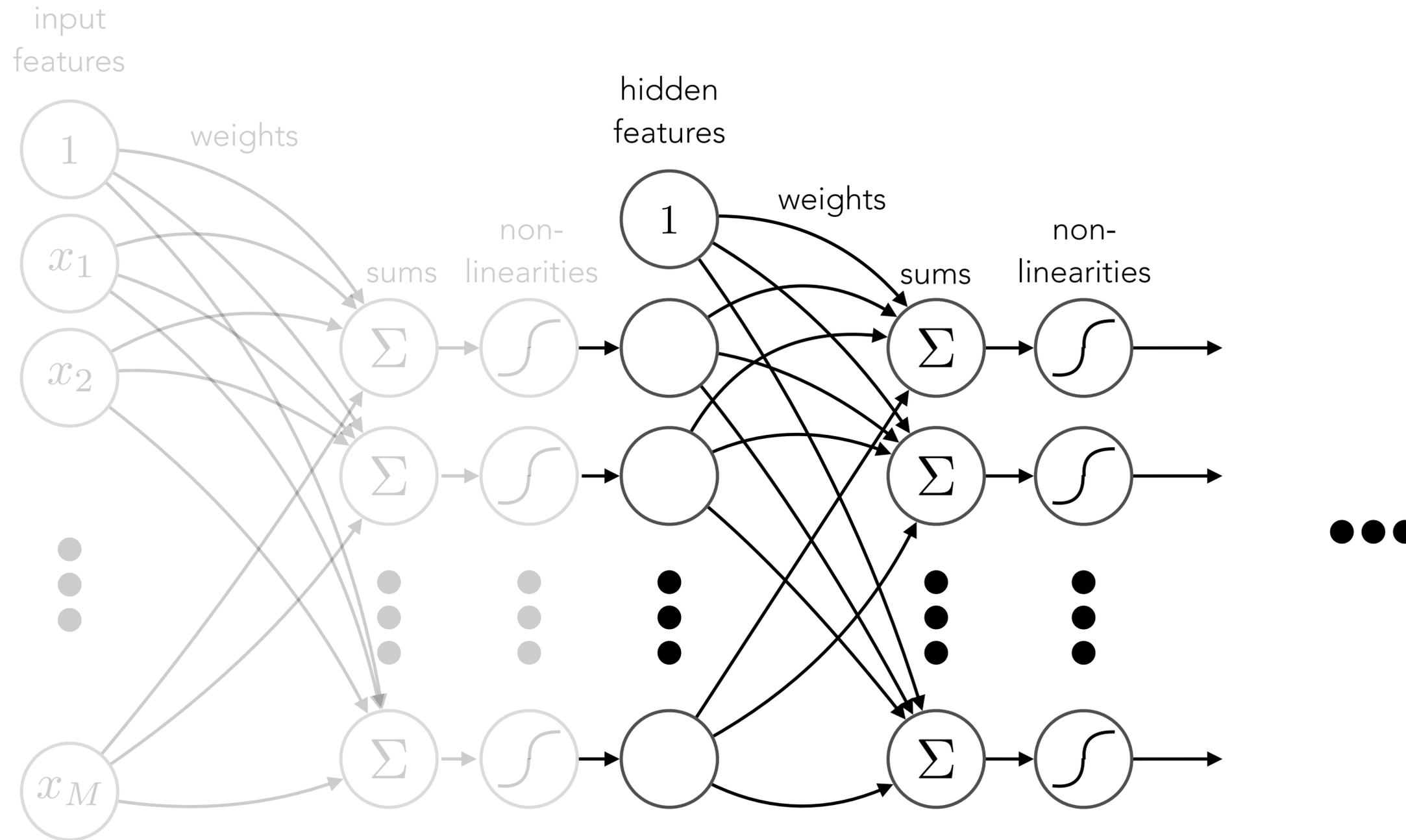
N artificial neurons form a layer



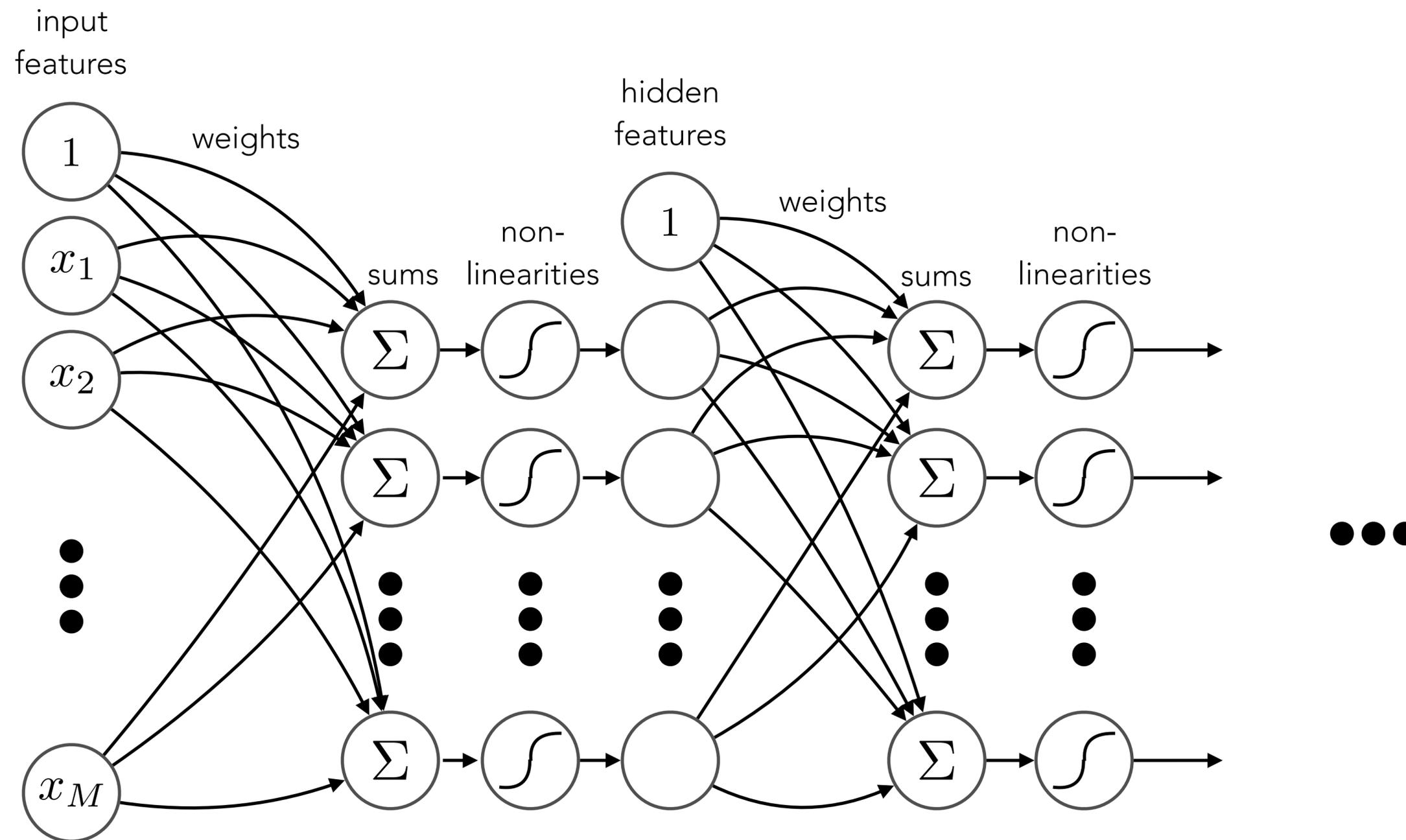
N artificial neurons form a layer



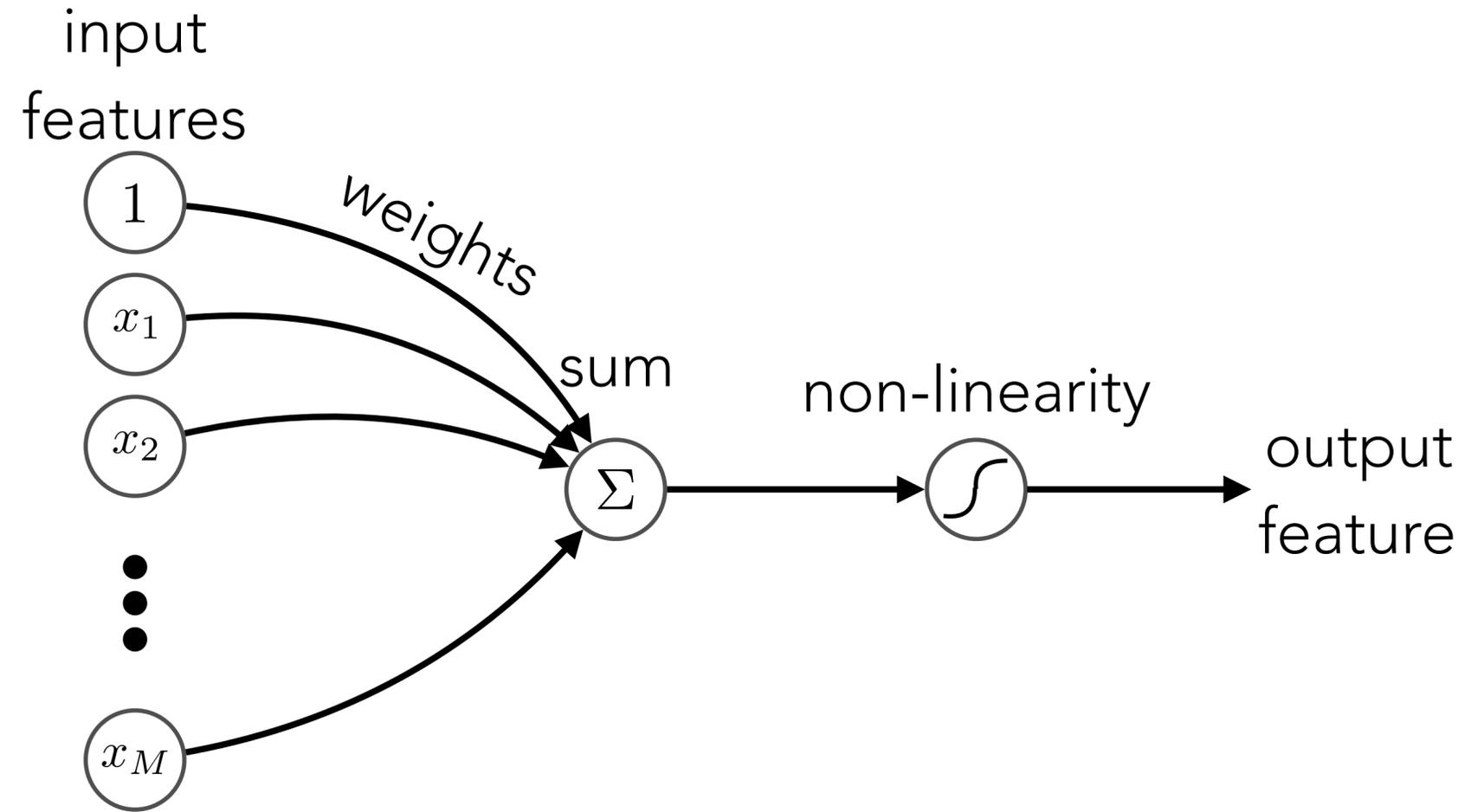
N artificial neurons form a layer



Multiple layers form a network



One artificial neuron

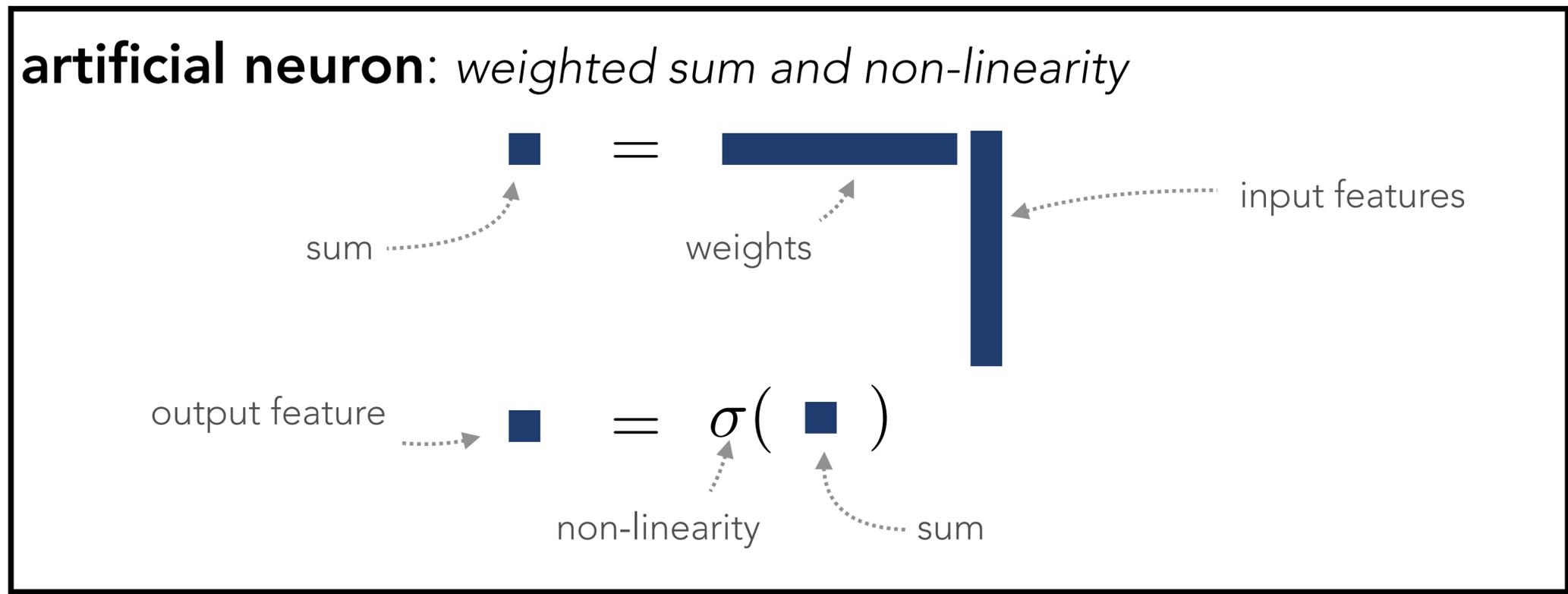
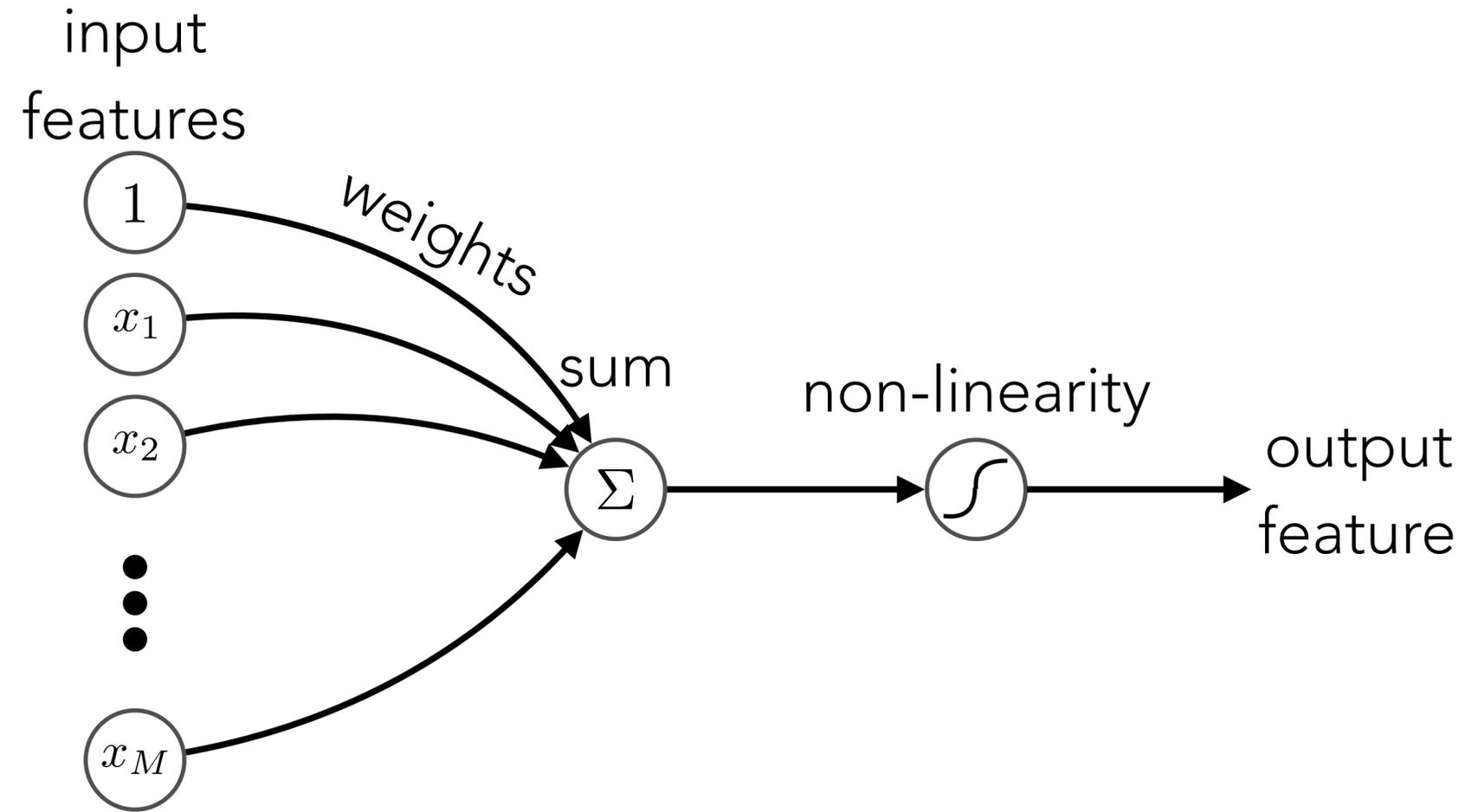


