


Machine Learning for Natural Science

Joshua Yao-Yu Lin (林曜宇)
[2025-12-12 @ACML Tutorial]

Joshua Yao-Yu Lin



- Currently a Machine Learning Scientist at Genentech (New York office)
- UIUC Physics Ph.D. (2016-2022), MS at NTU, and BS at NTHU in Taiwan.
- My past research spans a wide range of Machine Learning application for astrophysics, including black hole image and dark matter/strong lensing 
- ML Research Interest: **ML for Natural Science, ML for drug discovery & Protein Design**
- Previous ML experience: Genentech Postdoc with Prof. Kyunghyun Cho, Simons Foundation/Flatiron Institute (CCA), Google Research (2021)
- I like: Traveling, Jazz, Bouldering/Climbing, Brewing hard cider

Prescient Design@Genentech/Roche



**Vladimir
Gligorijevic**

Co-Founder and Senior
Director, Prescient
Design, Genentech



Richard Bonneau

Co-Founder and
Executive Director,
Prescient Design,
Genentech



Kyunghyun Cho

Co-Founder and Senior
Director, Prescient
Design, Genentech

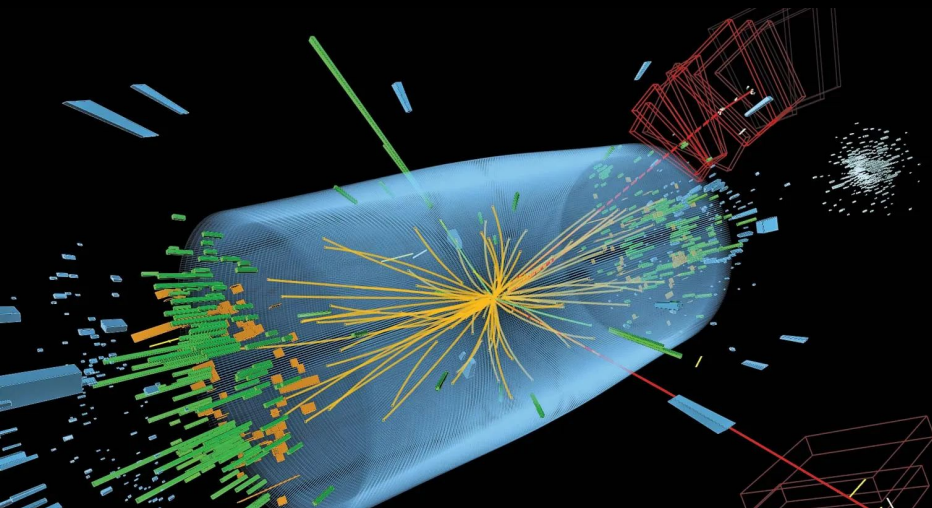
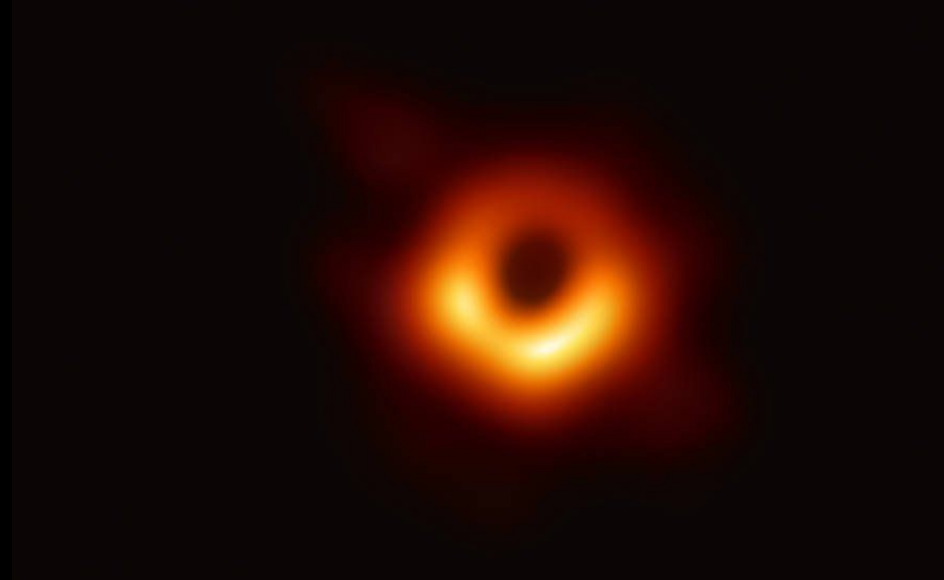
- Founded in Jan 2021, focusing on machine learning for **Protein Design/drug discovery**
- Acquired by **Genentech/Roche** ~ August 2021
- Around 70 people in the team (ML Scientist/ Engineer, Bio/Chem)
- We're hiring!

Prev. @Flatiron Institute/NYU

NYU CS/Data Science



**Prescient
Design**
A Genentech Accelerator



$$\begin{aligned}
 & B \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{ctgx - 2}{2\sqrt{1-x^2}} Q'' \quad \int (x \pm a)^4 \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{A^n - C^n}{n} \\
 & + y^2 = z \quad S_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \phi = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - m)^2}{n}} \quad s = \int_2^{10} 5t \, dt \quad x \\
 & \pi \approx 3.1415 \quad \sin \alpha \quad y \quad x \quad y = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta z} \\
 & P = r^2 \pi \quad (x+y)^2 = \left(\frac{y}{2}\right)^2 \quad \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta y} = \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta x + 2}{\Delta y - 1} \\
 & \Delta t = T - \frac{3a}{x} \quad 8x = 4 - 3y^2 \quad \sin x
 \end{aligned}$$

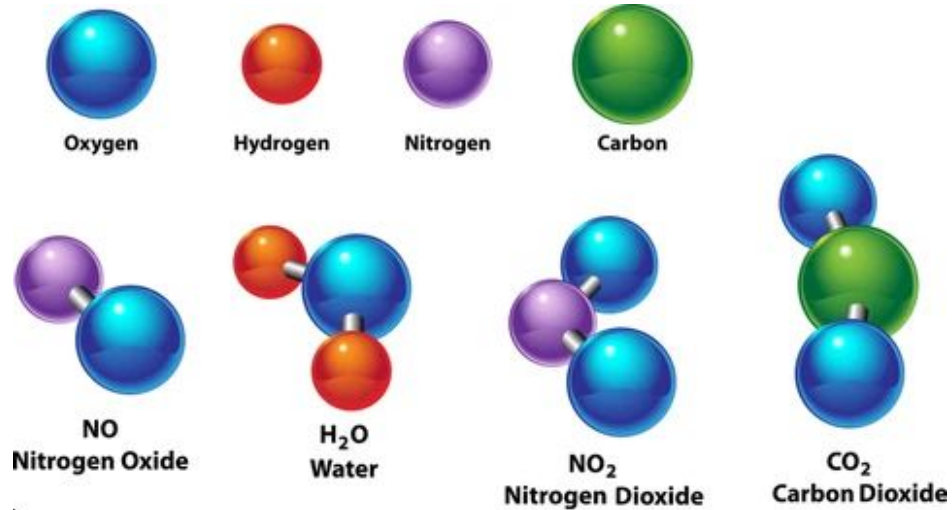


ACS
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PERIODIC TABLE OF ELEMENTS

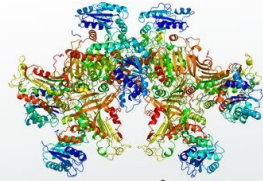
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PERIOD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1	H Hydrogen 1.008																	He Helium 4.003
2	Li Lithium 6.94	Be Beryllium 9.012											B Boron 10.81	C Carbon 12.01	N Nitrogen 14.01	O Oxygen 16.00	F Fluorine 18.99	Ne Neon 20.18
3	Na Sodium 22.99	Mg Magnesium 24.31											Al Aluminum 26.98	Si Silicon 28.09	P Phosphorus 30.97	S Sulfur 32.06	Cl Chlorine 35.45	Ar Argon 39.95
4	K Potassium 39.10	Ca Calcium 40.08	Sc Scandium 44.96	Ti Titanium 47.88	V Vanadium 50.94	Cr Chromium 52.00	Mn Manganese 54.94	Fe Iron 55.85	Co Cobalt 58.93	Ni Nickel 58.69	Cu Copper 63.55	Zn Zinc 65.38	Ga Gallium 69.72	Ge Germanium 72.64	As Arsenic 74.92	Se Selenium 78.96	Br Bromine 79.90	Kr Krypton 83.79
5	Rb Rubidium 85.47	Sr Strontium 87.62	Y Yttrium 88.91	Zr Zirconium 91.22	Nb Niobium 92.91	Mo Molybdenum 95.96	Tc Technetium (98)	Ru Ruthenium 101.1	Rh Rhodium 101.1	Pd Palladium 106.4	Ag Silver 107.9	Cd Cadmium 112.4	In Indium 114.8	Sn Tin 118.7	Sb Antimony 121.8	Te Tellurium 127.6	I Iodine 126.9	Xe Xenon 131.3
6	Cs Cesium 132.9	Ba Barium 137.3	57-71 Lanthanides	Hf Hafnium 178.5	Ta Tantalum 180.9	W Tungsten 183.8	Re Rhenium 186.2	Os Osmium 190.2	Ir Iridium 192.2	Pt Platinum 195.1	Au Gold 197.0	Hg Mercury 200.5	Tl Thallium 204.38	Pb Lead 207.2	Bi Bismuth 208.9	Po Polonium (209)	At Astatine (210)	Rn Radon (222)
7	Fr Francium (223)	Ra Radium (226)	89-103 Actinides	Rf Rutherfordium (261)	Db Dubnium (261)	Sg Seaborgium (271)	Bh Bohrium (271)	Hs Hassium (277)	Mt Meitnerium (276)	Ds Darmstadtium (281)	Rg Roentgenium (281)	Cn Copernicium (285)	Nh Nihonium (284)	Fl Flerovium (289)	Mc Moscovium (288)	Lv Livermorium (293)	Ts Tennessine (294)	Og Oganesson (294)
	57 La Lanthanum 138.9	58 Ce Cerium 140.1	59 Pr Praseodymium 140.9	60 Nd Neodymium 144.3	61 Pm Promethium (145)	62 Sm Samarium 150.4	63 Eu Europium 152.0	64 Gd Gadolinium 157.3	65 Tb Terbium 158.9	66 Dy Dysprosium 162.5	67 Ho Holmium 164.9	68 Er Erbium 167.3	69 Tm Thulium 168.9	70 Yb Ytterbium 173.0	71 Lu Lutetium 175.0			
	89 Ac Actinium (227)	90 Th Thorium 232.0	91 Pa Protactinium 231.0	92 U Uranium 238.0	93 Np Neptunium 237.0	94 Pu Plutonium 244.0	95 Am Americium 243.0	96 Cm Curium (247)	97 Bk Berkelium (247)	98 Cf Californium (251)	99 Es Einsteinium (252)	100 Fm Fermium (257)	101 Md Mendelevium (258)	102 No Nobelium (259)	103 Lr Lawrencium (262)			

Atom -> Molecules

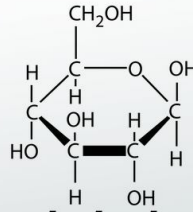


Large Molecules

LESSON SUMMARY



proteins



carbohydrates

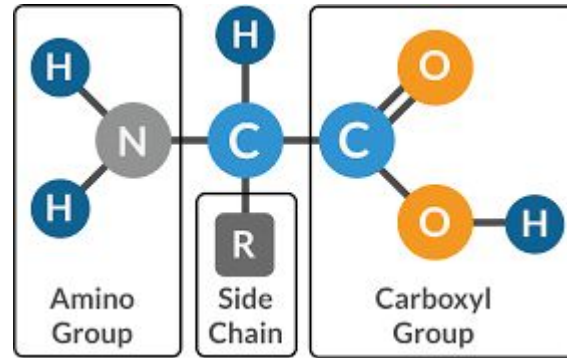


lipids

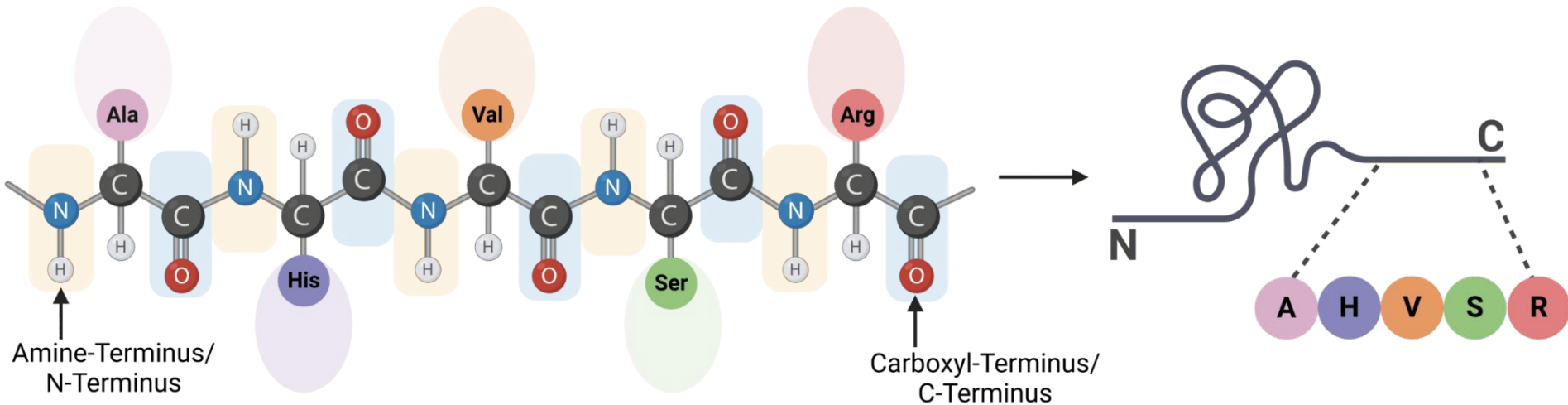


nucleic acids

Amino Acids



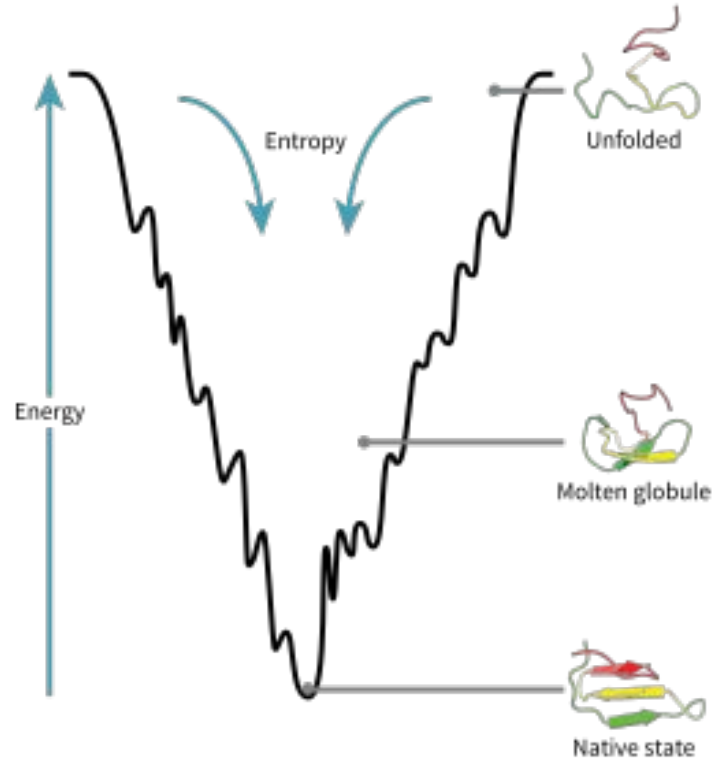
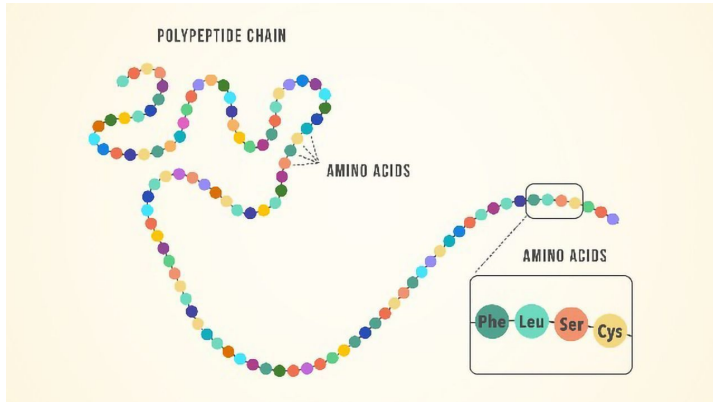
Polypeptide Chain

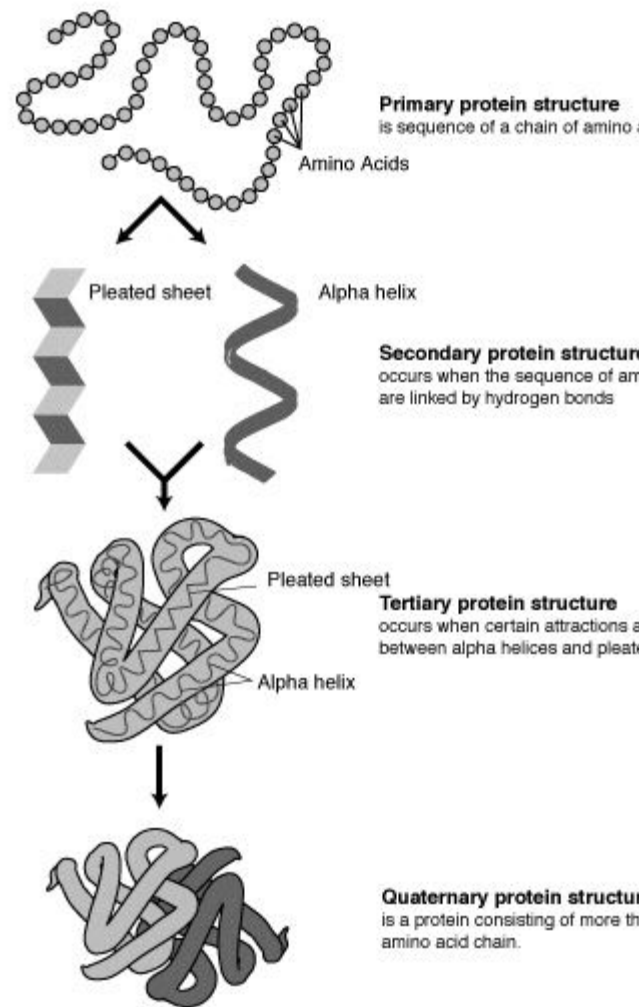
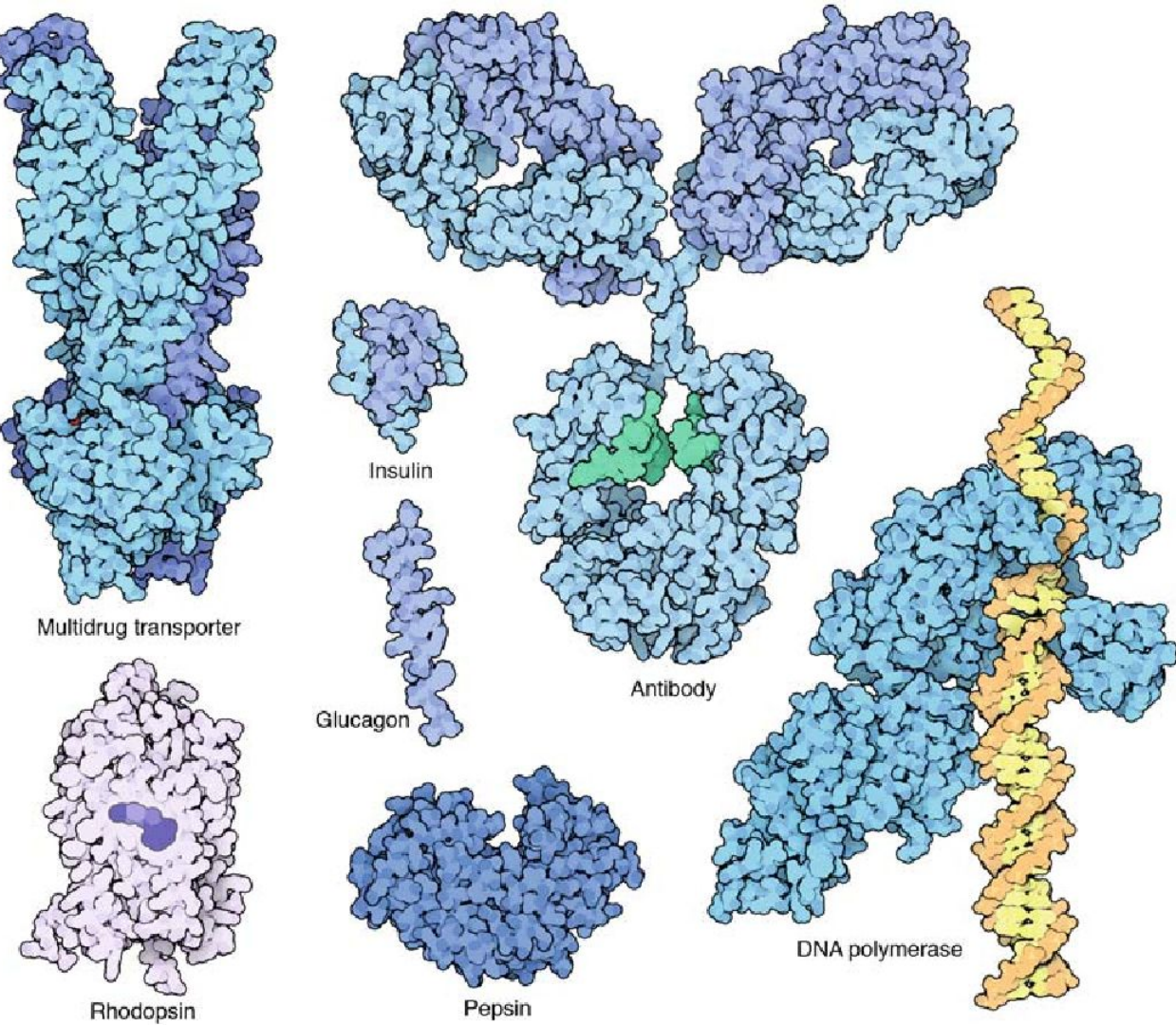


Protein folding problem

Protein's amino acid sequence -> three-dimensional atomic structure prediction.

