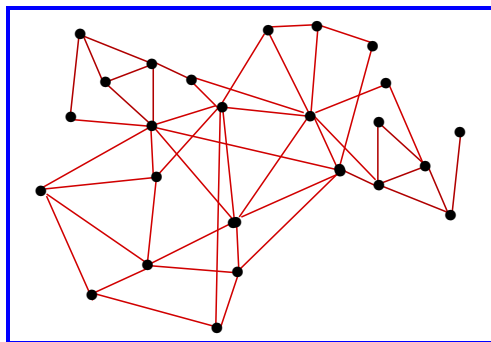


APPLICATIONS OF GRAPH LAPLACEANS: GRAPH EMBEDDINGS

Graph embeddings

- We have seen how to build a graph to represent data
- *Graph embedding* does the opposite: maps a graph to data

Given: a graph that models some data (e.g., a kNN graph)



Data: $Y = [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n]$ in $\mathbb{R}^{d \times n}$

Note: In practice Y is transposed [$Y \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$]

- Trivial use: visualize a graph ($d = 2$)
- Wish: mapping should preserve *similarities* in graph.

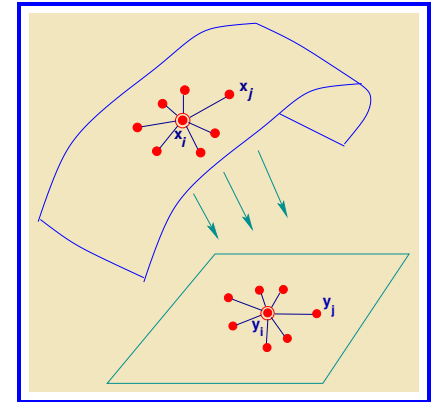
Vertex embedding: map every vertex x_i to a vector $y_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$

- Many applications [clustering, finding missing link, semi-supervised learning, community detection, ...]

Graph embedding: Embed a whole graph to a vector $y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ [e.g., graph classification]

- Graph captures similarities, closeness, ..., in data
- Many methods do this

Objective: Build a mapping of each vertex i to a data point $y_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$



- Next we focus on vertex embedding.
- **Eigenmaps** and **LLE** are two of the best known **classical** methods

- Eigenmaps uses the *graph Laplacean*
- Recall: Graph Laplacean is a matrix defined by :

$$L = D - W$$

$$\begin{cases} w_{ij} \geq 0 & \text{if } j \in \text{Adj}(i) \\ w_{ij} = 0 & \text{else} \end{cases} \quad D = \text{diag} \left[d_{ii} = \sum_{j \neq i} w_{ij} \right]$$

with $\text{Adj}(i)$ = neighborhood of i (excludes i)

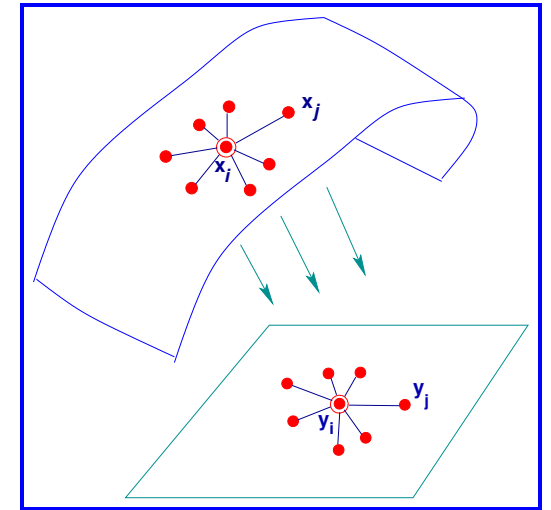
- Remember that vertex i represents data item x_i . We will use i or x_i to refer to the vertex.
- We will find the y_i 's by solving an optimization problem.

The Laplacean eigenmaps approach

Laplacean Eigenmaps [Belkin-Niyogi '01] *minimizes*

$$\mathcal{F}(Y) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n w_{ij} \|y_i - y_j\|^2 \quad \text{subject to} \quad YDY^T = I$$

- Motivation:** if $\|x_i - x_j\|$ is small (orig. data), we want $\|y_i - y_j\|$ to be also small (low-Dim. data)
- Original data used indirectly through its graph
 - Objective function can be translated to a trace (see Property 3 in Lecture notes 9) and will yield a sparse eigenvalue problem



➤ Problem translates to:

$$\begin{cases} \min & \text{Tr} [Y(D - W)Y^\top] . \\ Y \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n} \\ YD Y^\top = I \end{cases}$$

➤ Solution (sort eigenvalues increasingly):

$$(D - W)u_i = \lambda_i D u_i ; \quad y_i = u_i^\top ; \quad i = 1, \dots, d$$

➤ An $n \times n$ sparse eigenvalue problem [In 'sample' space]

➤ Note: can assume $D = I$. Amounts to rescaling data. Problem becomes

$$(I - W)u_i = \lambda_i u_i ; \quad y_i = u_i^\top ; \quad i = 1, \dots, d$$

Locally Linear Embedding (Roweis-Saul-00)

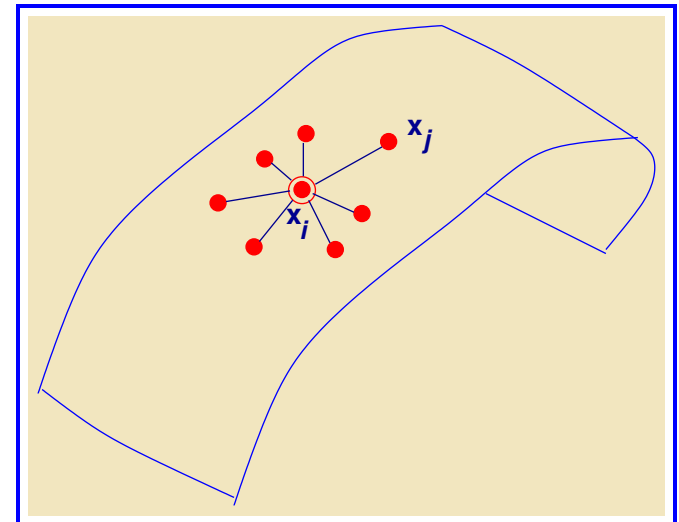
- LLE is very similar to Eigenmaps. Main differences:
 - 1) Graph Laplacean matrix is replaced by an ‘affinity’ graph
 - 2) Objective function is changed: want to preserve graph

1. Graph: Each x_i is written as a convex combination of its k nearest neighbors:

$$x_i \approx \sum w_{ij} x_j, \quad \sum_{j \in N_i} w_{ij} = 1$$

➤ Optimal weights computed (‘local calculation’) by minimizing

$$\|x_i - \sum w_{ij} x_j\| \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n$$



