Permutation Invariance and Combinatorial Optimizations with Graph Deep Learning

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Optimizations using Deep Learning

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- Numerical Results

#### Theory

### Permutation Invariant induced Representations

Consider the equivalence relation  $\sim$  on  $\mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$  indiced by the group of permutation  $S_n$ : for any  $X, X' \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ ,

$$X \sim X' \iff X' = PX$$
, for some  $P \in S_n$ 

Let  $\mathbb{M} = \mathbb{R}^{n \times d} / \sim$  be the quotient space endowed with the natural distance induced by Frobenius norm  $\|\cdot\|_F$ 

$$d(\hat{X}_1, \hat{X}_2) = \min_{P \in S_n} \|X_1 - PX_2\|_F$$
,  $\hat{X}_1, \hat{X}_2 \in \mathbb{M}$ .

#### Theory

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$$d(\hat{X}_1, \hat{X}_2) = \min_{P \in S_n} \|X_1 - PX_2\|_F$$
,  $\hat{X}_1, \hat{X}_2 \in \mathbb{M}$ .

The Problem: Construct a Lipschitz embedding  $\hat{\alpha} : \mathbb{M} \to \mathbb{R}^m$ , i.e., an integer m = m(n, d), a map  $\alpha : \mathbb{R}^{n \times d} \to \mathbb{R}^m$  and a constant  $L = L(\alpha) > 0$  so that for any  $X, X' \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ ,

• If 
$$X \sim X'$$
 then  $\alpha(X) = \alpha(X')$   
• If  $\alpha(X) = \alpha(X')$  then  $X \sim X'$   
•  $\|\alpha(X) - \alpha(X')\|_2 \le L d(\hat{X}, \hat{X'})$ 

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Theory

### Motivation (1) Graph Learning Problems

Consider data graphs such as: social networks, transportation networks, citation networks, chemical networks, protein networks, biological networks, etc. Each such network is modeled as a (weighted) graph  $(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, A)$  of *n* nodes, and a set of feature vectors  $\{x_1^T, \dots, x_n^T\} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  that

form the matrix 
$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n^T \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}.$$

Two important problems involving a map  $f : (A, X) \rightarrow f(A, X)$ :

- classification:  $f(A, X) \in \{1, 2, \dots, c\}$
- **②** regression/prediction:  $f(A, X) \in \mathbb{R}$ .

In each case we expect the task to be invariant to vertices permutation:  $f(PAP^T, PX) = f(A, X)$ , for every  $P \in S_n$ .

Optimizations using Deep Learning

Theory

Motivation (2) Graph Convolutive Networks (GCN)

Kipf and Welling ('16) introduced a network structure that performs local processing according to a modified adjacency matrix:

$$\begin{array}{c} A \\ \hline \\ X \end{array} Y_1 = \sigma(\tilde{A} X W_1 + B_1) \end{array} Y_2 = \sigma(\tilde{A} Y_1 W_2 + B_2) \quad \dots \quad Y_L = \sigma(\tilde{A} Y_{L-1} W_L + B_L) \end{array} Y_2$$

 $\tilde{A} = D^{-1/2}(I + A)D^{-1/2}$ , where A is the adjacency matrix, or the graph weight matrix, D is the diagonal with vertex degrees;  $\sigma$  is the activation map. An L-layer GCN has parameters  $(W_1, B_1, \dots, W_L, B_L)$ .

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$$Y_{1} = \sigma(\tilde{A} X W_{1} + B_{1})$$

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$$...$$

$$Y_{L} = \sigma(\tilde{A} Y_{L-1} W_{L} + B_{L})$$

$$Y$$

 $\tilde{A} = D^{-1/2}(I + A)D^{-1/2}$ , where A is the adjacency matrix, or the graph weight matrix, D is the diagonal with vertex degrees;  $\sigma$  is the activation map. An L-layer GCN has parameters  $(W_1, B_1, \dots, W_L, B_L)$ .