The notion of a folding “problem” first emerged around 1960, with the appearance of the first atomic-resolution protein structures





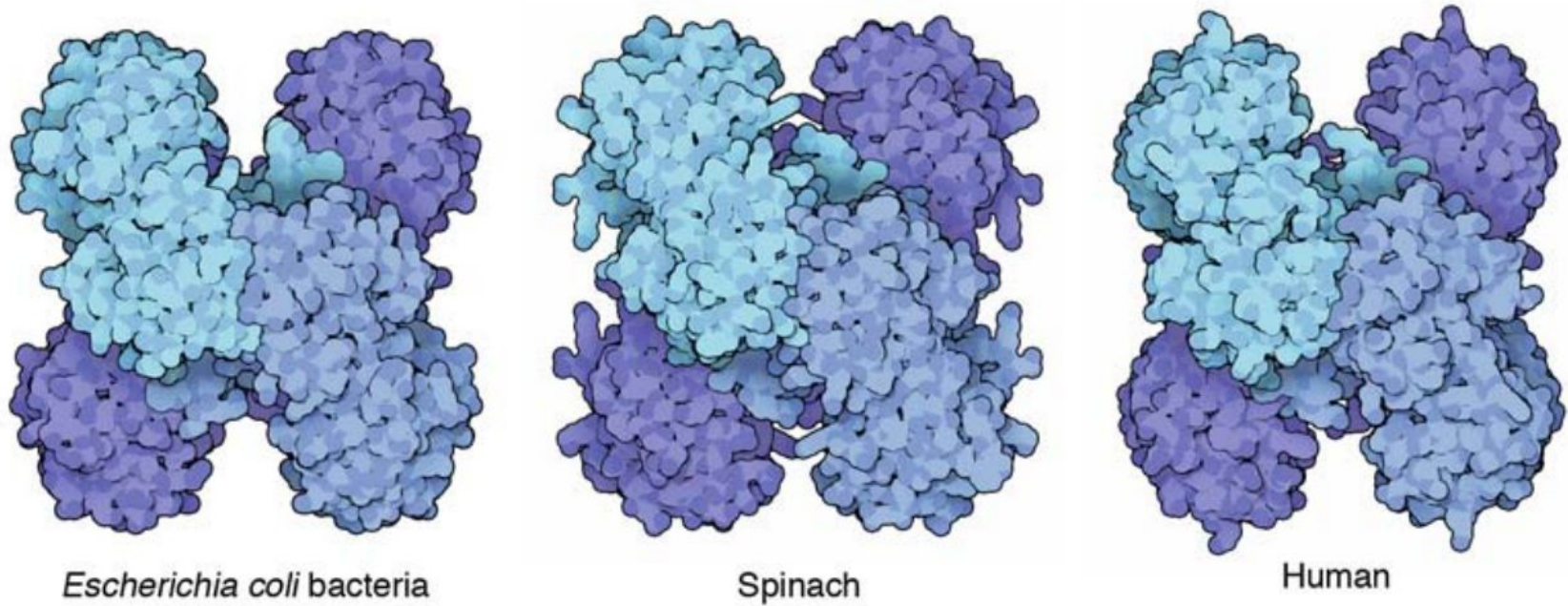
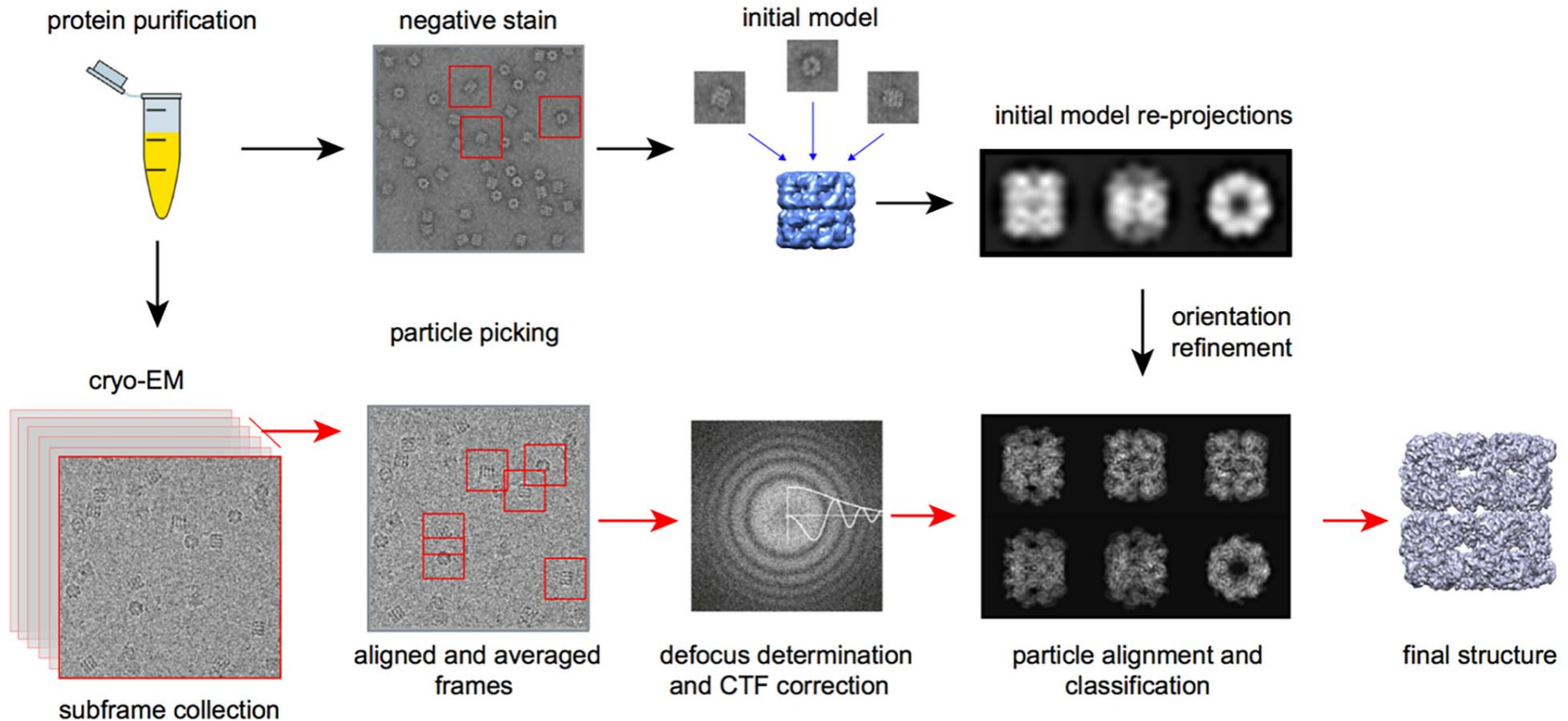
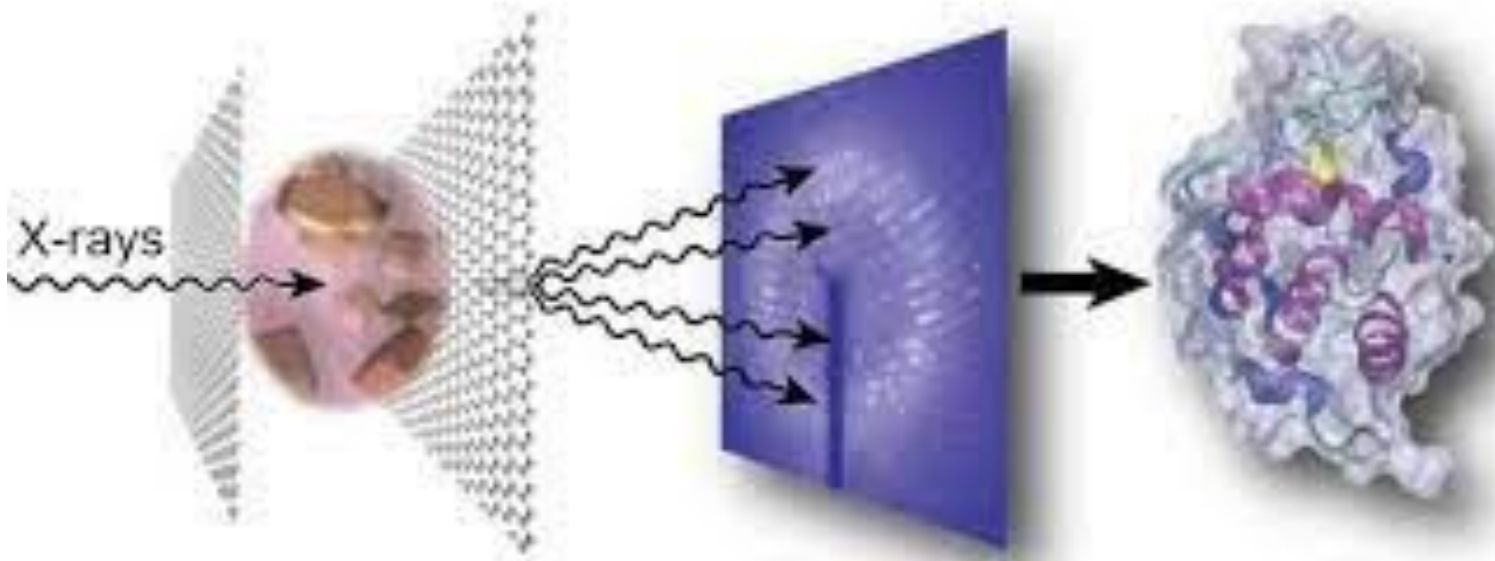


Fig. 1.2 Molecular Machinery Many molecular machines are virtually identical in all living cells. This is particularly true for molecules that play an essential role in the processes of life, such as the enzyme glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase, which is vital for the metabolism of sugar in all three organisms. This illustration shows the similar form of the enzyme from a bacterial cell (left), a plant cell (center), and human cells (right) (5,000,000 X)

How to get Protein Structures: Cryo-EM

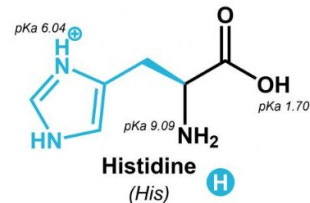
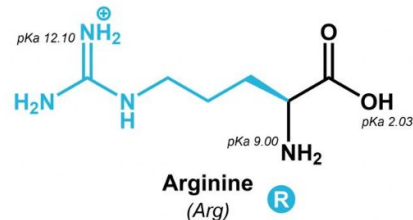
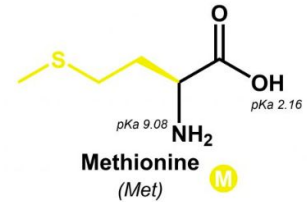
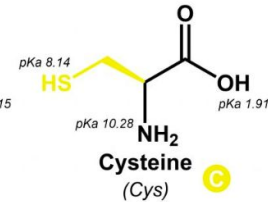
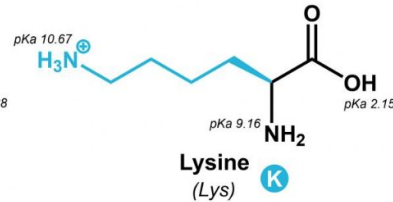
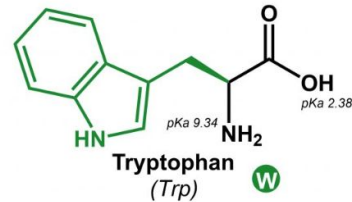
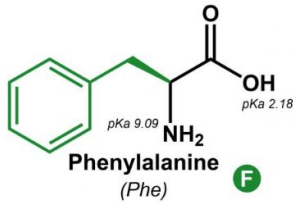
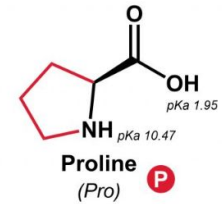
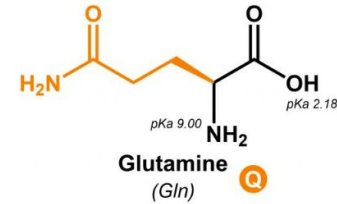
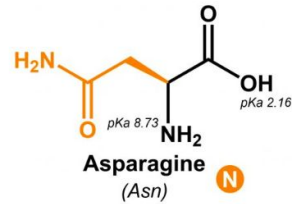
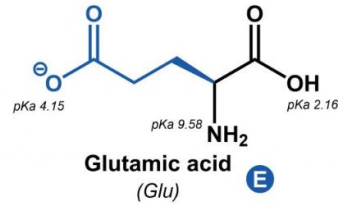
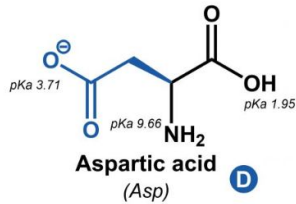
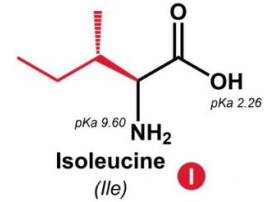
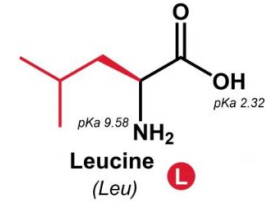
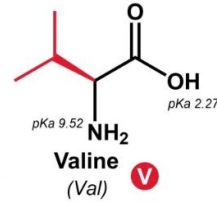
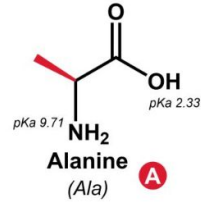
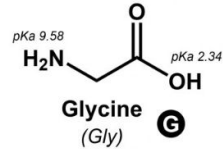
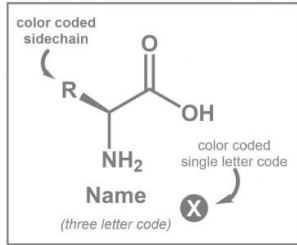


How to get Protein Structures: Crystallography



THE 20 COMMON AMINO ACIDS

● ALIPHATIC	● AROMATIC	● AMIDIC	● HYDROXYLIC
● \ominus CHARGED	● \oplus CHARGED	● SULFUR CONTAINING	



A GUIDE TO THE TWENTY COMMON AMINO ACIDS

AMINO ACIDS ARE THE BUILDING BLOCKS OF PROTEINS IN LIVING ORGANISMS. THERE ARE OVER 500 AMINO ACIDS FOUND IN NATURE - HOWEVER, THE HUMAN GENETIC CODE ONLY DIRECTLY ENCODES 20. 'ESSENTIAL' AMINO ACIDS MUST BE OBTAINED FROM THE DIET, WHILST NON-ESSENTIAL AMINO ACIDS CAN BE SYNTHESISED IN THE BODY.

Chart Key: ● ALIPHATIC ● AROMATIC ● ACIDIC ● BASIC ● HYDROXYLIC ● SULFUR-CONTAINING ● AMIDIC ○ NON-ESSENTIAL ○ ESSENTIAL

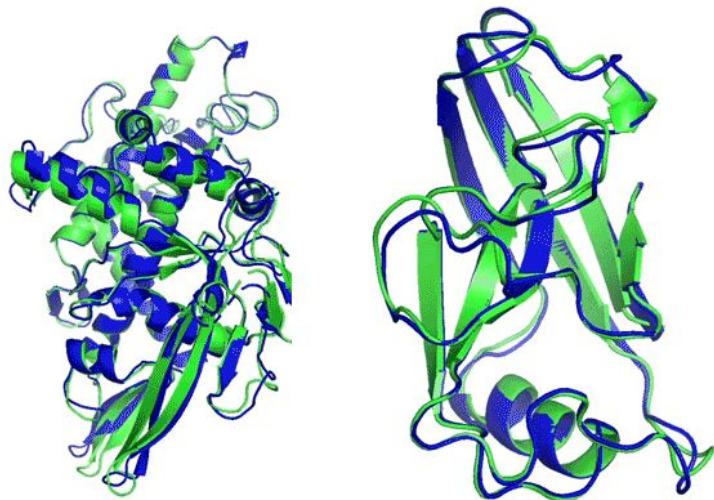
<p><i>Chemical Structure</i> single letter code</p> <p>NAME A three letter code DNA codons</p>	<p></p> <p>ALANINE A <i>Ala</i> GCT, GCC, GCA, GCG</p>	<p></p> <p>GLYCINE G <i>Gly</i> GGT, GGC, GGA, GGG</p>	<p></p> <p>ISOLEUCINE I <i>Ile</i> ATT, ATC, ATA</p>	<p></p> <p>LEUCINE L <i>Leu</i> CTT, CTC, CTA, CTG, TTA, TTG</p>	<p></p> <p>PROLINE P <i>Pro</i> CCT, CCC, CCA, CCG</p>	<p></p> <p>VALINE V <i>Val</i> GTT, GTC, GTA, GTG</p>
<p></p> <p>PHENYLALANINE F <i>Phe</i> TTT, TTC</p>	<p></p> <p>TRYPTOPHAN W <i>Trp</i> TGG</p>	<p></p> <p>TYROSINE Y <i>Tyr</i> TAT, TAC</p>	<p></p> <p>ASPARTIC ACID D <i>Asp</i> GAT, GAC</p>	<p></p> <p>GLUTAMIC ACID E <i>Glu</i> GAA, GAG</p>	<p></p> <p>ARGININE R <i>Arg</i> CGT, CGC, CGA, CGG, AGA, AGG</p>	<p></p> <p>HISTIDINE H <i>His</i> CAT, CAC</p>
<p></p> <p>LYSINE K <i>Lys</i> AAA, AAG</p>	<p></p> <p>SERINE S <i>Ser</i> TCT, TCC, TCA, TCG, AGT, AGC</p>	<p></p> <p>THREONINE T <i>Thr</i> ACT, ACC, ACA, ACG</p>	<p></p> <p>CYSTEINE C <i>Cys</i> TGT, TGC</p>	<p></p> <p>METHIONINE M <i>Met</i> ATG</p>	<p></p> <p>ASPARAGINE N <i>Asn</i> AAT, AAC</p>	<p></p> <p>GLUTAMINE Q <i>Gln</i> CAA, CAG</p>

Note: This chart only shows those amino acids for which the human genetic code directly codes for. Selenocysteine is often referred to as the 21st amino acid, but is encoded in a special manner. In some cases, distinguishing between asparagine/aspartic acid and glutamine/glutamic acid is difficult. In these cases, the codes asx (B) and glx (Z) are respectively used.



Critical Assessment of protein Structure Prediction (CASP)

- Biennial **global blind-prediction experiment** (since 1994)
- Fully blind evaluation → no data leakage → highest credibility



Protein folding example, where predictions (in blue) are aligned to the known protein structure (in green) in the Protein DataBase (PDB). (image source: DeepMind blog)

David Baker's Lab

- Professor at Univ Washington
- Known for **computational Protein Design**
- **Rosetta** (physics-based)
- **RoseTTAFold** (ML for protein structure prediction)
- **Protein MPNN** (ML for protein inverse folding)
- **RF diffusion** (generative model for protein)

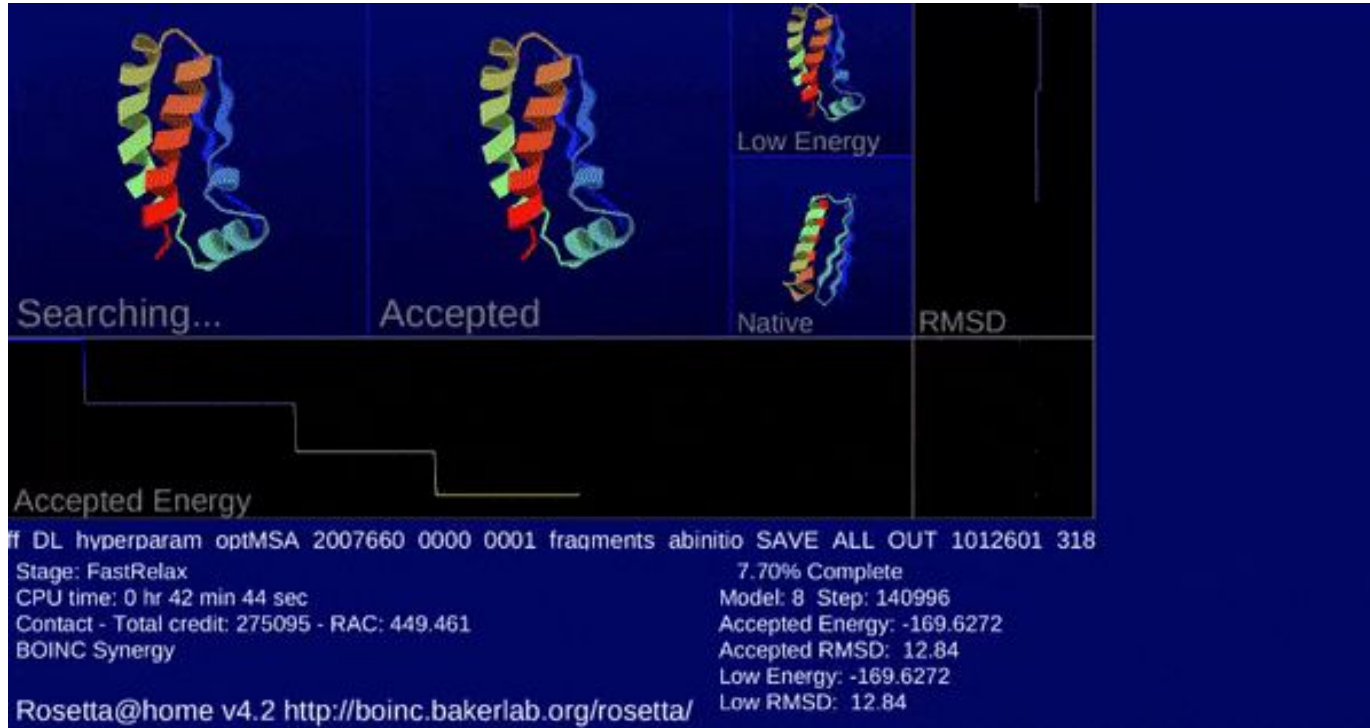


David Baker



David Baker's Lab

Rosetta (Physics based structure prediction)



Andrew Leaver-Fay
& Rosetta Com

AlphaFold II



John Jumper (DeepMind)

Article

Highly accurate protein structure prediction with AlphaFold

<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-021-03819-2>

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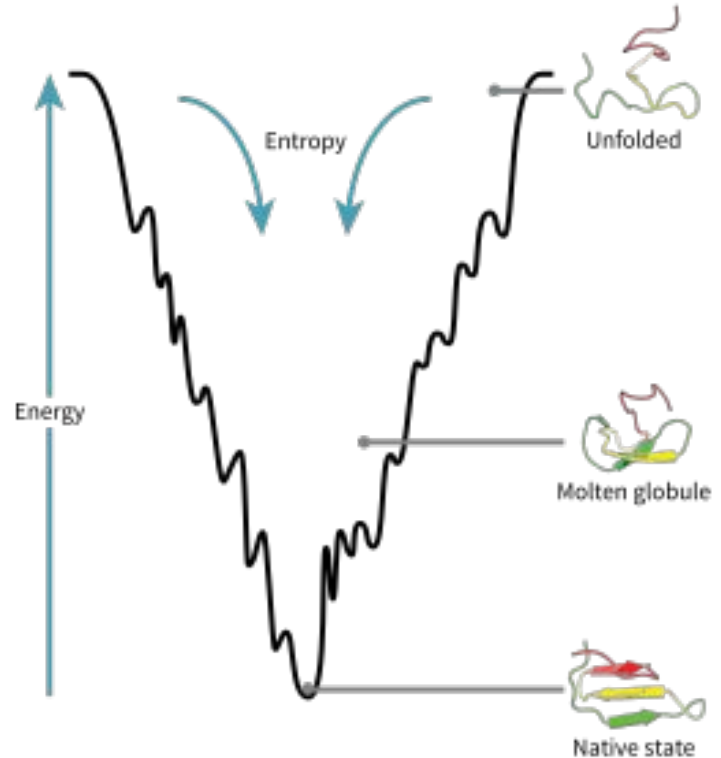
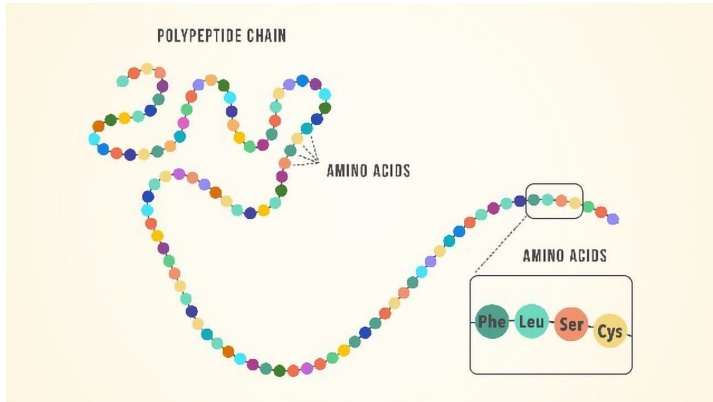
John Jumper^{1,4}, Richard Evans^{1,4}, Alexander Pritzel^{1,4}, Tim Green^{1,4}, Michael Figurnov^{1,4}, Olaf Ronneberger^{1,4}, Kathryn Tunyasuvunakool^{1,4}, Russ Bates^{1,4}, Augustin Židek^{1,4}, Anna Potapenko^{1,4}, Alex Bridgland^{1,4}, Clemens Meyer^{1,4}, Simon A. A. Kohl^{1,4}, Andrew J. Ballard^{1,4}, Andrew Cowie^{1,4}, Bernardino Romera-Paredes^{1,4}, Stanislav Nikolov^{1,4}, Rishub Jain^{1,4}, Jonas Adler¹, Trevor Back¹, Stig Petersen¹, David Reiman¹, Ellen Clancy¹, Michal Zielinski¹, Martin Steinegger^{2,3}, Michalina Pacholska¹, Tamas Berghammer¹, Sebastian Bodenstern¹, David Silver¹, Oriol Vinyals¹, Andrew W. Senior¹, Koray Kavukcuoglu¹, Pushmeet Kohli¹ & Demis Hassabis^{1,4}

Proteins are essential to life, and understanding their structure can facilitate a mechanistic understanding of their function. Through an enormous experimental effort^{1–4}, the structures of around 100,000 unique proteins have been determined⁵, but this represents a small fraction of the billions of known protein sequences^{6,7}. Structural coverage is bottlenecked by the months to years of painstaking effort required to determine a single protein structure. Accurate computational approaches are needed to address this gap and to enable large-scale structural bioinformatics. Predicting the three-dimensional structure that a protein will adopt based solely on its amino acid sequence—the structure prediction component of the ‘protein folding problem’⁸—has been an important open research problem for more than 50 years⁹. Despite recent progress^{10–14}, existing methods fall far short of atomic accuracy, especially when no homologous structure is available. Here we provide the first computational method that can regularly predict protein structures with atomic accuracy even in cases in which no similar structure is known. We validated an entirely redesigned version of our neural network-based model, AlphaFold, in the challenging 14th Critical Assessment of protein Structure Prediction (CASP14)¹⁵, demonstrating accuracy competitive with experimental structures in a majority of cases and greatly outperforming other methods. Underpinning the latest version of AlphaFold is a novel machine learning approach that incorporates physical and biological knowledge about protein structure, leveraging multi-sequence alignments, into the design of the deep learning algorithm.

