Fatigue and Machine learning: Introduction A. Ciampaglia

olitecnico Torino

Advanced methodologies for the assessment of the fatigue response

Paradigms of science

Mechanistic Data Science

«Mechanistic data science combines mechanistic calibrated principles and collected data to accelerate the knowledge extraction and improve predictive capacity»

The development of MDS models follows six steps:

- 1. Multimodal data generation/collection
- Extraction of mechanistic features
- 3. Knowledge-driven dimension reduction
- 4. Reduced order surrogate models
- 5. Data science method for regression classification
- 6. System design

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Course outline

Part I – Tuesday May 14th

- Introduction to Machine Learning
	- Definitions and classifications
	- Main architectures
- Multi-layer perceptron
	- Network and neurons
	- Training algorithm
	- The loss-function

Hands-on tutorial: build a NN with Google Tensorflow

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Definitions

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Learning approaches

Supervised learning

Learn to predict an output *y* from an input *x* from a set of labelled data (i.e., training dataset).

Unsupervised learning

Discovers patterns in unlabeled data *x* using similarity metrics.

Reinforcement learning

Learn to best react to an input *x* with a decision *y* based on the effect of *y* on a defined scoring function.

Identify CATs and DOGs trained on labelled pictures

Cluster similar documents based on the text content

Learn to play chess by winning or losing

Type of problems

Regression

Learn a continuous function that predict the features y from the inputs x on the labelled data (X, Y) : $f: f(x) = y \mid \min$ \overline{f} $E(Y, f(X))$

Classification

Learn a discrete function that predicts the class k from the input x on the labelled data (X, Y) : f : $f(x) = k \mid \min$ f $E(Y, f(X))$

Clustering

Cluster a set of unlabelled observations X into k cluster by maximizing a similarity metric L:

 k | max $\max_k L(X_k)$

Main Architectures

Regression **Classification** Supervised training

Image processing **Classification** Supervised training

Time history processing **Classification** Regression Supervised training

Generative algorithm Adversarial training

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Is based on the idea of an artificial neuron:

W_{k1} W_{k2} W_{ki} W_{kn} y_k x_1 x_2 x_3 x_n x_{i} b_k 1

Human neuron **Artificial neuron** Artificial neuron Mathematical Expression

[1] Mcculloch, Warren and Pitts, Walter. "A Logical Calculus of Ideas Immanent in Nervous Activity." Bulletin of Mathematical Biophysics 5 (1943): 127--147.

The Multi Layer Perceptron (i.e., a Neural Network) is a stacked architecture of interconnected artificial neurons.

Single output

$$
x_0 \bigodot_{b_1} b_1
$$
\n
$$
y_1 = \mathcal{A} \Big(\sum_{i=0}^N w_{1i} x_i \Big)
$$
\n
$$
y_2 = \mathcal{A} \left(\begin{bmatrix} b_1 & w_{11} & \cdots & w_{1N} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} \right) = \mathcal{A} \Big(Wx)
$$
\n
$$
x_N \bigodot \qquad [1 \times 1] = [1 \times (N + 1)] \quad [(N + 1) \times 1]
$$
\n
$$
N + 1 \text{ Parameters}
$$

The Multi Layer Perceptron (i.e., a Neural Network) is a stacked architecture of interconnected artificial neurons.

Multiple output

 $[M \times 1] = [M \times (N + 1)][(N + 1) \times 1]$

M(N+1) parameters

The Multi Layer Perceptron (i.e., a Neural Network) is a stacked architecture of interconnected artificial neurons.

Multiple layers single output

The Multi Layer Perceptron (i.e., a Neural Network) is a stacked architecture of interconnected artificial neurons.

Multiple layers multiple output

MLP: Activation functions

Activation functions mimic the "firing" of neuron, let them de-activate (i.e., reduce the influence of their results on the neuron output), using mathematical functions. The activation function must be:

- Non-constant²
- Bounded² (at least its combination)
- **Differentiable**
- Monotonic (rare exceptions, e.g., "swish")

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Network and neurons

The Multi Layer Perceptron (i.e., a Neural Network) is a stacked architecture of interconnected artificial neurons.

Multiple hidden layers

Parameters

tunable parameters of the model (i.e. bias and weights of the network)

Hyper-parameters

Non-tunable parameters defining the model architecture and training strategy (number of layers, activation functions, ..)