Assume  $B_i = PB_i$ . Note the *covariance property*: for any  $P \in S_n$ ,  $(A, X) \mapsto (PAP^T, PX)$  and  $Y \mapsto PY$ .

Theory



The two learning tasks (classification or regression) can be solved by the following scheme:



where Ext is a permutation invariant feature EXTractor, and SVM/NN is a single-layer or a deep neural network (Support Vector Machine or a Fully Connected Neural Network).

The purpose of this (part of the) talk is to analyze the *Ext* component.

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Theory

### Motivation (4) Enzyme Classification Example

Protein Dataset where task is classification into *enzyme* vs. *non-enzyme*. Dataset: 450 enzymes and 450 non-enzymes. Architecture (ReLU activation):

- GCN with L = 3 layers and d = 25 feature vectors in each layer;
- No Permutation Invariant Component: *Ext* = *Identity*
- Fully connected NN with dense 3-layers and 120 internal units.



Theory

Optimizations using Deep Learning

# The Measure Theoretic Embedding

First approach: Consider the map

$$\mu: \mathbb{M} \to \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^d) \ , \ \mu(X)(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \delta(x - x_k)$$

where  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  denotes the convex set of probability measures over  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , and  $\delta$  denotes the Dirac measure.

Clearly 
$$\mu(X') = \mu(X)$$
 iff  $X' = PX$  for some  $P \in S_n$ .

Main drawback:  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  is infinite dimensional!

Optimizations using Deep Learning

Theory

### Finite Dimensional Embeddings Architectures

Two classes of extractors:

- Pooling Map based on Max pooling
- Readout Map based on Sum pooling

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Theory

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- Readout Map based on Sum pooling

**Intuition** in the case d = 1: Max pooling:

$$\lambda:\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}^n \ , \ \lambda(x)=(x_{\pi(k)})_{k=1}^n \ , \ x_{\pi(1)}\geq x_{\pi(2)}\geq \cdots \geq x_{\pi(n)}$$

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Theory

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Sum pooling:

$$\sigma: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n \quad , \quad \sigma(x) = (y_k)_{k=1}^n \quad , \quad y_k = \sum_{j=1}^n \nu(a_k, x_j)$$

where kernel  $\nu : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ , e.g.  $\nu(a, t) = e^{-(a-t)^2}$ , or  $\nu(a = k, t) = t^k$ .

#### Theory

# Pooling Mapping Approach

Fix a matrix  $R \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times D}$ . Consider the map:

$$\Lambda: \mathbb{R}^{n \times d} \to \mathbb{R}^{n \times D} \equiv \mathbb{R}^{nD} \quad , \quad \Lambda(X) = \lambda(XR)$$

where  $\lambda$  acts columnwise (reorders monotonically decreasing each column). Since  $\Lambda(\Pi X) = \Lambda(X)$ , then  $\Lambda : \widehat{\mathbb{R}^{n \times d}} \to \mathbb{R}^{n \times D}$ .

### Theorem

For any matrix  $R \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times (d+1)}$  so that any  $d \times d$  submatrix is invertible, there is a subset  $Z \subset \widehat{\mathbb{R}^{n \times d}}$  of zero measure so that  $\Lambda : \widehat{\mathbb{R}^{n \times d}} \setminus Z \to \mathbb{R}^{n \times (d+1)}$  is faithful (i.e., injective).

No known tight bound yet as to the minimum D = D(n, d) so that there is a matrix R so that  $\Lambda$  is faithful (injective). However, due to local linearity, if  $\Lambda$  is faithful (injective), then it is stable.

Optimizations using Deep Learning

Numerical Results

### Enzyme Classification Example Extraction with the Hadamard Matrix

Protein Dataset where task is classification into *enzyme* vs. *non-enzyme*. Dataset: 450 enzymes and 450 non-enzymes.