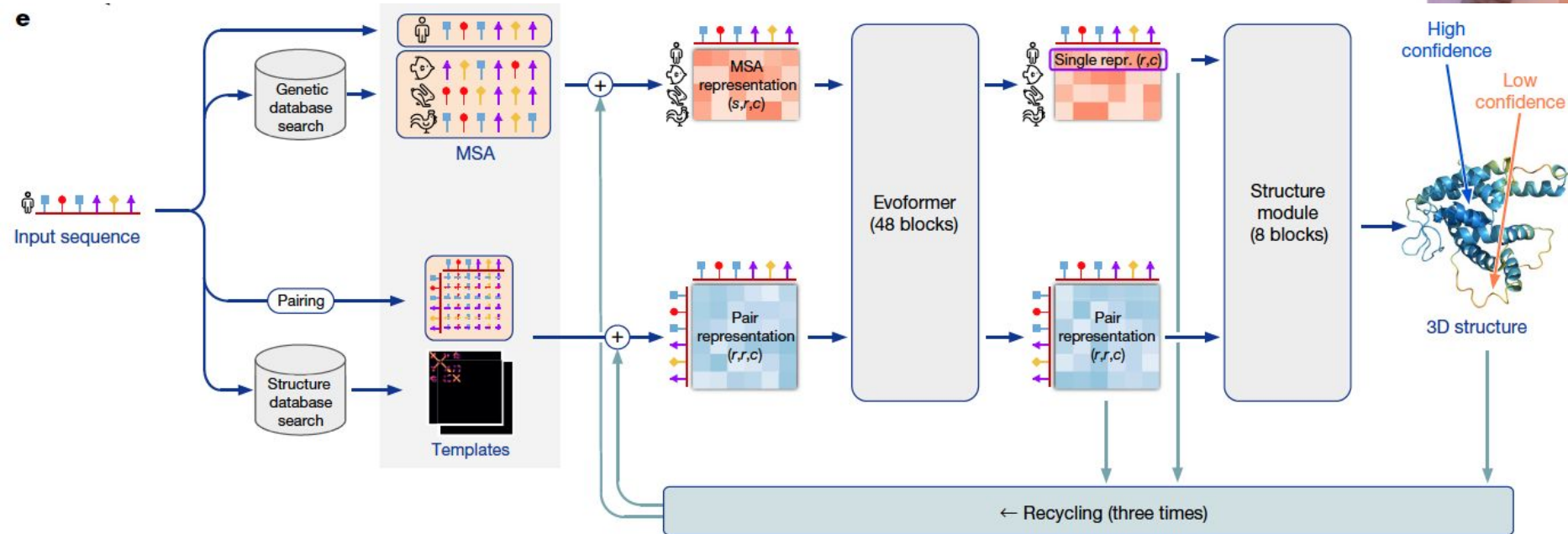
Protein folding problem

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Network AlphaFold2

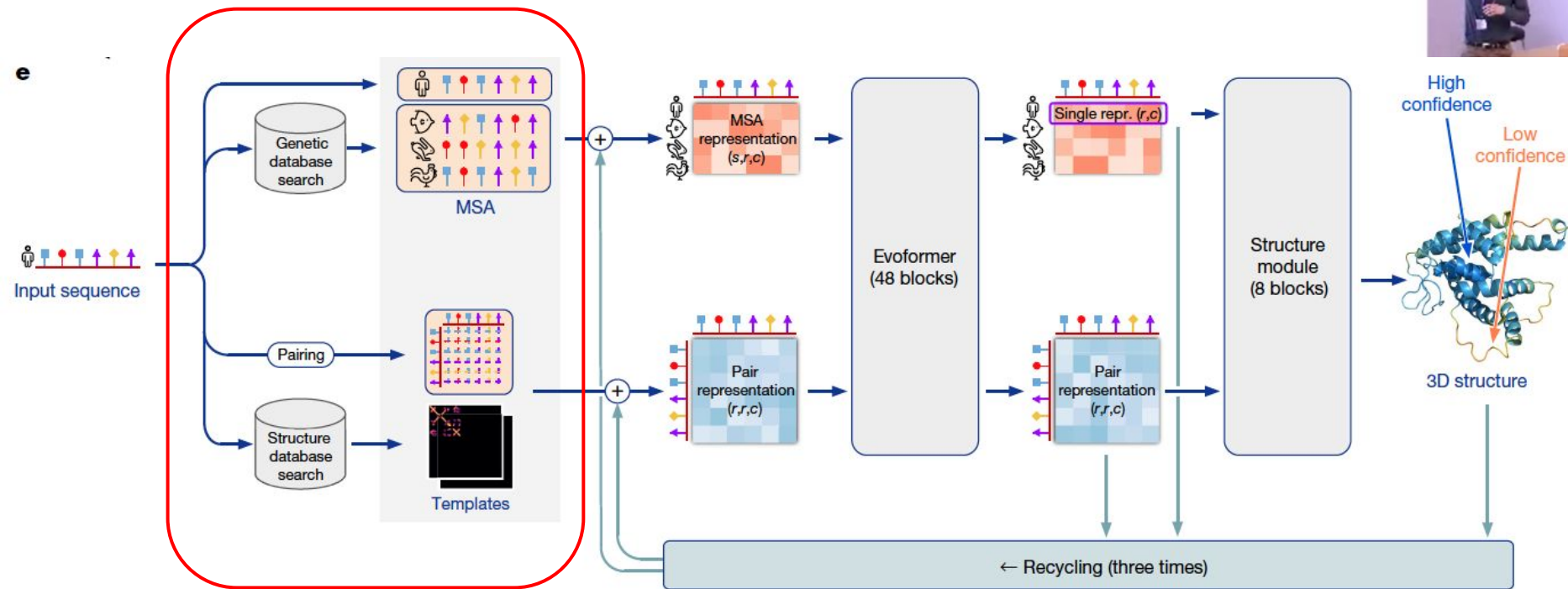


The Structure Module predicts a rotation + translation to place each residue.

A small network predicts side chain chi angles. The final structure is run through a relaxation process.



Network AlphaFold2

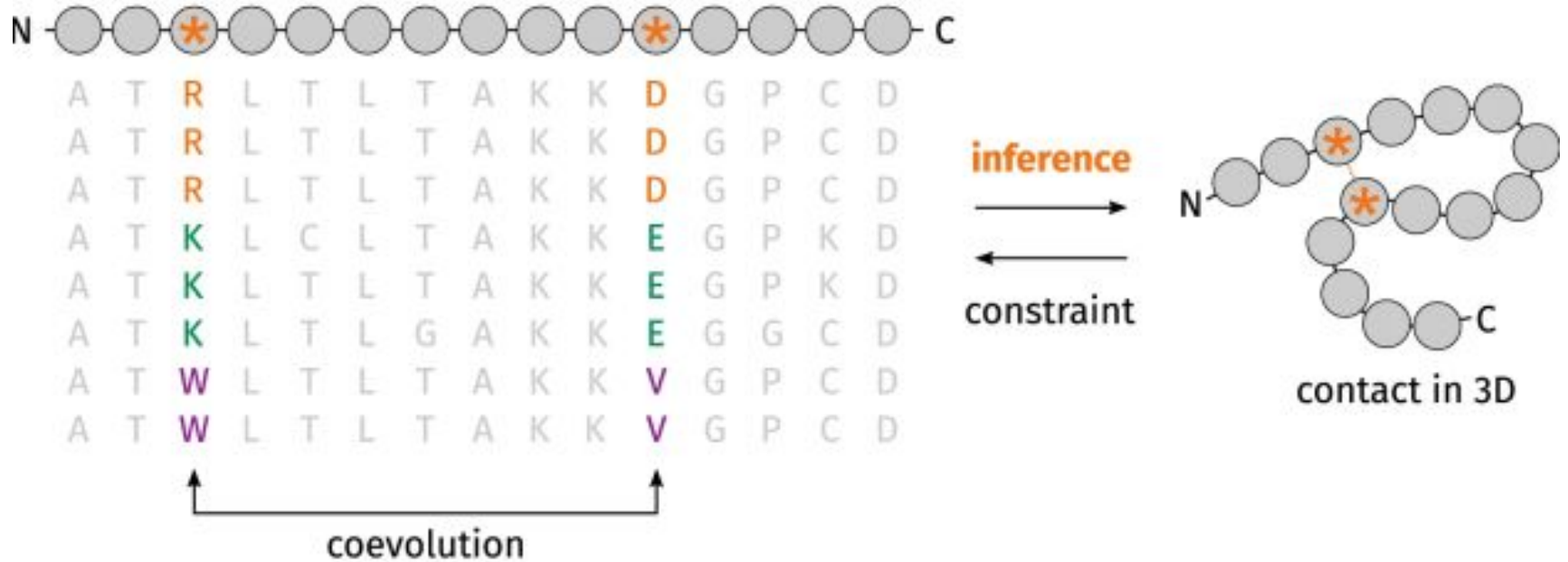


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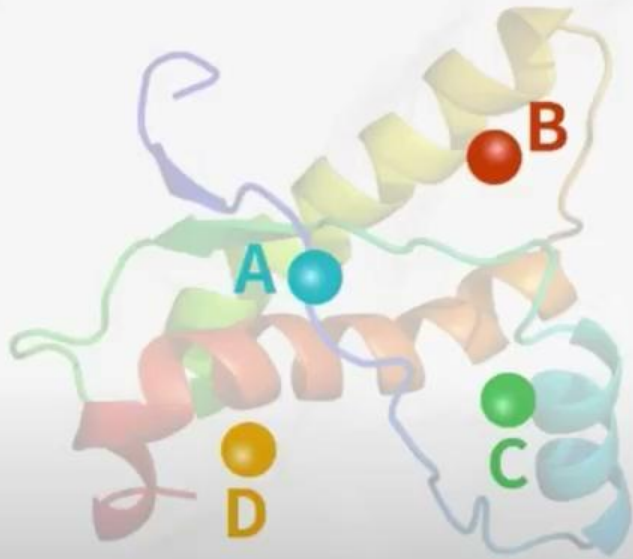
A small network predicts side chain chi angles. The final structure is run through a relaxation process.



Multiple Sequence Alignment (MSA)

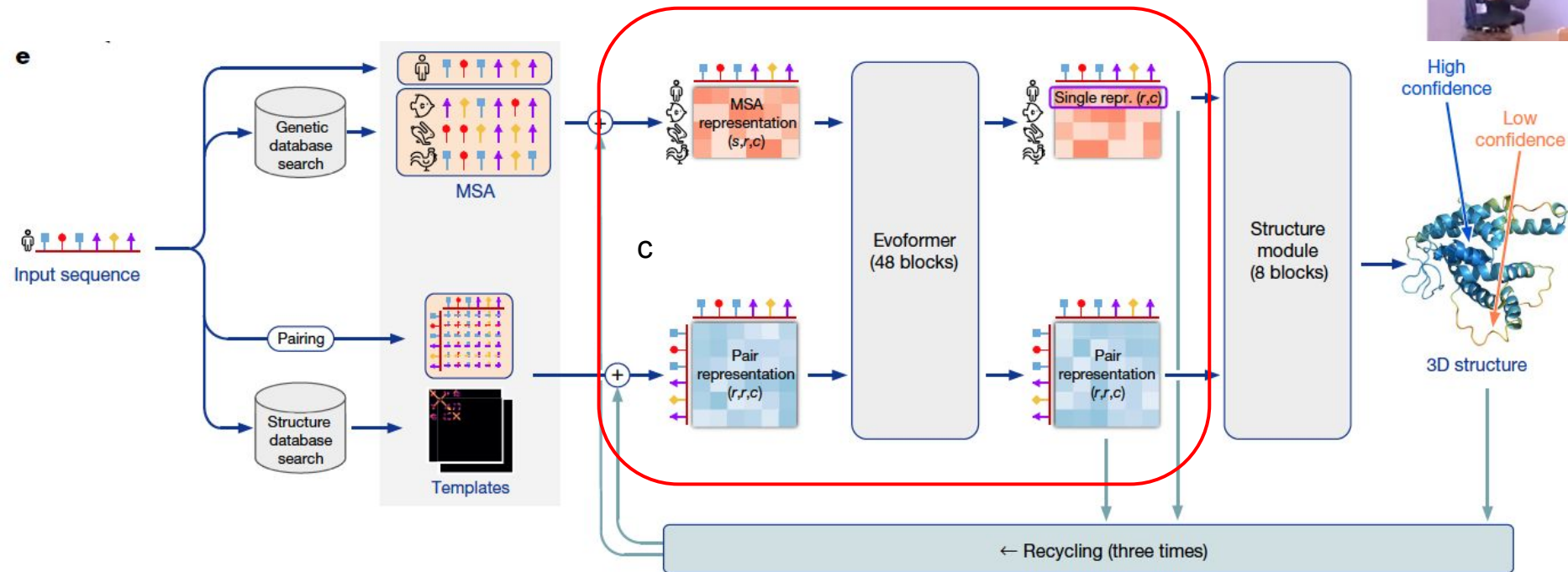


Distance Matrix



	A	B	C	D
A	0			
B		0		
C			0	
D				0

Network AlphaFold2

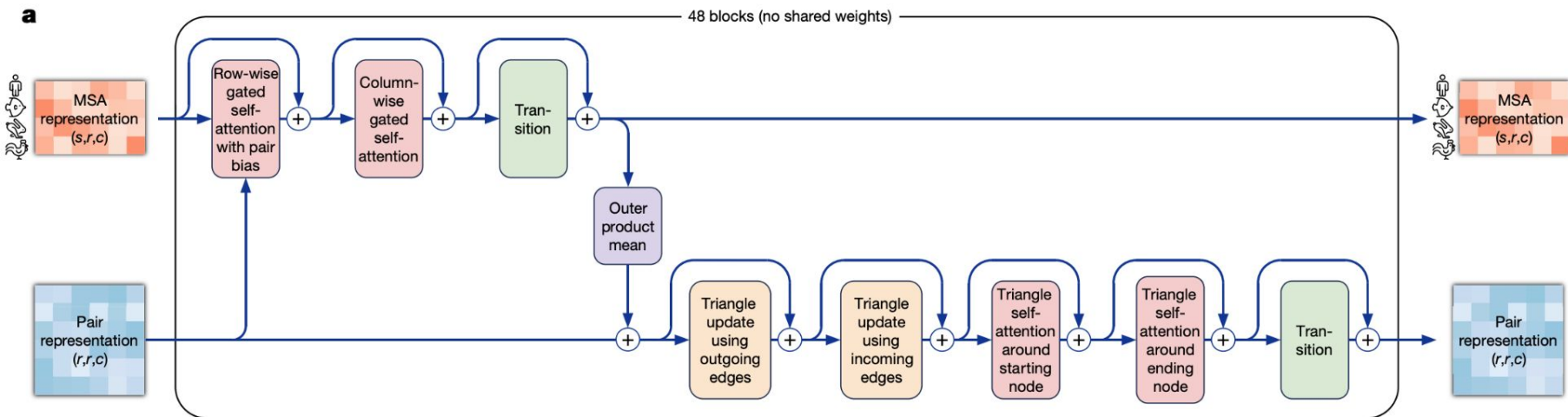


The Structure Module predicts a rotation + translation to place each residue.

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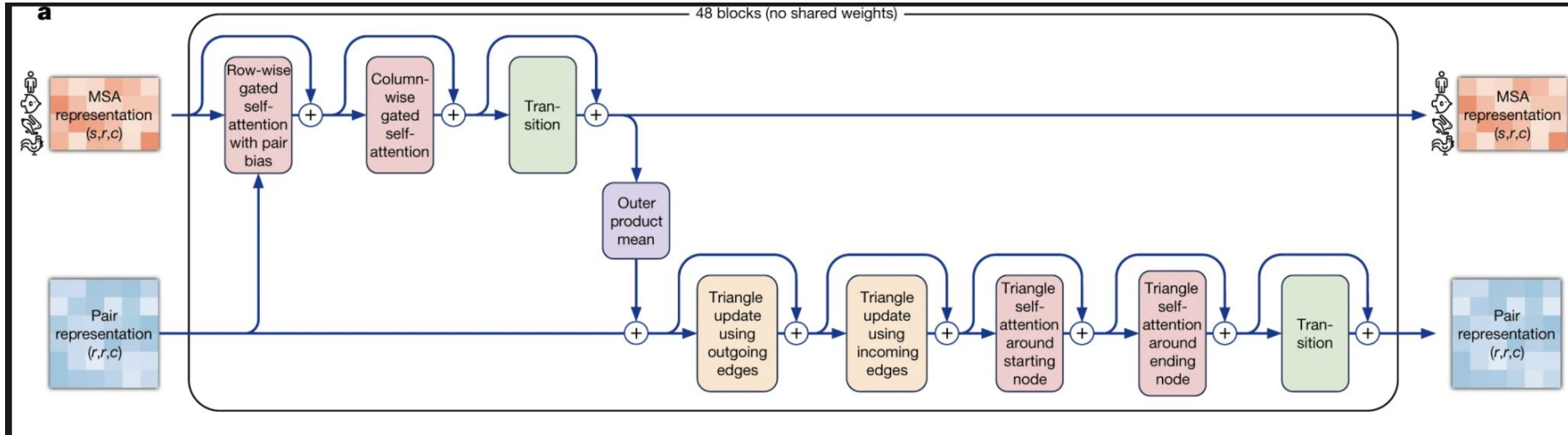


Evoformer

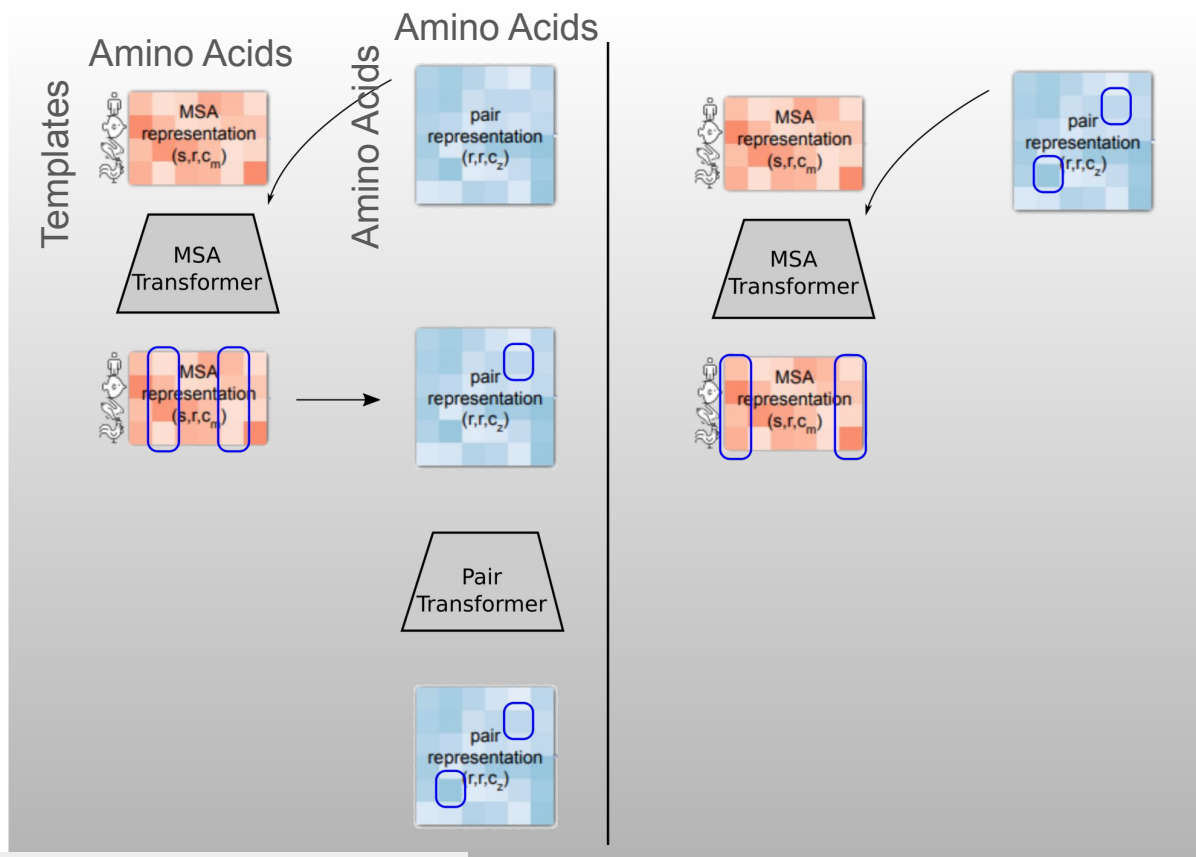


What is going on in the swap?