Main takeouts:

- Neural networks are tensor product combined with operators $(\mathcal{A}) \rightarrow$ explicit computation, extremely fast
- The number of parameters rapidly increase with increasing number of neurons or number of layers

Loss function

The MLP can be treated as a parametric function with parameters $\theta = \{w_{ij}^k,b_j\}$: $\mathbf{v} = MLP(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) : \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}^M$

The parameters (i.e., weights and bias) are defined by minimizing a loss function:

 $L(\overline{x}, \overline{y}; \theta) = err(MLP(\overline{x}), \overline{y})$

where (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) is the training dataset containing a set of observation.

The training process is defined as an optimization problem:

 $\theta_{trained} = \arg\min_{\theta}$ $L(\overline{\mathbf{x}}, \overline{\mathbf{y}}; \theta)$

How do we choose the loss function?

Supervised Training

The loss is used to optimize the weights using the gradient: For each weight w_{ij}^k :

- 1. Compute $\partial L/\partial w_{ij}^k$ to find a linear approximation
- 2. Update w_{ij}^k with a step in the decreasing direction

The derivative of the loss w.r.t. each weights is a gradient vector:

N: n° inputs M: n° outputs H: n° hyperparams

Into N dimensions, the multidimensional gradient vector indicates the descending direction.

$$
\boldsymbol{\theta}^{i+1} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^i + \mu^i \boldsymbol{f}^i
$$

$$
f^i = -\nabla L(\boldsymbol{\theta}^i)
$$

 μ is the learning rate defining the size of the step at each ith iteration.

Back-propagation

How do we define the term $\partial L/\partial w_{ij}^k$?

The MLP is equivalent to:

 $y = h(g(f(x)))$, h, g, f, with h, g, f the operator of each layer

The loss is equivalent to:

$$
l = L(\overline{x}, \overline{y}; \theta) = L\left(h\left(g(f(x))\right)\right)
$$

The derivative of the loss can be computed with the chain rule:

$$
\frac{\partial L}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial h} \frac{\partial h}{\partial g} \frac{\partial g}{\partial f} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}
$$

Computing the derivative from the last layer to the first one.

This operation in done on the computational graph and is called back-propagation (backwards in the network).

 $L(x, y, \theta)$

$$
y = g(f(x)) \to l = L(g(f(x)))
$$

 $x \mapsto f(\cdot) \longrightarrow g(\cdot)$

Back-propagation

1. Define the computational graph of the newtork

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- 2. Calucate the forward pass
	- 1. Variables

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- 3. Calculate the backward pass
	- a) Back-propagated error

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x	$\frac{\partial z^1}{\partial x}$	$\frac{\partial a^1}{\partial z^1}$	$\frac{\partial a^1}{\partial z^1}$	$\frac{\partial a^1}{\partial z^2}$	$\frac{\partial a^1}{\partial z^2}$	$\frac{\partial a^2}{\partial a^2}$	$\frac{\partial a^2}{\partial a^2}$	$\frac{\partial a^2}{\partial a^2}$	$\frac{\partial a^2}{\partial a^2} = \frac{\partial a^2}{\partial a^2}$															
W^1	$\frac{\partial z^1}{\partial W^1}$	$\frac{\partial z^2}{\partial W^2}$	$\frac{\partial z^2}{\partial w^2}$	$\frac{\partial z^2}{\partial w^2}$	$\frac{\partial z^2}{\partial w^2}$	$\frac{\partial z^2}{\partial w^2}$	$\frac{\partial z^2}{\partial w^2}$	$\frac{\partial z^2}{\partial w^2}$	$\frac{\partial z^2}{\partial w^2}$	$\frac{\partial z^2}{\partial w^2}$	$\frac{\partial z^2}{\partial w^2}$	$\frac{\partial z^2}{\partial w^2}$	$\frac{\partial z^2}{\partial w^2}$	$\frac{\partial z^2}{\partial w^2}$	$\frac{\partial z^2}{\partial w^2}$	$\frac{\partial z^2}{\partial w^2}$	$\frac{\partial z^$							

Optimizer

Once the gradient is defined, the weights are iteratively updated with gradient-based optimizers. The most common are:

1. Batch gradient descent

 $w^{(i+1)} = w^{(i)} - \alpha \nabla_w L(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, w^{(i)})$ for $i \in (1, n_{epochs})$

 α is the learning rate, it can be fixed or varying with the epochs.