Architecture (ReLU activation):

- GCN with L = 3 layers and d = 25 feature vectors in each layer;
- $Ext = \Lambda$ ,  $Z = \lambda(YR)$  with R = [I Hadamard]. D = 50, m = 50.
- Fully connected NN with dense 3-layers and 120 internal units.



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Numerical Results

# Readout Mapping Approach Kernel Sampling

Consider:

$$\Phi: \mathbb{R}^{n \times d} \to \mathbb{R}^m \quad , \quad (\Phi(X))_j = \sum_{k=1}^n \nu(a_j, x_k) \text{ or } (\Phi(X))_j = \prod_{k=1}^n \nu(a_j, x_k)$$

where  $\nu : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is a kernel, and  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  denote the rows of matrix X.

Known solutions: If  $m = \infty$ , then there exists a  $\Phi$  that is globally faithful (injective) and stable on compacts.

Interesting mathematical connexion: On compacts, some kernels  $\nu$  define Repreducing Kernel Hilberts Spaces (RKHSs) and yield a decomposition

$$(\Phi(X))_j = \sum_{p \ge 1} \sigma_p f_p(a_j) g_p(X)$$

Optimizations using Deep Learning

Numerical Results

### Enzyme Classification Example Feature Extraction with Exponential Kernel Sampling

Protein Dataset where task is classification into *enzyme* vs. *non-enzyme*. Dataset: 450 enzymes and 450 non-enzymes.

Architecture (ReLU activation):

- GCN with L = 3 layers and d = 25 feature vectors in each layer;
- $Ext: Z_j = \sum_{k=1}^n exp(-\pi ||y_k z_j||)$  with m = 120 and  $z_j$  random.
- Fully connected NN with dense 3-layers and 120 internal units.



Optimizations using Deep Learning

Numerical Results

### Enzyme Classification Example No Permutation Invariance, but Data Augmentation

Protein Dataset where task is classification into *enzyme* vs. *non-enzyme*. Dataset: 450 enzymes and 450 non-enzymes. Data was augmented using 10 random permutation for each training dataset. Architecture (ReLU activation):

- GCN with L = 3 layers and d = 25 feature vectors in each layer;
- No Permutation Invariant Component: *Ext* = *Identity*
- Fully connected NN with dense 3-layers and 120 internal units.



Optimizations using Deep Learning

Numerical Results

Readout Mapping Approach Polynomial Expansion - Quadratics

Another interpretation of the moments for d = 1: coefficients of linear expansion

$$P(X) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} (X - x_k)^n = X^n + \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k X^{n-k}$$

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Readout Mapping Approach Polynomial Expansion - Quadratics

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$$P(X) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} (X - x_k)^n = X^n + \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k X^{n-k}$$

For d > 1, consider the quadratic *d*-variate polynomial:

$$P(Z_1, \dots, Z_d) = \prod_{k=1}^n \left( (Z_1 - x_k(1))^2 + \dots + (Z_d - x_k(d))^2 \right)$$
$$= \sum_{p_1, \dots, p_d=0}^{2n} a_{p_1, \dots, p_d} Z_1^{p_1} \cdots Z_d^{p_d}$$

Encoding complexity:

$$m = O\left(\begin{array}{c} 2n+d\\ d\end{array}\right) \sim (2n)^d.$$
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Numerical Results

### Algebraic Embedding Encoding using Complex Roots

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Idea: Consider the case d = 2. Then each  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}^2$  can be replaced by *n* complex numbers  $z_1, \dots, z_n \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $z_k = x_k(1) + ix_k(2)$ . Then consider the complex polynomial:

$$Q(z) = \prod_{k=1}^{n} (z - z_k) = z^n + \sum_{k=1}^{n} \sigma_k z^{n-k}$$

which requires n complex numbers, or 2n real numbers.