2. Mapping:

The y_i 's should obey the same 'affinity' as x_i 's \rightsquigarrow

Minimize:

$$\sum_i \left\| y_i - \sum_j w_{ij} y_j \right\|^2 \quad \text{subject to: } Y \mathbf{1} = \mathbf{0}, \quad Y Y^\top = I$$

Solution: $(I - W^\top)(I - W)u_i = \lambda_i u_i; \quad y_i = u_i^\top.$

➤ $(I - W^\top)(I - W)$ replaces the graph Laplacean of eigenmaps

Implicit vs explicit mappings

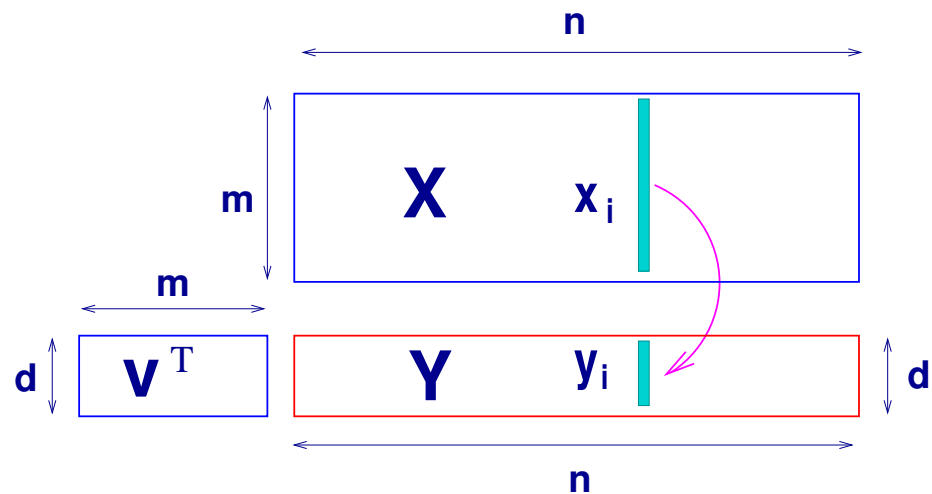
- In Eigenmaps and LLE we only determine a set of y'_i 's in \mathbb{R}^d from the data points $\{x_i\}$.
- The mapping $y_i = \phi(x_i), i = 1, \dots, n$ is implicit
- Difficult to compute a y for an x that is not one of the x_i 's
- Inconvenient for classification. Thus is known as the “The out-of-sample extension” problem
- In Explicit (also known as linear) methods: mapping ϕ is known explicitly (and it is linear.)

Locally Preserving Projections (He-Niyogi-03)

➤ LPP is a **linear** dimensionality reduction technique

➤ Recall the setting:

Want $V \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$; $Y = V^T X$



➤ Starts with the same neighborhood graph as Eigenmaps: $L \equiv D - W =$ graph ‘Laplacian’; with $D \equiv \text{diag}(\{\sum_i w_{ij}\})$.

- Optimization problem is to solve

$$\min_{Y \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n}, YDY^\top = I} \sum_{i,j} w_{ij} \|y_i - y_j\|^2, \quad Y = V^\top X.$$

- Difference with eigenmaps: Y is an explicit projection of X
- Solution (sort eigenvalues increasingly)

$$XLX^\top v_i = \lambda_i XDX^\top v_i \quad y_{i,:} = v_i^\top X$$

- Note: essentially same method in [Koren-Carmel'04] called 'weighted PCA' [viewed from the angle of improving PCA]

ONPP (Kokiopoulou and YS '05)

- Orthogonal Neighborhood Preserving Projections
- A linear (orthogonoal) version of LLE obtained by writing Y in the form $Y = V^T X$
- Same graph as LLE. Objective: preserve the affinity graph (as in LLE) *but* with the constraint $Y = V^T X$
- Problem solved to obtain mapping:

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_V \text{Tr} [V^T X (I - W^T) (I - W) X^T V] \\ & \text{s.t. } V^T V = I \end{aligned}$$

- In LLE replace $V^T X$ by Y

More recent methods

➤ Quite a bit of recent work - e.g., methods: node2vec, DeepWalk, GraRep, ... See the following papers ... among many others :

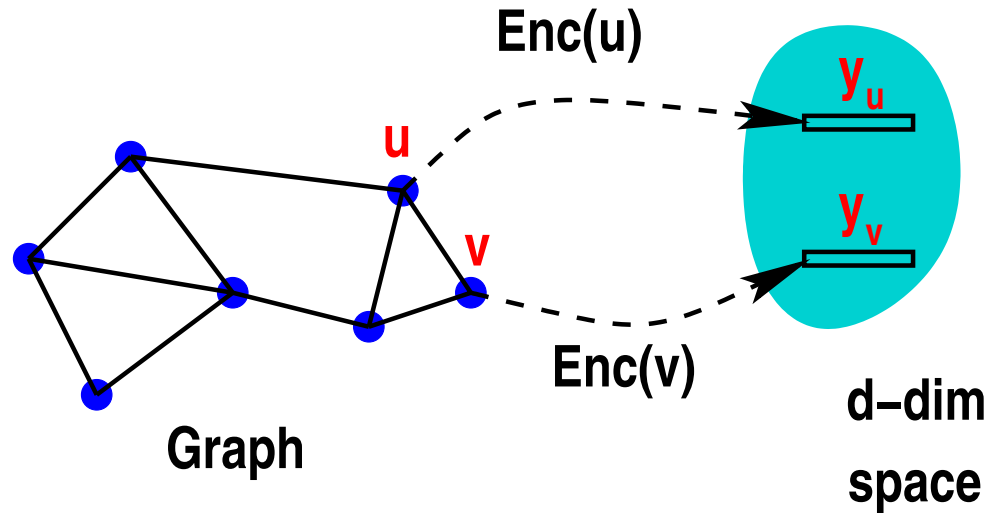
[1] *William L. Hamilton, Rex Ying, and Jure Leskovec Representation Learning on Graphs: Methods and Applications arXiv:1709.05584v3*

[2] *Shaosheng Cao, Wei Lu, and Qionghai Xu GraRep: Learning Graph Representations with Global Structural Information, CIKM, ACM Conference on Information and Knowledge Management, 24*

[3] *Amr Ahmed, Nino Shervashidze, and Shravan Narayanamurthy, Distributed Large-scale Natural Graph Factorization [Proc. WWW 2013, May 13-17, 2013, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil]*

Terminology: Encoding

- The mapping from node to vector is often called an **encoding**



- Goal: *encode* should reflect **similarity** (if u and v are ‘similar’, their encodings should be ‘close’)
- Example: measure similarity by $y_v^T y_u$

Example: Graph factorization

- Line of work in Papers [1] and [3] above + others
- Instead of minimizing $\sum w_{ij} \|y_i - y_j\|_2^2$ as before

... try to minimize

$$\sum_{ij} |w_{ij} - y_i^T y_j|^2$$

- In other words solve: $\min_Y \|W - Y^T Y\|_F^2$
- Referred to as *Graph factorization*
- Common in knowledge graphs
- Method seen so far are termed 'shallow encoders'

DEEP NEURAL NETWORKS (DNNS)

A (very) brief history of AI and DNNs

1950: 'Turing test' – can a machine think?