2. Mini-batch (or Stochastic) gradient descent

 $w^{(i+1)} = w^{(i)} - \alpha \nabla_w L(\bar{x}_k, \bar{y}_k, w^{(i)})$ for $i \in (1, n_{epochs})$, $k \in (1, n_b)$

Data are shuffled and divided into n_h mini batches. If the batch

size is one, it is called *Stochastic Gradient Descent* (SGD).

The number of epochs and the batch size are hyperparameters of the model.

The number of epoch can be automatically selected with a *early stopping* algorithm that interrupts the optimization at convergence.

- ✓ Always converge toward local or globalminimum
- \checkmark Fixed α can be used
- ˟ Slow
- ˟ Redundant

- ✓ Faster iterations
- ✓ Non redundant calculations
- \checkmark Add nois due to random sampling halping generalization
- ˟ May not converge and stack in local minima
- \times Loss oscillation may require variable α (e.g., exponential decay)

Optimizer: momentum and adaptivity

The momentum is defined as a fraction of the previous step:

 $m = \mu(w^{(i)} - w^{(i-1)})$

m is used to compute the velocity:

 $v^{(i+1)} = \rho v^{(i)} - \alpha \nabla L(w^{(i)})$ $w^{(i+1)} = w^{(i)} + v^{(i+1)}$

With adaptivity, the step is scaled w.r.t. the (scaled) history of the gradient, so:

$$
w^{(i+1)} = w^{(i)} - \frac{\alpha \nabla L(w^{(i)})}{\sum_{j}^{i} \sqrt{(\nabla L(w^{j}))^{2}}}
$$

$$
w^{(i+1)} = w^{(i)} - \frac{\alpha \nabla L(w^{(i)})}{\sqrt{\gamma (\nabla L)^{2} + \sum_{j}^{i-1} (1 - \gamma)^{j} \nabla L(w^{j})}}
$$

RMSProp + Momentum = Adam

Optimizer: momentum and adaptivity

Optimizer: momentum and adaptivity

Optimizer: learning rate

Every optimizer presents a learning rate, which affects the training procedure.

• Small Ir -> slow convergence

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- Small Ir -> slow convergence
- Good learning rate -> optimal

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Optimizer: learning rate

Every optimizer presents a learning rate, which affects the training procedure.

- Small Ir -> slow convergence
- Good learning rate -> optimal
- High Ir -> not converge to minima

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When bounded and non-constant activation functions are used, a MLPwith a sufficient number of hidden units is a universal aproximator²

- Not enough hidden units -> can not approximate -> underfitting
- Enough units but noisy data -> approximates the noise -> overfitting

How can I check the prediction error? Data splitting! Splitting techniques:

- Single-split: divide dataset into validation and split
- Leave one out: multiple training with one sample out each training
- K-Fold: split dataset in k-fold and repeat training k times with kth subset as validation

40

Data $(\%)$

60

80

LOOCV

K-Fold

SPVS

0

20

100

How can I check the prediction error? Data splitting! Splitting techniques:

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Train on training and predict on validation at each epochs:

Underfitting: training loss tracks validation loss

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Train on training and predict on validation at each epochs:

Underfitting: training loss tracks validation loss Overfitting: Validation loss increase while training keep ϵ decreasing the contract of i and i

There are algorithmic solutions to overfitting:

Regularization

Add a weight regularization term to the loss function (L1= 'lasso', L2 ='ridge')

$$
L = MSE + \lambda \left| w^{(i)} \right|^k, k = 1 \text{ or } 2
$$

Dropout⁶

Drop MLP neuron in hidden layers at each epochs. Define a dropout probability p_i at each i^{th} layer At each iteration

Extract $p_k^i \in [0,1]$ for each k^{th} neurons in i^{th} layer Remove neurons with $p^i_k < p^i$ Remove connection $w_{drop} = w^i_{jk} \forall j$ Compute the loss $L(w \cap w_{drop})$ Backpropagate Update weights $w \cap w_{drop}$