1D of many proteins and 2D of one protein \rightarrow Update both



Representations: Swap between 1D and 2D

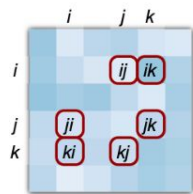


AA: Amino
Acids in 1
Protein

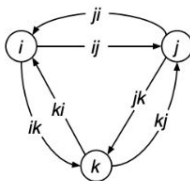
Triangular Attention

b

Pair representation
(r, r, c)

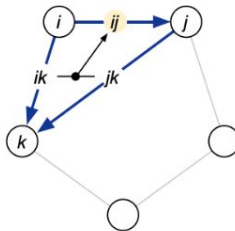


Corresponding edges
in a graph

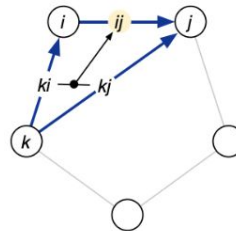


c

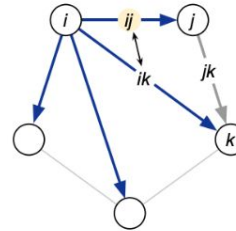
Triangle multiplicative update
using 'outgoing' edges



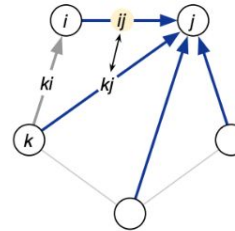
Triangle multiplicative update
using 'incoming' edges



Triangle self-attention around
starting node



Triangle self-attention around
ending node



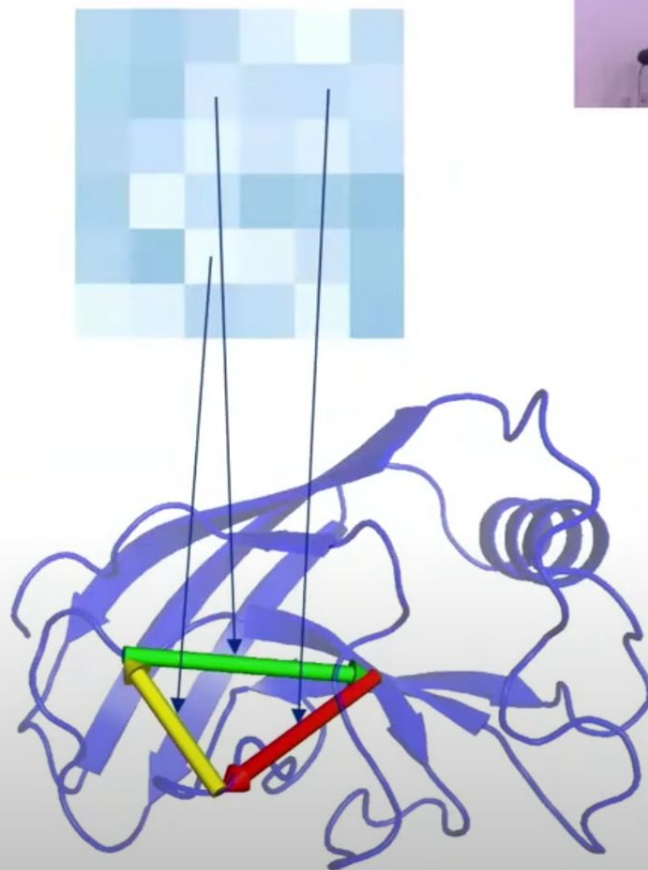
Vignette 1: Triangular Attention

→ Take 3 points A, B, C

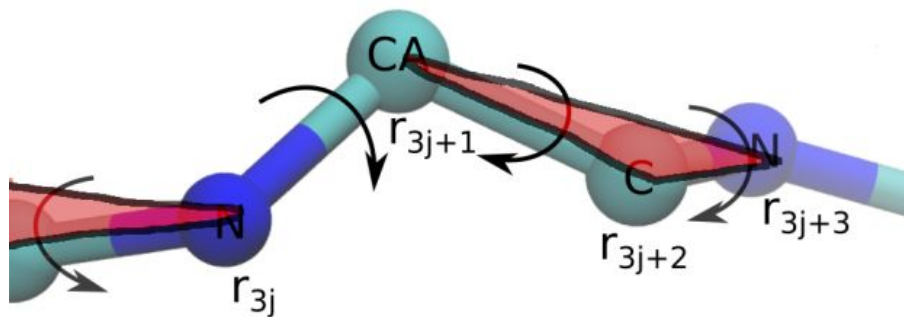
- ◆ If Distance AB and distance BC known strong constraint on AC (triangle inequality)
- ◆ Evolution & Sequence gives information about relations between residues

→ Pair Embedding encodes relations

- ◆ Update for pair AC should depend on BC, AB
- ◆ All about who communicates in the network, not what is computed

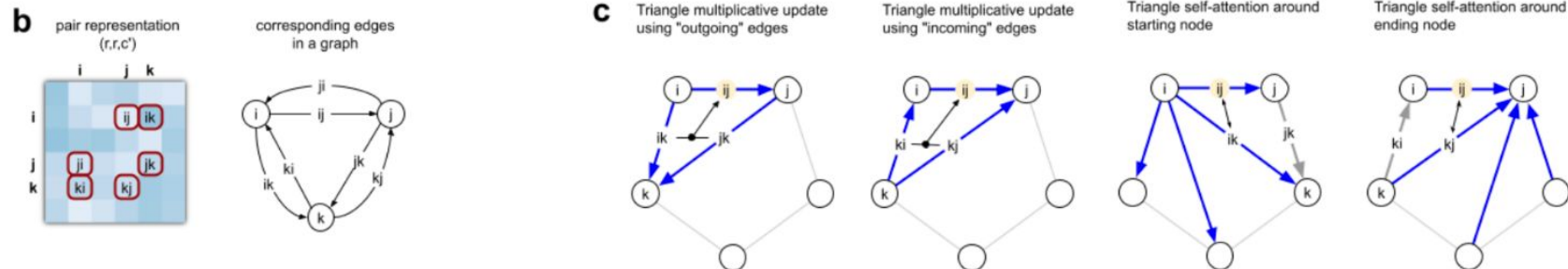


What is going on in the swap?

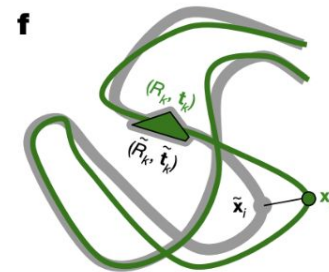
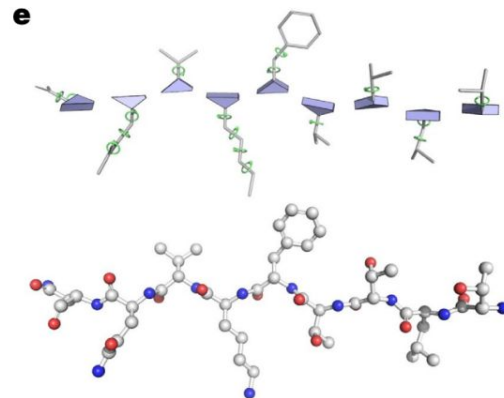
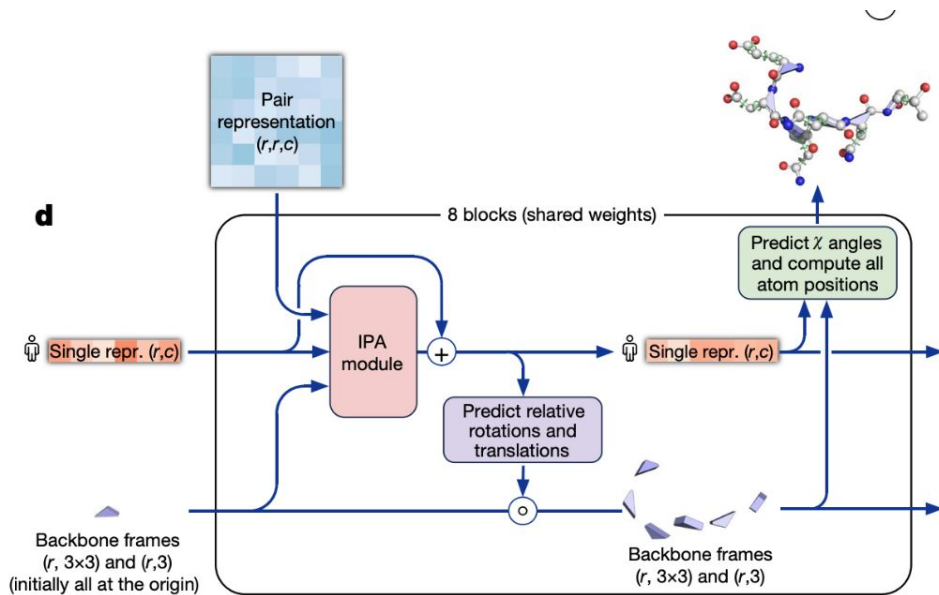


Concepts: Affine Transforms, Triangle Inequality

We preserve triangle inequality but *don't* care about overlaps till the very end.



Structure Prediction



Vignette 2: Structure module

- **End-to-end folding** instead of gradient descent
- Protein backbone = gas of 3-D rigid bodies (chain is learned!)

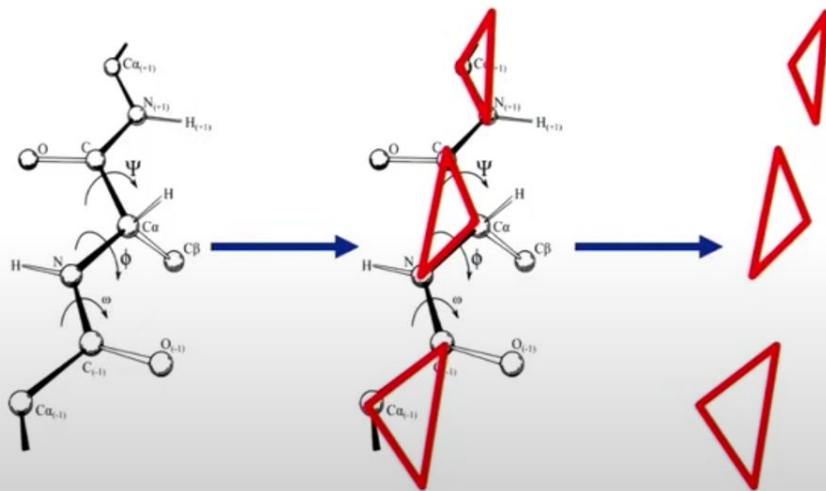
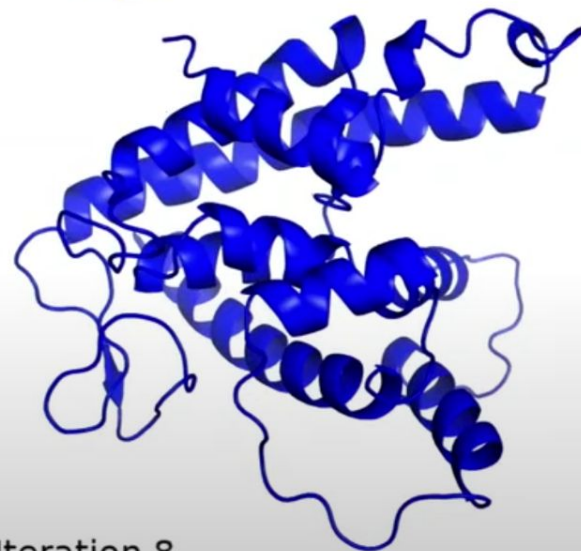


Image: Dcrjsr, vectorised Adam Rędzikowski (CC BY 3.0, Wikipedia)

- **3-D equivariant transformer architecture** updates the rigid bodies / backbone
 - Also builds the side chains from torsion angles



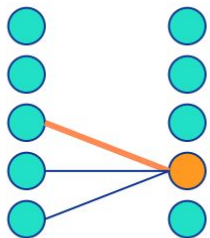
Iteration 8

Target: T1041



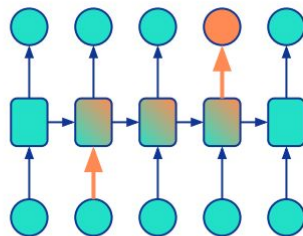
Inductive Bias for Deep Learning Models

© 2020 DeepMind Technologies Limited



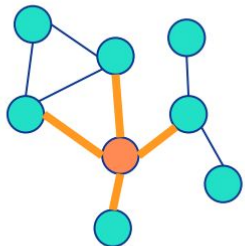
Convolutional Networks
(e.g. computer vision)

- data in regular grid
- information flow to local neighbours



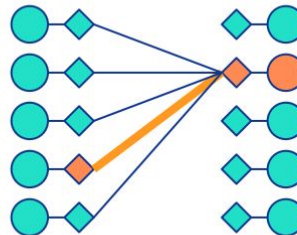
Recurrent Networks
(e.g. language)

- data in ordered sequence
- information flow sequentially



Graph Networks (e.g. recommender systems or molecules)

- data in fixed graph structure
- information flow along fixed edges



Attention Module (e.g. language)

- data in unordered set
- information flow dynamically controlled by the network (via keys and queries)



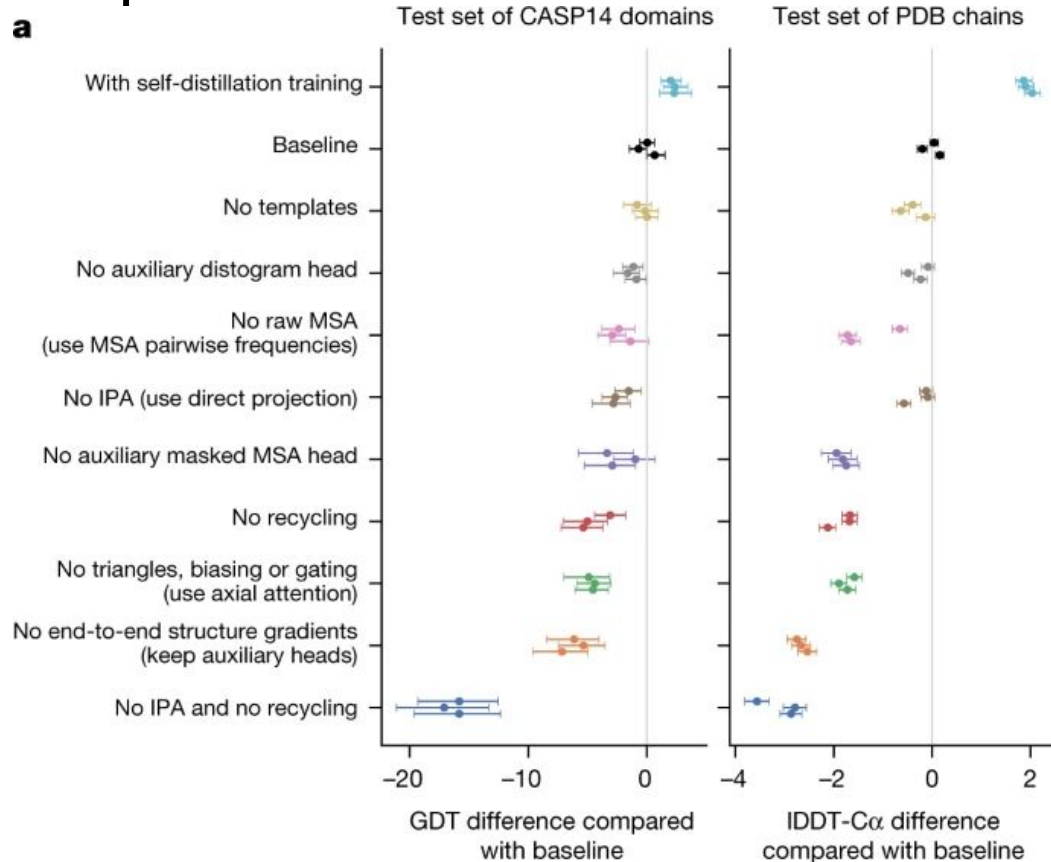
Training loss functions

$$\mathcal{L} = \begin{cases} 0.5\mathcal{L}_{\text{FAPE}} + 0.5\mathcal{L}_{\text{aux}} + 0.3\mathcal{L}_{\text{dist}} + 2.0\mathcal{L}_{\text{msa}} + 0.01\mathcal{L}_{\text{conf}} & \text{training} \\ 0.5\mathcal{L}_{\text{FAPE}} + 0.5\mathcal{L}_{\text{aux}} + 0.3\mathcal{L}_{\text{dist}} + 2.0\mathcal{L}_{\text{msa}} + 0.01\mathcal{L}_{\text{conf}} + 0.01\mathcal{L}_{\text{exp resolved}} + 1.0\mathcal{L}_{\text{viol}} & \text{fine-tuning} \end{cases}$$

Training losses are designed to emphasize contributions from different architectural parts:

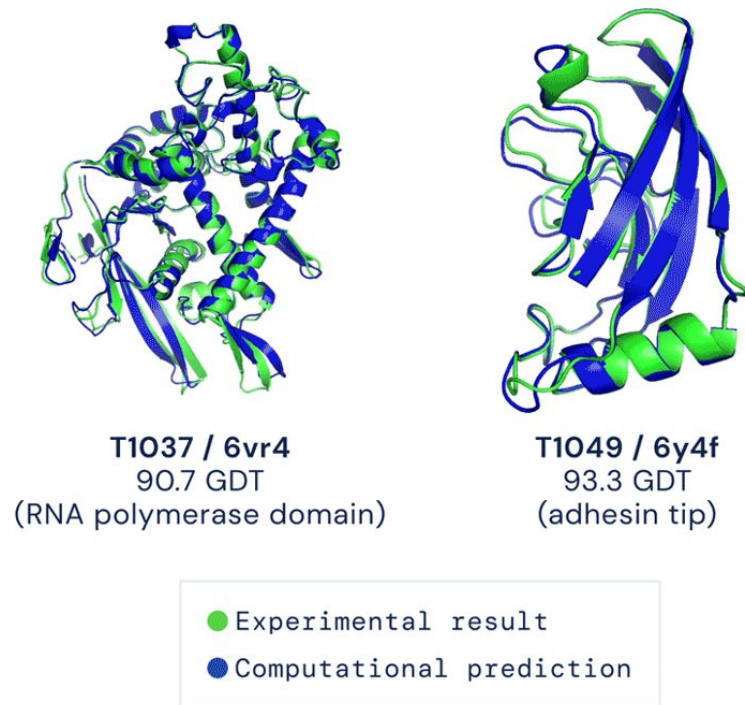
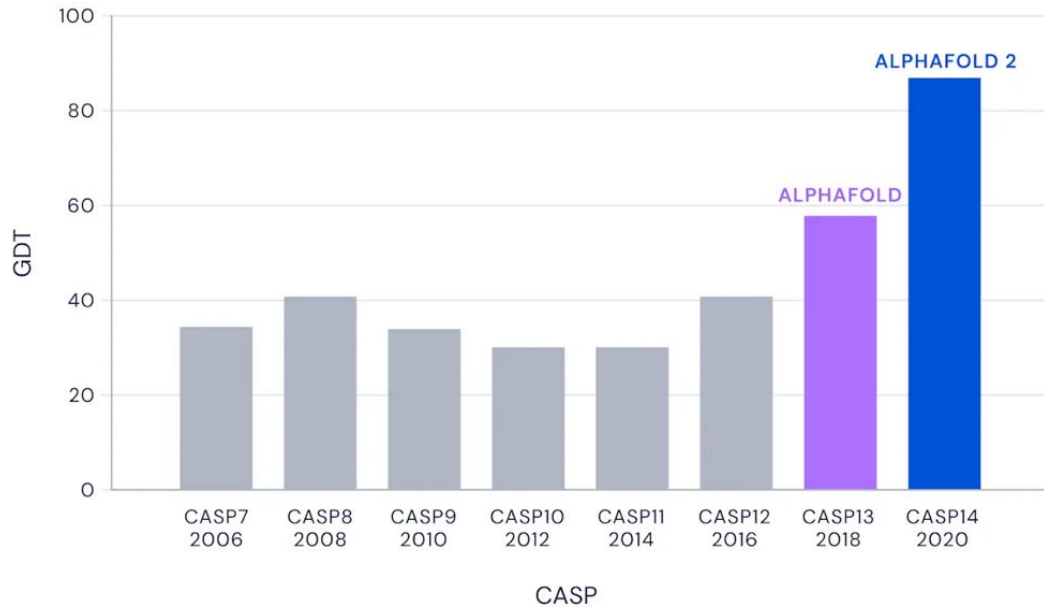
- \mathcal{L}_{aux} : averaged FAPE and torsion angle losses from intermediate structure module layers
- $\mathcal{L}_{\text{dist}}$: distogram prediction (cross-entropy)
- \mathcal{L}_{msa} : masked-MSA prediction (cross-entropy)

Ablation study of each component

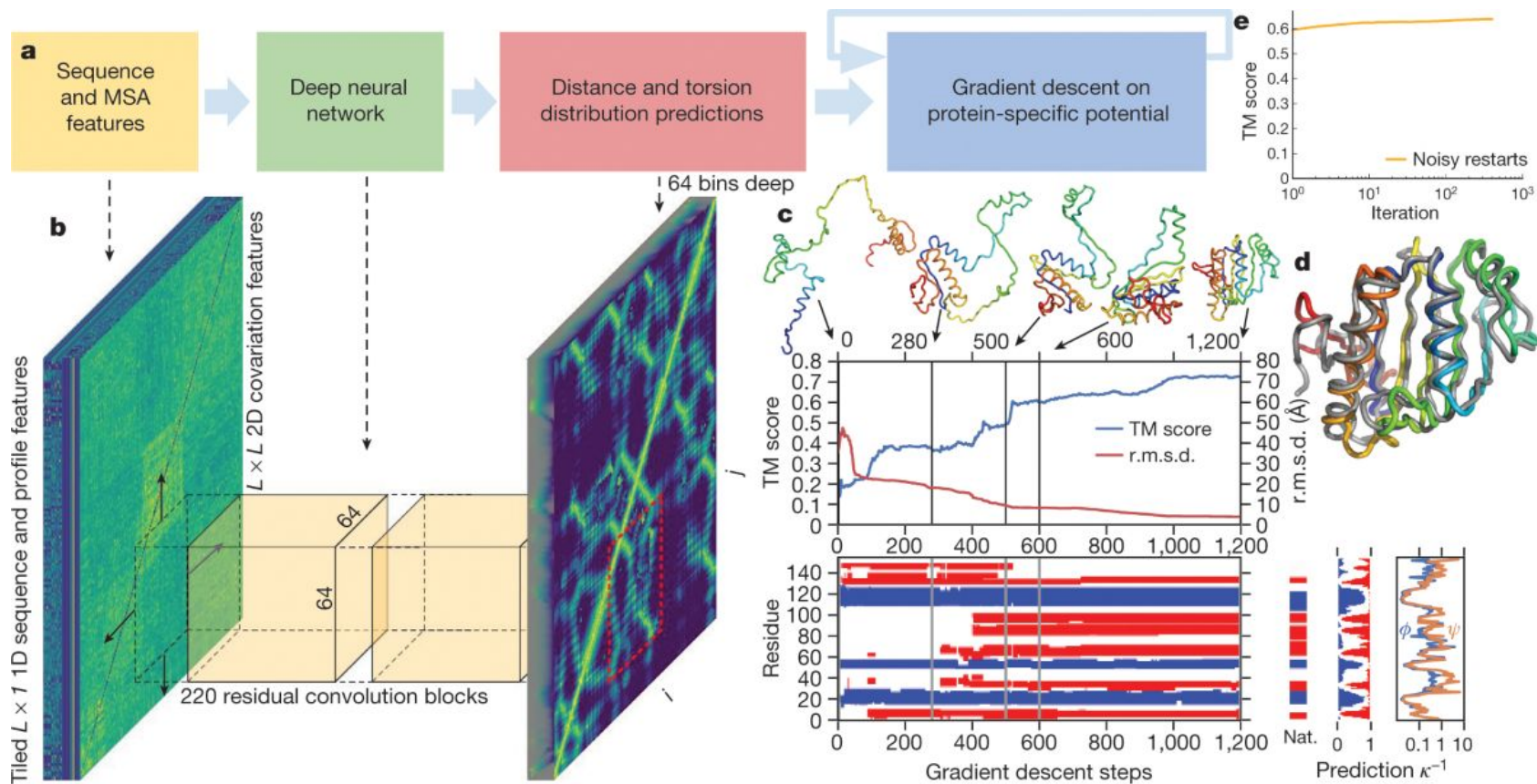


AlphaFold 2 in CASP challenge

Median Free-Modelling Accuracy



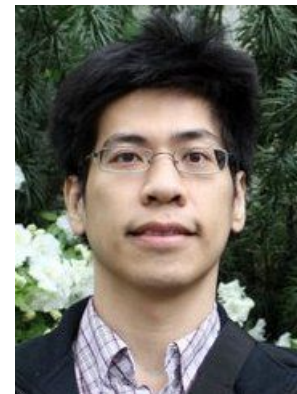
Comparison to Alphafold 1



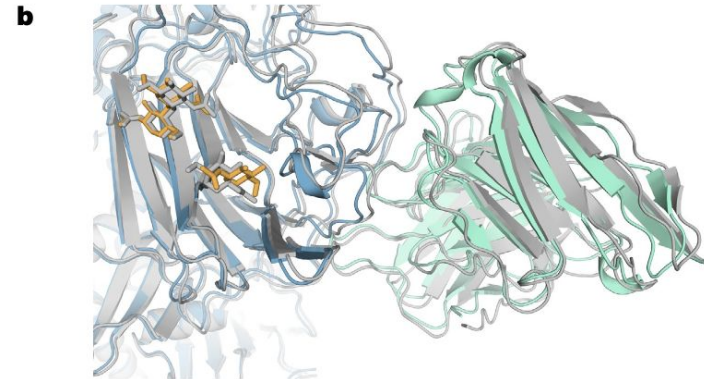
AlphaFold 2 vs AlphaFold 3 (improvement)