1956: Dartmouth College Artificial Intelligence Conference. Invention of the term 'Artificial Intelligence' [J. McCarthy]

1958: Rosenblatt invented the 'Perceptron' - idea of imitating neurons

1958+: Emphasis on symbolic processing/reasoning. invention of LISP

1964: Eliza (MIT) - a natural language processing program

1974-1980: 1st AI winter (lack of progress). **Pb: NLP going nowhere**

1980s: Multilayer Perceptron. More numerical/optimization approaches. Departure away from Natural Language Processing.

1982: Convolutionan Neural Networks (CNNs)

Mid-1980s: Back-propagation enters in force

1987-1993: 2nd AI winter (lack of progress). **Pb: Lack of compute power**

1997: Deep Blue (IBM) beets G. Gasparov - world Chess Champion

Mid-1990s: Research in 'Data Mining' gaining ground

2012: Huge breakthrough in CNNs (Alex-net) - **boost from GPUs**

2016: AlphaGo (DeepMind) beets Go Champion

2017: 'Transformers' ["Attention is all you need"]

2018: GPT-1 (OpenAI) ... [Large Language Models]

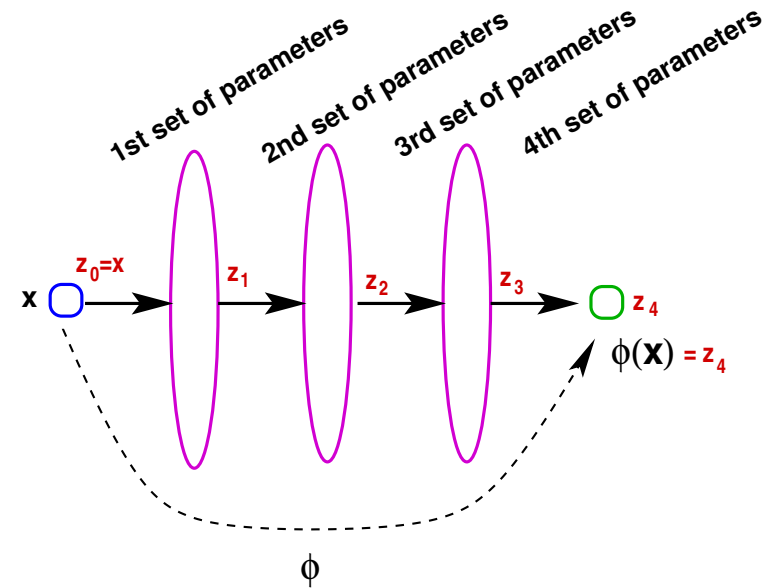
2019: GPT-2 — The rest is history.

Deep Neural Networks (DNNs) - general remarks

- Ideas of neural networks goes back to the 1960s - were popularized in early 1990s – then laid dormant until recently.
- Two reasons for the come-back:
 - DNN are remarkably effective in some applications
 - big progress made in hardware [→ affordable ‘training cost’]

Multilayer Perceptron (MLP)

➤ Training a neural network can be viewed as a problem of approximating a function ϕ which is defined via sets of parameters:



Problem: find sets of parameters such that $\phi(x_i) \approx y_i$, for $i = 1, \dots, n$

➤ The set $\{x_i, y_i\}$ is the **training set**

➤ Notation: Often $\hat{y}_i \equiv \phi(x_i)$ so we want $y_i \approx \hat{y}_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$

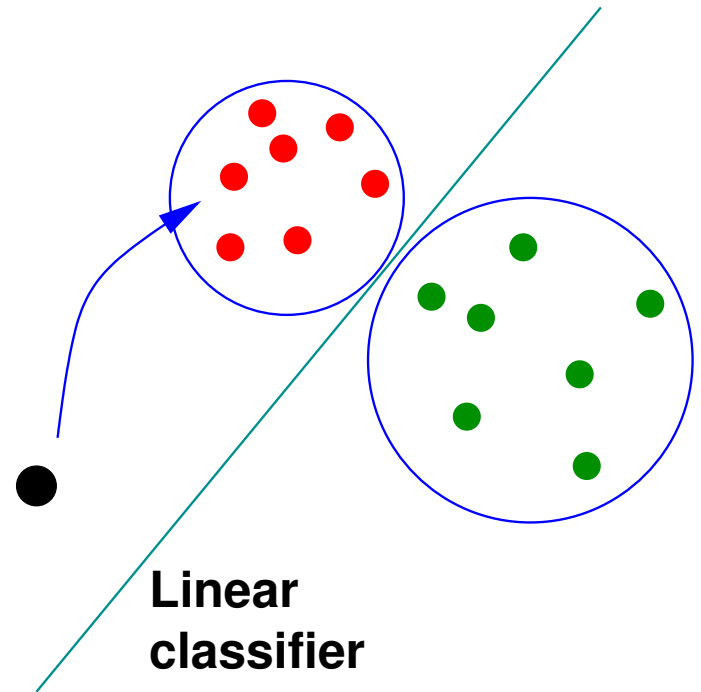
Start with one layer: Perceptron

- Objective: To separate two given sets (A) and (B) of input data
- Example of application: Distinguish SPAM and non-SPAM e-mails

Linear classifiers: Find a hyperplane which best separates the data in classes A and B.