 $p^{[0]} = 0.0$ $p^{[1]} = 0.0$ $p^{[2]} = 0.5$ $p^{[3]} = 0.0$ $p^{[4]} = 0.25$

[6] Srivastava et al, "Dropout: A simple way to prevent neural networks from overfitting", JMLR 2014

Hands-on tutorial

Google Colab: Here you have a simple code for training a regression MLP: https://colab.research.google.com/github/google/eng[edu/blob/main/ml/cc/exercises/linear_regression_with_synthetic_data.ipynb](https://colab.research.google.com/github/google/eng-edu/blob/main/ml/cc/exercises/linear_regression_with_synthetic_data.ipynb)

Suggested material:

Here you can find an online course on how to use Python: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rfscVS0vtbw>

Here you can find a crash course on ML provided by Google that will teach you the basic principles together with the basic steps with the Tensorflow library in Keras:

<https://developers.google.com/machine-learning/crash-course/ml-intro>

Since organizing and preprocessing the data is a fundamental aspect of the ML projects, take a look at this short course about the most common data processing techniques: <https://developers.google.com/machine-learning/data-prep>

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Part II – Friday May 17th

- ML applied to structural integrity
	- General MDS framework
	- State of the art
- ML model for scientific applications
	- Overview of PINN
	- Overview of DeepONet
	- Overview of BNN

Hands-on tutorial: build a BNN with Google Tensorflow Probabilistic

Mechanistic Data Science

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ML for fatigue: state of the art

Growing research interests towards ML applied to fatigue:

- Data-driven problem from the beginning
- Phenomenological modes derived from observations
- Few physics equations are known (e.g., LEFM)

Main goals:

- Predict the effect of design variables on the fatigue response from data (e.g. manufacturing, environmental)
- Discover governing models from observation and expand the knowledge
- Discover effect of defects and porosity on fatigue response

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ML applied to structural integrity

When applying ML to scientific problems we want to:

- Merge the data with physical knowledge
- 2. Understand the confidence of the prediction
- + in case of stochastic phenomena (e.g., fatigue):
	- 3. Have a probabilistic prediction

Neural networks that are trained to solve supervised learning tasks while respecting any given laws of physics described by general nonlinear partial differential equations.

A general PDE over a domainΩ, in a time interval [0, T], with non-linear operator N is introduced:

$$
u_T + \mathcal{N}[u] = 0, x \in \Omega, t \in [0, t]
$$

The solution $u(x,t)$ is learned by a MLP, defined as $MLP(t, x; \theta)$, from a set of observed data $(\bar{x}, \bar{t}, \bar{u}).$

With a standard approach:

$$
\boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{trained}} = \arg\min_{\theta} L(\bar{x}, \bar{t}, \bar{u}) = \arg\min_{\theta} \left| MSE\left(MLP(\bar{x}, \bar{t}; \theta), \bar{u}\right) \right|
$$

Standard training

Neural networks that are trained to solve supervised learning tasks while respecting any given laws of physics described by general nonlinear partial differential equations.

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$$

Since the PDE must hold for a valid solution, it should embed in the loss function:

$$
\theta_{trained} = \arg\min_{\theta} \left[L(\bar{x}, \bar{t}, \bar{u}) + \frac{MLP_T(\bar{x}, \bar{t}; \theta) + \mathcal{N}[u] \right]
$$

$$
u_T + \mathcal{N}[u] = 0
$$

Standard training

PINN training

Physics constraints can be expanded out of the training data using collocation points:

 $\theta_{trained} = \arg\min_{\theta} L_{MSE}(\bar{x},\bar{t},\bar{u};\bm{\theta})+L_{phy}(\tilde{x},\tilde{t};\bm{\theta})$, (\tilde{x},\tilde{t}) in $\mathbb{R}\setminus\Omega$

Increasing collocations points leads to better prediction -> PINN added value!

Standard training PINN training

Collocation help extrapolation.