artificial neuron: weighted sum and non-linearity

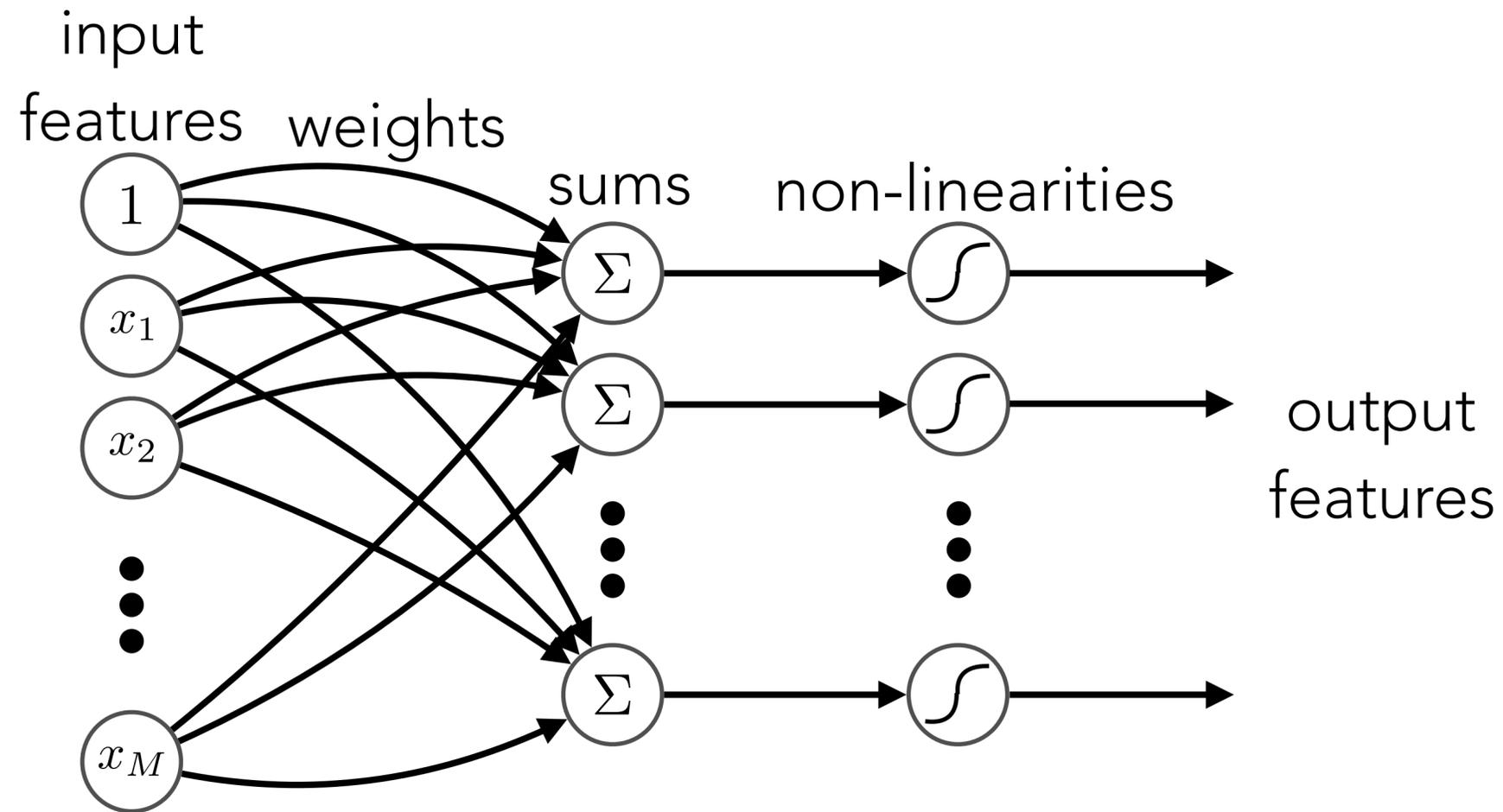
$$s = w_0 + w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + \dots + w_Mx_M = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$$
$$h = \sigma(s)$$

The diagram includes several annotations with dotted arrows: "bias" points to w_0 ; "weights" points to the w_i terms; "input features" points to the x_i terms; "sum" points to the variable s ; "output feature" points to h ; "non-linearity" points to the σ function; and another "sum" points to the s term in the second equation.

One artificial neuron



N artificial neurons in a layer

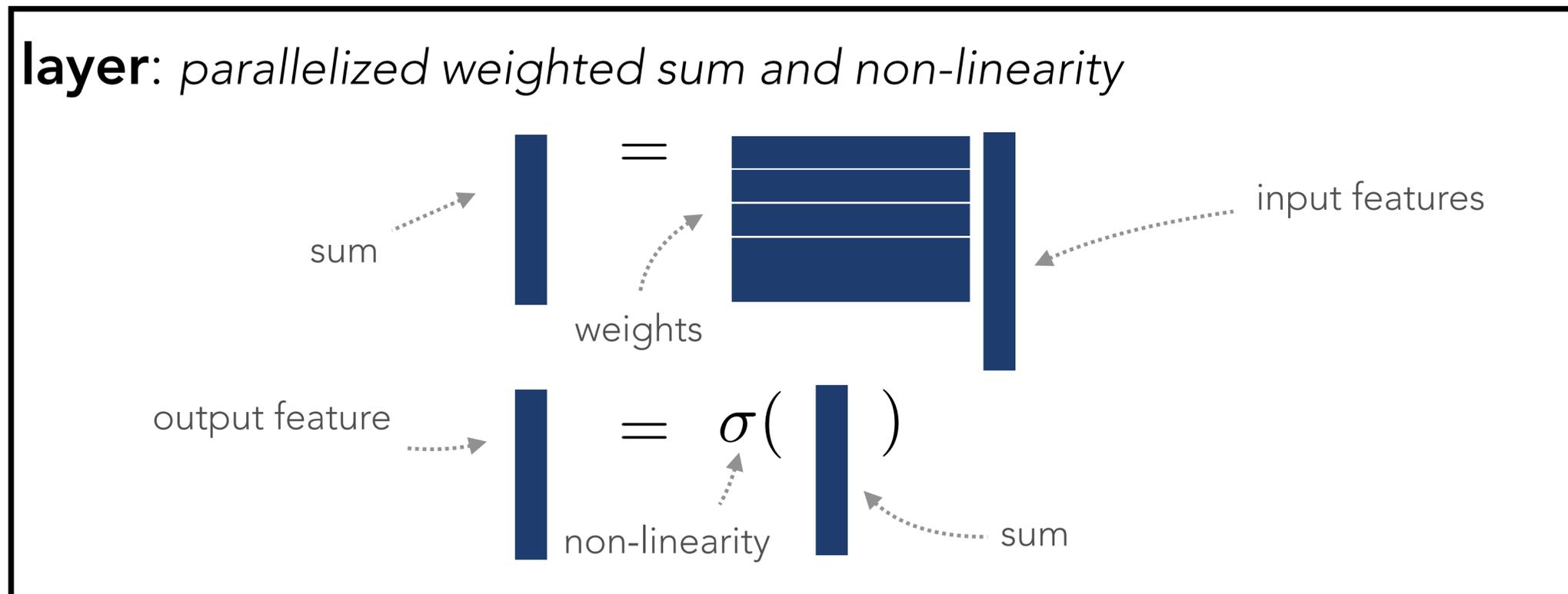
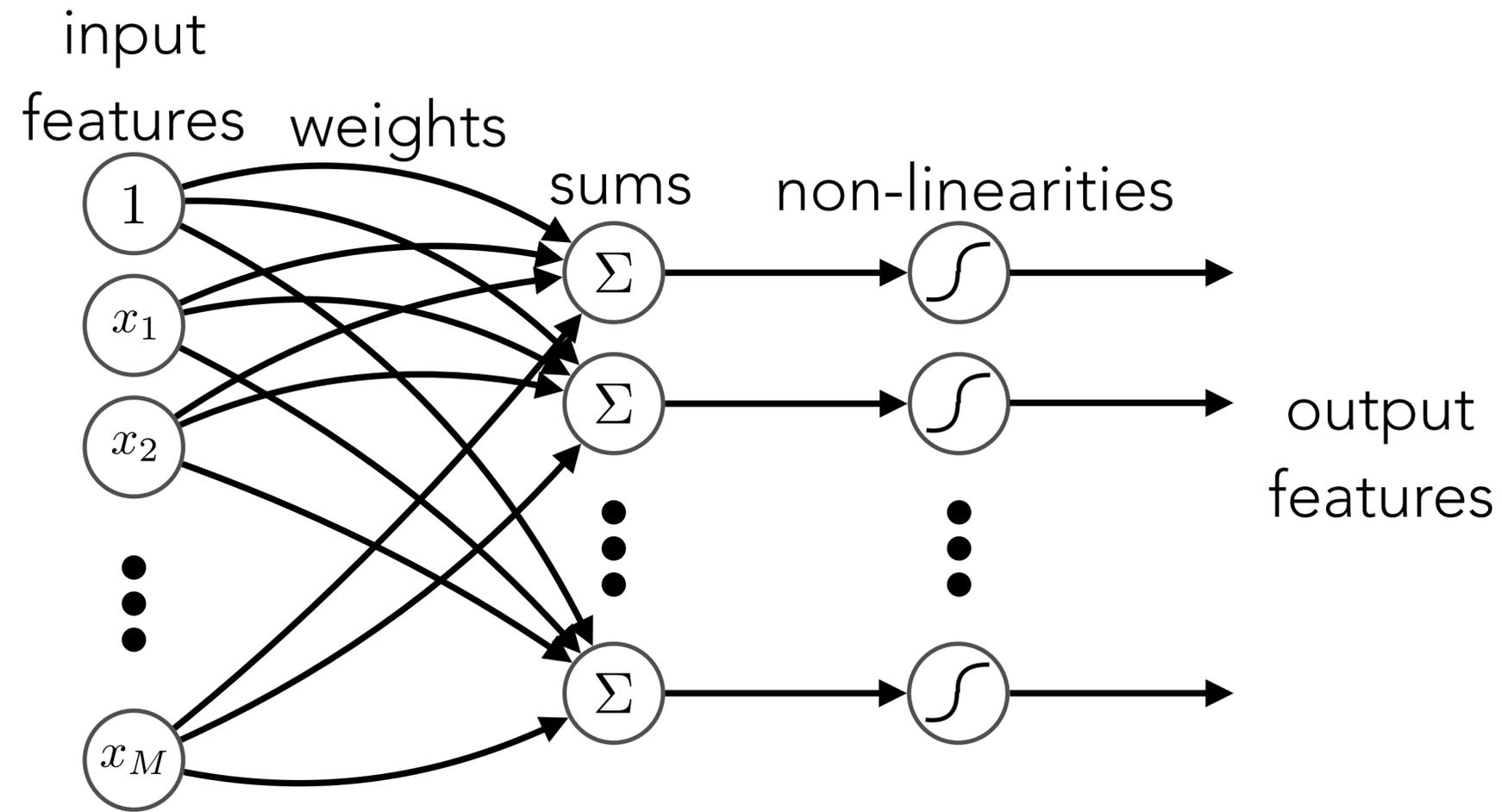


layer: *parallelized weighted sum and non-linearity*

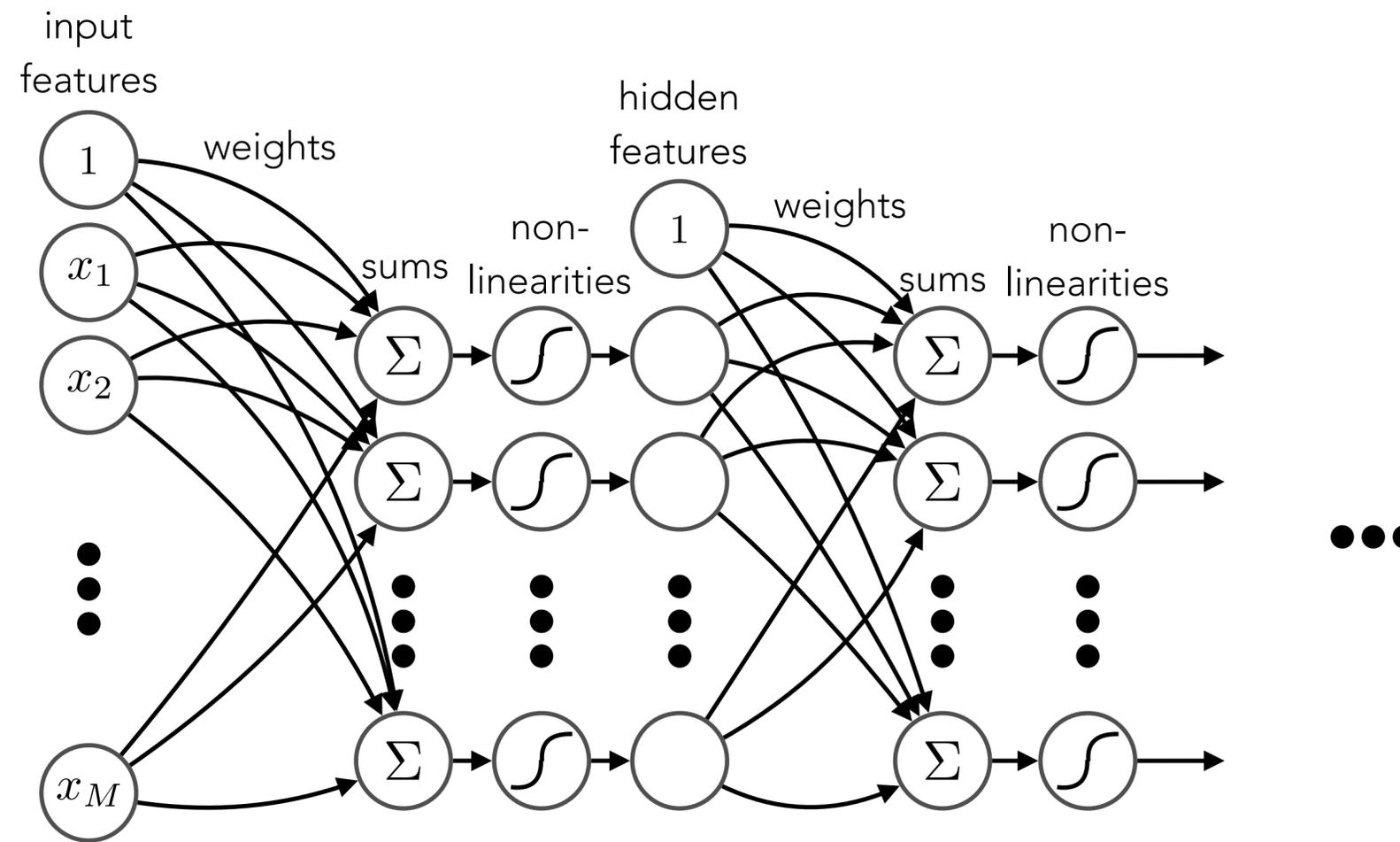
one sum per weight vector $s_j = \mathbf{w}_j^\top \mathbf{x}$ \longrightarrow $\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{W}^\top \mathbf{x}$ vector of sums from weight matrix

$$\mathbf{h} = \sigma(\mathbf{s})$$

N artificial neurons in a layer



Layers in a network



network: *sequence of parallelized weighted sums and non-linearities*

DEFINE $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \equiv \mathbf{x}$, $\mathbf{x}^{(1)} \equiv \mathbf{h}$, ETC.