- Use hyperplane defined by:

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + \beta$$



- Sets (A) , (B) defined by: $\phi(x) = \sigma(w^T x + \beta)$ ($\sigma ==$ sign function)
- $\phi(x) \geq 0 \rightarrow x \in (A)$ and $\phi(x) < 0 \rightarrow x \in (B)$
- **Given:** training data set (x_i, y_i) with labels (e.g., 'spam'–'non-spam', 'malignant' –'non-malignant',...) where $y_i = \pm 1$
- Determine an **optimal** w for which $\phi(x_i) \approx y_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$
- **'Inference'**: Determine class of a new 'test' item x by evaluating $\phi(x)$

Multi-Layer Perceptrons (MLPs)

- Neural Networks (NNs) generalize what was just described
- **First:** Instead of a single vector w we will use a $d \times k$ matrix W and σ is replaced by a continuous function known as an 'activation function'
- $\phi(x)$ is a vector.
- **Second** big change: use several layers of perceptrons instead of one.
- First Layer: transform x to $z_1 = \sigma(W_1^T x + b_1)$ where $W_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d_1}$ and $\sigma = \text{activation}$

The activation functions

- Several choices for the activation function σ used
- Best known **Rectified Linear Unit**, or ReLU: $\sigma(t) = \max\{0, t\}$.
- The **Sigmoid**: $\sigma(t) = (1 + e^{-t})^{-1}$
- ... and the **hyperbolic tangent** $\sigma(t) = \tanh(t)$
- Note: ReLU ≥ 0 ; sigmoid and tanh lie in $(0, 1)$ and $(-1, 1)$ respectively.
- The sigmoid is related to logistic regression and its derivative satisfies $\sigma' = \sigma(1 - \sigma)$.

41 Prove the above relation.

42 If $\theta(t) = \tanh(t)$ and σ is the sigmoid, show that $\theta(t) = 1 - 2\sigma(-2t)$

MLP - continued

➤ 2nd layer transforms output z_1 from 1st layer $z_2 = \sigma(W_2^T z_1 + b_2)$

➤ Generally, going from layer $l - 1$ to layer l :

$$z_l = \sigma(W_l^T z_{l-1} + b_l)$$

➤ where $W_l \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{l-1} \times d_l}$, $b_l \in \mathbb{R}^{d_l}$, and σ

➤ Do this for $l = 1, 2, \dots, L + 1$ - where $L =$ number of 'hidden' layers

➤ $z_{L+1} =$ output $= \phi(x)$. For example, when $L = 3$:

$$\phi(x) = \sigma(W_4^T \sigma(W_3^T \sigma(W_2^T \sigma(W_1^T x + b_1) + b_2) + b_3) + b_4).$$

MLP

Input: x , **Output:** y

Set: $z_0 = x$

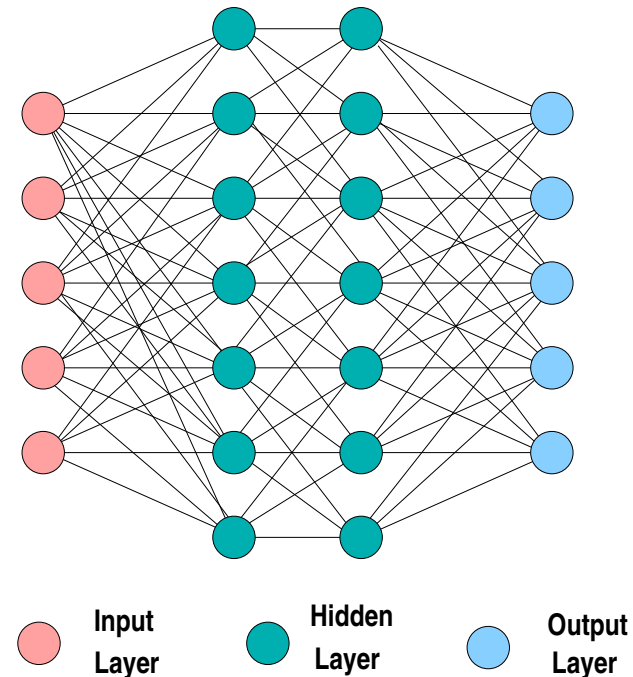
For $l = 1 : L+1$ **Do:**

$$z_l = \sigma(W_l^T z_{l-1} + b_l)$$

End

Set: $\phi(x) := z_{L+1}$

- layer # 0 = input layer
- layer # ($L + 1$) = output layer
- A matrix W_l is associated with layers $1, 2, \dots, L + 1$ (for L hidden layers)



- Problem: Find ϕ (i.e., params. W_l, b_l) s.t. $\phi(x_i) \approx y_i$ for $i = 1 : n$

Example: digit recognition

- We have a set x_1, \dots, x_n of **labeled** images of digits.
- Each x_i = vectorized picture.
- y_i = a digit between 0 and 9
- Often y_i expressed as a *one-hot* vector of length 10.
- For example digit 2 will be $[0,0,1,0,0,0,0,0,0,0] = e_3$

- If the images are $10 \times 20 \dots$
- \dots and we have $L = 2$ hidden layers with $d_1 = d_2 = 100$
- Then input data has size $n \times d_0$ where $d_0 = 400$ and the output will be of size $n \times 10$.

Loss function and training

- To train the model we need a set of data points $x_i, y_i, i = 1 : n$.
- Input == a matrix X of size $n \times d_0$, – each row == a sample
- Output == matrix Y of length $n \times C$ whose rows are ‘one-hot’ vectors [C = # classes]
- Each of the internal variables z_l becomes a matrix $Z_l \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_l}$ Now:

$$Z_l = \sigma(Z_{l-1} \times W_l + b_l)$$

where $W_l \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{l-1} \times d_l}$, $b_l \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times d_l}$, and σ are the same as before.

- Note change of notation: samples x_i and internal variables z_i are now **row vectors**
- They occupy the rows of the matrix X and Z_l respectively.
- Above equation exploits 'broadcasting' [feature of Python]
- Define $W = \{W_1, b_1, W_2, b_2, \dots, W_L, b_L\}$ the set of parameters
- $\phi(x)$ is written as $\phi_W(x)$
- Problem: Find function ϕ_W s.t. $\phi_W(x_i) \approx y_i$ for $i = 1 : n$
- In matrix form $\phi_W(X) \approx Y$.
- Possible formulation:

$$\min_W \mathcal{L}(W) \equiv \|Y - \phi_W(X)\|_F^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \|y_i - \phi_W(x_i)\|_2^2$$

- Recall: $Y, \phi_W(X) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_{L+1}}$ where $d_{L+1} \equiv C ==$ number of classes.
- Above formulation is seldom employed. Preferred approach: exploit cross-entropy distance - a notion based on information theory.
- if y_i, \hat{y}_i are scalars minimize cross-entropy loss: $\mathcal{L}(W) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_i y_i \log(\hat{y}_i)$
- Otherwise - apply **softmax** operation to each row y_i : $\hat{y}_i = \text{softmax}(y_i)$
- Softmax of a row/col. vector z is:
Exp. Operation done componentwise $\text{softmax}(z) = \frac{\exp(z)}{\text{sum}[\exp(z)]}$
- Product $y_i \log(\hat{y}_i)$ in scalar case, replaced by inner product.
- Thus, the cross-entropy loss function which we want to minimize is

$$\mathcal{L}(W) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i, \log \hat{y}_i) .$$

Training a DNN

- Basic idea: use Gradient Descent $w_{j+1} = w_j - \eta_j \nabla \phi(w_j)$, scalar η_j = termed the *step-size* or *learning rate* in ML
- Well understood algorithm when ϕ is convex - not too useful as is in ML
- In deep learning, $\phi(w)$ is often the mean of other cost functions:

$$\phi(w) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \phi_i(w)$$

→

$$\nabla \phi(w) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla \phi_i(w)$$

- Recall 'Mean Squared Error' (MSE) case $\phi(w) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \|y_i - \phi_w(x_i)\|_2^2$
- Similarly for the cross-entropy cost.