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$$Q(z) = \prod_{k=1}^{n} (z - z_k) = z^n + \sum_{k=1}^{n} \sigma_k z^{n-k}$$

which requires *n* complex numbers, or 2n real numbers. For d > 3 encode each combination of two columns of  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ : Total of d(d-1)/2 combinations, each using 2n real numbers.

Encoding complexity: m = nd(d - 1)

#### Constructions

# Combinatorial Optimization Problems Approach

Consider the class of combinatorial problems,

 $\begin{array}{ll} maximize & J(\Pi; \textit{Input}) \\ \text{subject to:} \\ \Pi \in S_n \end{array}$ 

where *Input* stands for a given set input data, and  $S_n$  denotes the symmetric group of permutation matrices.

We analyze two specific objective functions:

- Linear Assignment,  $J(\Pi; C) = trace(\Pi C^T)$
- **2** Quadratic Assignment,  $J(\Pi; A, B) = trace(\Pi A \Pi^T B)$

Idea: Use a two-step procedure:

- Perform a latent representation of the Input Data using a Graph Convolutive Network;
- Apply a direct algorithm (e.g., a greedy-type algorithm) or solve a convex optimization problem to obtain an estimate of the optimal Π<sub>20,0</sub>

# The Linear Assignment Problem

Consider a  $N \times R$  cost/reward matrix  $C = (C_{i,j})_{1 \le i \le N, 1 \le j \le R}$  of non-negative entries associated to edge connections between two sets of nodes,  $\{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$  and  $\{y_1, \dots, y_R\}$  with  $N \ge R$ . The problem is to find the minimum cost/maximum reward matching/assignment, namely:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mbox{minimize}/\mbox{maximize} & \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{R} \pi_{i,j} C_{i,j} = trace(\Pi \tilde{C}^{T}) \\ \mbox{subject to:} \\ \pi_{i,j} \in \{0,1\} , \ \forall i,j \\ \sum_{i=1}^{N} \pi_{i,j} = 1 , \ \forall 1 \leq j \leq R \\ \sum_{j=1}^{R} \pi_{i,j} \leq 1 , \ \forall 1 \leq i \leq N \end{array}$$



# Quadratic Assignment Problem

Consider two symmetric (and positive semidefinite) matrices  $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . The *quadratic assignment problem* asks for the solution of

> maximize trace( $\Pi A \Pi^T B$ ) subject to:  $\Pi \in S_n$

In turns this is equivalent to the minimization problem:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{minimize} & \|\Pi A - B\Pi\|_F^2 \\ \text{subject to:} \\ \Pi \in S_n \end{array}$$

In the case A, B are graph Laplacian, an efficient solution to this optimization problem would solve the millenium problem of whether two graphs are isomorphic.

# Novel Approach: Optimization in a Latent Representation Domain

Idea: Perform a two-step procedure: (1) perform a nonlinear representation of the input data; (2) perform optimization in the representation space.



The nonlinear representation map  $\Phi$  : Input Data  $\mapsto$  Y is implemented using a GCN.

The Optimization map  $\Psi: Y \mapsto \hat{\pi}$  can be implemented using a specific nonlinear map (e.g., greedy algorithm, or turning into stochastic matrix) or by solving a convex optimization problem.

# Graph Convolutive Networks (GCN)

Kipf and Welling introduced a network structure that performs local processing according to a modified adjacency matrix:

$$A \longrightarrow Y_1 = \sigma(\tilde{A} X W_1 + B_1) \longrightarrow Y_2 = \sigma(\tilde{A} Y_1 W_2 + B_2) \dots Y_L = \sigma(\tilde{A} Y_{L-1} W_L + B_L) \xrightarrow{Y}$$

Here  $\tilde{A} = I + A$ , where A is an input adjacency matrix, or graph weight matrix. The *L*-layer GCN has parameters  $(W_1, B_1, W_2, B_2, \dots, W_L, B_L)$ . As activation map  $\sigma$  we choose the ReLU (Rectified Linear Unit).