1st layer

$$\mathbf{s}^{(1)} = \mathbf{W}^{(1)\top} \mathbf{x}^{(0)}$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = \sigma(\mathbf{s}^{(1)})$$

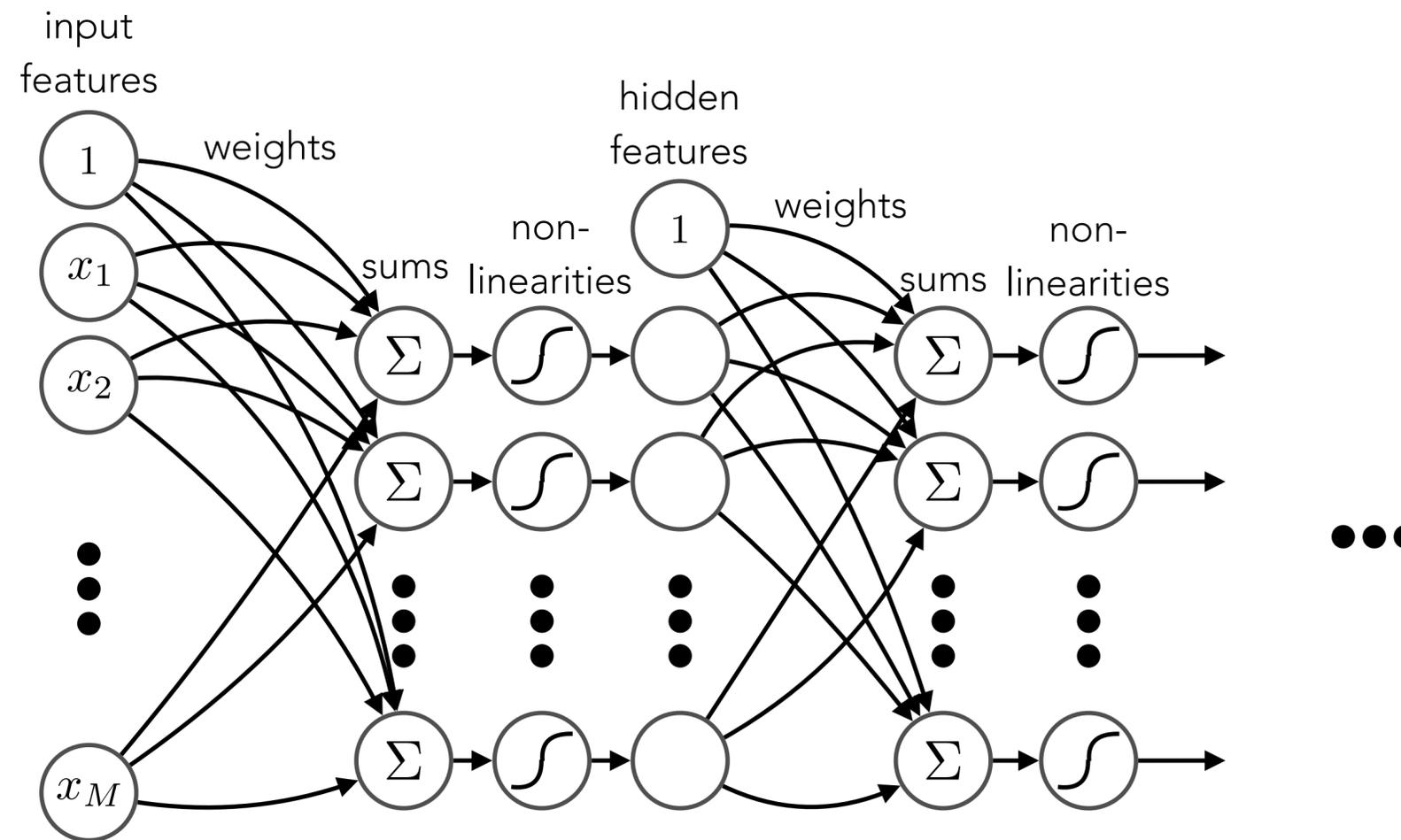
2nd layer

$$\mathbf{s}^{(2)} = \mathbf{W}^{(2)\top} \mathbf{x}^{(1)}$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(2)} = \sigma(\mathbf{s}^{(2)})$$

...

Layers in a network

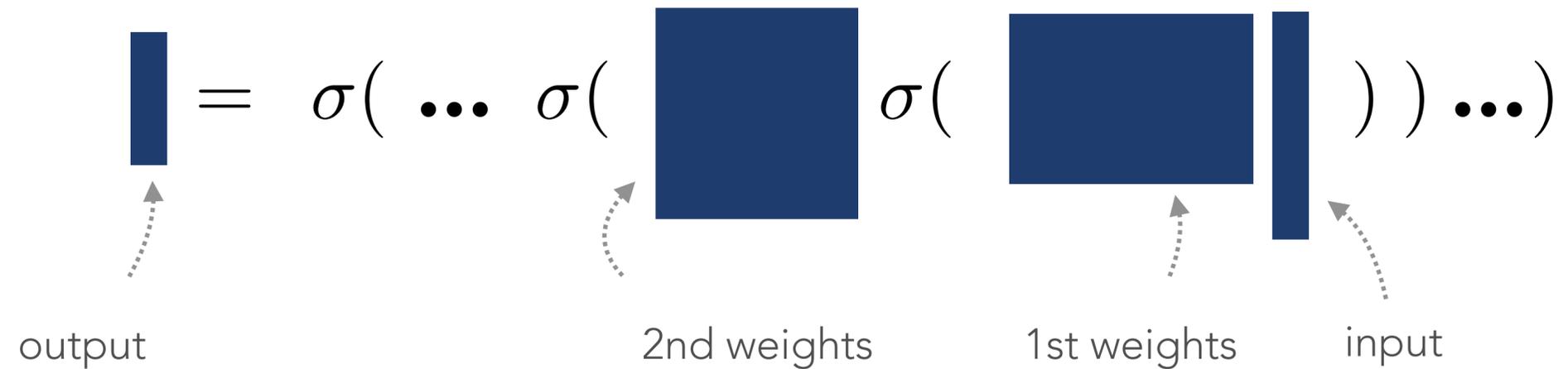


network: *sequence of parallelized weighted sums and non-linearities*

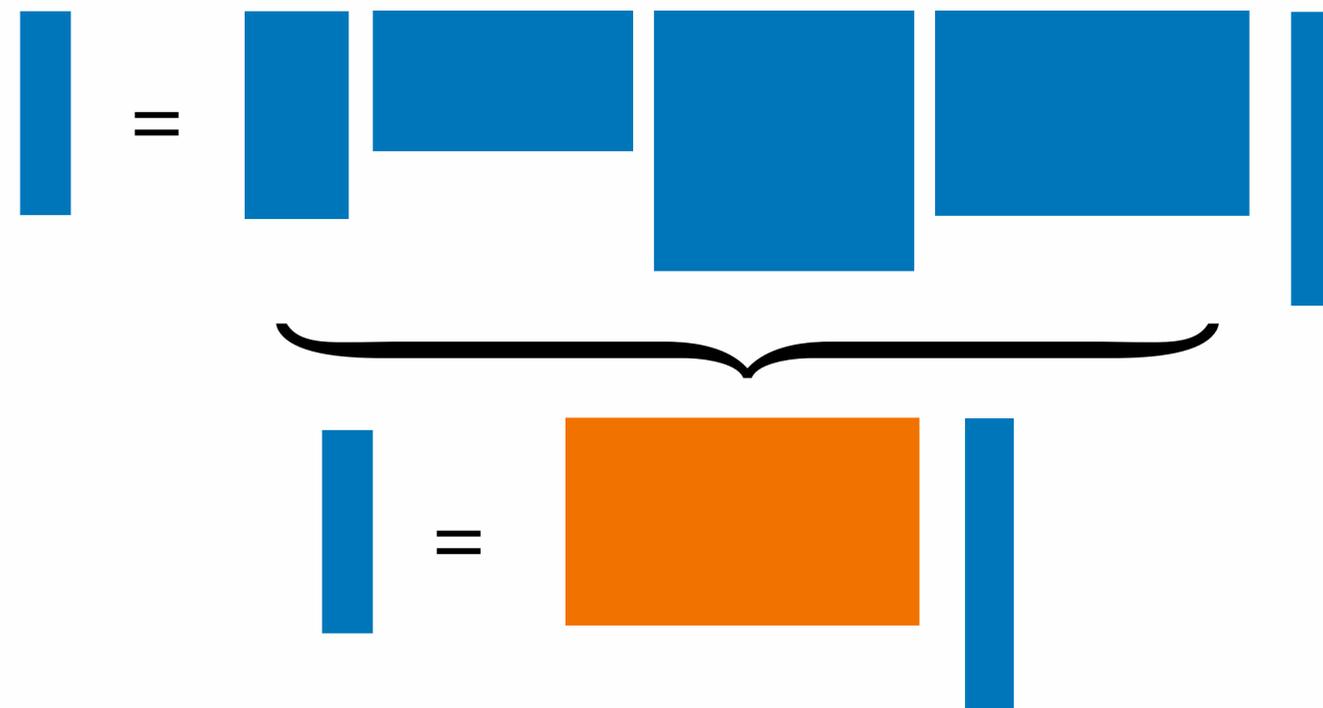
$$\text{output} = \sigma(\dots \sigma(\text{2nd weights} \sigma(\text{1st weights} \text{input})) \dots)$$

The equation shows a sequence of operations: an input vector is multiplied by the first weights matrix, passed through a non-linearity function σ , then multiplied by the second weights matrix, passed through another σ , and so on, resulting in the final output vector.

Role of nonlinearities



If we didn't have non-linearities, the whole network would reduce to a linear function!



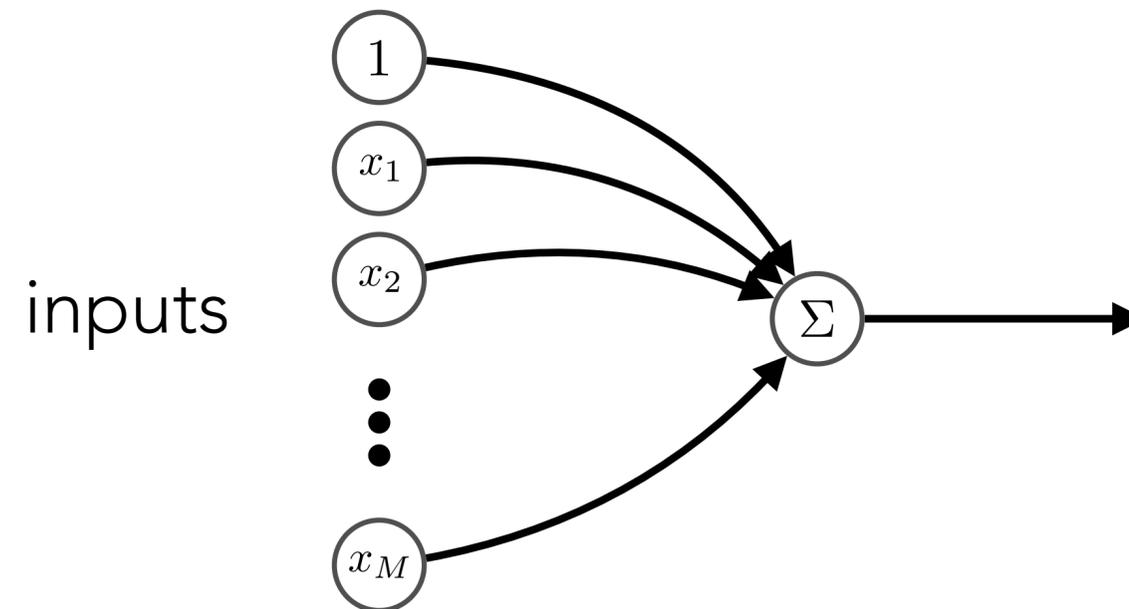
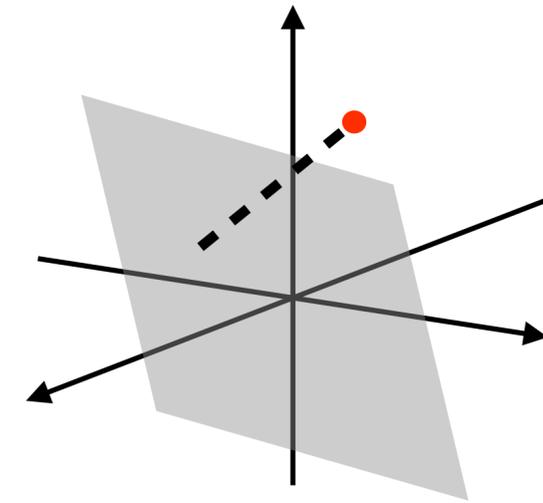
Nonlinearities and coordinate changes

(up to a factor)

the dot product is the distance between a point and a plane

each artificial neuron defines a (hyper)plane:

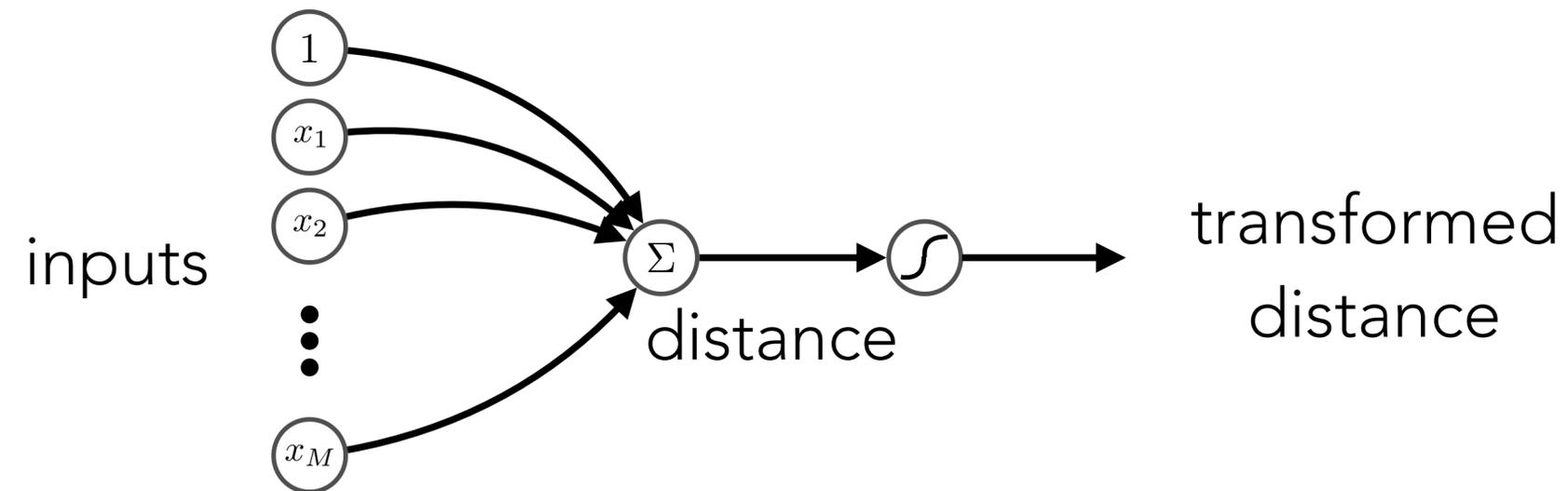
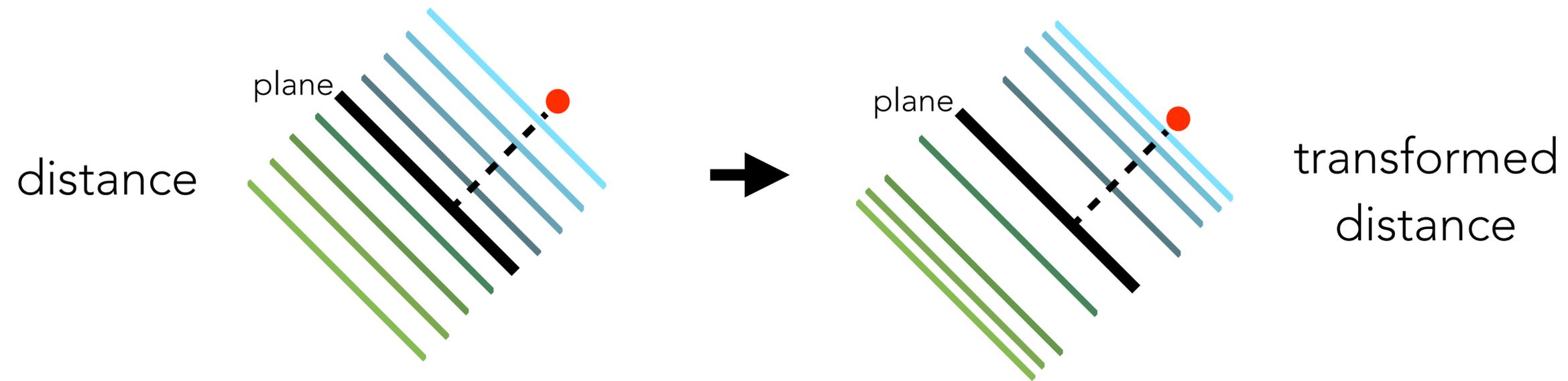
$$0 = w_0 + w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + \dots + w_Mx_M$$



calculating the weighted sum corresponds to finding the shortest distance between the input point and the weight hyperplane