- Expensive to compute 'full' gradient $\nabla \phi$ but not $\nabla \phi_i(\boldsymbol{w})$, for some i
- Idea of Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD): replace $\nabla \phi(\boldsymbol{w}_j)$ by $\nabla \phi_k(\boldsymbol{w}_j)$ where k is an index between 1 and n drawn at random.
- Result is an iteration of the type: $\boldsymbol{w}_{j+1} = \boldsymbol{w}_j - \eta_j \nabla \phi_k(\boldsymbol{w}_j)$ - - where ϕ_k drawn at random among $\{\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n\}$

Mini-batching

Using a single function ϕ_k at a time not efficient.

- **Compromise:** replace function ϕ_k , by average of m functions drawn randomly from full set. Let \mathcal{B}_j the sample at step j - define:

$$\phi_{\mathcal{B}_j}(\boldsymbol{w}) \equiv \frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}_j|} \sum_{k \in \mathcal{B}_j} \phi_k(\boldsymbol{w}).$$

Batch-SGD:

$$\boldsymbol{w}_{j+1} = \boldsymbol{w}_j - \eta_j \nabla \phi_{\mathcal{B}_j}(\boldsymbol{w}_j) \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n_B.$$

- 'epoch' == a cycle through all mini-batches \mathcal{B}_j
- Simplest among a few 'optimizers'
- Best known technique to train a neural network is known as the Adaptive Moment Estimation (**Adam**) algorithm.
- Adam exploits two ideas: variance reduction and momentum.
- Variance reduction is a form of diagonal preconditioning - scales variables adaptively, adjusting the learning rate for each parameter individually
- Momentum == add a multiple of the previous increment $w_j - w_{j-1}$:
- GD + **Momentum**:
$$w_{j+1} = w_j - \eta_j \nabla \phi(w_j) + \nu(w_j - w_{j-1})$$
- Adam has two momentum terms: for gradient and for variance.

$$m_t = \beta_1 m_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_1) g_t ,$$

$$v_t = \beta_2 v_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_2) (g_t)^2 ,$$

$$w_t = w_{t-1} - \frac{\eta \hat{m}_t}{\sqrt{\hat{v}_t + \epsilon}} .$$

$$\hat{m}_t = m_t / (1 - \beta_1^t)$$

$$\hat{v}_t = v_t / (1 - \beta_2^t)$$

- g_t is the gradient at step t , and β_1 and β_2 , are decay rates.
- Divisions, squaring, square roots, of vectors done componentwise.
- Recommended parameters: $\beta_1 = 0.9$, $\beta_2 = 0.999$, $\epsilon = 10^{-8}$.

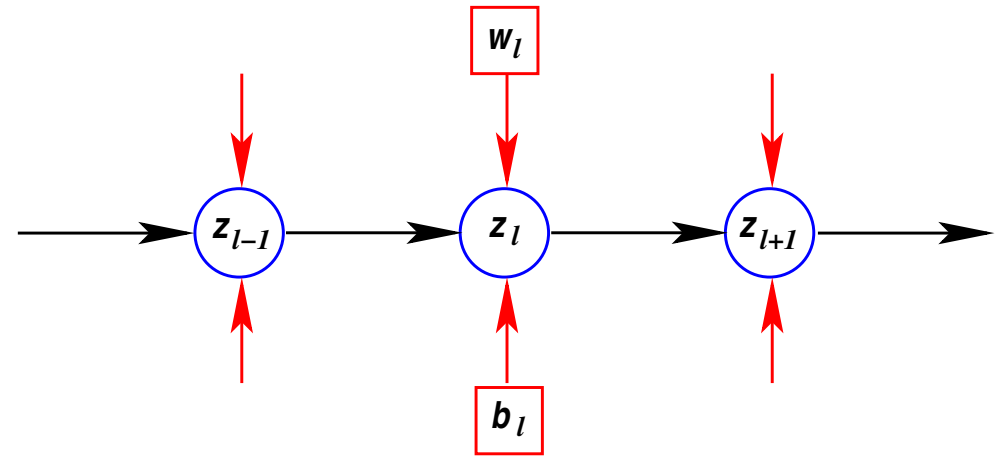
Issues with 'optimization'

- Problem is not convex, highly parameterized, ...,
- We may have a huge number of local minima.
- Hard to analyze mathematically why it all works.
- Over-parameterization plays a central role
- Notion of **generalization**: How does the model perform on unseen data (not in training set)? Defines **accuracy** of model
- Important: **Lower cost function does not mean better accuracy**

Back to Back-propagation

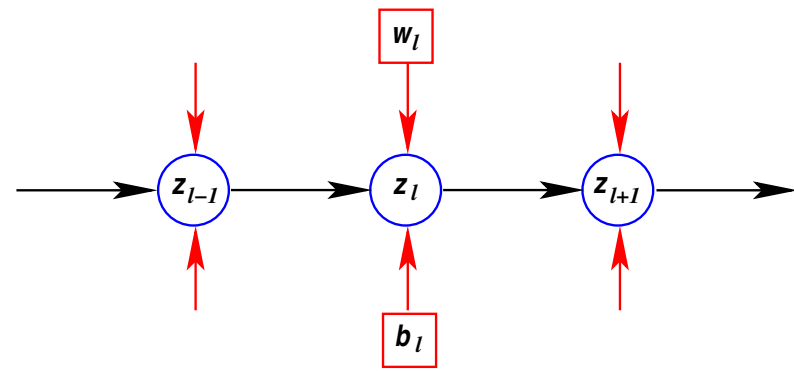
Graph of **forward** phase for calculation $z_l = \sigma(W_l^T z_{l-1} + b_l)$

➤ Nodes of comput. graph: circles (the z_k 's) and squares (the parameters, W_k, b_k).



- Call f the original objective function - $\mathcal{L}(W)$
- Want: the gradient of f with respect to all parameters w_l, b_l
- Assume a forward propagation step was done. All nodes evaluated
- In back-propagation arrows in Figure are reversed.