Optimizations using Deep Learning

Constructions

### Linear Assignment Problems using GCN

The GCN design: Consider the GCN with N + R nodes, adjacency/weight matrix  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & C \\ C^T & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and data matrix  $X = \begin{bmatrix} \nu(C(i, :)) \\ \nu(C^T(j, :)) \end{bmatrix}$ .

## Linear Assignment Problems using GCN

The GCN design: Consider the GCN with N + R nodes, adjacency/weight matrix  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & C \\ C^T & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and data matrix  $X = \begin{bmatrix} \nu(C(i, :)) \\ \nu(C^T(j, :)) \end{bmatrix}$ . Key observation: When  $C = uv^T$ , that is, when the cost matrix is rank one then:

- **O** Objective Function:  $J(\Pi; C) = u^T \Pi v = \langle \Pi v, u \rangle$
- **3** GCN output when no bias  $(B_j = 0)$ :  $\Gamma = \begin{vmatrix} \Gamma_1 \\ \Gamma_2 \end{vmatrix}$  satisfies  $\Gamma_1 \Gamma_2^T = \alpha C$ .

Consequence: the "greedy" algorithm produces the optimal solution.

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Consequence: the "greedy" algorithm produces the optimal solution.

Network Objective: Once trained, the GCN produces a latent representation  $Z = \Gamma_1 \Gamma_2^T$  close to the input cost matrix C so that the greedy algorithm applied on Z produces the optimal solution.

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Optimizations using Deep Learning

#### Constructions

# Quadratic Assignment Problem using GCN Preliminary result

The GCN Design: Consider the GCN with *n* nodes, adjacency/weight matrix  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & AB \\ BA & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and data matrix  $X = \begin{bmatrix} A \\ B \end{bmatrix}$ .

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#### Constructions

# Quadratic Assignment Problem using GCN Preliminary result

The GCN Design: Consider the GCN with n nodes, adjacency/weight

matrix  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & AB \\ BA & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and data matrix  $X = \begin{bmatrix} A \\ B \end{bmatrix}$ . Key observation: When  $A = uu^T$  and  $B = vv^T$ , that is, when the matrices are rank one then:

- Objective function:  $J(\Pi; A, B) = (u^T \Pi v)^2 = (\langle \Pi v, u \rangle)^2$
- **2** GCN output when no bias  $((B_j = 0): \Gamma = \begin{bmatrix} \Gamma_1 \\ \Gamma_2 \end{bmatrix}$  satisfies

 $\Gamma_1\Gamma_2^T \sim uv^T$ .

Consequence: the "greedy" algorithm or the solution to the linear assignment problem associated to  $uv^T$  produces the optimal solution.

Optimizations using Deep Learning

#### Constructions

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matrix  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & AB \\ BA & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and data matrix  $X = \begin{bmatrix} A \\ B \end{bmatrix}$ . Key observation: When  $A = uu^T$  and  $B = vv^T$ , that is, when the matrices are rank one then:

- Objective function:  $J(\Pi; A, B) = (u^T \Pi v)^2 = (\langle \Pi v, u \rangle)^2$
- **2** GCN output when no bias  $((B_j = 0): \Gamma = \begin{bmatrix} \Gamma_1 \\ \Gamma_2 \end{bmatrix}$  satisfies

 $\Gamma_1\Gamma_2^T \sim uv^T$ .

Consequence: the "greedy" algorithm or the solution to the linear assignment problem associated to  $uv^T$  produces the optimal solution. Network Objective: Once trained, the GCN produces a latent representation  $Z = \Gamma_1 \Gamma_2^T$  so that the linear assignment problem associated to Z produces the same optimal permutation.