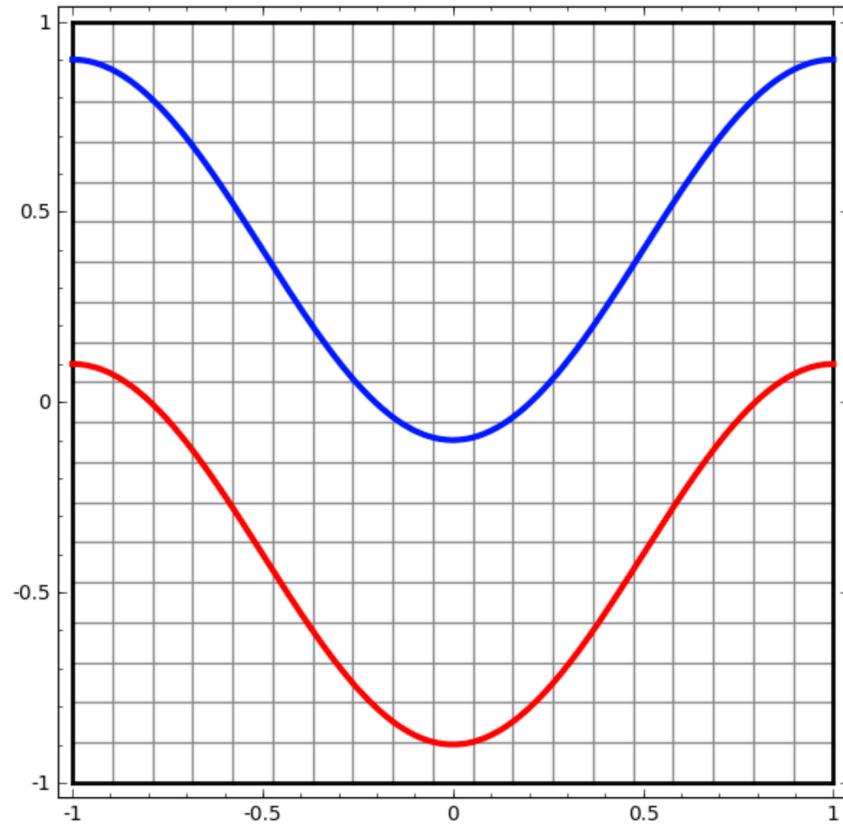
Reinterpretation

the non-linearity transforms this distance,
creating a field that changes non-linearly with distance

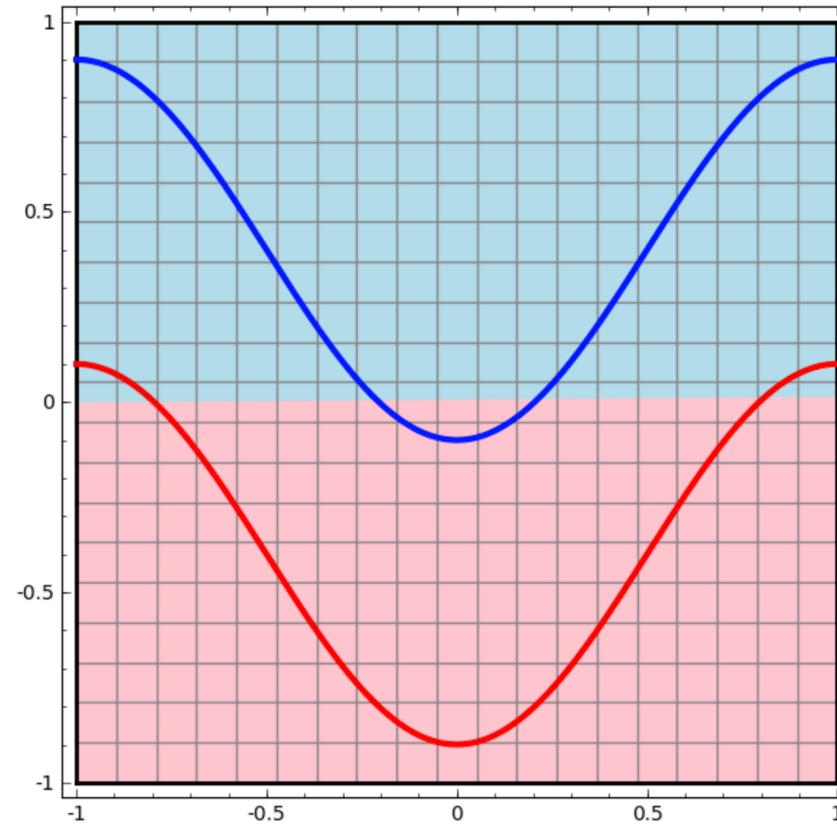


Neural networks & topology

Data

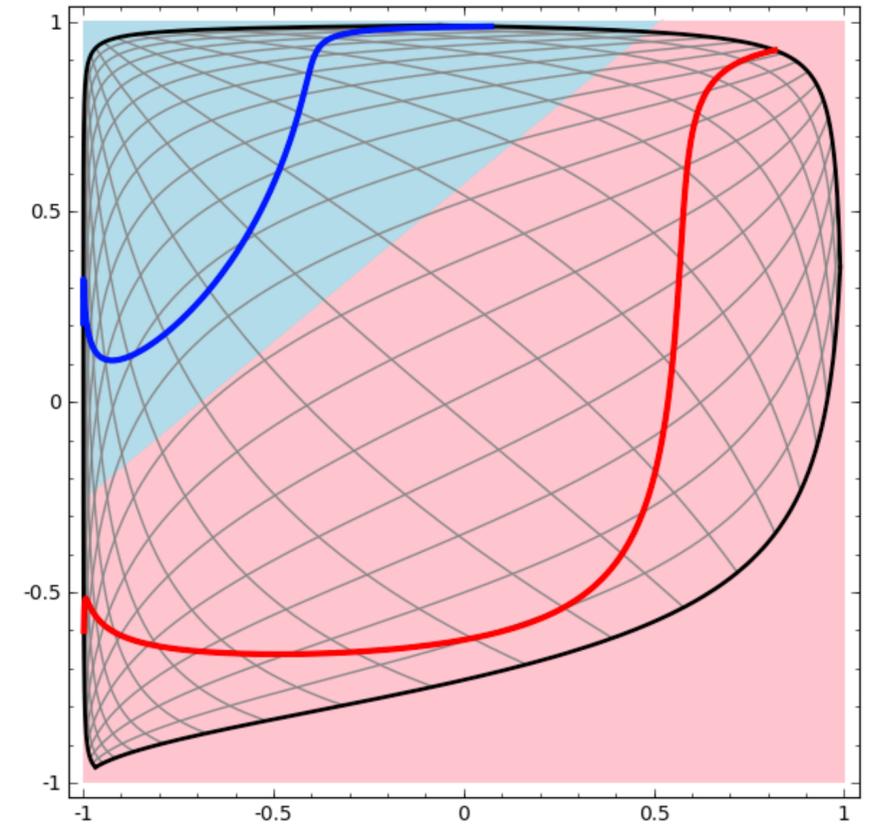


Linear classifier



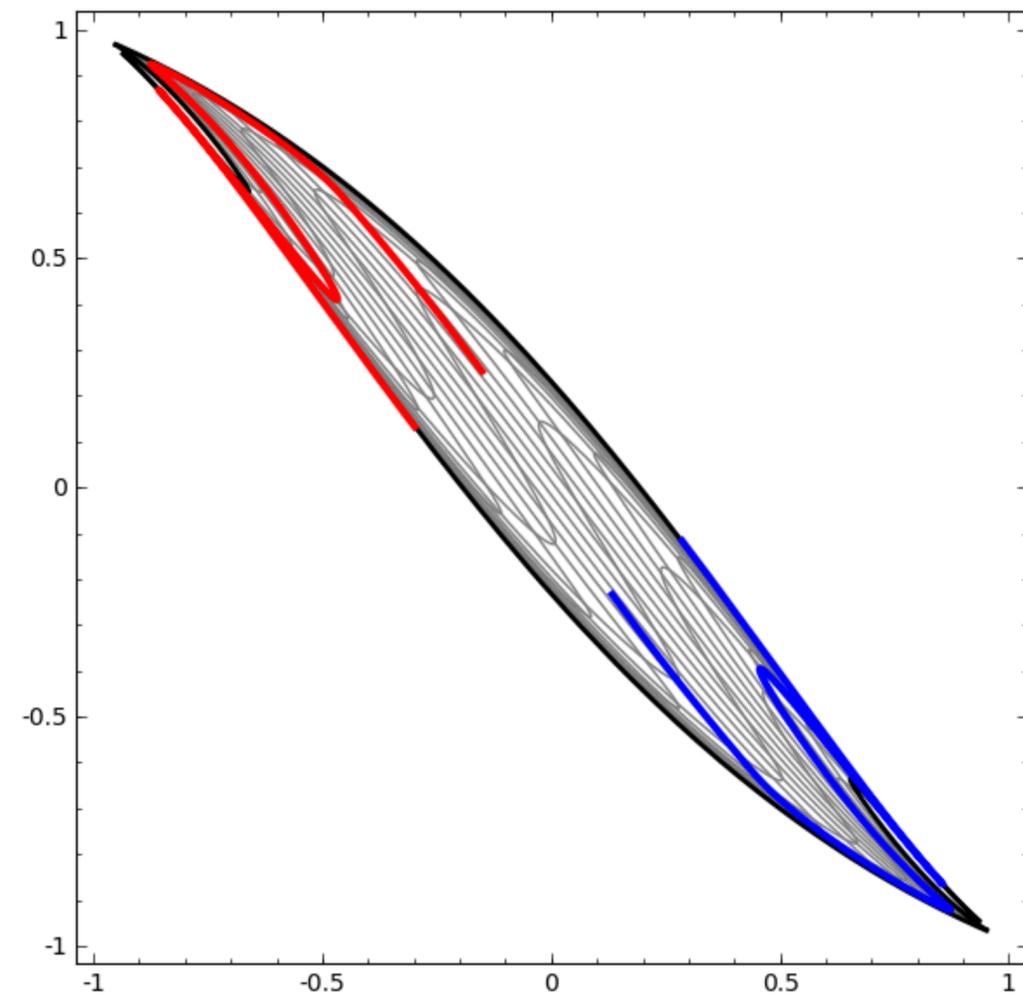
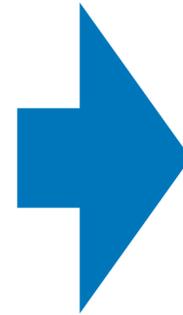
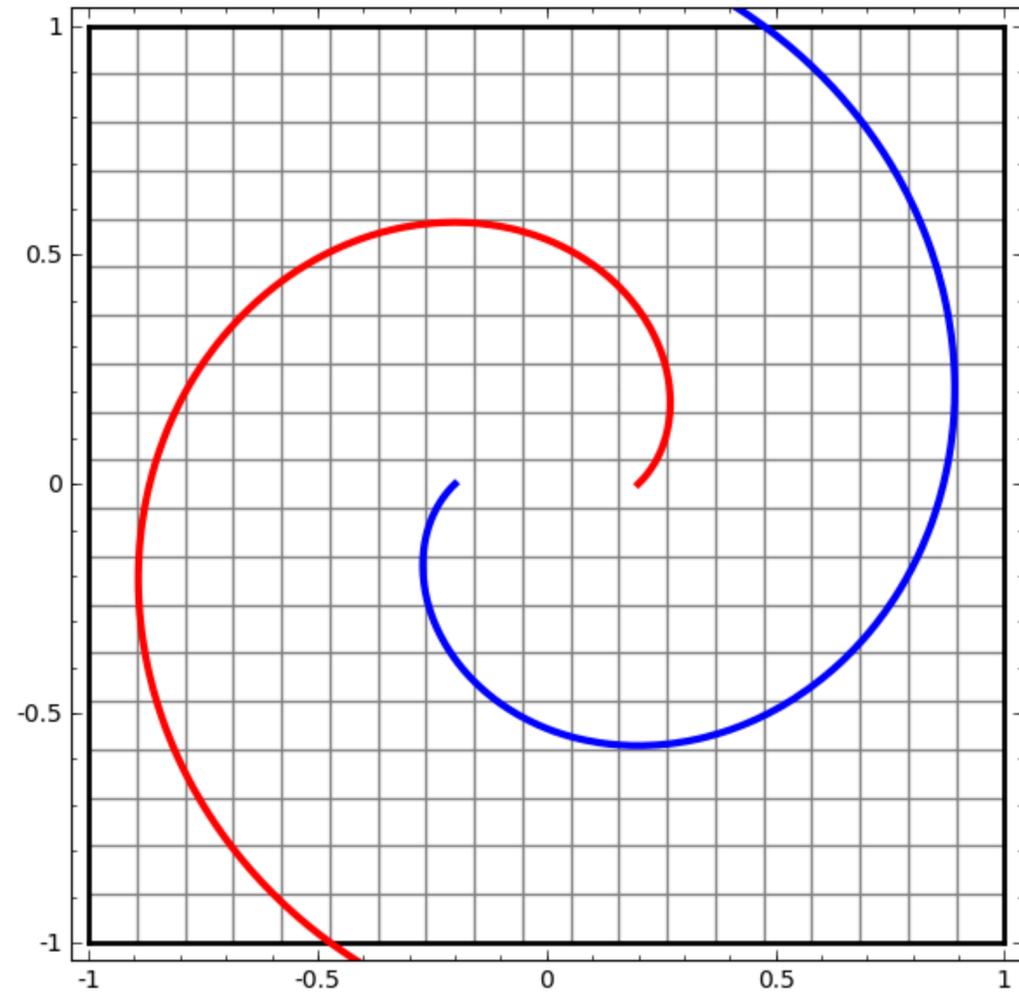
$$y = \text{softmax}(w^T x)$$

2-layer network



$$y = \sigma(W_2 \sigma(W_1 x))$$

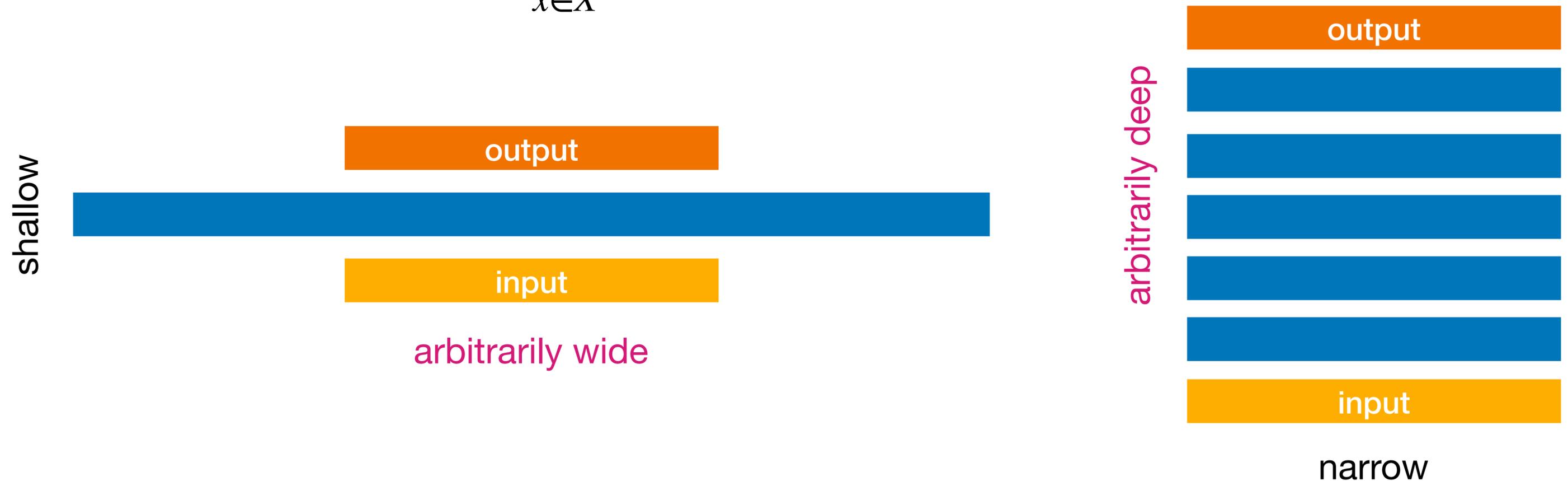
Neural networks & topology



NNs are universal function approximators

Universal approximation theorem (informal). Given a function $y = f(x)$ and an $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a deep network $y = f_w(x)$ (of arbitrary width or depth) such that:

$$\sup_{x \in X} \|f(x) - f_w(x)\| < \epsilon$$



Note: This means that a network can *represent* any function, not that it can learn it! The “amount” of function a given network can represent is often called its **expressive power**.