AF3 has these improvement compare with AF2

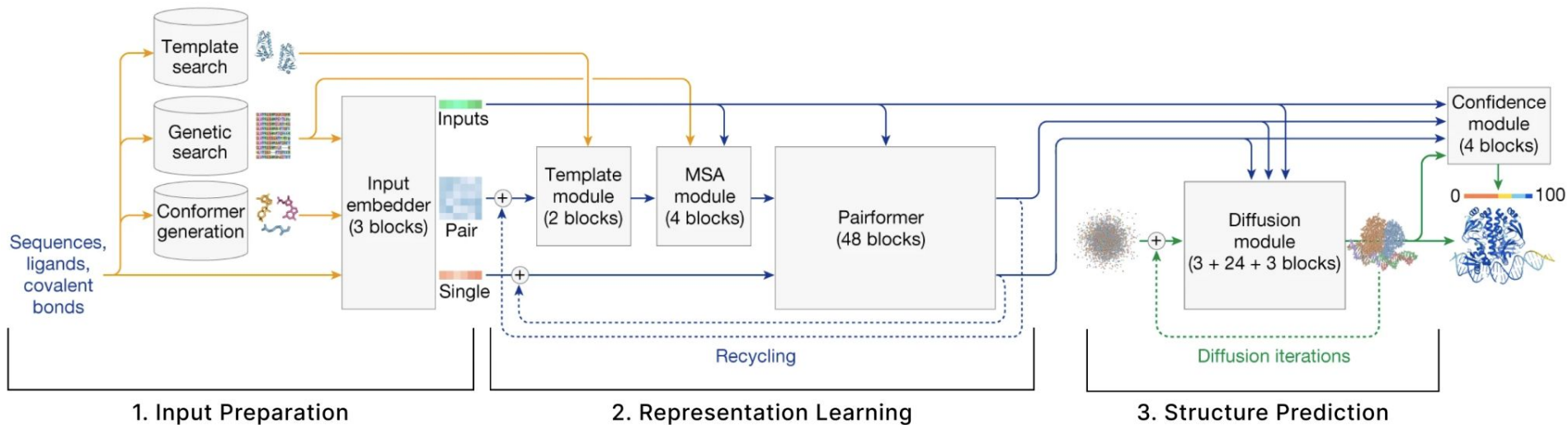
- multiple proteins
- DNA
- RNA
- small molecule ligands interaction with proteins
- Improved Antibody structures prediction
- Pseudo-opensource model
- Remove equivariant models, infuse diffusion model in protein structure prediction

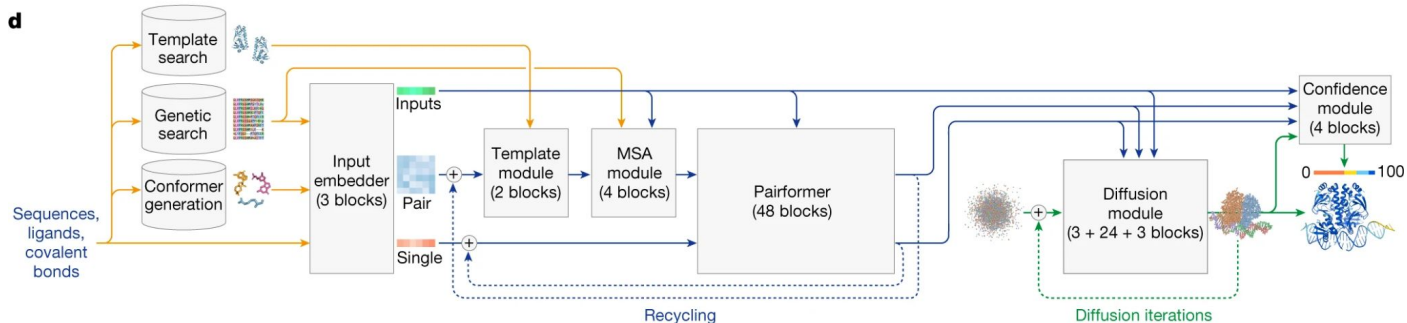
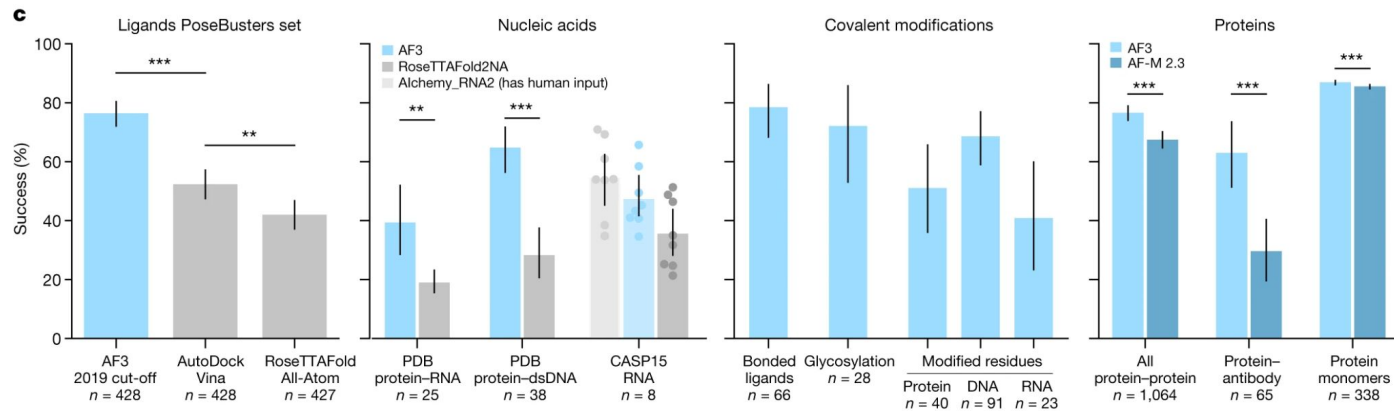
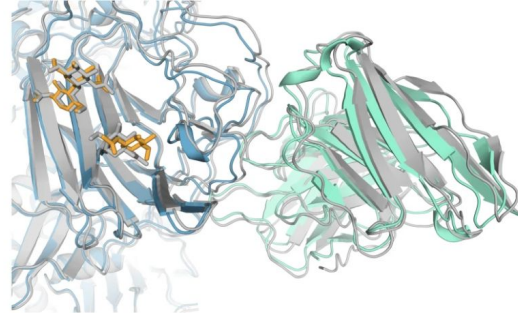
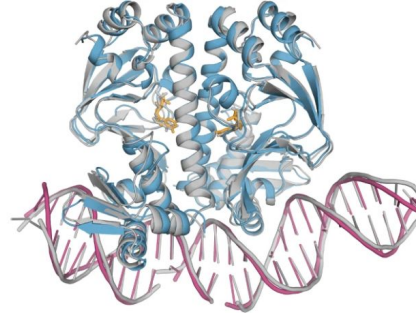


Chia-Chun (Alden) Hung
Isomorphic Lab



AlphaFold 3 architecture





THE NOBEL PRIZE IN CHEMISTRY 2024



David
Baker

"for computational
protein design"

Demis
Hassabis

"for protein structure prediction"

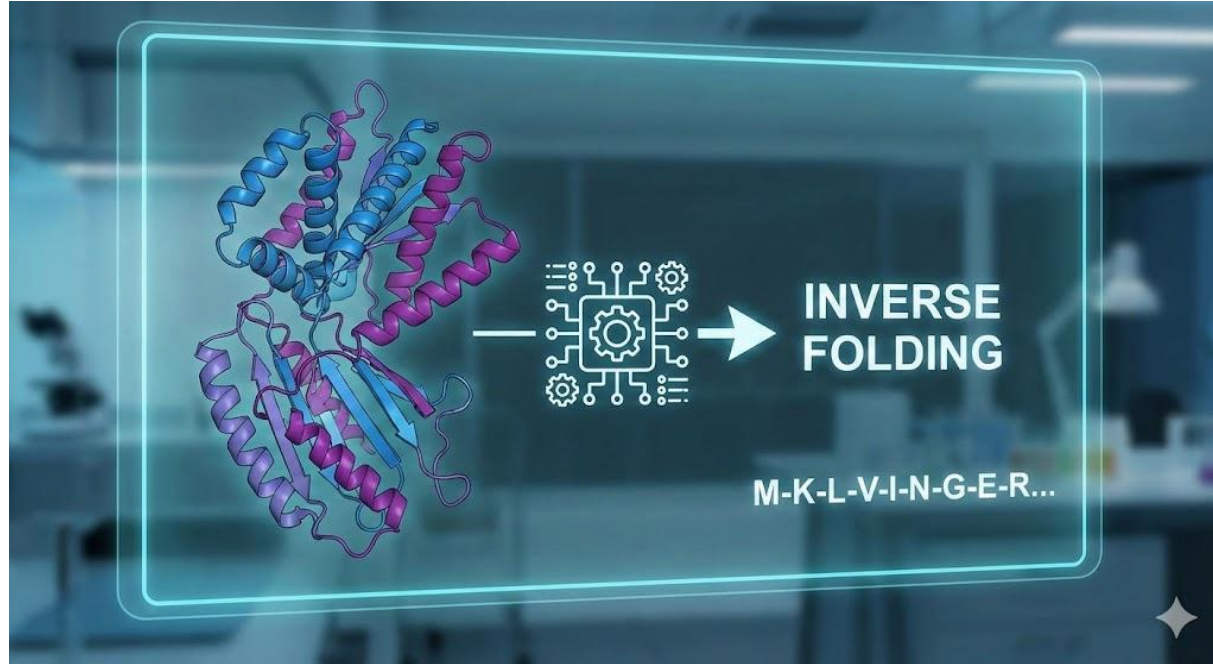
John M.
Jumper

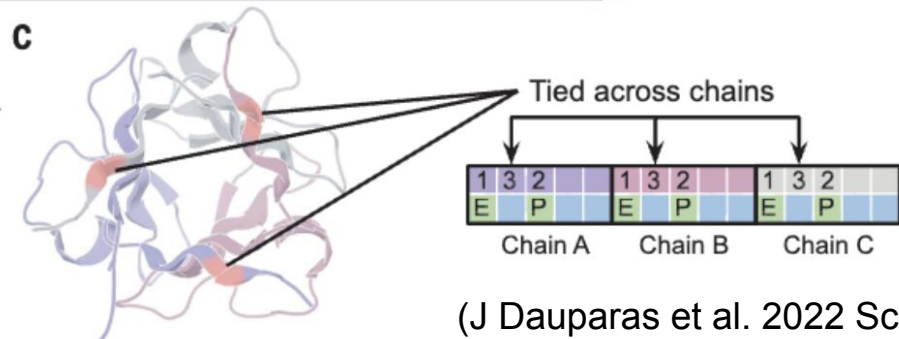
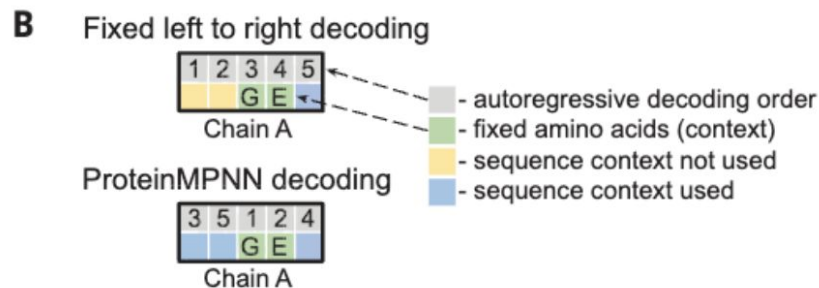
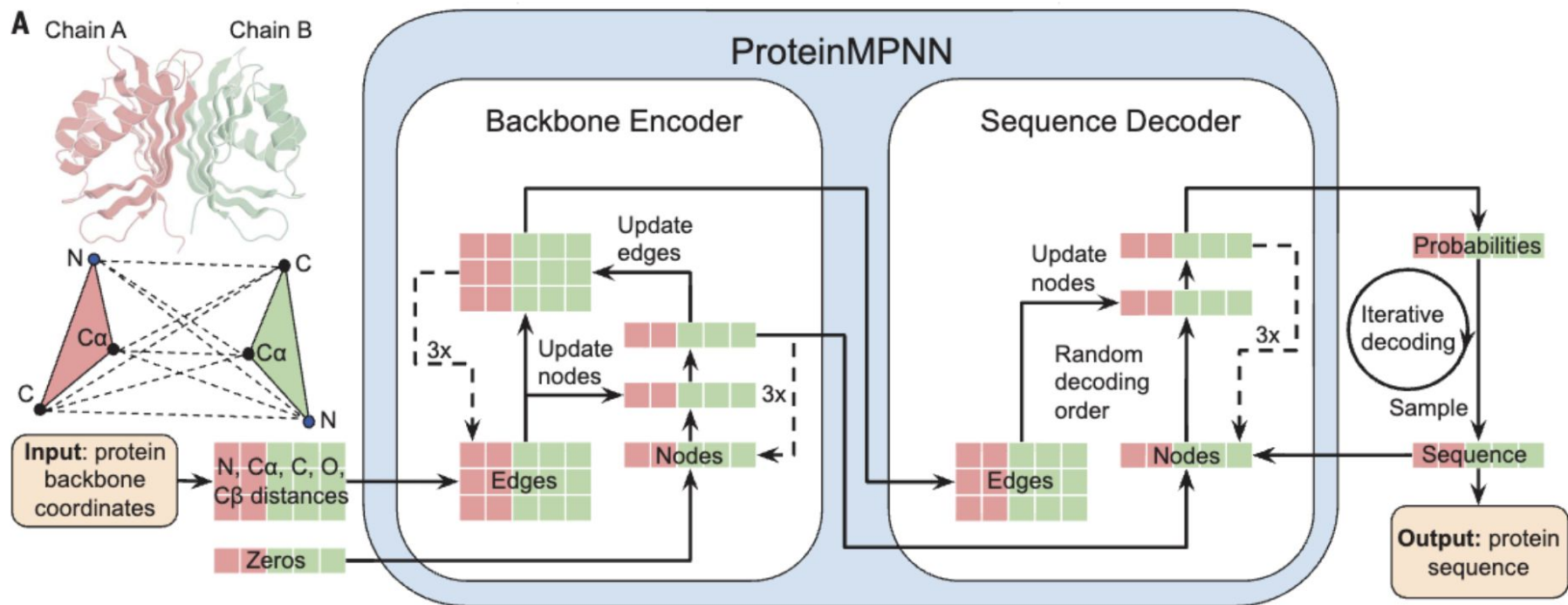
THE ROYAL SWEDISH ACADEMY OF SCIENCES

Live Demo

- [PDB](#)
- [uniprot](#)
- [ColabFold](#)
- [ProteinMPNN](#)
- [RFdiffusion](#)

What about the inverse folding?





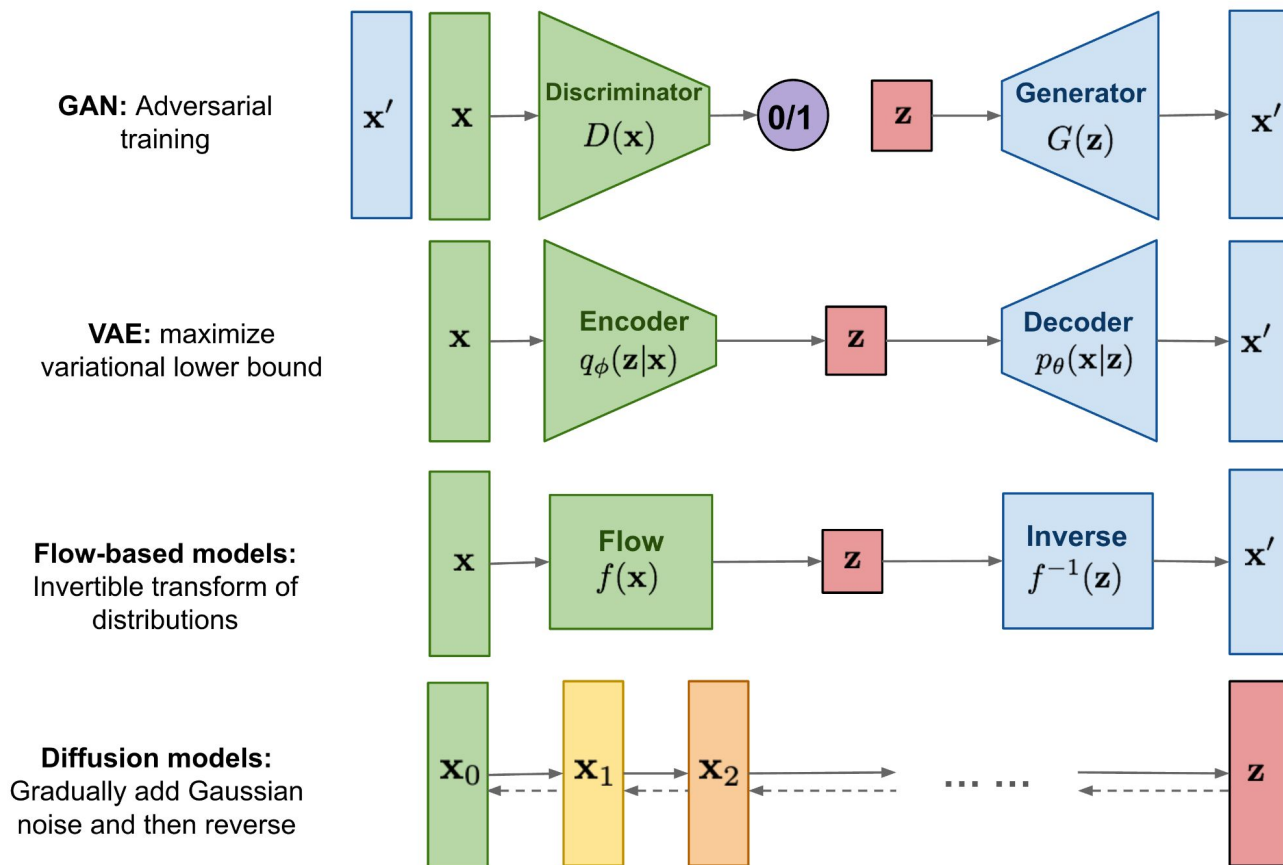
Live Demo

- [PDB](#)
- [uniprot](#)
- [ColabFold](#)
- [ProteinMPNN](#)
- [RFdiffusion](#)

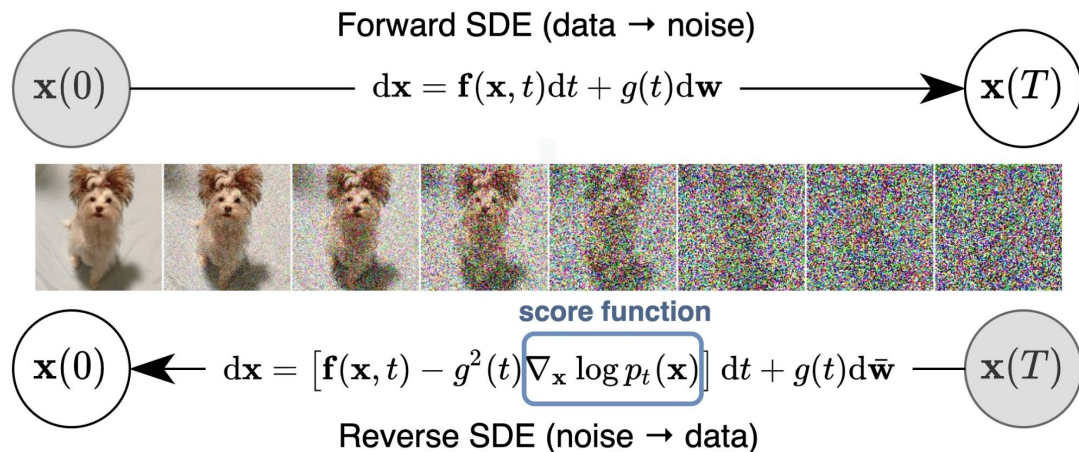
Why do we need ML for protein design

- Even if we could actually predict the structure of protein, the possible amino acid sequence is more than 20^{300} .
- **Generative model** for protein is needed

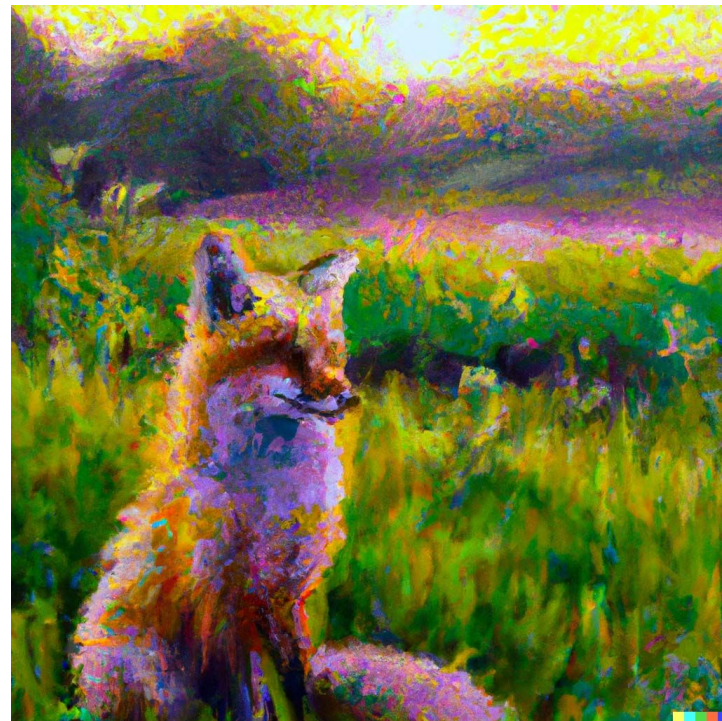
Family of generative models



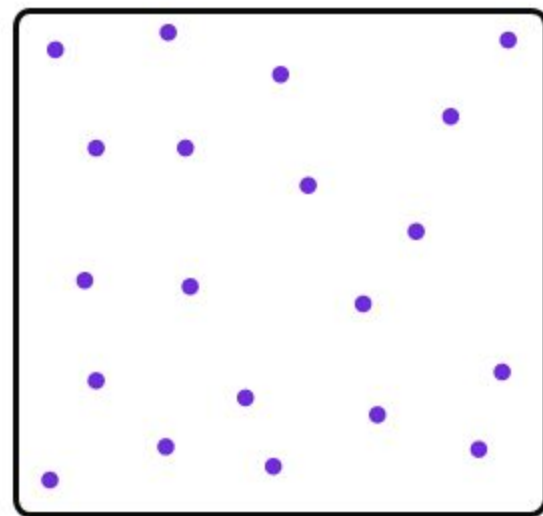
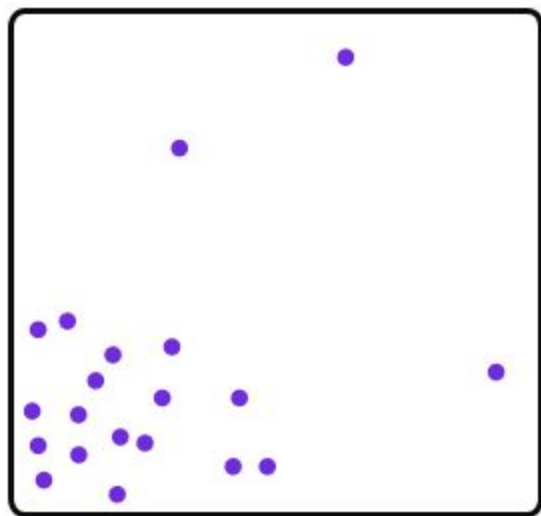
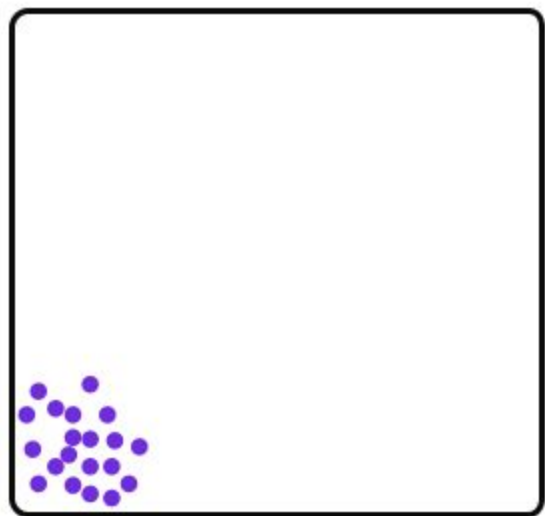
Diffusion Model (& Score matching)