- Evaluate: $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z_l} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z_{l+1}} \times \frac{\partial z_{l+1}}{\partial z_l}$
- Note: $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z_{l+1}}$ was evaluated at a prior traversal step in graph



- Also: $\frac{\partial z_{l+1}}{\partial z_l}$ is readily computable from $z_{l+1} = \sigma(W_{l+1}^T z_l + b_{l+1})$
- Next follow the (reversed) arrows, and compute

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial W_l} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z_l} \times \frac{\partial z_l}{\partial W_l} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial b_l} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z_l} \times \frac{\partial z_l}{\partial b_l}.$$
- Above calculations take place in the ‘leaves’ of back-propagation graph. They yield desired partial derivatives wrt W_l, b_l
- Similar situation when the z_i ’s are matrices [general case]
- Back-propagation amounts to a sequence of matrix products.

AI thinking vs. numerical analysis thinking: “Attention”

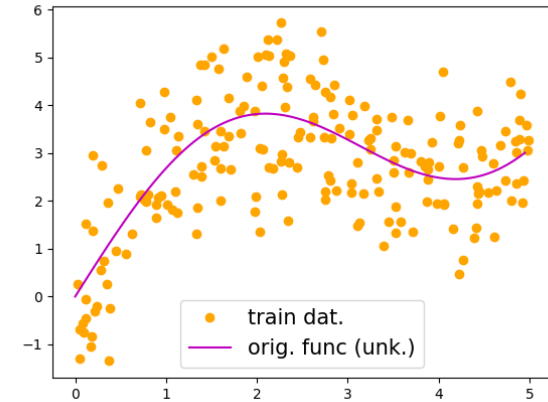
Trivial example: Given very noisy ‘training points’

x_i, y_i to an unknown function f , ‘recover’ f

NA: Interpolate in Least-Squares sense

➤ Need to select interpolant type, e.g., cubic

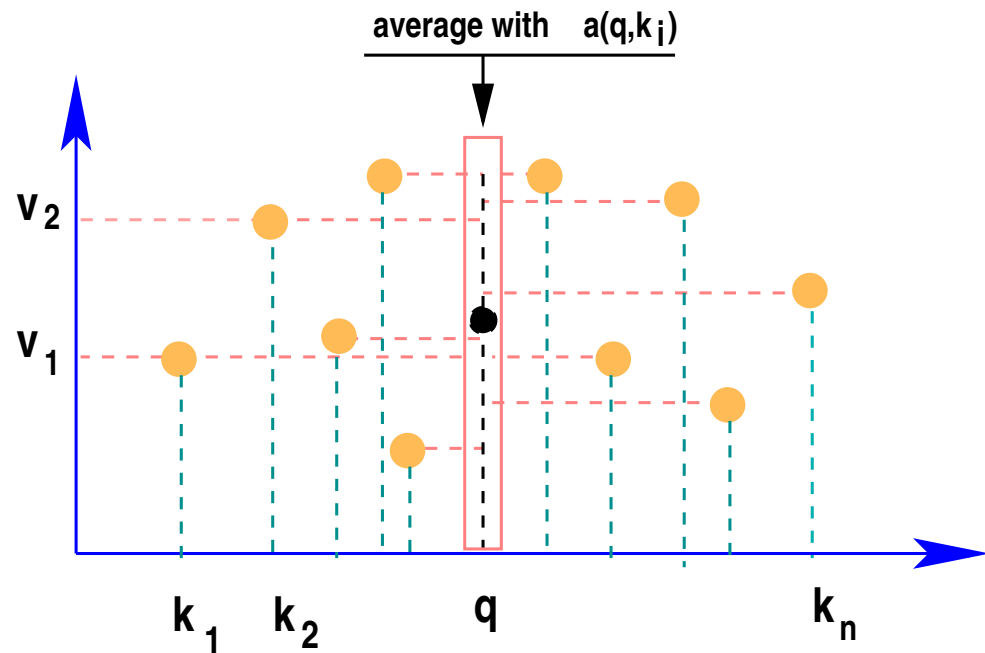
ML: use data points + some form of averaging with ‘attention’.



- Given $\{k_i, v_i\}$ keys, values (NA: x_i^{train}, y_i^{train})
- ... a query q (NA: The x where we want $f(x)$)
- ... and a Kernel $a(q, k)$. Approximation at q :

$$A(q) = \sum_i a(q, k_i) v_i$$

- “Attention” mechanism averages by giving more importance to points near q
- Nadaraya-Watson attention [Kernel Regression]



Transformers

- Up-to \approx 2015: MLP, CNN, RNN+LSTM, + Focus on images. Then:
- “*Attention is all you need*” paper [Vaswani et al., '17] – a major breakthrough
 - Before: LLMs needed to account for sequentiality.. order in words. Difficulties: stability, ...,
 - Now: use (1) attention + (2) adding ‘positional encoding’ scheme to embedding.

Tokenization + Embedding

- Very first step of LLMs: transform sequences of strings (words, chars) into tokens
- ... and then into vectors via embedding
- Result: matrix X_0 of size $n \times d$;
- n = number of tokens, d = embedding dimension
- X_0 transformed through L passes $X_L = \mathcal{T}(X_0) = (\mathcal{T}_L \circ \mathcal{T}_{L-1} \circ \dots \circ \mathcal{T}_1)(X_0)$.
- \mathcal{T}_ℓ termed ℓ -th 'transformer block'

➤ ℓ -th block == parameterized function $\mathcal{T}_\ell(\cdot; \Theta_\ell): \mathbb{R}^{n \times d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$.

$$(a) \quad A_\ell(\mathbf{X}_{\ell-1}) = \text{MHA}(\text{LN}(\mathbf{X}_{\ell-1})),$$

$$(b) \quad M_\ell = \text{MLP}(\text{LN}(\mathbf{X}_{\ell-1} + A_\ell(\mathbf{X}_{\ell-1}))),$$

$$(c) \quad \mathbf{X}_\ell = \mathbf{X}_{\ell-1} + A_\ell(\mathbf{X}_{\ell-1}) + M_\ell \equiv \mathcal{T}_\ell(\mathbf{X}_{\ell-1})$$

- MHA = Multi-headed attention block
- LN = Layer-Normalization
- MLP = Multilayer Perceptron block
- 'Residual Attention' $\mathbf{X}_{\ell-1} + A_\ell(\mathbf{X}_{\ell-1})$ in (b) and (c) helps capture incremental changes