Training a NN

We train deep networks using **Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)**: The last layer of a DNN is a softmax that outputs probabilities over classes:



We train the weights w to maximize the log-likelihood of the data under our model:

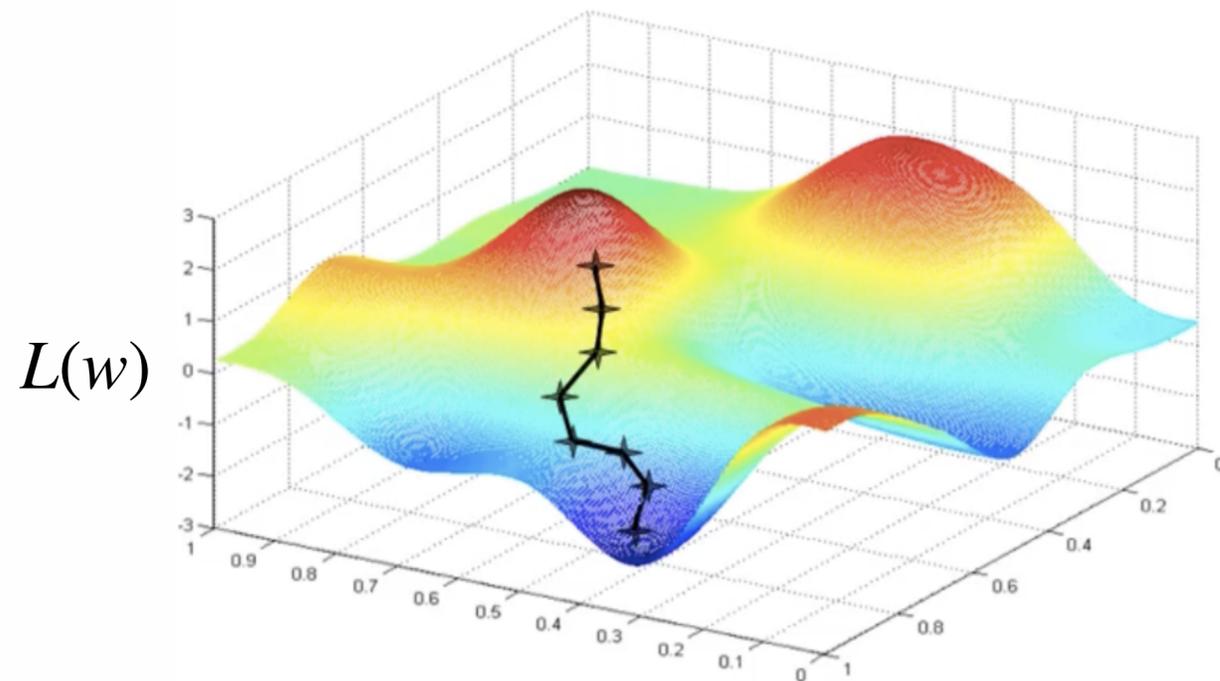
$$L(w) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \log p_w(y_i | x_i)$$

Negative log-likelihood loss
(cross-entropy loss)

Gradient descent

- Start from some initial value w_0 of the parameters
- For $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ do the following:
 - Compute the gradient $\nabla_w L(w_t)$ (direction of steepest increase of $L(w)$ at w_t)
 - Take a small step in the opposite direction: $w_{t+1} = w_t - \eta \nabla_w L(w_t)$

↑
step size / learning rate



Problem: Deep networks have *millions* or *billions* of weights. We can't naively compute all gradients independently!

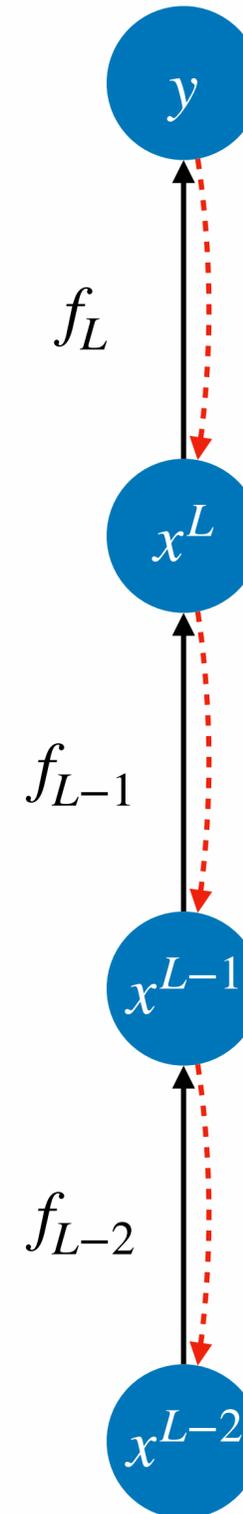
Backpropagation (i.e. the chain rule)

$$y = f_L(\dots f_2(f_1(x))\dots)$$



$$\begin{aligned} y &= f_L(x_L) \\ x_L &= f_{L-1}(x_{L-1}) \\ &\vdots \\ x_1 &= f_1(x) \end{aligned}$$

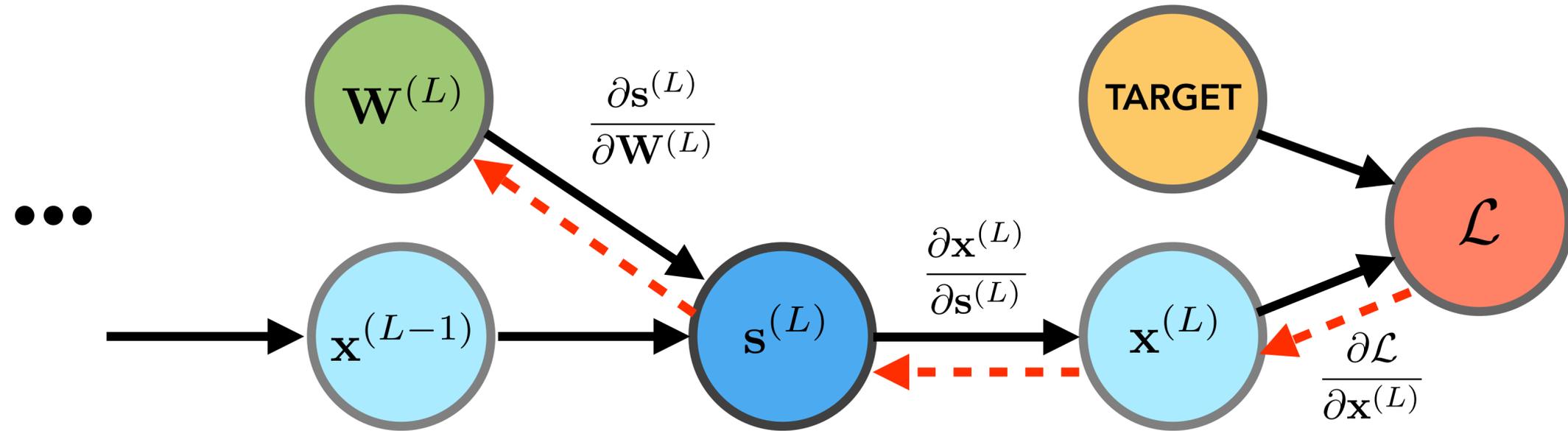
We want to compute $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x_l}$ for all $l \in \{1, \dots, L\}$



$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_L} &= \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_L} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_{L-1}} &= \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_L} \frac{\partial x_L}{\partial x_{L-1}} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_{L-2}} &= \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_{L-1}} \frac{\partial x_{L-1}}{\partial x_{L-2}} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_{L-3}} &= \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_{L-2}} \frac{\partial x_{L-2}}{\partial x_{L-3}} \end{aligned}$$

At each step we can reuse the computation of the previous step!

Backpropagation for NNs



$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(L)}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{x}^{(L)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^{(L)}}{\partial s^{(L)}} \frac{\partial s^{(L)}}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(L)}}$$

depends on the form of the loss

derivative of the non-linearity

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(L)}} (\mathbf{W}^{(L)\top} \mathbf{x}^{(L-1)}) = \mathbf{x}^{(L-1)\top}$$

note $\nabla_{\mathbf{W}^{(L)}} \mathcal{L} \equiv \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(L)}}$ is notational convention

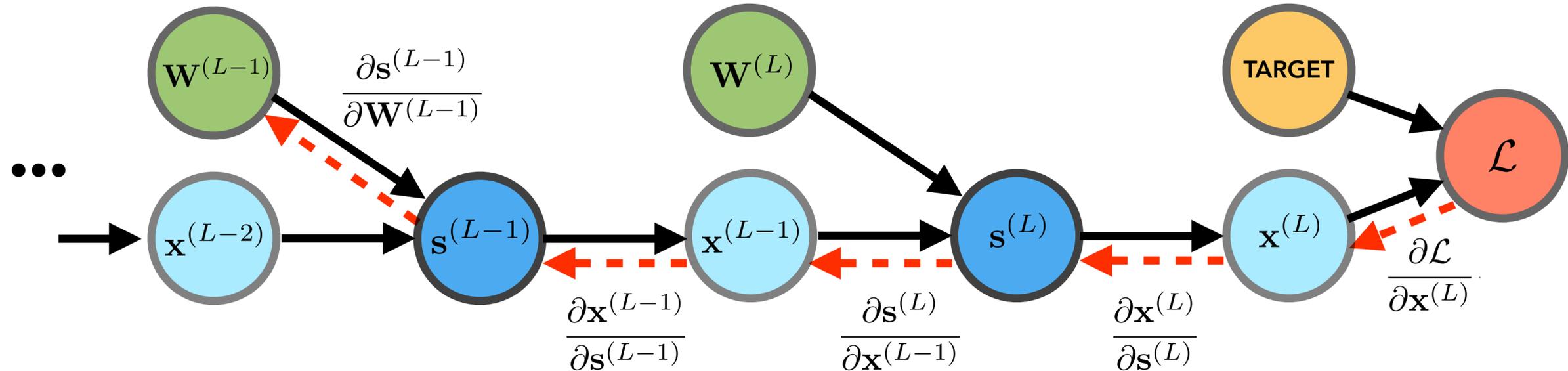
Backpropagation for NNs

Note: we can reuse previous calculations!

now let's go back one more layer...

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(L)}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{x}^{(L)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^{(L)}}{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(L)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(L)}}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(L)}}$$

again we'll draw the dependency graph:

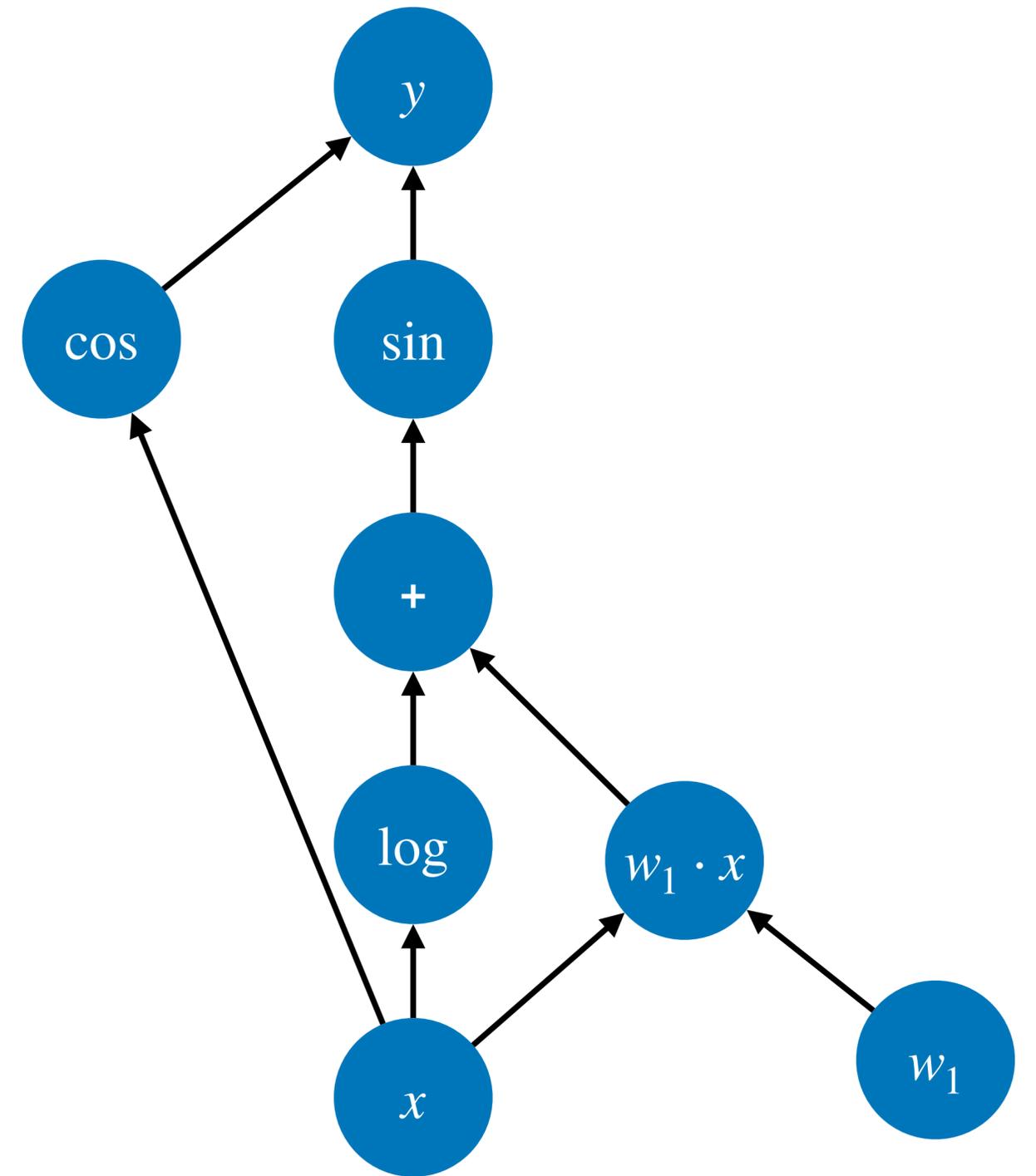


$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(L-1)}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{x}^{(L)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^{(L)}}{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(L)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(L)}}{\partial \mathbf{x}^{(L-1)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^{(L-1)}}{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(L-1)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(L-1)}}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(L-1)}}$$

Backpropagation for NNs

- We can use backpropagation to compute the gradients on any **computation graph**

$$y = \sin(w_1 x + \log(x)) + \cos(x)$$



- Modern deep neural networks can have a very complex structure!

Automatic differentiation

we need to manually implement backpropagation and weight updates

→ can be difficult for arbitrary, large computation graphs

most deep learning software libraries automatically handle this for you

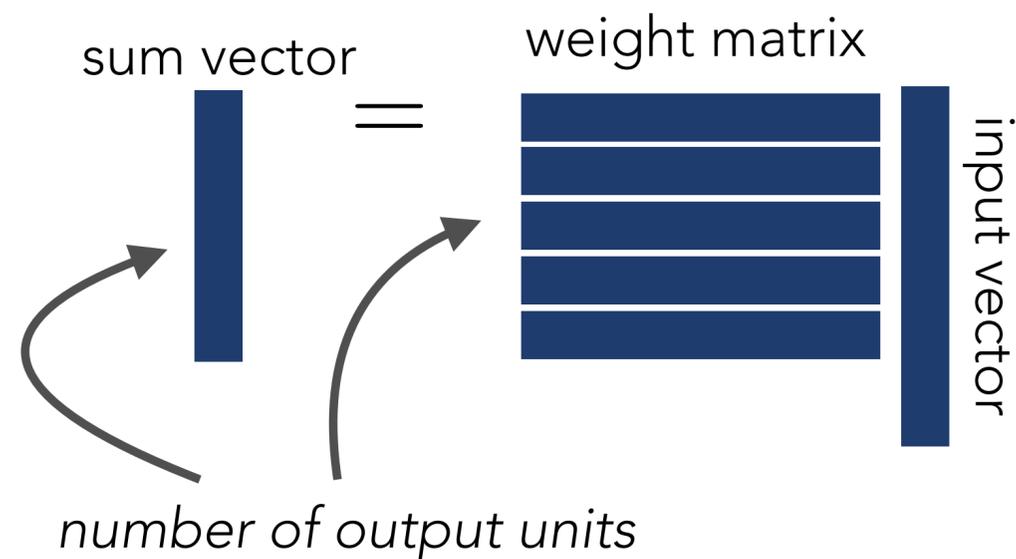
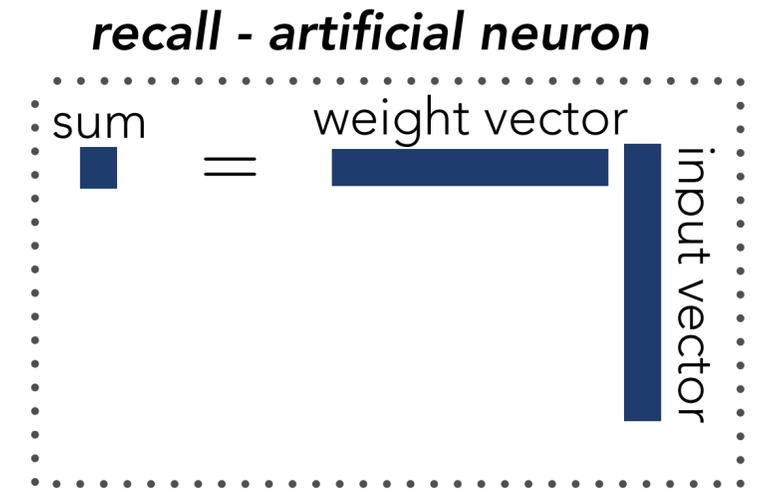