Interpolation vs extrapolation:

Interpolation: inside the training data domain

Extrapolation: outside the training data domain

Toy example:

$$
y = f(x) = \sin(x)
$$

$$
MLP(x; \theta) = y_{pred}
$$

The PINN training enforce the correct derivative:

$$
L(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (MLP(\bar{x}_i, \theta) - \bar{y}_i)^2 + \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^{M} \left(\frac{d}{dx} MLP(\tilde{x}_j, \theta) - \cos(\tilde{x}_j)\right)^2
$$

MSE

Back-propagation in PINN

- Define the computational graph of the newtork
- 2. Calucate the forward pass
	- a) Variables
	- b) Local gradients
- 3. Calculate the backward pass
	- a) Get the gradient $\partial y/\partial \bar x$

PINN outtakes

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It can be concluded that:

- PINN has a standard architecture
- The way the network is trained makes it physics-informed
- All method applied to MLP can be extended to PINN (Dropout, regularization, ..)
- It can be extended behind PDEs, anywhere there is an apriori knwoledge coupling the input with the output with a mathematical expression
- Thanks to the MLP differentiability, this expression can contain derivatives

PINN applications

Prediction of the SIF of interacting ellipsoidal defects from defect characteristics [8] :

- Input: defect features
- Output: defect stress intensity factor ΔK_{rel}
- Physics knowledge: Murakami equation:

 $\Delta K_{rel}=F\cdot S\cdot K_t(AR)\cdot K_t(FR)\cdot K_t (interaction)\cdot Y\cdot \sqrt{\pi} (area)^{0.5}$

$$
\frac{d\Delta K_{rel}}{darea} = C(area)^{-\frac{3}{4}}
$$

Physics-informed loss:

$$
L = MSE + \left| \frac{\partial \Delta \hat{K}_{rel}}{\partial area} - \frac{d \Delta K_{rel}}{d area} \right|
$$

• Improved results training on expanded database

[8] Wang et al, Fatigue life prediction driven by mesoscopic defect data, Engineering Applications of Artificial Intelligence (2024)

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PINN applications

Prediction of multi-axial fatigue response^[9]:

- Input: shear and normal strain amplitude, model parameters
- Output: fatigue life
- Physics knowledge: multi-axial fatigue model

$$
\left(\frac{\tau_{f}^{'}}{G}(2N_{f})^{b0} + \gamma_{f}'(2N_{f})^{c0} - a\right) = 0
$$

Physics-informed loss:

$$
L = MSE + \left| \left(\frac{\tau_f}{G} \left(2N_{pi} \right)^{b0} + \gamma_f' \left(2N_{pi} \right)^{c0} - a \right) \right|
$$

- Improved results w.r.t. standard NN
- Tested over different models

[9] He, Zhao, Yan, MFLP-PINN: A physics-informed neural network for multiaxial fatigue life prediction, European Journal of Mechanics and Solids (2023)

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PINN applications

Prediction of fatigue curves^[10] of Additively Manufactured metals from process parameters:

- Input: manufacturing parameters
- Output: fatigue life
- Physics knowledge: Murakami, negative slope, positive curvature:

$$
\frac{dNf}{dS_a} < 0; \frac{d^2N_f}{dS_a^2} > 0;
$$

Physics-informed loss:

$$
L = MSE + \frac{-\frac{dN_f}{dS_a} + \left|\frac{dN_f}{dS_a}\right|}{2}
$$

- Improved results w.r.t. standard NN
- Tested over different models

1000

900

 $[MPa]$

Stress

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[Click here](https://colab.research.google.com/drive/1CWiiF7JHbf3J_1oDPFdEPDGiOzCu3MyX?usp=sharing)

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ML applied to structural integrity

When applying ML to scientific problems we want to:

- Merge the data with physical knowledge
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Novel methods properly developed to account for:

- The physics of the modelled problem
- The stochastic nature of the problem
- The uncertainty of the model

Weight Uncertainty in Neural Networks

Charles Blundell Julien Cornebise Koray Kavukcuoglu **Daan Wierstra Google DeepMind**

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[8] Blundell, Charles, et al. "Weight uncertainty in neural network." International conference on machine learning. PMLR, 2015.

Bayesian Neural Networks

"Minimizing MSE of the mean is equivalent to maximizing the log likelihood of the data under the assumption of Gaussian noise."

It is hence true that:

$$
MLP(\pmb{x}, \pmb{w}) = \pmb{y}, \pmb{x} \in \mathbb{R}^N, \pmb{y} \in \mathbb{R}^M
$$

$$
w = \arg\max_{\mathbf{w}} \log(P(\overline{\mathbf{y}}|\overline{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{w})) = \arg\max_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i} \log P(\overline{x}_i, \overline{y}_i, \mathbf{w})
$$

This approach can be extended to a probabilistic neural network, where the weights w are random functions \rightarrow Bayesian Neural Network. The BNN is random and will give a different results every time is used.