➤ Additional LN step added at last layer:

$$\mathbf{X}_L := \text{LN}(\mathbf{X}_L)$$

➤ Final output is passed to a bias-free linear layer to obtain loss function

MLP stage - written in (row) vector form

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{a}_i^{(\ell)} = \text{MHA}(\text{LN}(\mathbf{x}_1^{(\ell-1)}, \mathbf{x}_2^{(\ell-1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_i^{(\ell-1)})) \\ \mathbf{m}_i^{(\ell)} = \text{MLP}(\text{LN}(\mathbf{x}_i^{(\ell-1)} + \mathbf{a}_i^{(\ell)})) \\ \mathbf{x}_i^{(\ell)} = \mathbf{x}_i^{(\ell-1)} + \mathbf{a}_i^{(\ell)} + \mathbf{m}_i^{(\ell)} \end{cases}$$

$$\mathbf{m}_i^{(\ell)} = \mathbf{W}_{\text{dwn}}^{(\ell)} \sigma \left(\mathbf{W}_{\text{up}}^{(\ell)} \gamma (\mathbf{x}_i^{(\ell-1)} + \mathbf{a}_i^{(\ell)}) + \mathbf{b}_{\text{up}}^{(\ell)} \right) + \mathbf{b}_{\text{dwn}}^{(\ell)}$$

Weights (2nd MLP) Activation function, (e.g. ReLU, tanh,..) Weights (1st MLP) Normalization function

GPT3: counting the 175B parameters

➤ Embedding dimension in GPT3 = $d_{embed} = 12,288$

MLP: Dimension used for $W_{up}, W_{down} = 4d_{embed} \times d_{embed} = 4 \times (12,288)^2 \approx 4 \times 1.5 \times 10^8 = 6 \times 10^8$ Each. i.e., $\approx 12 \times 10^8$

➤ Multiply by the number of blocks (=96 in GPT3) → $\approx 120B$

MHA: 4 matrices of size $d_{embed} \times 120$ times 96 heads times 96 blocks, → $\approx 54B+$

➤ Total 174B + add initial params for embeddings $\approx 175B$

➤ For Llama3: 450B params.

Q: Where is the Linear Algebra?

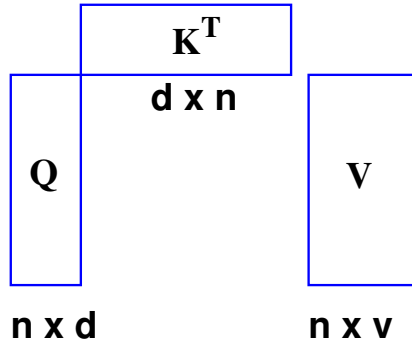
- More precisely: Which Linear Algebra tools/methods can help here?
- Really need to look deep inside the various boxes to find answers
- Some recent advances were deeply rooted in NLA -
- Next: 2 examples

Example: A pure LA idea that is very successful

“Transformers are RNNs: Fast Autoregressive Transformers with Linear Attention”, A. Katharopoulos, A. Vyas, N. Pappas, F. Fleuret ('21)

- Scaled Dot-product Attention :
- Softmax applied row-wise
- $Q: n \times d, K: n \times d, V: n \times v$

$$A_l = \text{softmax} \left(\frac{QK^T}{\sqrt{d}} \right) V$$



- Cost: $O(n^2)$ – But without the softmax term:
- Do $K^T V$ first – then $Q \times$ result: $\rightarrow O(n)$ cost
- Idea: replace $\text{softmax}(QK^T)$ by $\phi(Q)\phi(K^T)$
(Judicious func. ϕ applied rowwise to Q, K)

- Very simple idea. Very impactful paper [Huge gain in training time]

Example: Low-rank structure in DNN

“LoRa: Low-Rank Adaptation of Large Language Models” E. Hu, Y. Shen, P. Wallis, Z. Allen-Zhu, Y. Li, S. Wang, L. Wang, W. Chen ('21)

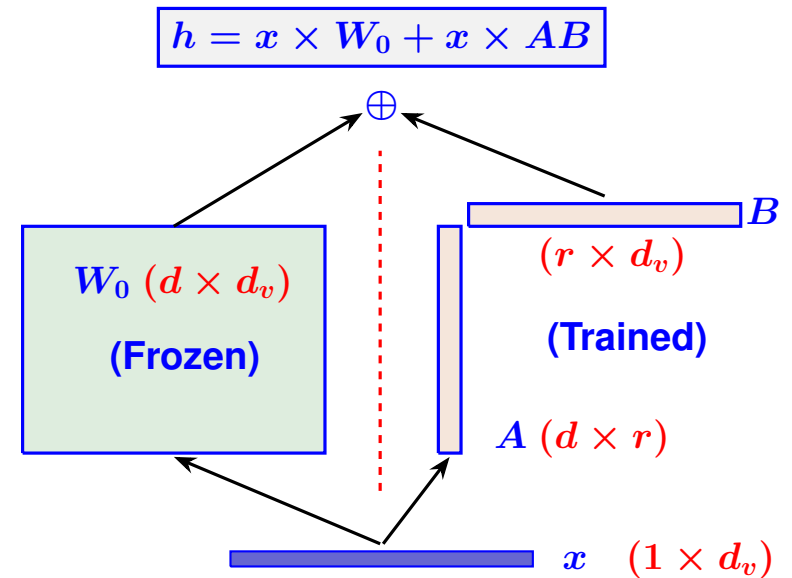
➤ LoRa able to reduce number of parameters in Chat-GPT3 from 175B to 17M - (i.e., / by 10,000)

➤ Observed: Depth of DNN → low-dimensional parameter-spaces

Over-parameterization → Low-Dim.

➤ Idea: Low-rank mods to some W_0

➤ Many follow-up papers, (e.g., analysis)



GRAPH NEURAL NETWORKS

Graph Neural Networks

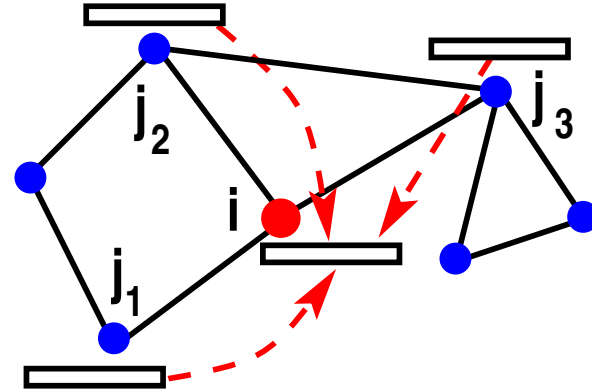
- Idea: exploit graphs in neural networks - Replace CNN with **Aggregation**
- A GNN is not a specific model but rather a framework
- Goal == to produce an embedding for nodes of a graph

Given: A graph $G = (V, E)$ (n nodes) + feature matrix $X^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_0}$

- Row i of $X^{(0)}$ == 'feature' of node i
- At layer l we will create/modify features in \mathbb{R}^{d_l} for each node
- Fundamental operation used for this: **the message-passing mechanism**

$$\mathbf{x}_i^{(\ell+1)} = \text{UPDATE} \left(\mathbf{x}_i^{(\ell)}, \text{AGGREGATE} \left(\{ \mathbf{x}_j^{(\ell)} : j \in \mathcal{N}(v_i) \} \right) \right),$$

- Node features created/modified from layer to layer - At layer l : $\mathbf{x}_i^{(l)}$.
- Message-passing: aggregate features from neighbors $\mathcal{N}(v_i)$:
- In addition, the features are linearly modified by weights to be optimized.
- See the GCN example.