just build the computational graph and define the loss

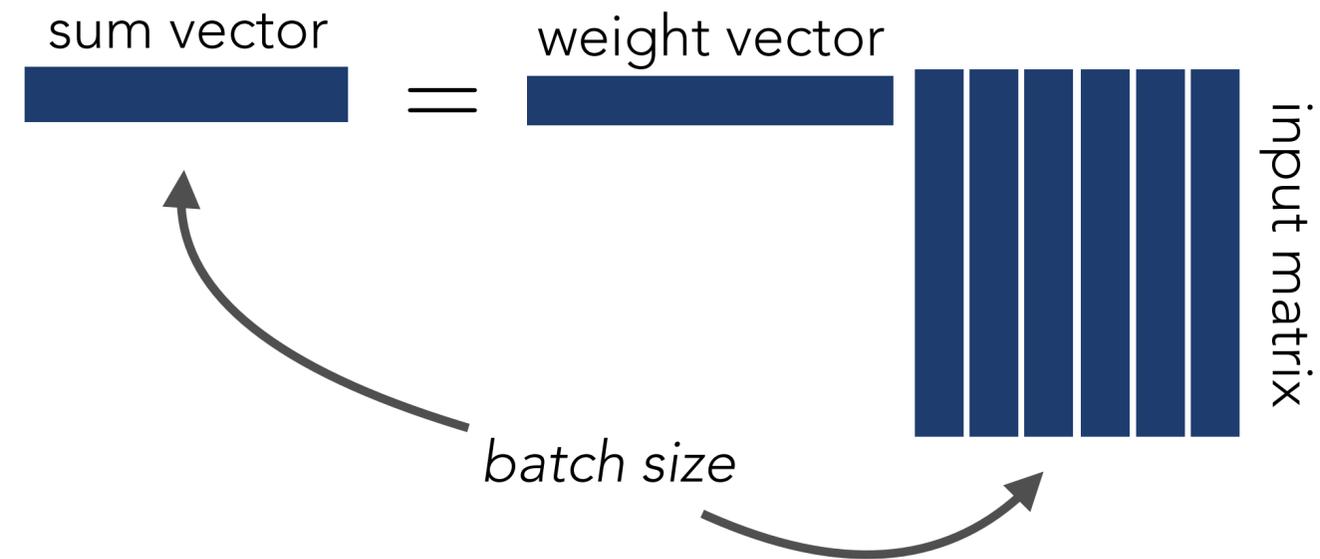
The background features a series of overlapping, wavy, organic shapes in shades of purple, blue, and green. The top portion is a solid light purple. Below it, several layers of wavy shapes in various shades of blue and green are layered, creating a sense of depth and movement. The overall effect is a modern, abstract landscape or topographical map.

Implementation & training issues

NNs are highly parallelizable



unit parallelization
perform all operations within
a layer simultaneously



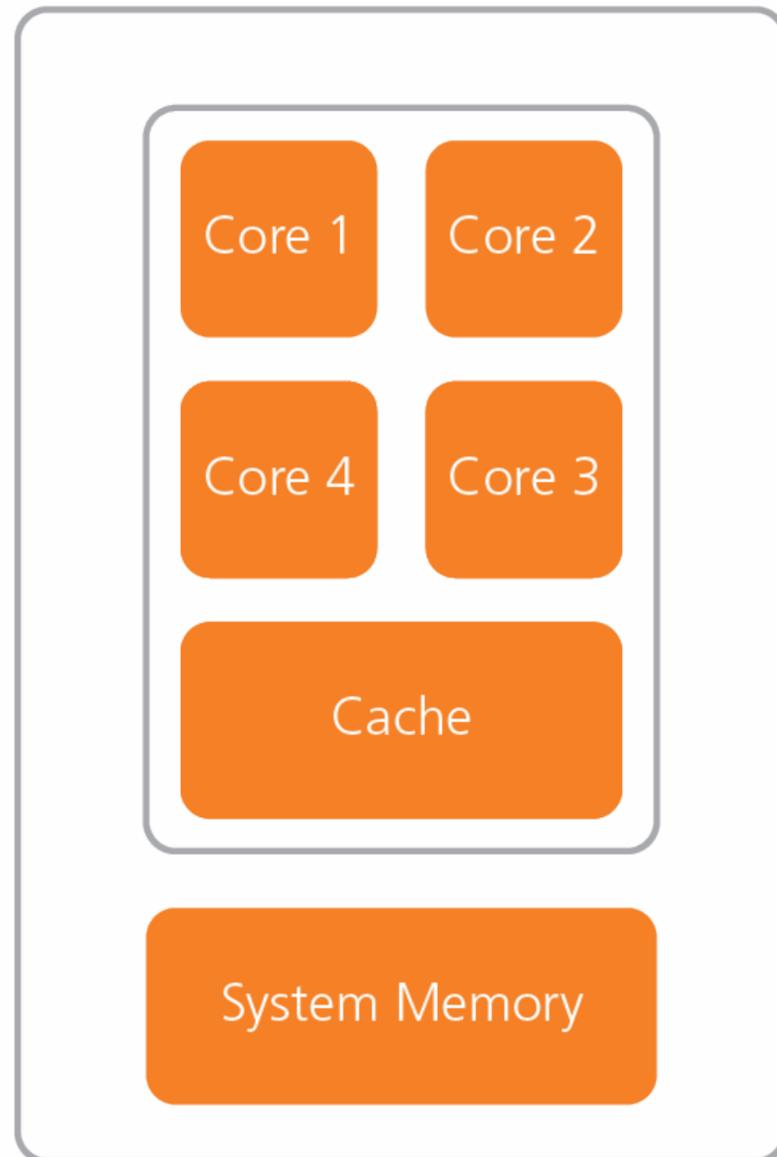
data parallelization
process multiple data examples
simultaneously

“batch” of data
well suited for mini-
batch SGD

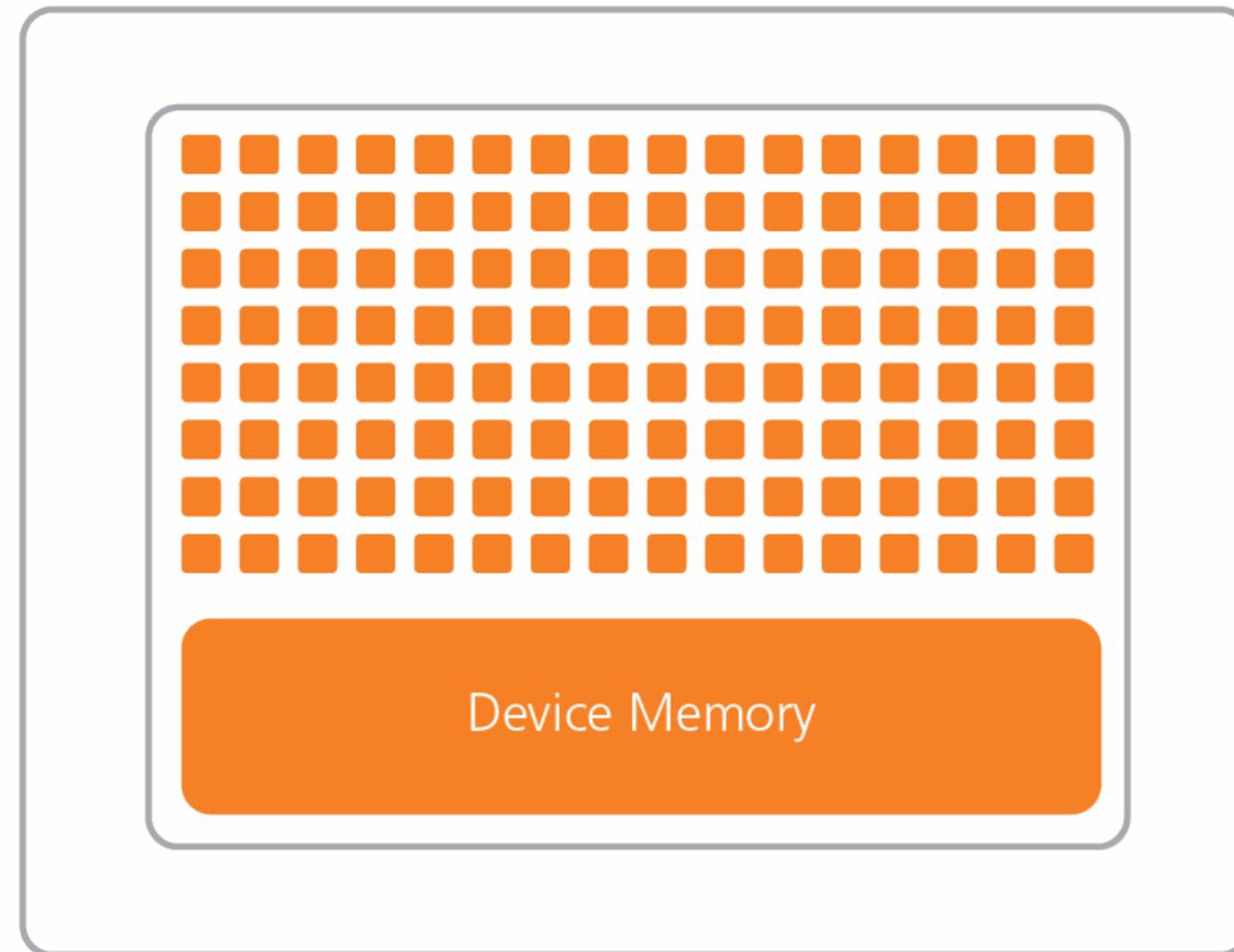
NNs and GPUs

- Single instruction multiple data (SIMD)

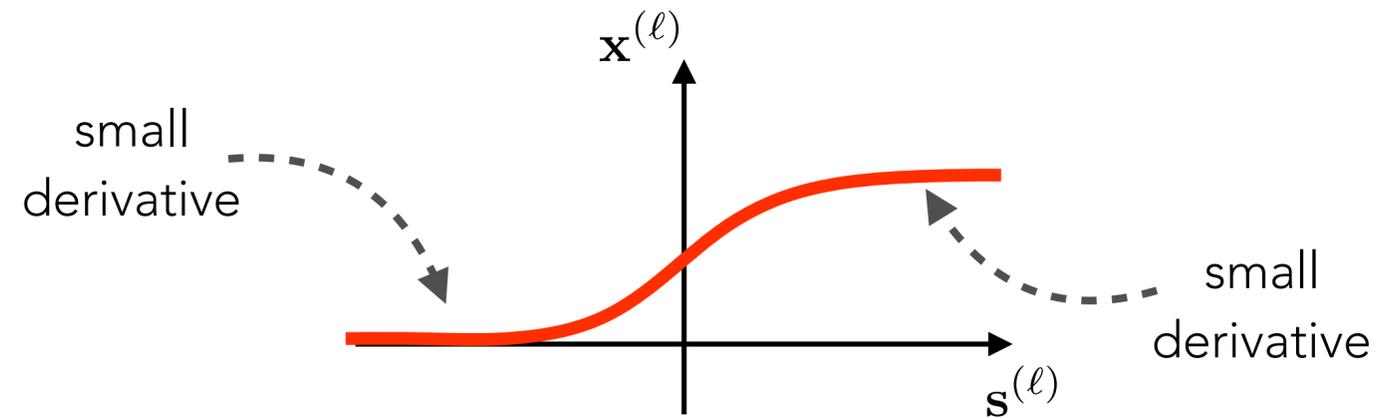
CPU (Multiple Cores)



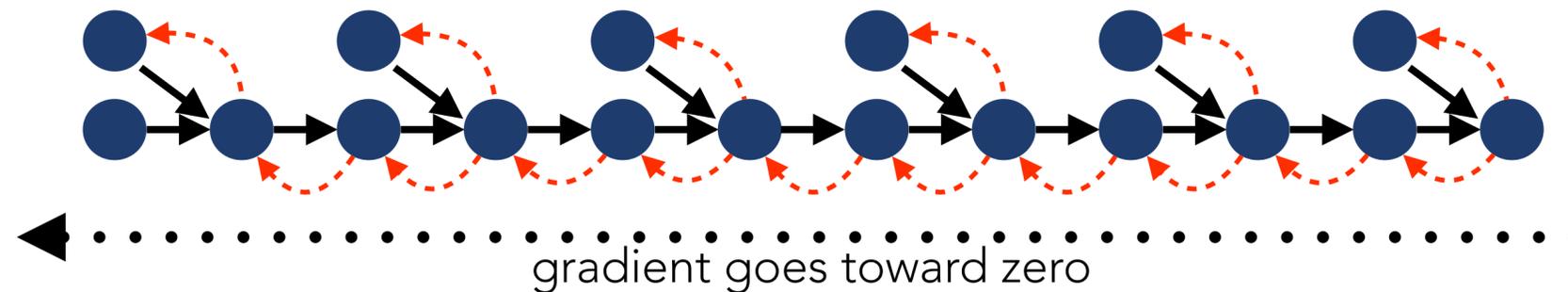
GPU (Hundreds of Cores)



Vanishing gradients



saturating non-linearities have *small* derivatives almost everywhere



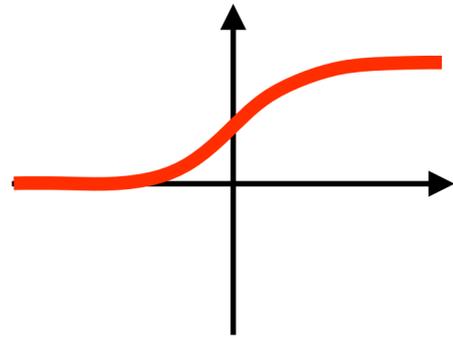
in backprop, the product of many small terms (i.e. $\frac{\partial x^{(\ell)}}{\partial s^{(\ell)}}$) goes to zero

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(\ell)}} = \cdots \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^{(L)}}{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(L)}} \cdots \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^{(L-1)}}{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(L-1)}} \cdots \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^{(\ell+1)}}{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(\ell+1)}} \cdots \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^{(\ell)}}{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(\ell)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(\ell)}}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(\ell)}}$$

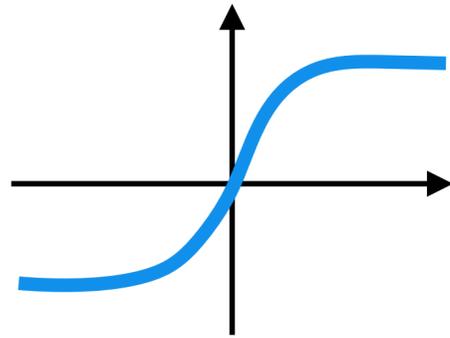
difficult to train very deep networks with saturating non-linearities

Nonlinearities

logistic sigmoid



hyperbolic tangent (tanh)

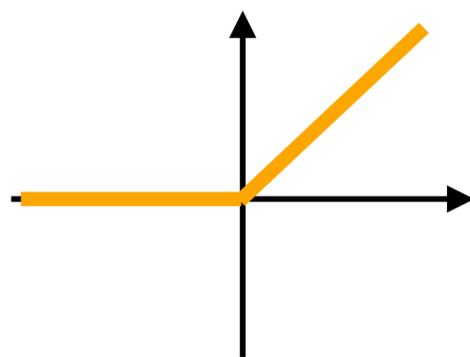


***sat*urating**

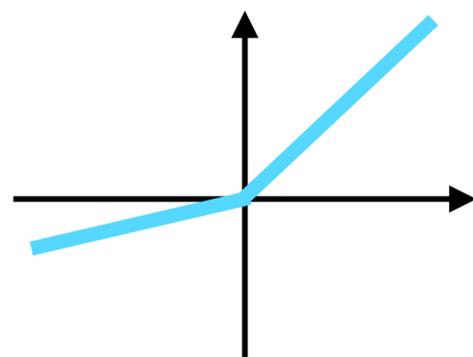
derivative goes to zero at $+\infty$ and $-\infty$



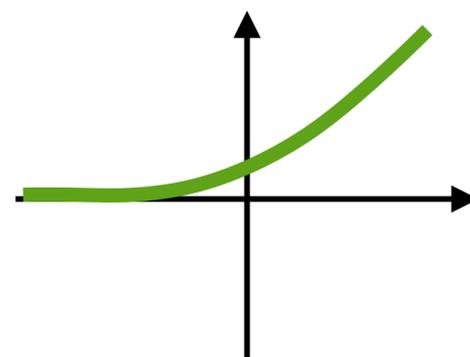
rectified linear unit (ReLU)



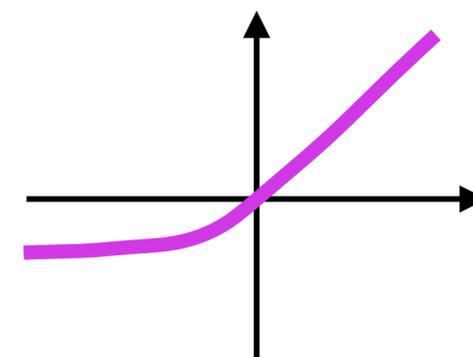
leaky ReLU



softplus



exponential linear unit (ELU)



***non-sat*urating**

non-zero derivative at $+\infty$ and/or $-\infty$

most often used

$$\text{ReLU}(x) := \max(0, x)$$

Weight initialization

Initialize the weights so that if the input x_l to the l -th layer has variance $\text{var}(x_l) = 1$ then the output $x_{l+1} = \text{ReLU}(W_l \cdot x_l)$ also has $\text{var}(x_{l+1}) = 1$.