Optimizations using Deep Learning

#### DNN as UA

### Deep Neural Networks as Universal Approximators

$$\begin{array}{l} \textit{minimize}/\textit{maximize} \\ \textit{subject to:} \\ \pi_{i,j} \in \{0,1\} \ , \ \forall i,j \\ \sum_{i=1}^{N} \pi_{i,j} = 1 \ , \ \forall 1 \leq j \leq R \\ \sum_{j=1}^{R} \pi_{i,j} \leq 1 \ , \ \forall 1 \leq i \leq N \end{array}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N}\sum_{j=1}^{R}\pi_{i,j}C_{i,j}$$

Luckily, the convex relaxation (Linear Program) produces the same optimal solution:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \begin{array}{ll} \mbox{minimize} & \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{R} \pi_{i,j} C_{i,j} \\ \mbox{subject to:} \\ 0 \leq \pi_{i,j} \leq 1 \ , \ \forall i,j \\ \sum_{i=1}^{N} \pi_{i,j} = 1 \ , \ \forall 1 \leq j \leq R \\ \sum_{j=1}^{R} \pi_{i,j} \leq 1 \ , \ \forall 1 \leq i \leq N \end{array}$ 

Optimizations using Deep Learning

#### DNN as UA

### Deep Neural Networks as Universal Approximators Architectures

The overall system must output feasible solutions  $\hat{\pi}$ . Our architecture compose two components: (1) a deep neural network (DNN) that outputs a (generally) unfeasible estimate  $\bar{\pi}$ ; (2) an enforcer (*P*) of the feasibility conditions that outputs the estimate  $\hat{\pi}$ :



Issues:

- **1** DNN architecture: how many layers; how many neurons per layer?
- P, the feasibility enforcer

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#### DNN as UA

# Deep Neural Networks as Universal Approximators DNNs

### We studied three architectures:



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#### DNN as UA

### Deep Neural Networks as Universal Approximators Feasibility Enforcer P

An "optimal" feasibility condition enforcer would minimize some "distance" to the feasibility set. However this may be a very computationally expensive component. An intermediate solution is to alternate between different feasibility conditions (equalities and inequalities) until convergence.

Instead we opt for a simpler and "greedier" approach:

Repeat *R* times: 1. Find (i, j) the largest entry in  $\bar{\pi}$ 2. Set  $\hat{\pi}_{i,j} = 1$ ; set to 0 other entries in row *i* and column *j*; 3. Remove row *i* and column *j* from both  $\bar{\pi}$  and  $\hat{\pi}$ .



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#### DNN as UA

### Deep Neural Networks as Universal Approximators Baseline solution: The Greedy Algorithm

The "greedy" enforcer can be modified into a "greedy" optimization algorithm:

• Initialize 
$$E=C$$
 and  $\hat{\pi}=0_{N imes R}$ 

Repeat R times:

• Find 
$$(i,j) = \operatorname{argmin}_{(a,b)} E_{a,b};$$

• Set 
$$\hat{\pi}_{i,j} = 1$$
,  $\hat{\pi}_{i,l} = 0$   $\forall l \neq j$ ,  $\hat{\pi}_{l,j} = 0$   $\forall l \neq i$ ;

• Set 
$$E_{i,:} = \infty$$
,  $E_{:,j} = \infty$ 

### Proposition

The greedy algorithm produces the optimal solution if there is a positive number  $\lambda > 0$  and two nonnegative vectors u, v such that  $C = \lambda 1 \cdot 1^T - u \cdot v^T$ .

Optimizations using Deep Learning

Numerical Results

# Exp.1 : N = 5, R = 4 with ReLU activation

### First architecture:



- Number of internal layers: 9
- Number of hidden units per layer: 250
- Batch size: 200; ADAM optimizer
- Loss function: cross-entropy:

 $\sum_{i,j} \pi_{i,j} (-\log(\hat{\pi}_{i,j})) + (1 - \pi_{i,j}) (-\log(1 - \hat{\pi}_{i,j}))$ 

- Training data set: 1 million random instances U(0,1) i.i.d.
- Validation set: 20,000 random instances.