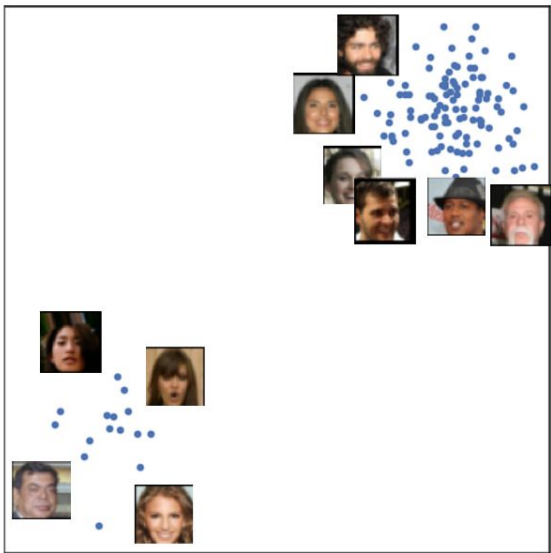
Diffusion Model & Score matching



“A painting of a fox sitting in a field at sunrise in the style of Claude Monet”



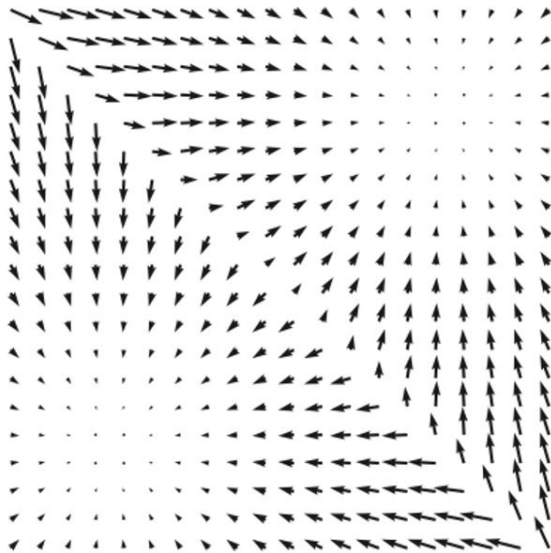
time



Data samples

$$\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\} \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} p(\mathbf{x})$$

score
matching



Scores

$$\mathbf{s}_\theta(\mathbf{x}) \approx \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \log p(\mathbf{x})$$

Langevin
dynamics



New samples

Example from Imagen



"A photo of a Shiba Inu dog with a backpack riding a bike. It is wearing sunglasses and a beach hat."



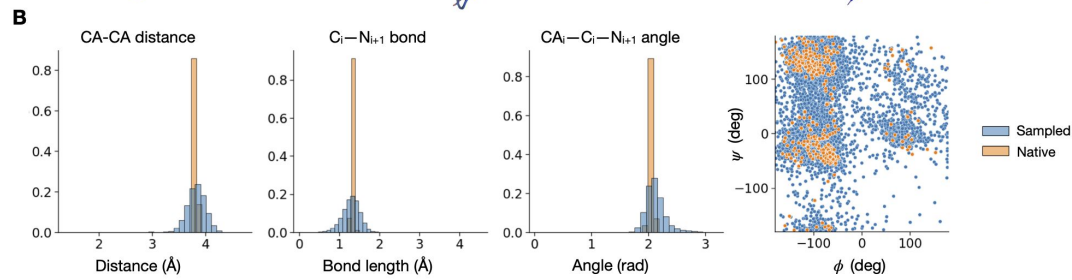
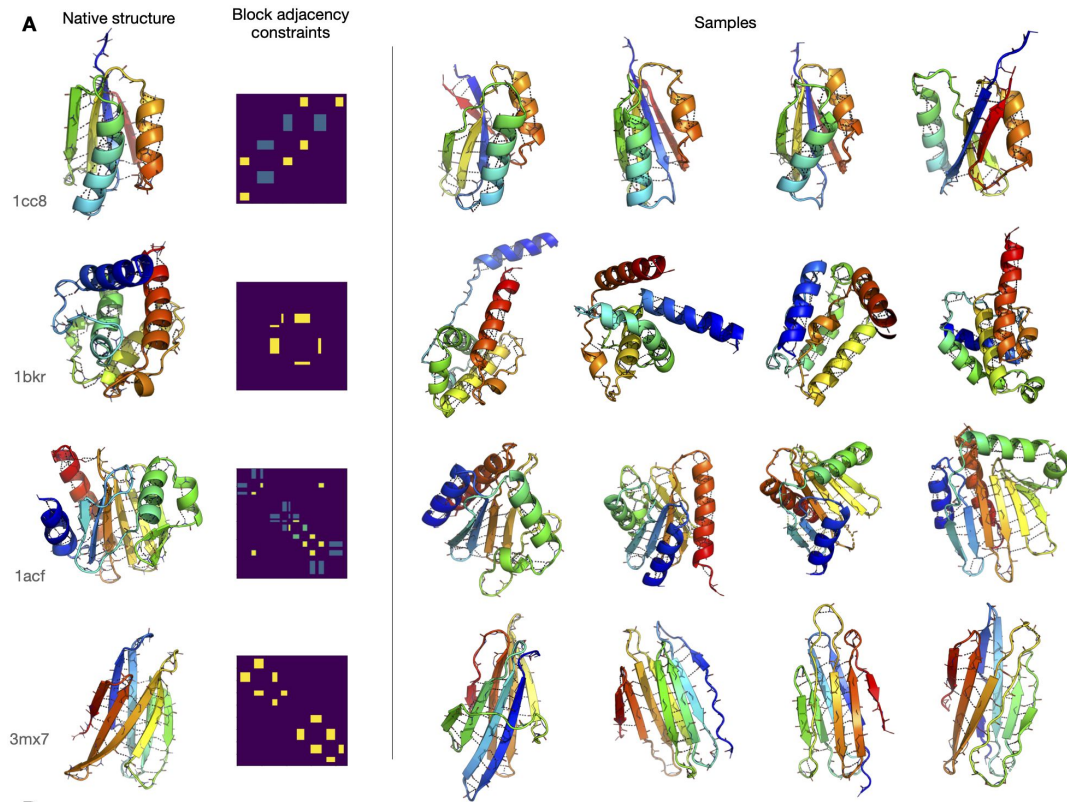
"A blue jay standing on a large basket of rainbow macarons"



"A brain riding a rocketship heading towards the moon"

Example of Stable diffusion





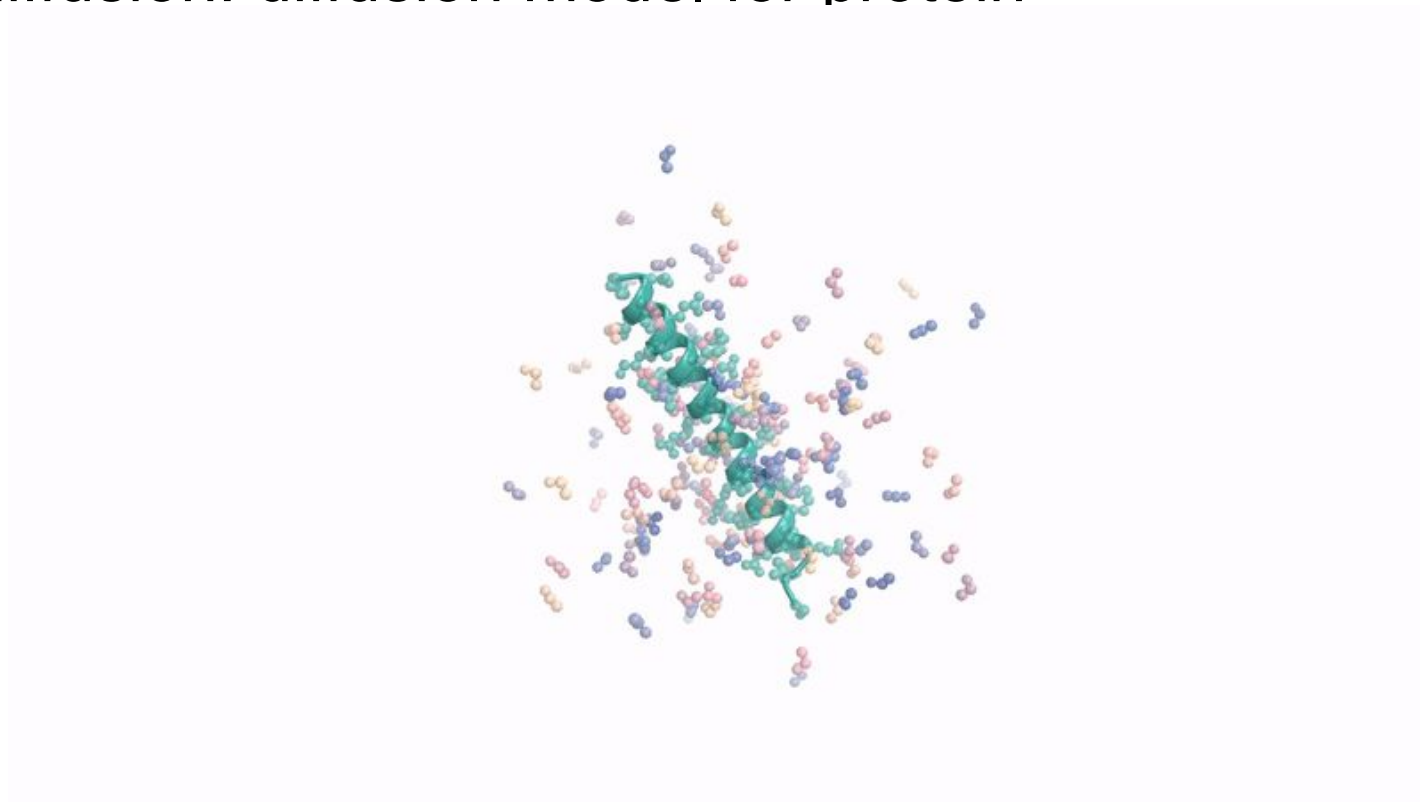
Namrata Anand



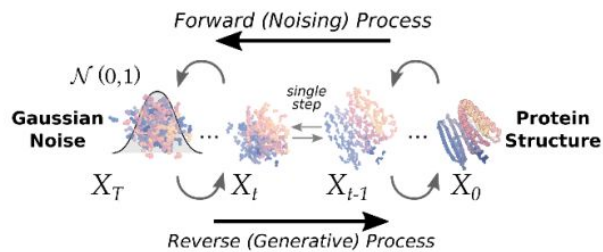
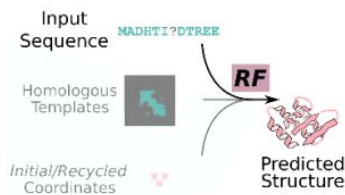
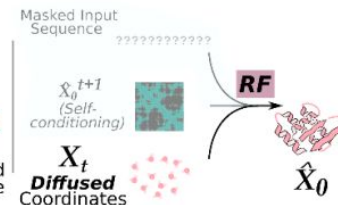
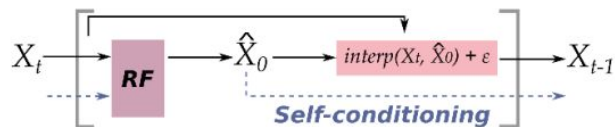
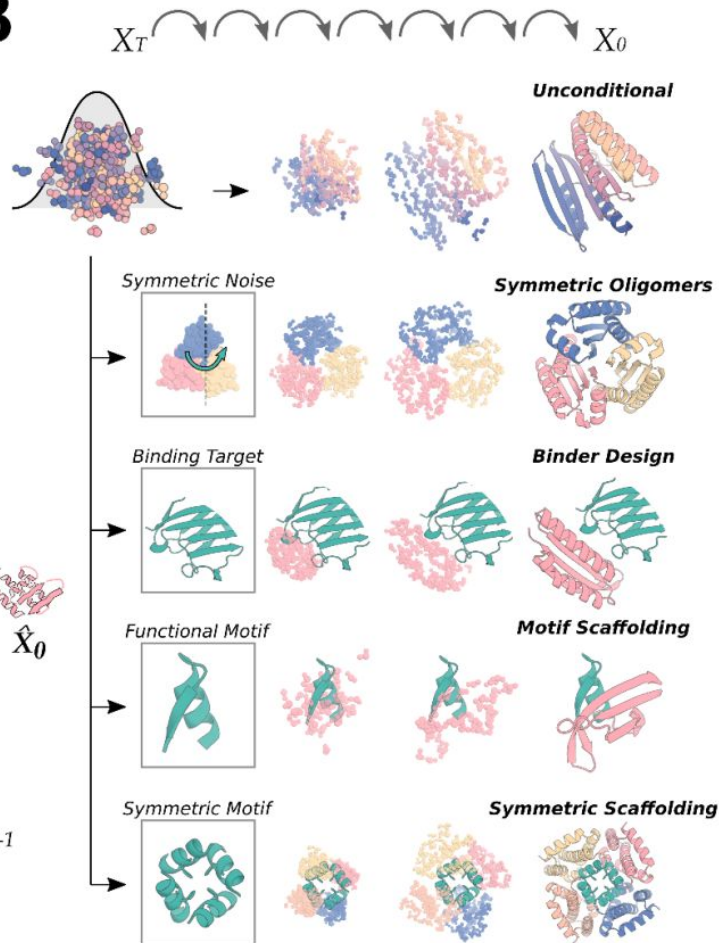
Tudor Achim

(arXiv: [2205.15019](https://arxiv.org/abs/2205.15019))

RFdiffusion: diffusion model for protein



Watson et al (bioRxiv 2023)
INSTITUTE FOR PROTEIN DESIGN, UW

A**Diffusion Model****RoseTTAFold****RFdiffusion****Single RFdiffusion step****B****Figure 1: RFdiffusion is a denoising diffusion probabilistic model with RoseTTAFold**

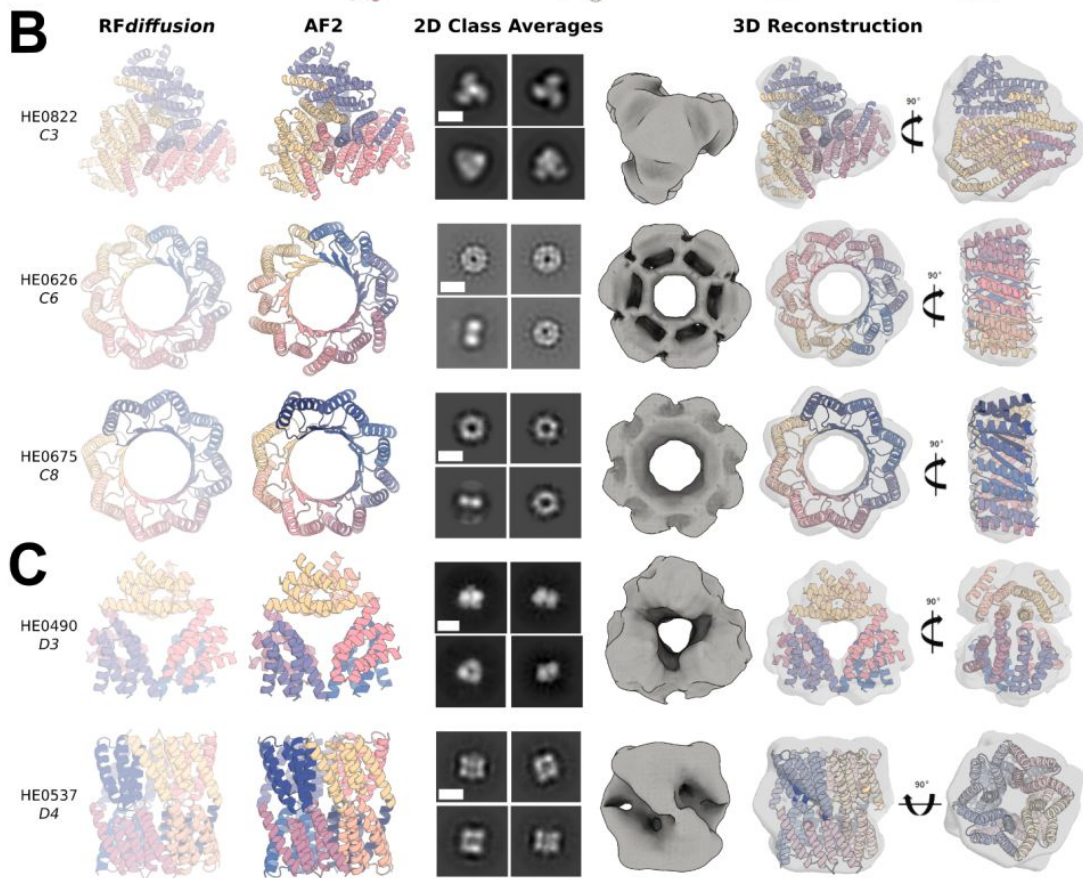
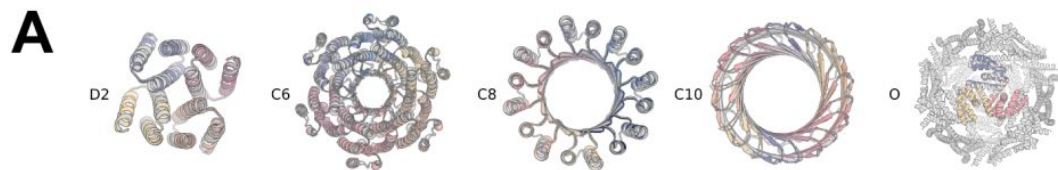
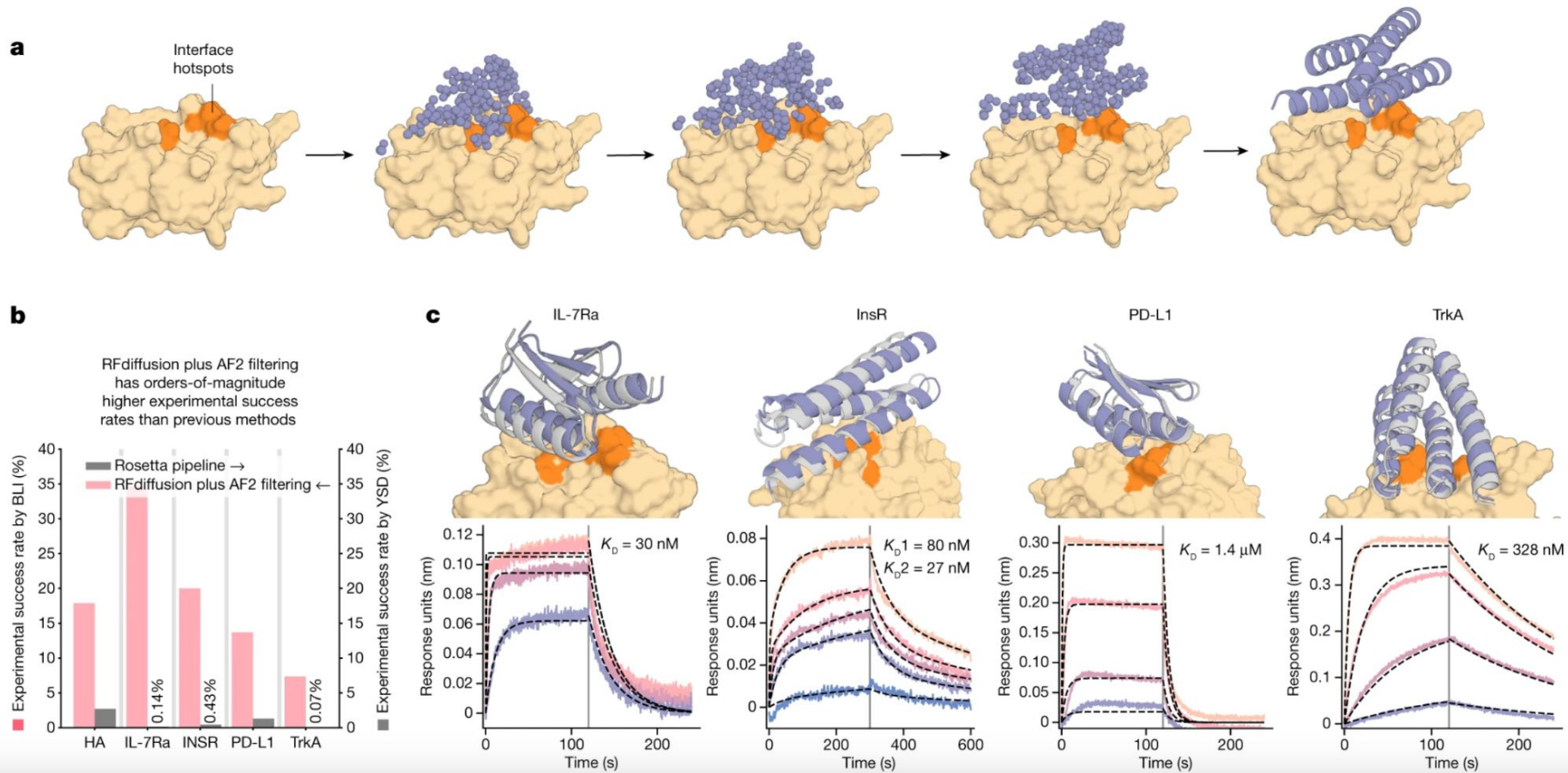


Fig. 6: De novo design of protein-binding proteins.