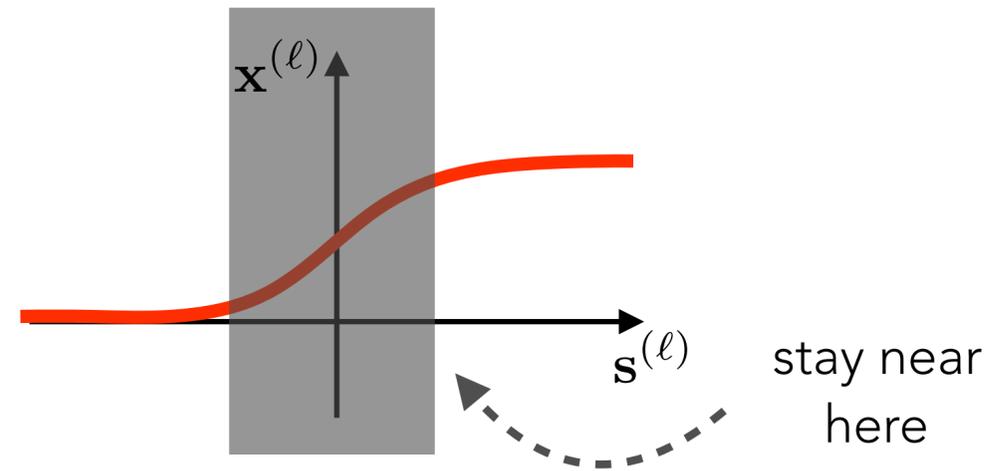
Kaiming Initialization:

$$w_l \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 2/\text{dim}(x_l))$$

sample the weights from a gaussian distribution with variance inversely proportional to the size of the layer input

Batch normalization

→ keep the inputs within the dynamic range of the non-linearity



we can **normalize** the activations before applying the non-linearity

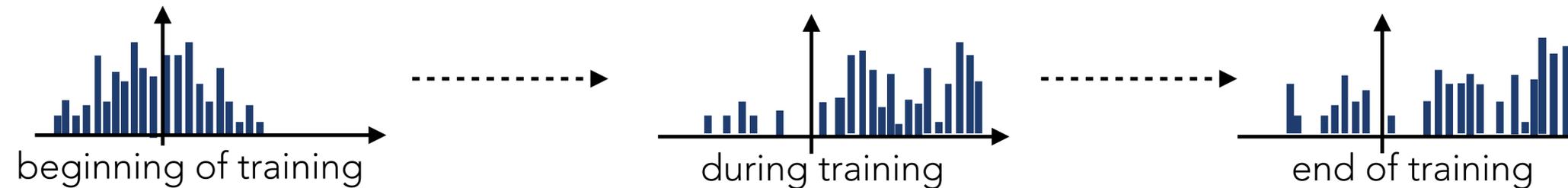
$$\mathbf{s} \leftarrow \frac{\mathbf{s} - \text{shift}}{\text{scale}}$$

Why does batch normalization work?

original motivation: *internal covariate shift*

changing weights during training results in changing outputs;
input to the next layer changes, making it difficult to learn

histogram of unit activations

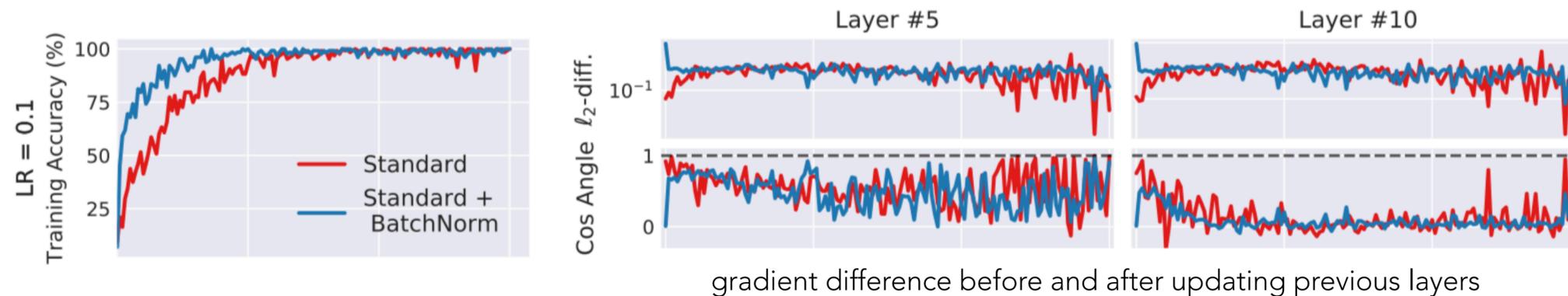


batch norm. should stabilize the activations during training

Why does batch normalization work?

but actually...

batch norm. does *not* seem to significantly reduce internal covariate shift



gradient difference before and after updating previous layers

rather, it seems that batch norm. stabilizes and smooths the optimization surface



(a) loss landscape

(b) gradient predictiveness

(c) “effective” β -smoothness

(topic of ongoing research)

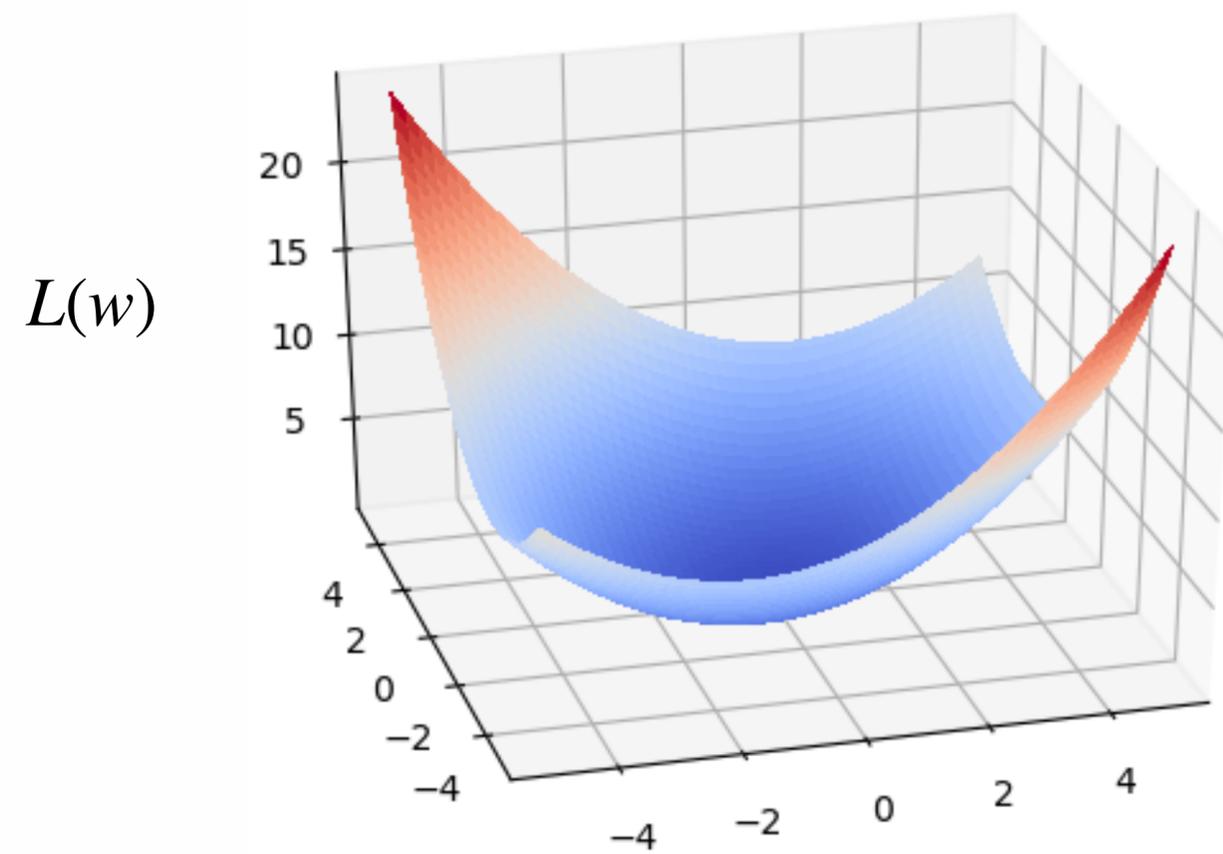
How Does Batch Normalization Help Optimization?, Santurkar et al., 2018

Optimizing nonconvex functions

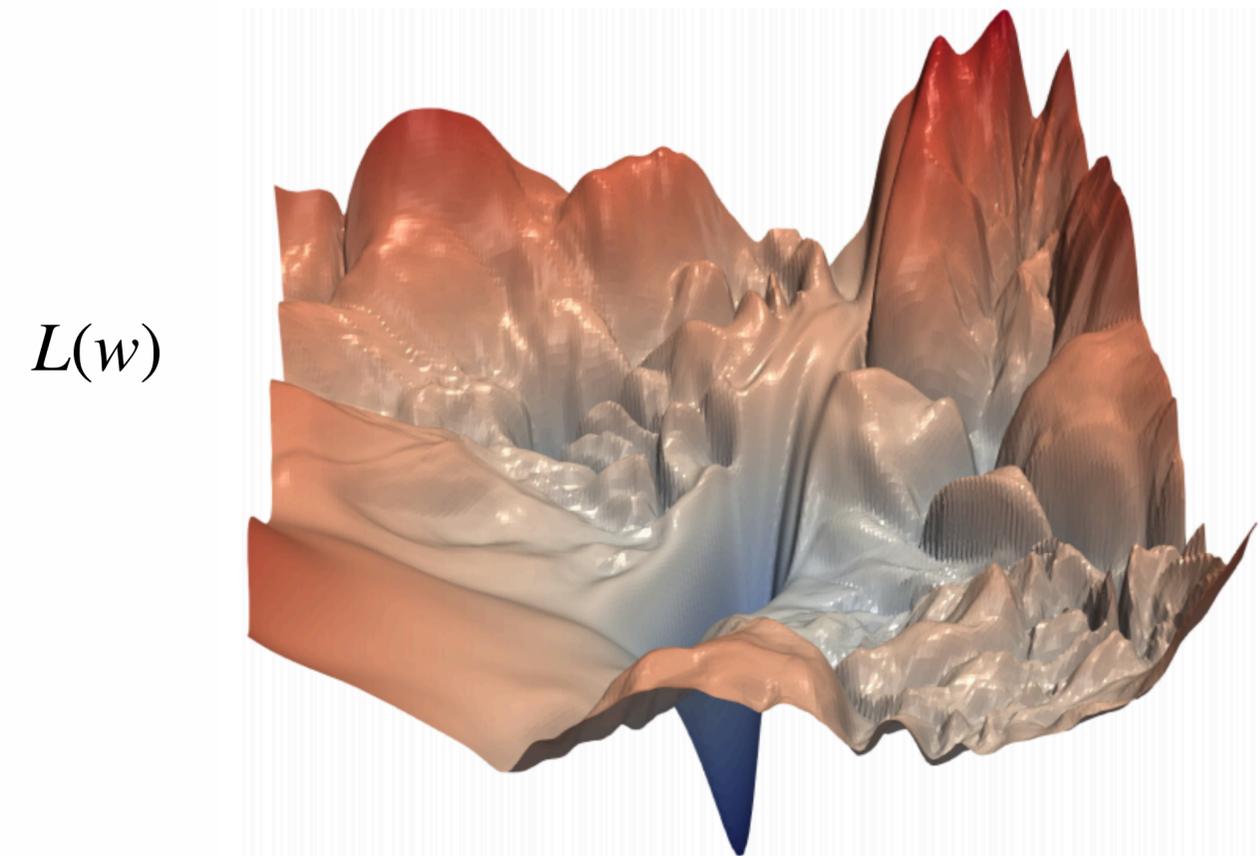


Loss landscape of NNs

Convex problem
(logistic regression, SVMs)

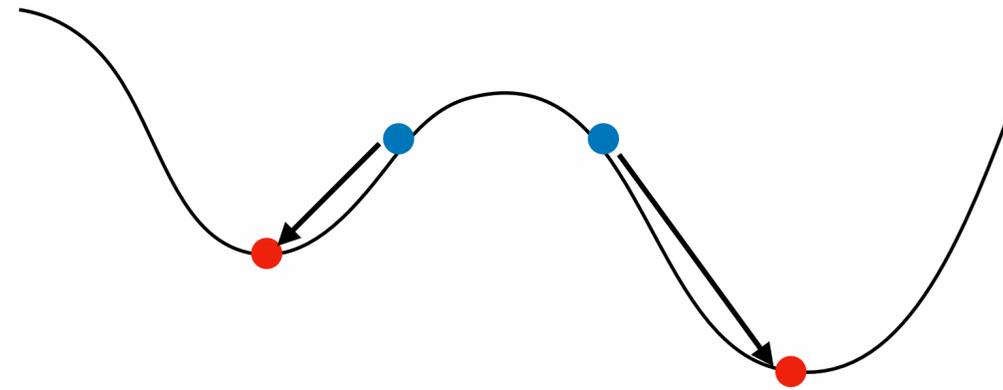


Deep Networks

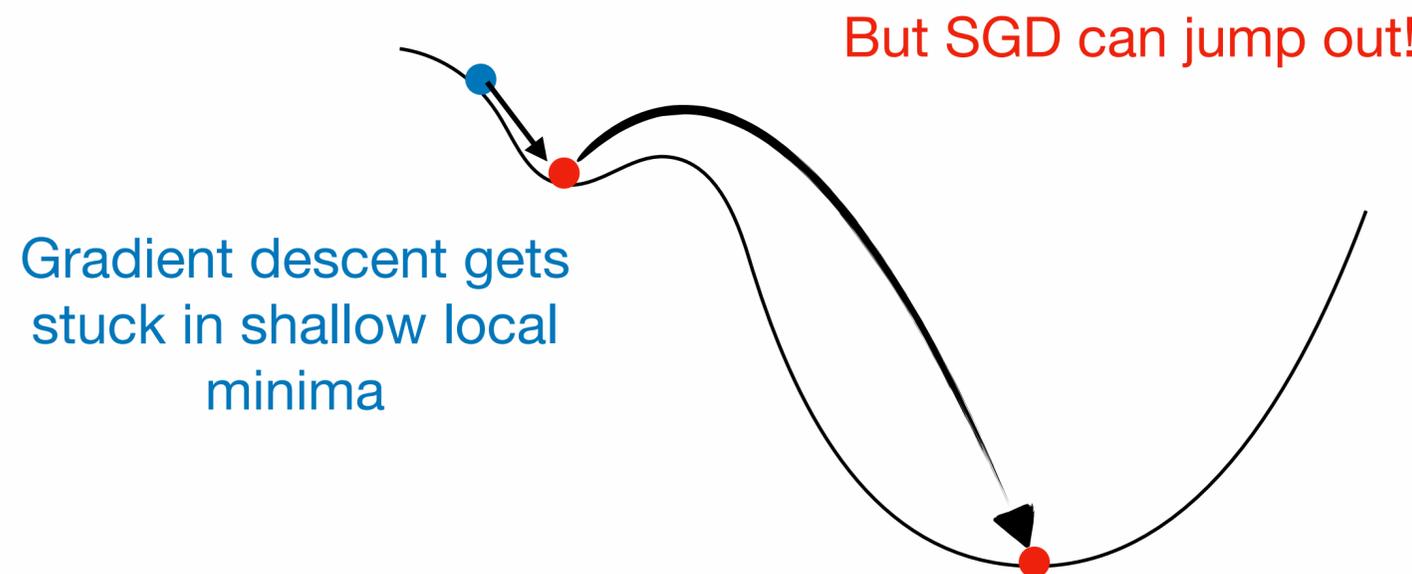


Consequences of nonconvexity

Sensitivity to initialization: based on where you start you may end up in different minima