Bayesian Neural Networks

We want to fine the distribution of weights w given the training dataset

 $\mathcal{D} = (\bar{x}, \bar{y})$, which maximize $P(w|\mathcal{D})$.

Using Bayes theorem: $P(w|\mathcal{D})=$ $P(\mathcal{D}|w)P(w)$ $P(\mathcal{D}%)=\{(\pi_{1},\pi_{2})\}_{1\leq\pi_{1}}\}$ Posterior distribution Prior distribution Prediction On D

The predicted expectation can be computed with mutiple predictions:

$$
P(\bar{\mathbf{y}}|\bar{x}) = \mathbb{E}_{P(W|\mathcal{D})}[P(\bar{y}, \bar{x}, w)] \approx \sum_i p(w|\mathcal{D})BNN^i(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, w)
$$

With a variational approach, the posterior distribution is a parametric function (e.g., Gaussian, Bernoulli, ..) $q(w, \theta)$ with parametrers θ .

y

 $1.2 -$

 0.8

 0.4

 0.0

 -0.4

 0.0

 0.4

x

 1.2

 0.8

Bayesian Neural Networks: training

The problem becomes:

 $\theta = \arg \min$ θ $KL[q(w|\theta)||P(w|\mathcal{D})]$

Where KL is the Kullback-Leibler divergence between two distributions:

$$
KL[q(w|\theta)||P(w|\mathcal{D})] = \int q(w|\theta) \log \left(\frac{q(w|\theta)}{P(w|\mathcal{D})}\right) dw = \int q(w|\theta) \log \left(\frac{q(w|\theta)}{P(w)P(\mathcal{D}|w)}\right) dw
$$

That is equal to:

$$
KL[q(w|\theta)||P(w|\mathcal{D})] = KL[q(w|\theta)||P(w)] - \int \log(P(\mathcal{D}|w)) q(w|\theta) dw
$$

$$
L(\mathcal{D}, \theta) = KL[q(w|\theta)||P(w)] - \mathbb{E}_{q(w|\theta)}[\log(P(\mathcal{D}|w)] - \mathbb{E}_{f(x)}[g(x)] = \int g(x)f(x) dx
$$

 $L(\mathcal{D}, \theta) = \mathbb{E}_{q(w|\theta)}[\log(q(w|\theta)) - \log(P(w)) - \log(P(\mathcal{D}|\theta))]$

We recognize a *data-related term* and a *complexity term* in the loss function

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Bayesian Neural Networks: training

To minimize the loss we need its gradient. Using the proposition:

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \mathbb{E}_{q(w|\theta)}[\log(P(\mathcal{D}|w)] = \mathbb{E}_{q(\epsilon)}[\frac{\partial f(w,\theta)}{\partial w}\frac{\partial w}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\partial f(w,\theta)}{\partial \theta}]
$$

With ϵ a small random number so that $q(\epsilon)d\epsilon = w(w|\theta)d\theta$.

$$
\mathbb{E}_{q(w|\theta)}[\log(q(w|\theta)) - \log(P(w)) - \log(P(\mathcal{D}|w))] = \mathbb{E}_{q(w|\theta)}[l(\theta, \mathcal{D})]
$$

$$
\approx \sum_{i}^{n} \log \left(q(w^{(i)}|\theta) \right) - \log \left(P(w^{(i)}) \right) - \log \left(P(\mathcal{D}|w^{(i)}) \right) \longrightarrow
$$