From: [De novo design of protein structure and function with RFdiffusion](#)



De novo designed proteins neutralize lethal snake venom toxins

<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-024-08393-x>

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Open access

 Check for updates

Susana Vázquez Torres^{1,2,3}, Melisa Benard Valle⁴, Stephen P. Mackessy⁵, Stefanie K. Menzies^{6,7}, Nicholas R. Casewell^{6,7}, Shirin Ahmadi⁴, Nick J. Burtlet⁴, Edin Muratspahić^{1,2}, Isaac Sappington^{1,2,3}, Max D. Overath⁴, Esperanza Rivera-de-Torre⁴, Jann Ledergerber⁴, Andreas H. Laustsen⁴, Kim Boddum⁹, Asim K. Bera^{1,2}, Alex Kang^{1,2}, Evans Brackenbrough^{1,2}, Iara A. Cardoso⁶, Edouard P. Crittenden⁶, Rebecca J. Edge¹⁰, Justin Decarreau^{1,2}, Robert J. Ragotte^{1,2}, Arvind S. Pillai^{1,2}, Mohamad Abedi^{1,2}, Hannah L. Han^{1,2}, Stacey R. Gerben^{1,2}, Analisa Murray^{1,2}, Rebecca Skotheim^{1,2}, Lynda Stuart^{1,2}, Lance Stewart^{1,2}, Thomas J. A. Fryer^{4,11}, Timothy P. Jenkins^{4,12} & David Baker^{1,2,12}✉

Snakebite envenoming remains a devastating and neglected tropical disease, claiming over 100,000 lives annually and causing severe complications and long-lasting disabilities for many more^{1,2}. Three-finger toxins (3FTx) are highly toxic components of elapid snake venoms that can cause diverse pathologies, including severe tissue damage³ and inhibition of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors, resulting in life-threatening neurotoxicity⁴. At present, the only available treatments for snakebites consist of polyclonal antibodies derived from the plasma of immunized animals, which have high cost and limited efficacy against 3FTxs^{5–7}. Here we used deep learning methods to de novo design proteins to bind short-chain and long-chain α -neurotoxins and cytotoxins from the 3FTx family. With limited experimental screening, we obtained protein designs with remarkable thermal stability, high binding affinity and near-atomic-level agreement with the computational models. The designed proteins effectively neutralized all three 3FTx subfamilies in vitro and protected mice from a lethal neurotoxin challenge. Such potent, stable and readily manufacturable toxin-neutralizing proteins could provide the basis for safer, cost-effective and widely accessible next-generation antivenom therapeutics. Beyond snakebite, our results highlight how computational design could help democratize therapeutic discovery, particularly in resource-limited settings, by substantially reducing costs and resource requirements for the development of therapies for neglected tropical diseases.



Live Demo

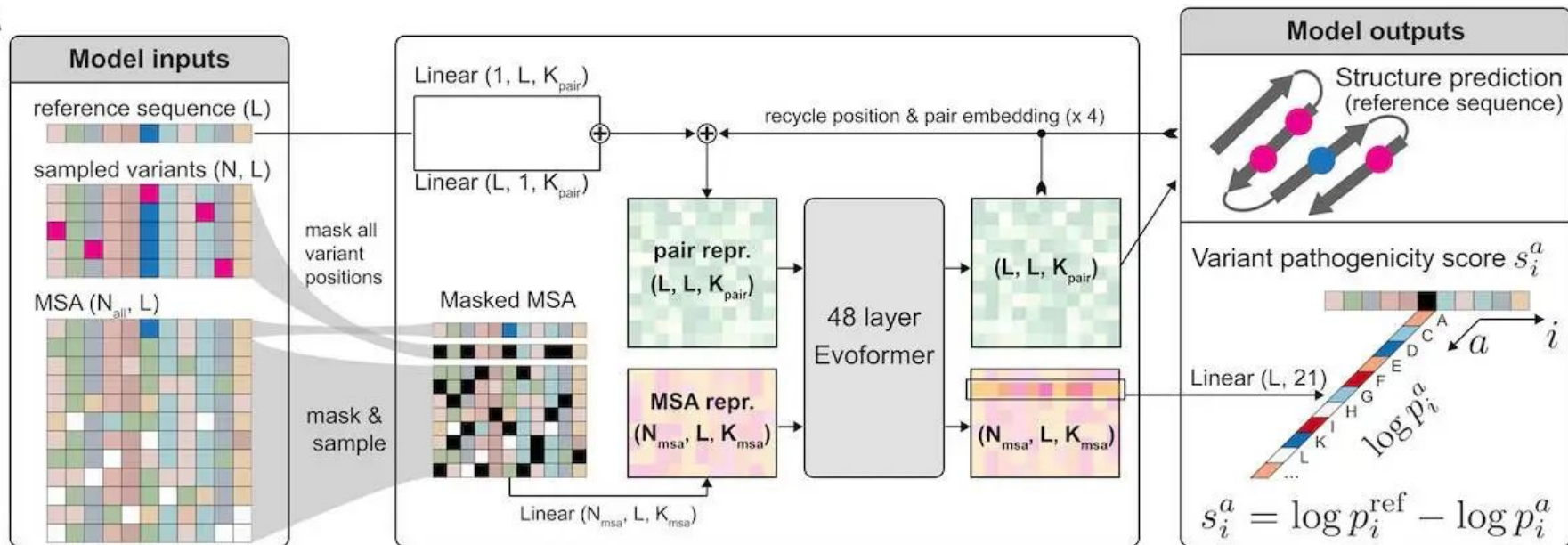
- [PDB](#)
- [uniprot](#)
- [ColabFold](#)
- [ProteinMPNN](#)
- [RFdiffusion](#)



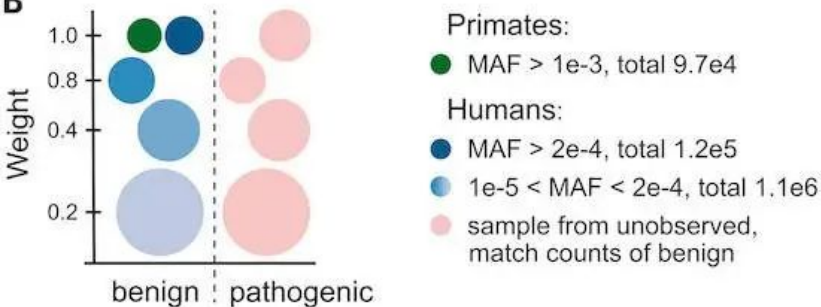
AlphaMissense

AlphaFold Based Tool to
Predict Mutations Causing
Genetic Diseases

A



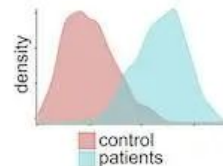
B



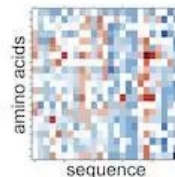
C



Known benign and pathogenic variants (ClinVar)



De novo variants of rare disease

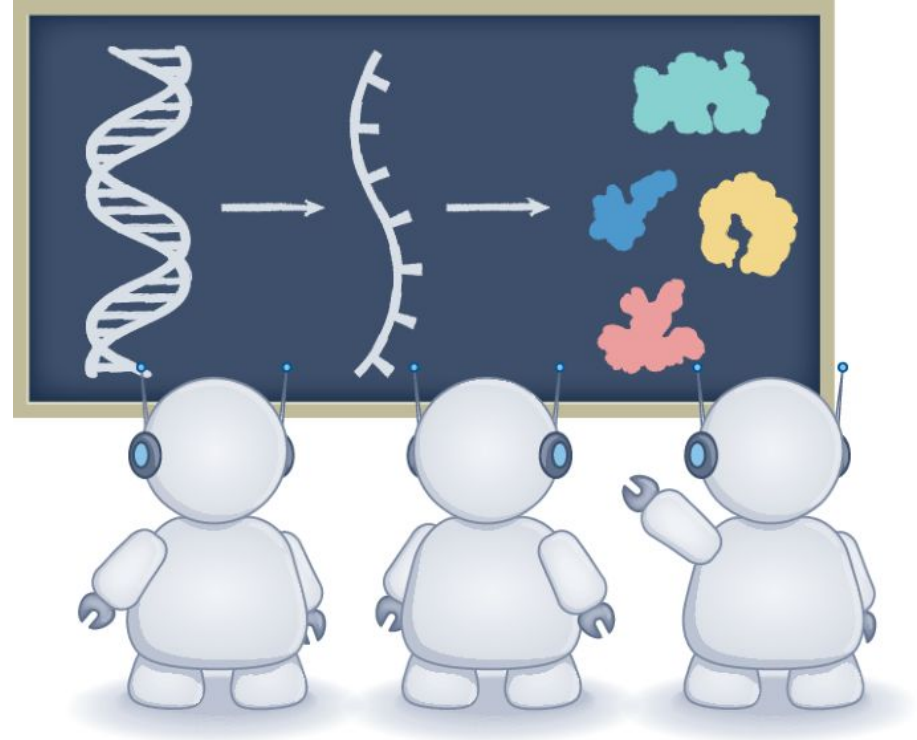


Multiplexed assay of variant effect (ProteinGym)

(Jun Cheng et al., Science 2023)

Where are we at AI for Biology?

- Where are we at for drug discovery?
- Where are we at for protein dynamics?
- Where are we at for genetics?

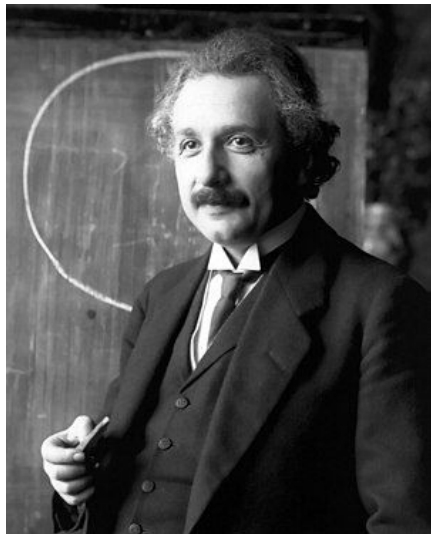


Some useful Resources

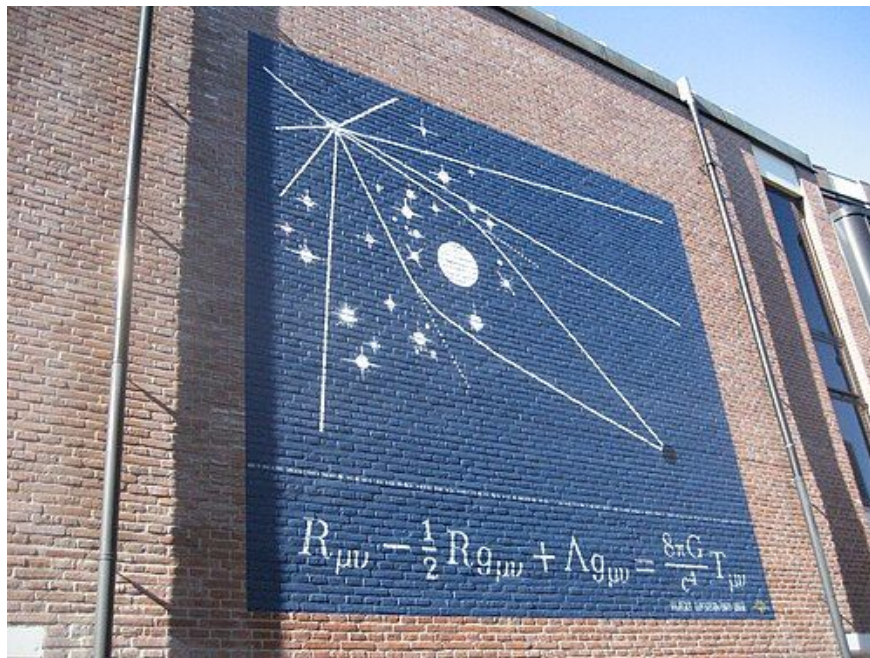
- [PDB](#)
- [uniprot](#)
- [ColabFold](#)
- [ProteinMPNN](#)
- [RFdiffusion](#)
- [Alphafold server](#)
- [Foldseek](#)
- [Kaggle](#)
- [AlphafoldDB](#)



Image Credit: Event Horizon Telescope Collaboration

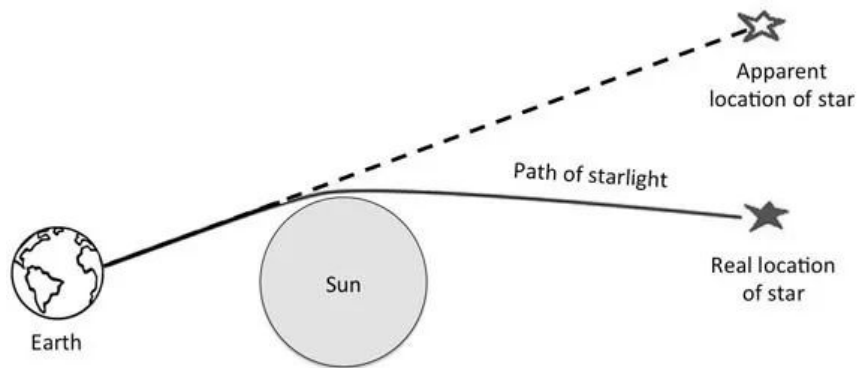


Albert Einstein





Arthur Eddington



Eddington experiment

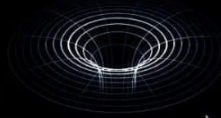


Karl Schwarzschild

SCHWARZSCHILD METRIC

describes the shape of spacetime around a spherical source, where $g_{\mu\nu}$ is the spacetime metric:

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} g_{tt} & g_{tr} & g_{t\theta} & g_{t\varphi} \\ g_{rt} & g_{rr} & g_{r\theta} & g_{r\varphi} \\ g_{\theta t} & g_{\theta r} & g_{\theta\theta} & g_{\theta\varphi} \\ g_{\varphi t} & g_{\varphi r} & g_{\varphi\theta} & g_{\varphi\varphi} \end{pmatrix}$$



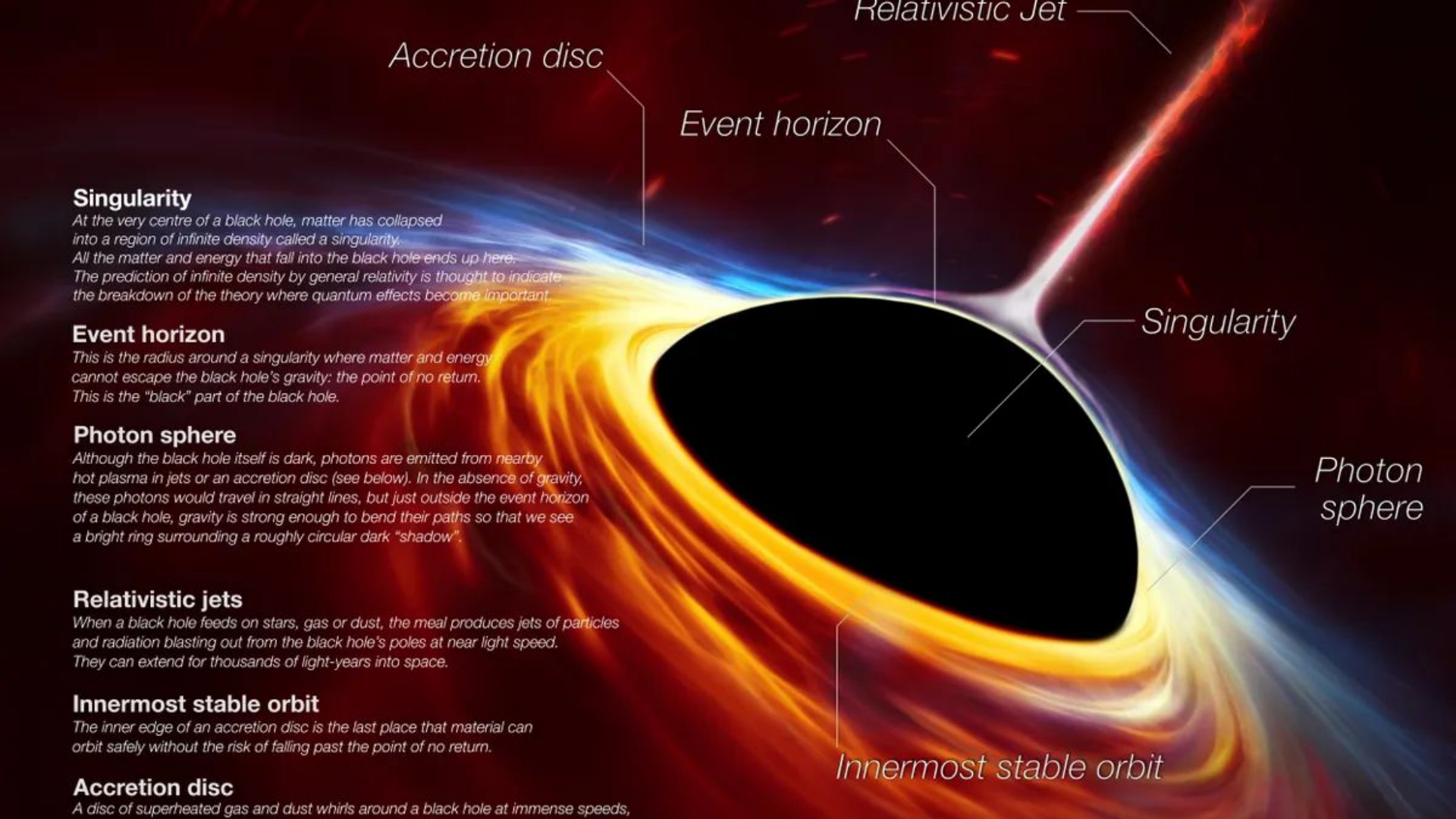
$$= \begin{pmatrix} -\left(1 - \frac{2G_N M}{c^2 r}\right) & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \left(1 - \frac{2G_N M}{c^2 r}\right)^{-1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & r^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & r^2 \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

coordinates: $(x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3) = (ct, r, \theta, \varphi)$



Karl Schwarzschild

Mathematics Learning page
By Mamun-Or-Rashid



Accretion disc

Relativistic Jet

Event horizon

Singularity

At the very centre of a black hole, matter has collapsed into a region of infinite density called a singularity.

All the matter and energy that fall into the black hole ends up here.

The prediction of infinite density by general relativity is thought to indicate the breakdown of the theory where quantum effects become important.

Event horizon

This is the radius around a singularity where matter and energy cannot escape the black hole's gravity: the point of no return.

This is the "black" part of the black hole.

Photon sphere

Although the black hole itself is dark, photons are emitted from nearby hot plasma in jets or an accretion disc (see below). In the absence of gravity, these photons would travel in straight lines, but just outside the event horizon of a black hole, gravity is strong enough to bend their paths so that we see a bright ring surrounding a roughly circular dark "shadow".

Relativistic jets

When a black hole feeds on stars, gas or dust, the meal produces jets of particles and radiation blasting out from the black hole's poles at near light speed.

They can extend for thousands of light-years into space.

Innermost stable orbit

The inner edge of an accretion disc is the last place that material can orbit safely without the risk of falling past the point of no return.

Accretion disc

A disc of superheated gas and dust whirls around a black hole at immense speeds,

Singularity

Photon sphere

Innermost stable orbit

SIZE COMPARISON:
THE M87 BLACK HOLE
AND
OUR SOLAR SYSTEM

EHT BLACK HOLE IMAGE
SOURCE: NSF



~ 40 uas

HST best resolution ~ 0.04 as
ALMA best resolution ~ 0.01 as

Black Hole Observation

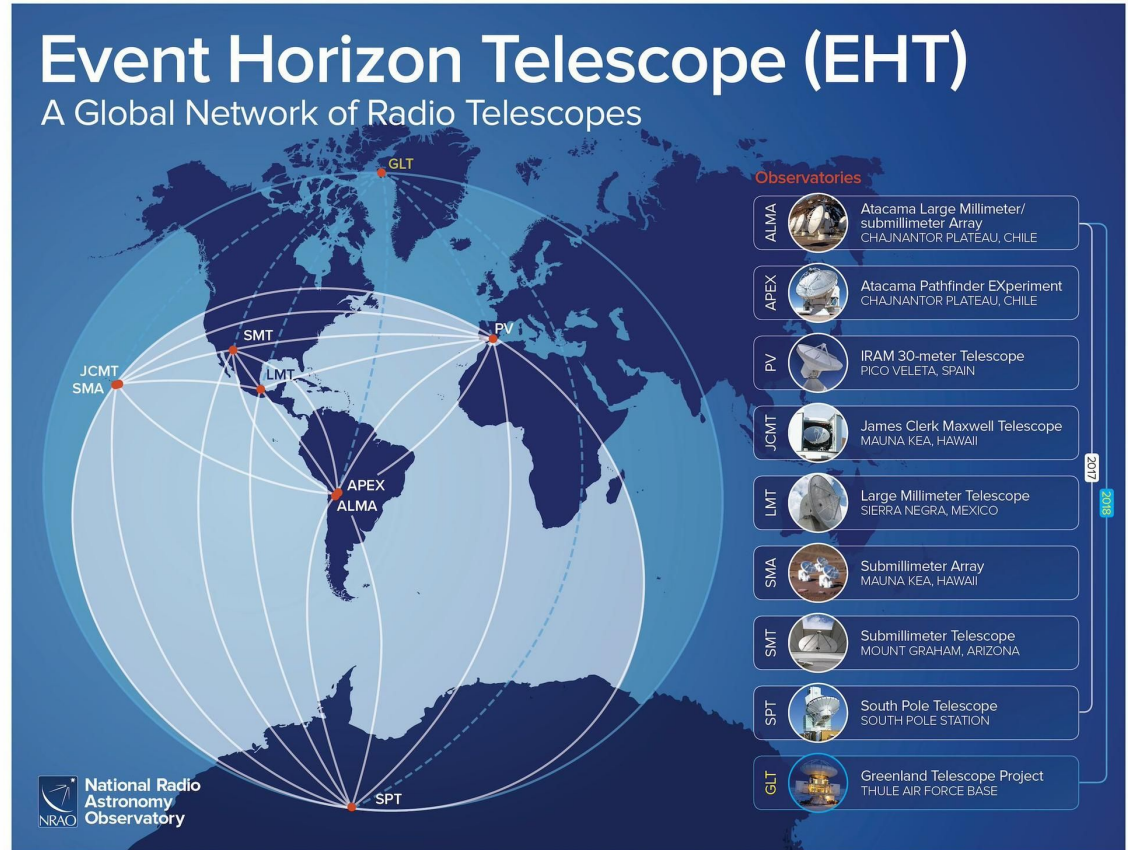
- Wavelength (230GHz, ~1.3mm) ✓
- Right size of the telescope ~ (13 Million meters = diameter of the earth)



ALMA Telescope Credits: ESO

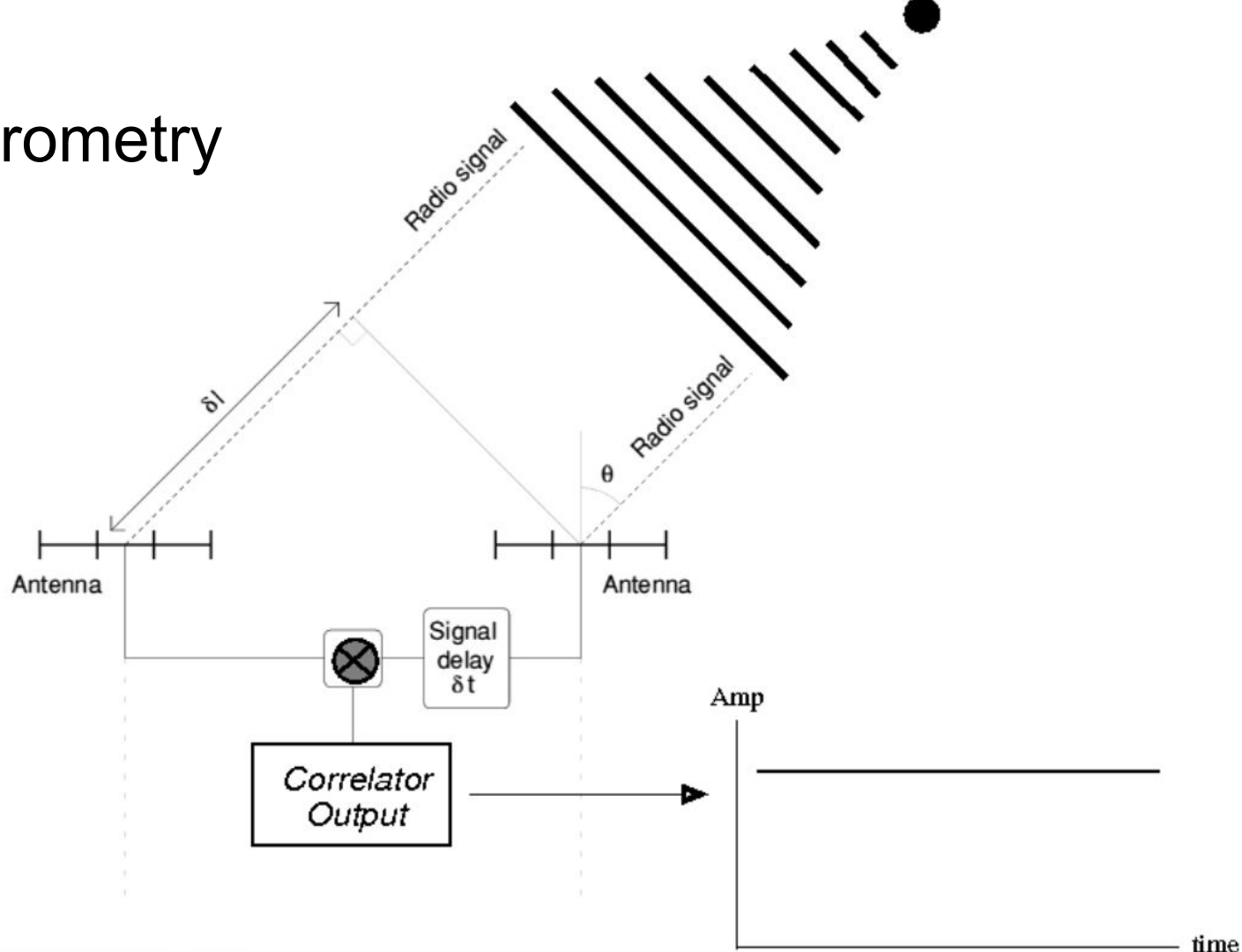
Black Hole Observation

- Wavelength (230GHz, ~1.3mm) ✓
- Right size of the telescope ~ (13 Million meters = diameter of the earth) ✓