Optimizations using Deep Learning

Numerical Results

## Exp.1 : N = 5, R = 4 with ReLU activation



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Numerical Results

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#### Numerical Results

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#### Numerical Results

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Optimizations using Deep Learning

Numerical Results

# Exp.1 : N = 5, R = 4 with ReLU activation



Optimizations using Deep Learning

Numerical Results

# Exp.2 : N = 10, R = 8 with sigmoid activation

### Second architecture:



- Number of internal layers: 10
- Number of hidden units per layer: 250
- No Batch; ADAM optimizer
- Loss function: cross-entropy:

 $\sum_{i,j} \pi_{i,j} (-\log(\hat{\pi}_{i,j})) + (1 - \pi_{i,j}) (-\log(1 - \hat{\pi}_{i,j}))$ 

- Training data set: 1 million random instances U(0,1) i.i.d.
- Validation set: 20,000 random instances.

Optimizations using Deep Learning

Numerical Results

## Exp.2 : N = 10, R = 8 with sigmoid activation



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Numerical Results

## Exp.2 : N = 10, R = 8 with sigmoid activation



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Optimizations using Deep Learning

Numerical Results

### Exp.2 : N = 10, R = 8 with sigmoid activation



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Optimizations using Deep Learning

#### Numerical Results

## Exp.2 : N = 10, R = 8 with sigmoid activation



Optimizations using Deep Learning

#### Numerical Results

### Exp.2 : N = 10, R = 8 with sigmoid activation



Optimizations using Deep Learning

Numerical Results

# Exp.3 : N = 5, R = 4 with sigmoid activation

### Second architecture:



- Number of internal layers: 10
- Number of hidden units per layer: 250
- Batch size 200; ADAM optimizer
- Loss function: cross-entropy:  $\sum_{i,i} \pi_{i,i} (-\log(\hat{\pi}_{i,i})) + (1 - \pi_{i,i}) (-\log(1 - \hat{\pi}_{i,i}))$
- Training data set: 500,000 random instances U(0, 1) i.i.d.
- Validation set: 20,000 random instances.

Optimizations using Deep Learning

Numerical Results

# Exp.3 : N = 5, R = 4 with sigmoid activation



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Optimizations using Deep Learning

Numerical Results

# Exp.3 : N = 5, R = 4 with sigmoid activation



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Optimizations using Deep Learning

Numerical Results

## Exp.3 : N = 5, R = 4 with sigmoid activation



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#### Numerical Results

## Exp.3 : N = 5, R = 4 with sigmoid activation



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#### Numerical Results

## Exp.3 : N = 5, R = 4 with sigmoid activation



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Numerical Results

# Exp.4 : N = 10, R = 8 with sigmoid activation

### Second architecture:



- Number of internal layers: 10
- Number of hidden units per layer: 300
- Batch size 200; ADAM optimizer
- Loss function: cross-entropy:  $\sum_{i,i} \pi_{i,i} (-\log(\hat{\pi}_{i,i})) + (1 - \pi_{i,i}) (-\log(1 - \hat{\pi}_{i,i}))$
- Training data set: 500,000 random instances U(0,1) i.i.d.
- Validation set: 20,000 random instances.

Optimizations using Deep Learning

#### Numerical Results

### Exp.4 : N = 10, R = 8 with sigmoid activation



Optimizations using Deep Learning

Numerical Results

## Exp.4 : N = 10, R = 8 with sigmoid activation



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Optimizations using Deep Learning

Numerical Results

## Exp.4 : N = 10, R = 8 with sigmoid activation



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Optimizations using Deep Learning

#### Numerical Results

### Exp.4 : N = 10, R = 8 with sigmoid activation



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Optimizations using Deep Learning

#### Numerical Results

### Exp.4 : N = 10, R = 8 with sigmoid activation



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