Monte-Carlo sampling from the variational posterior

In case of Gaussian distribution of weights $q(w|\theta) = \mathcal{N}(w|\mu, \sigma)$, $\theta = (\mu, \sigma)$:

$$
w = \mu + \log(1 + \exp(\sigma)) \cdot \epsilon
$$

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \mathbb{E}_{q(w|\theta)}[\log(P(\mathcal{D}|w)] = \mathbb{E}_{q(\epsilon)} \left[\frac{\partial \overline{l(w, \theta)}}{\partial w} \right]_1 + \frac{\partial \overline{l(w, \theta)}}{\partial w} \right] = \nabla_{\mu} L
$$
\n
$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \mathbb{E}_{q(w|\theta)}[\log(P(\mathcal{D}|w)] = \mathbb{E}_{q(\epsilon)} \left[\frac{\partial \overline{l(w, \theta)}}{\partial w} \right]_1 + \exp(-\sigma) + \frac{\partial \overline{l(w, \theta)}}{\partial w} \right] = \nabla_{\sigma} L
$$
\n
$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \mathbb{E}_{q(w|\theta)}[\log(P(\mathcal{D}|w)] = \mathbb{E}_{q(\epsilon)} \left[\frac{\partial \overline{l(w, \theta)}}{\partial w} \right]_1 + \exp(-\sigma) + \frac{\partial \overline{l(w, \theta)}}{\partial w} \right] = \nabla_{\sigma} L
$$
\n
$$
\frac{\text{Gradient of} \quad \text{back propagation} \quad \text{in the above}
$$

 $\bar{x}|\tilde{x}$

 W^1

 $\mathcal N$

 $\partial L/\partial \sigma$

 $\partial w^1/\partial \sigma$

 $\partial L/\partial \mu$

 $\partial w^1/\partial \mu$

 W^2

 $a^1 = A^1(z^1)$ $y = a^2 = A^2 (z^2)$

 μ

 σ

 ϵ

Bayesian Neural Networks: Bayes by Backpropagation

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \mathbb{E}_{q(w|\theta)}[\log(P(\mathcal{D}|w)] = \mathbb{E}_{q(\epsilon)} \left[\frac{\partial l(w, \theta)}{\partial w} \mathbf{1} + \frac{\partial l(w, \theta)}{\partial \mu} \right] = \nabla_{\mu} L
$$

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \mathbb{E}_{q(w|\theta)}[\log(P(\mathcal{D}|w)] = \mathbb{E}_{q(\epsilon)}\left[\frac{\partial l(w,\theta)}{\partial w}\frac{\epsilon}{1 + \exp(-\sigma)} + \frac{\partial l(w,\theta)}{\partial \sigma}\right]
$$

 $\left[\overline{\mathcal{A}^1(\cdot)}\right]a$

 $\partial L/\partial z^1$

 ∂z 1

 $\overline{\partial a}^{1}$

 \vec{z}

 $\overline{\partial} \overline{z}^1/\partial w$

 $\partial L/\partial w^1$

$$
\frac{\partial l(w,\theta)}{\partial w^1} = \frac{\partial l}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial z^2} \frac{\partial z^2}{\partial a^1} \frac{\partial a^1}{\partial z^1} \frac{\partial z^1}{\partial w^1}
$$

$$
\frac{\partial l(w,\theta)}{\partial \mu} = \frac{\partial l}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial z^2} \frac{\partial z^2}{\partial a^1} \frac{\partial a^1}{\partial z^1} \frac{\partial z^1}{\partial w^1} \frac{\partial w^1}{\partial \mu}
$$

$$
\frac{\partial l(w,\theta)}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{\partial l}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial z^2} \frac{\partial z^2}{\partial a^1} \frac{\partial a^1}{\partial z^1} \frac{\partial z^1}{\partial w^1} \frac{\partial w^1}{\partial \sigma}
$$

From the computational graph

The expectation is computed by randombly sampling ϵ n times (Monte Carlo sampling)

x

 $\partial z^2/\partial a^1$

2

 $\partial L/\partial a^1$

 $a¹$

 $\mathbb{Z}^2 \longrightarrow \mathcal{A}^2(\cdot) \longrightarrow \mathcal{Y}$

 $\partial L/\partial z^2$

 $\partial y/\partial z^2$

L

ι

 $\partial L/\partial y$

 $\partial l/\partial y$

Bayesian Neural Networks

- Allow to estimate the model uncertainty
- It is a modified architecture with probabilistic weights
- It requires a modified back-propagation
- The number of parameters increases (double for diagonal normal, escalate for multivariate distributions with weights co-variance)
- Can be used for adaptive sampling strategies: sample data in uncertain regions on domain
- Can be used to suppress connections with high noise-to-signal ratio (e.g., σ/μ)

Thank you all for your kind attention!

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