Shallow minima: we may get stuck in a suboptimal local minimum



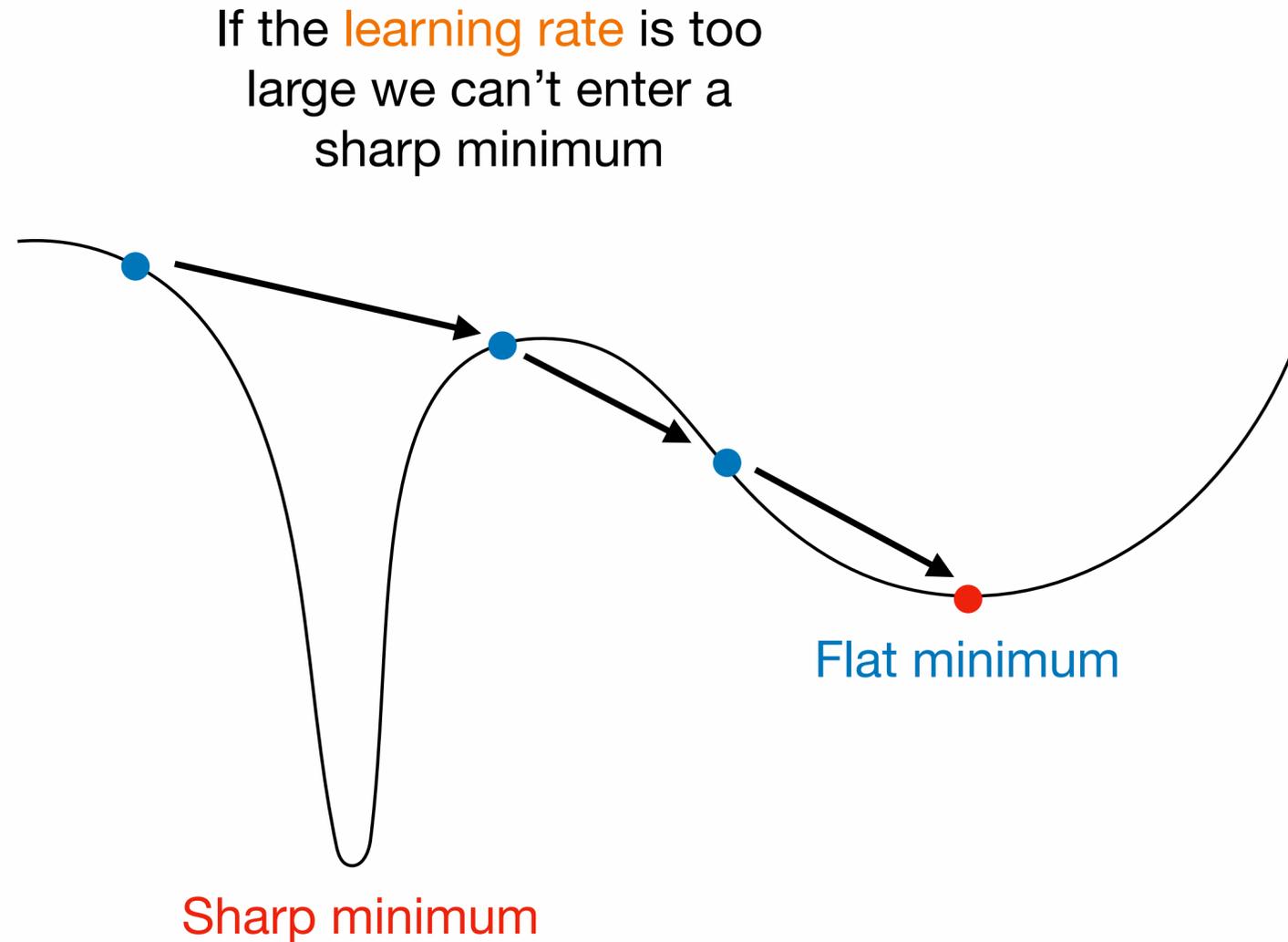
The noise of stochastic gradient descent is actually a benefit in deep learning!

Flat & sharp minima

To converge to a minimum we need:

$$\eta < \frac{2}{\text{curvature}}$$

The noise of SGD makes us jump out of sharp minima

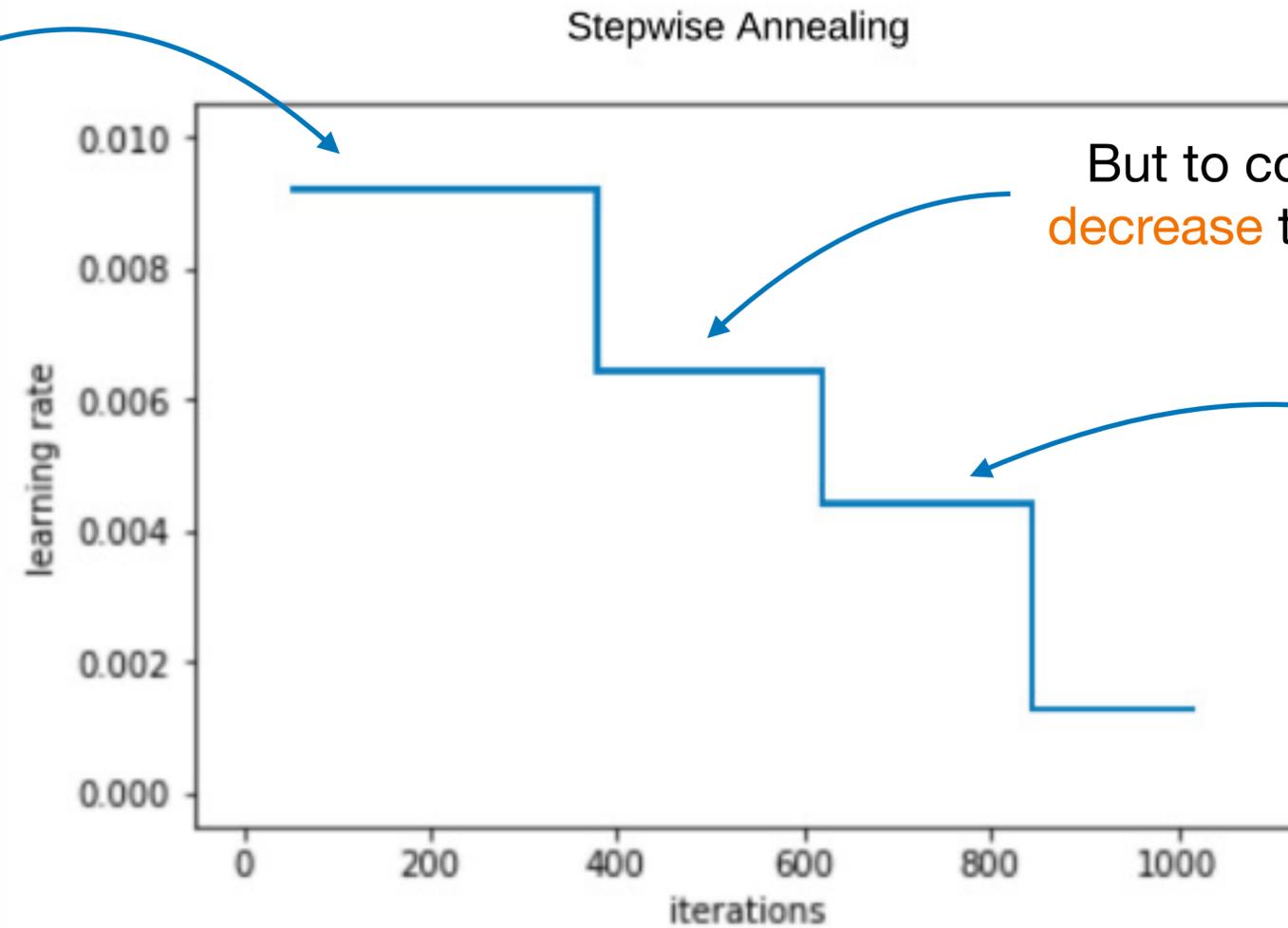


Is this a problem? In deep learning it is often observed that **flat minima are better solutions**, so avoiding sharp minima is good!

Learning rate annealing

We start with an **high learning rate**

Converges **faster** and avoids **sharp minima**



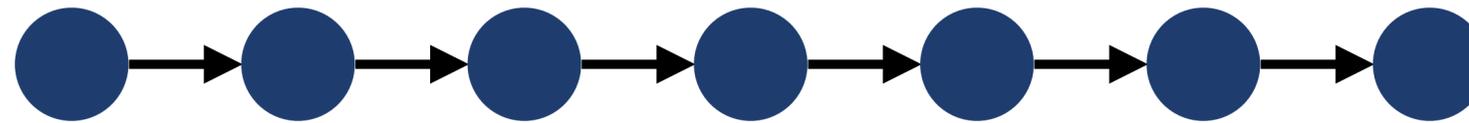
But to converge we need to **decrease** the learning rate later

If we decrease too fast we end up in a bad minimum, so we do it in multiple steps

Residual connections

Without residual connections

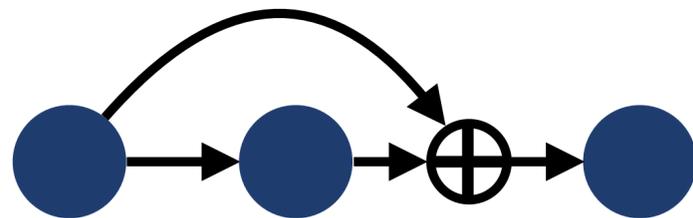
sequential connectivity: *information must flow through the entire sequence to reach the output*



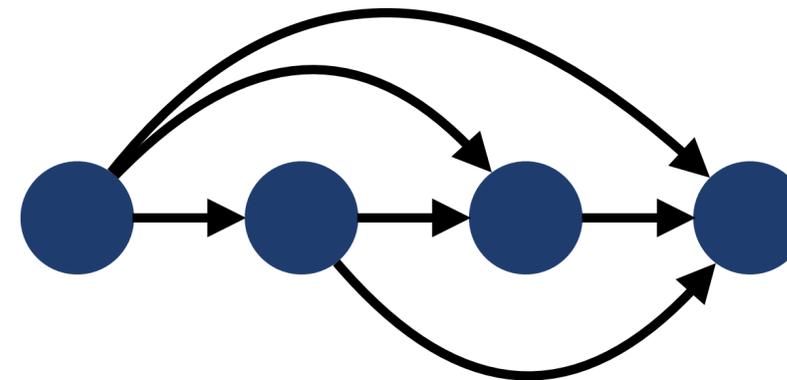
information may not be able to propagate easily

→ *make shorter paths to output*

residual & highway connections



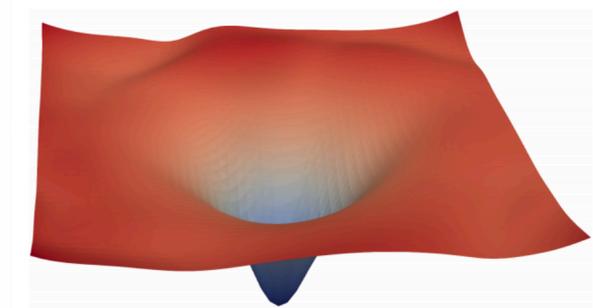
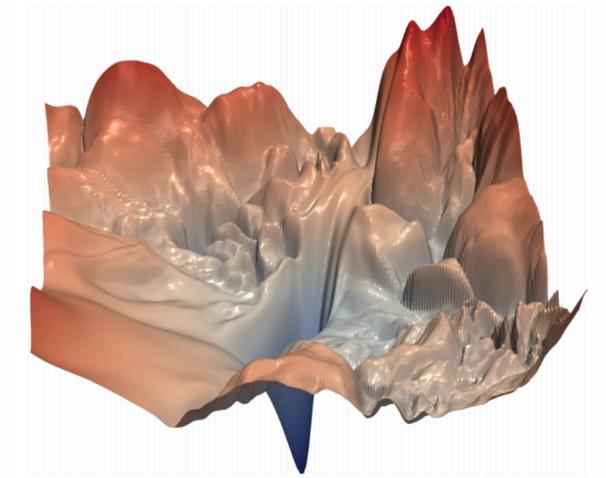
dense (concatenated) connections



Deep residual learning for image recognition, He et al., 2016

Highway networks, Srivastava et al., 2015

Densely connected convolutional networks, Huang et al., 2017



With residual connections

The background features a series of overlapping, wavy, organic shapes in shades of purple, blue, and green. The top portion is a solid light purple. Below it, several layers of wavy shapes in various shades of blue and green are layered, creating a sense of depth and movement. The overall aesthetic is modern and abstract.

Generalization

Data memorization

Given a training dataset with millions of **completely random labels**, DNNs networks can easily reach zero training error.



→ Monkey



→ Salamander



→ Wine bottle

They do so by **memorizing** the association between **meaningless but unique patterns** in the samples and the label.



if the image contains this patch:



then output: **Monkey**

The problem is that they learn these degenerate patterns even on real data...
(which is also a **privacy** risk)

Generalization bounds

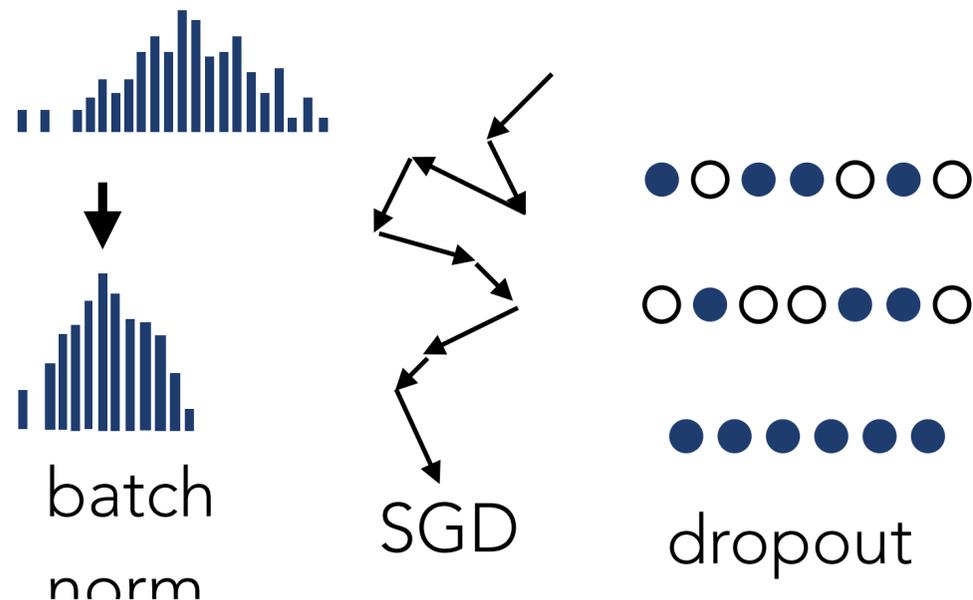
One can show that the “generalization gap” is bounded by the amount of information memorized by the network:

$$L_{\text{test}} - L_{\text{train}} \leq \sqrt{\frac{I(w; D)}{N}}$$

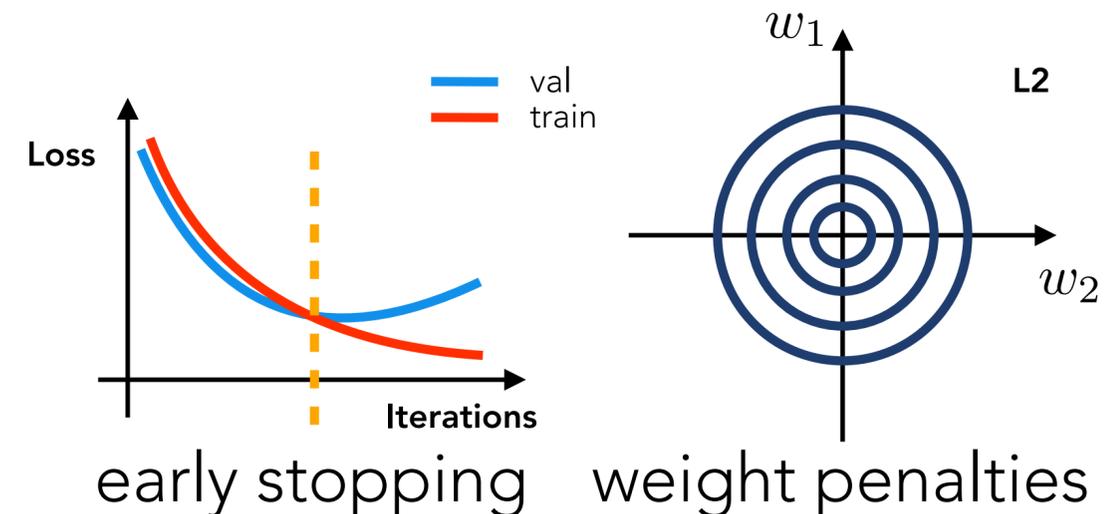
Information that the weights contain about the training examples

Ways to limit the information stored in the weights:

stochasticity (uncertainty)



constraints



Next time

- Optimizers
- Training issues
- Optimization tips and tricks
- Keras hands-on exercise