Graph Convolutional Networks

➤ Aggregate operation simple to describe.

➤ Let A = adjacency matrix and \tilde{D} = diag of row-sums of $\tilde{A} = A + I$. Define:

$$\hat{A} := \tilde{D}^{-1/2} \tilde{A} \tilde{D}^{-1/2}$$

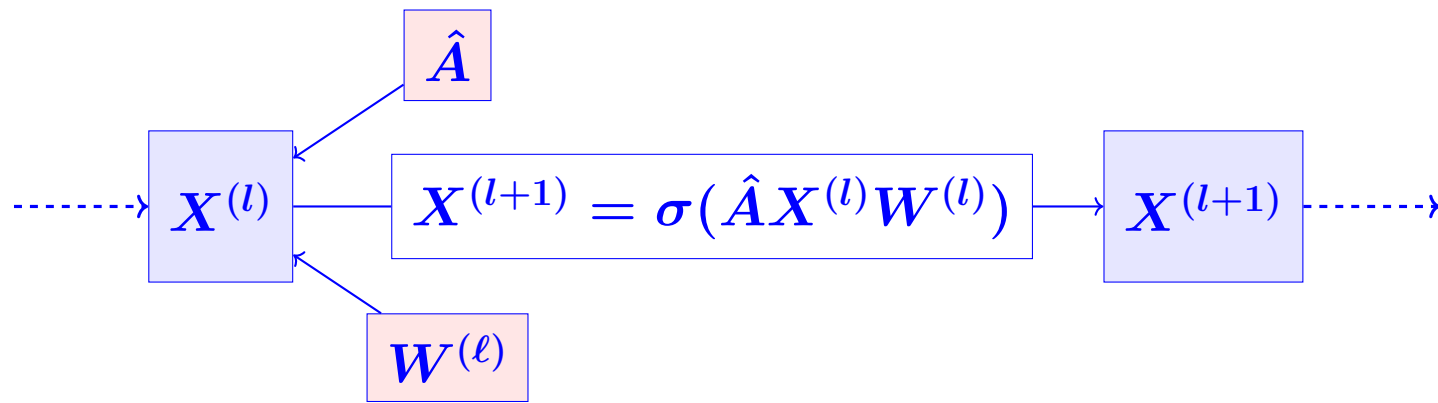
GCN - Layer l to $l + 1$ update

$$X^{(l+1)} = \sigma(\hat{A} X^{(l)} W^{(l)})$$




➤ $W^{(l)}$ is a parameter determined by training

➤ Each row of $X^{(l)}$ is a feature

➤ At last layer this becomes the desired embedding [a row for each node.]



Layer l to $l + 1$ in GCN

-  43 See Pytorch codes for the ENZYME dataset [graph classification]
-  44 See Pytorch codes for the Cora dataset [Node classification]
-  45 What is the difference between Node and Graph Classification?

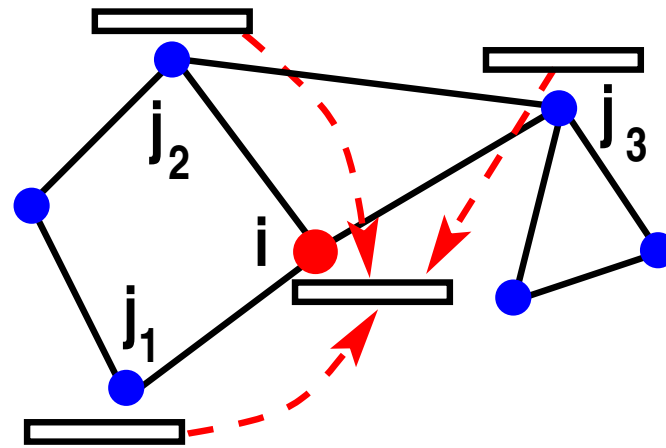
Graph Attention Networks (GATs)

- Idea: exploit 'Attention' in GCN
- In very simple terms: we now add weights to adjacency matrix
- Weights based on attention mechanism - and they are learned

Given: A graph $G = (V, E)$ (n nodes) + feature matrix $X^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_0}$

- Goal same as before == produce an embedding for nodes of a graph

- Attention-based message-passing: compute weighted average of transformed features in $\mathcal{N}(v_i)$:



$$\mathbf{X}^{(\ell+1)} = \sigma \left(\mathbf{A}_\alpha \mathbf{X}^{(\ell)} \mathbf{W}^{(\ell)} \right)$$

- Entry α_{ij} of \mathbf{A}_α == attention weight between nodes i and j :

$$\alpha_{ij} = \frac{\exp(e_{ij})}{\sum_{k \in \mathcal{N}(i)} \exp(e_{ik})}$$

- \equiv *softmax* of neighboring e_{ij} 's – What is e_{ij} ?

➤ e_{ij} == Attention score between node i and neighbors $j \in \mathcal{N}(i)$

$$e_{ij} = \text{LeakyReLU}\left(\mathbf{a}^T \cdot \left[\mathbf{W}^{(\ell),T} \mathbf{x}_i \parallel \mathbf{W}^{(\ell),T} \mathbf{x}_j\right]\right) \quad \parallel == \text{concatenation}$$

➤ Note: Bias often added before applying `LeakyReLU`

➤ $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^{2d}$ is a **learnable** attention vector

➤ $\text{LeakyReLU}(t) = \max\{t, \alpha t\}$ (where $0 \leq \alpha \ll 1$)

➤ Aggregation similar to GCN. Main differences:

- Scaled Adjacency matrix \hat{A} replaced by A_α
- A_α is now **learned**
- Additional parameter: $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^{2d}$

 46 See Pytorch codes for GAT

Final words

- *Many* interesting **new matrix problems** in areas that involve the effective exploitation of data
- Change happens fast in part because we are better connected
- In particular: many many resources available online.
- Huge potential for making a good impact by looking at a topic from new perspective
- To a researcher in computational linear algebra : Tsunami of change on types or problems, algorithms, frameworks, culture, ..

- My favorite quote. Alexander Graham Bell (1847-1922) said:

When one door closes, another opens; but we often look so long and so regretfully upon the closed door that we do not see the one which has opened for us.

- Visit my web-site at www.cs.umn.edu/~saad
- More complete version of this material will available in course csci-8314 – notes (and more) are open to all.

Thank you !