Credits: EHT

Radio Interferometry



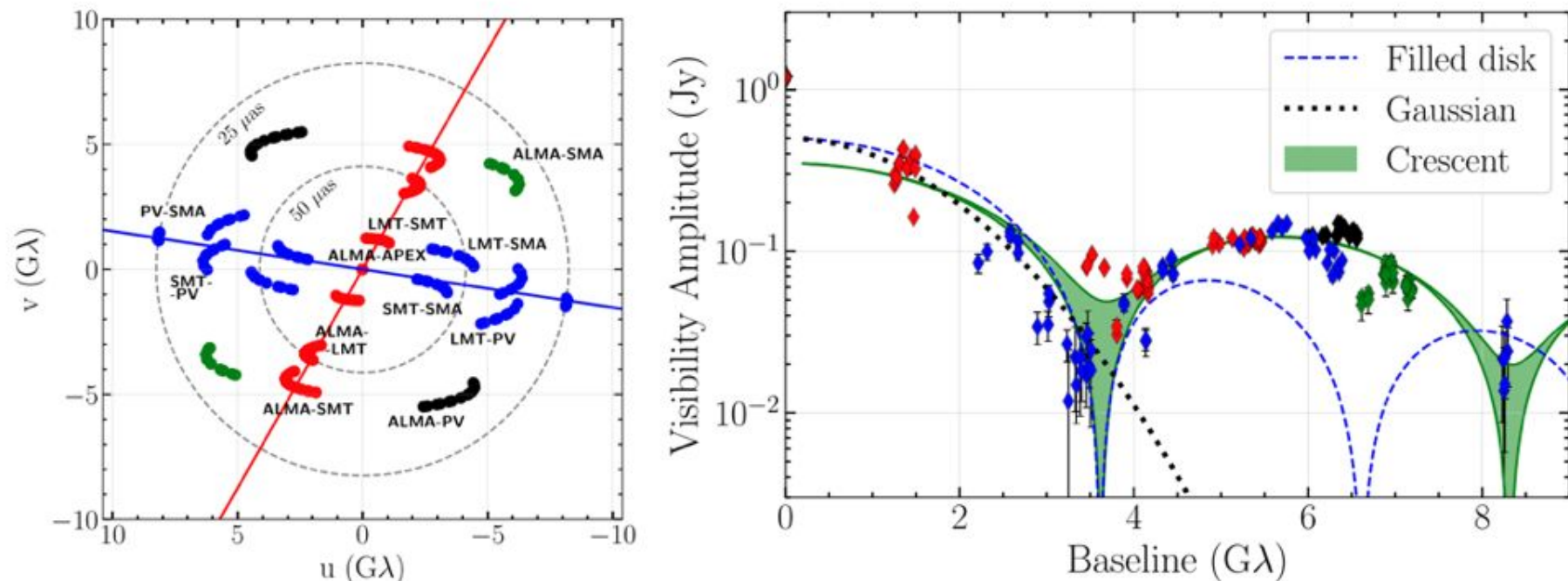


Figure 1. (u, v) -coverage (left panel) and visibility amplitudes (right panel) of M87 for the high-band April 11 data. The (u, v) -coverage has two primary orientations, east–west in blue and north–south in red, with two diagonal fillers at large baselines in green and black. Note that the Large Millimeter Telescope (LMT) and the Submillimeter Telescope (SMT) participate in both orientations, and that the LMT amplitudes are subject to significant gain errors. There is evidence for substantial depressions in the visibility amplitudes at ~ 3.4 G λ and ~ 8.3 G λ . The various lines in the right panel show the expected behavior of (dotted line) a Gaussian, (dashed line) a filled disk, and (green area) a crescent shape along different orientations. The image of M87 does not appear to be consistent with a filled disk or a Gaussian.



Machine Learning

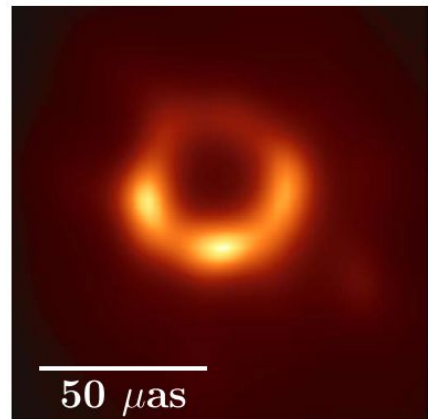


Traditional Method

THE ASTROPHYSICAL JOURNAL LETTERS, 875:L4 (52pp), 2019 April 10

The EHT Collaboration et al.

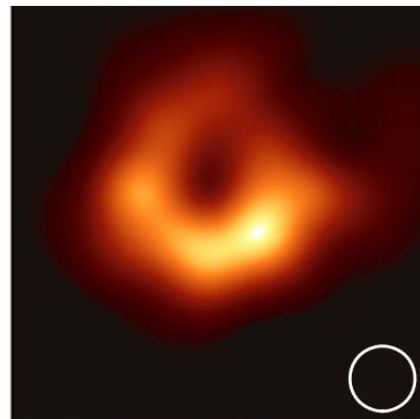
Team 1 (RML)



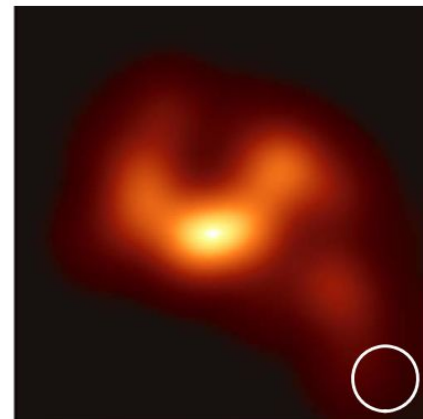
Team 2 (RML)



Team 3 (CLEAN)



Team 4 (CLEAN)



Brightness Temperature (10^9 K)

Figure 4. The first EHT images of M87, blindly reconstructed by four independent imaging teams using an early, engineering release of data from the April 11 observations. These images all used a single polarization (LCP) rather than Stokes I , which is used in the remainder of this Letter. Images from Teams 1 and 2 used RML methods (no restoring beam); images from Teams 3 and 4 used CLEAN (restored with a circular $20 \mu\text{as}$ beam, shown in the lower right). The images all show similar morphology, although the reconstructions show significant differences in brightness temperature because of different assumptions regarding the total compact flux density (see Table 2) and because restoring beams are applied only to CLEAN images.

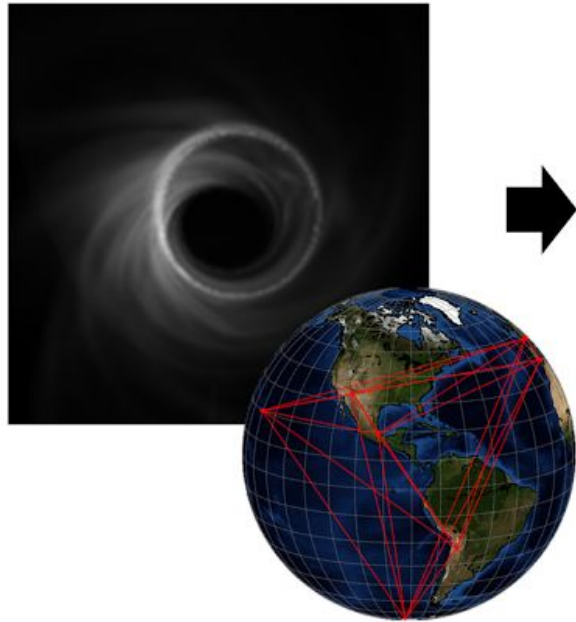
Image reconstruction (for EHT)

Regularized Maximum Likelihood (RML)

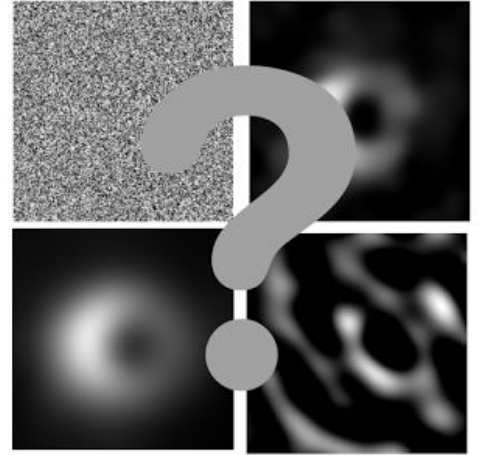
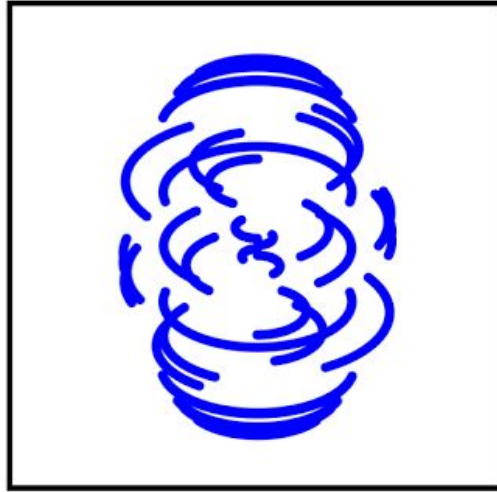
- Used for reconstructing M87* image for EHT
- Prior and forward model (image \rightarrow visibility) needed
- Combining with **Normalizing Flow** \rightarrow **Deep Probabilistic Imaging**

Clean (Deconvolution)

- Used for reconstructing M87* image for EHT
- Also used for most of the Images Reconstruction for Radio Interferometry
- No prior “hard coded”, but require lots of human expertise and experience on hyperparameter tuning...
- Hard to evaluate uncertainty

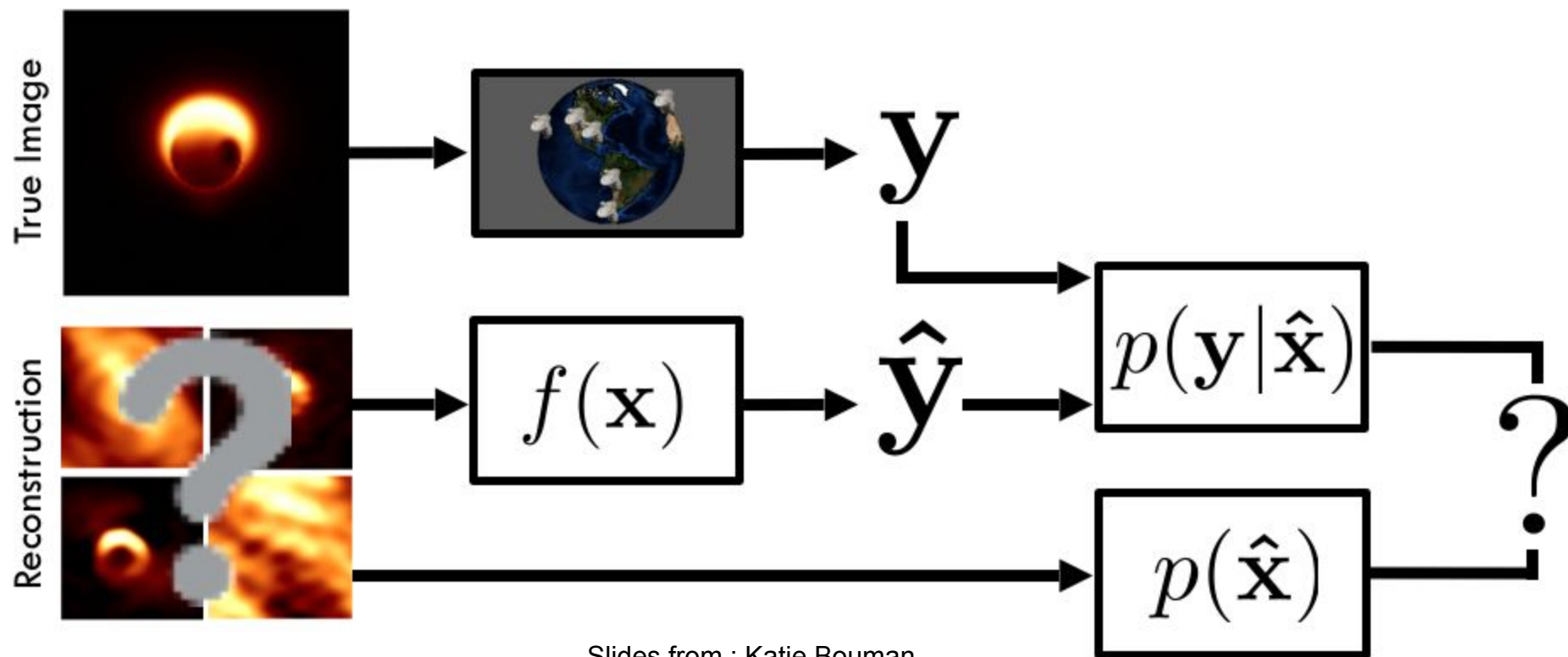


Measurements

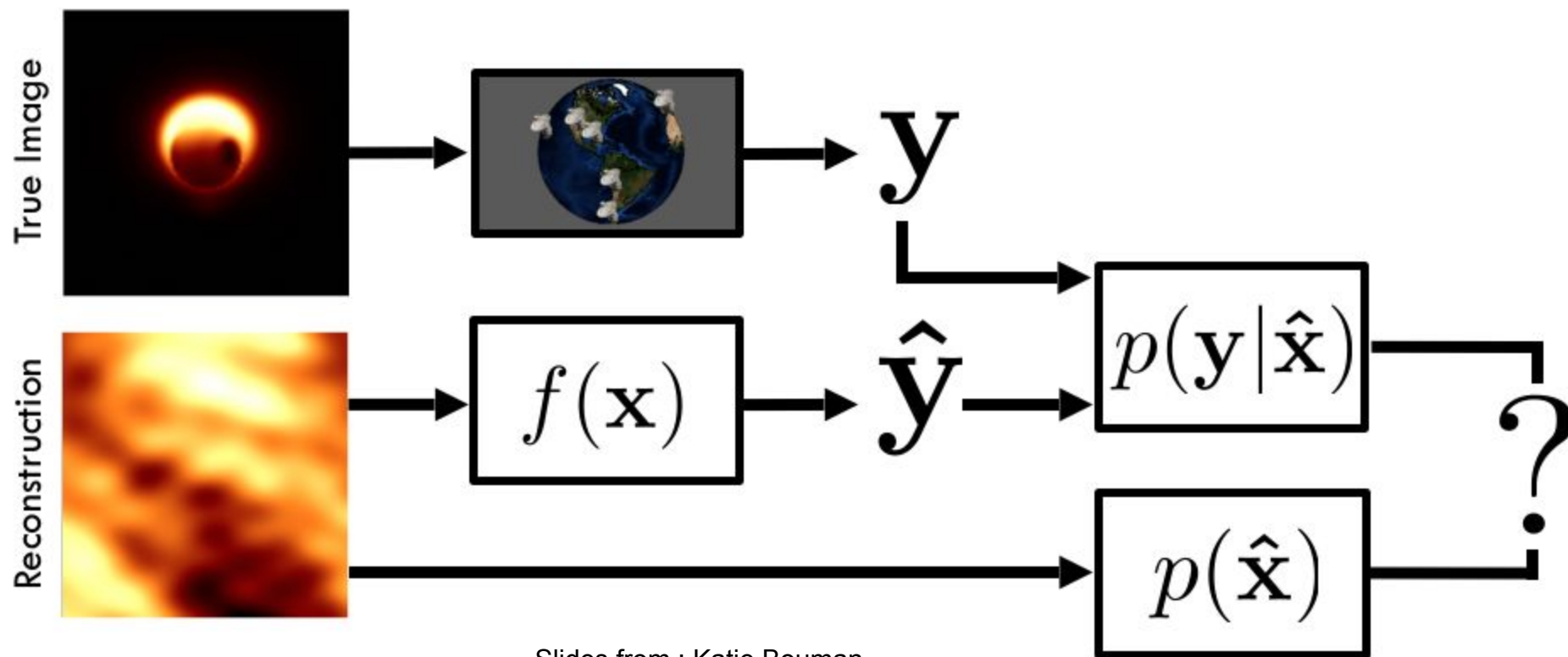


Infinite Number
of Possibilities

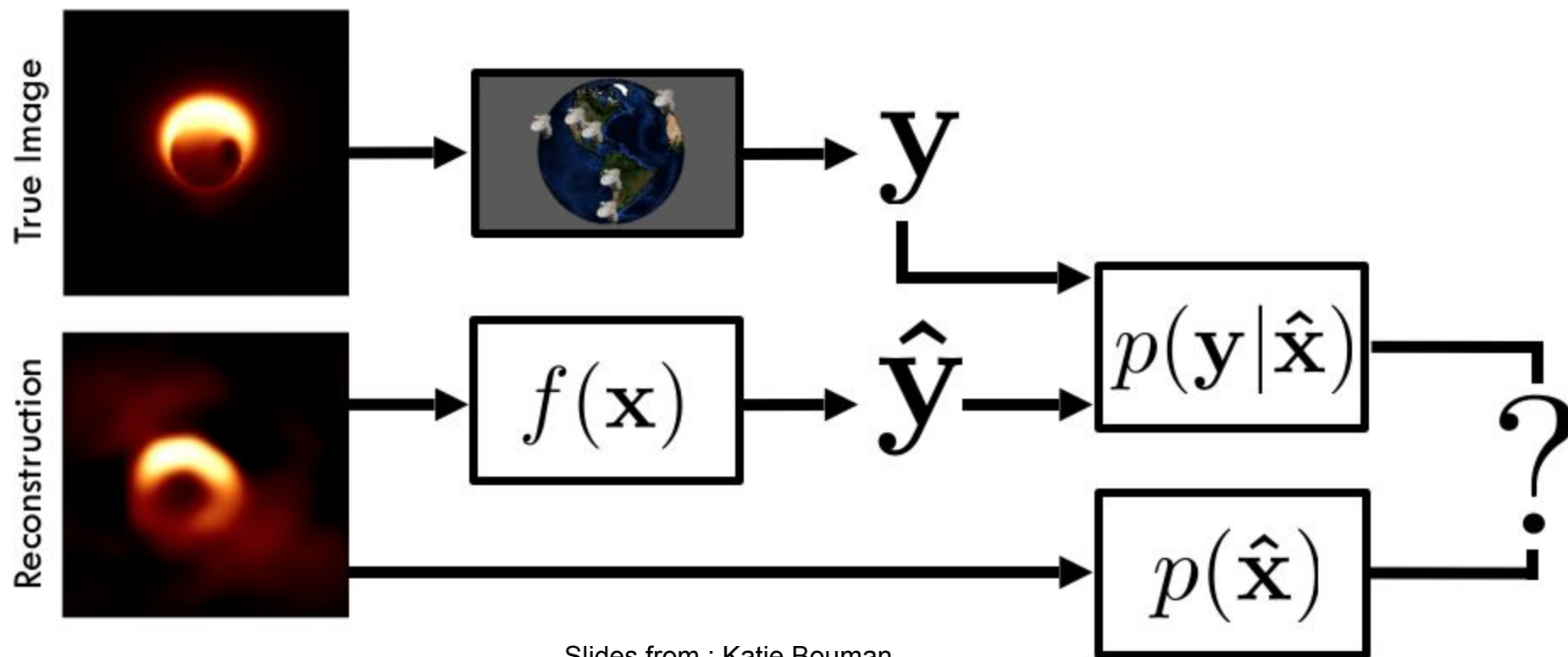
Bayesian Model Inversion



Bayesian Model Inversion



Bayesian Model Inversion



Best Image



$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{\text{MAP}} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{x}} [\log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) + \log p(\mathbf{x})]$$

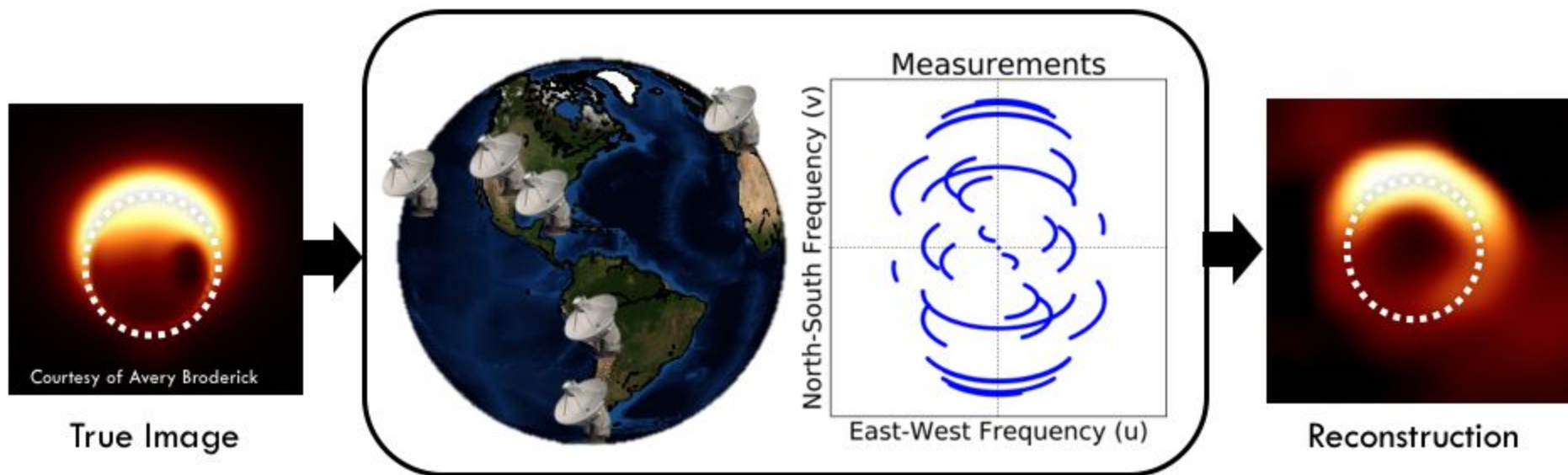


Likelihood



Prior

Simulated EHT Image Reconstruction

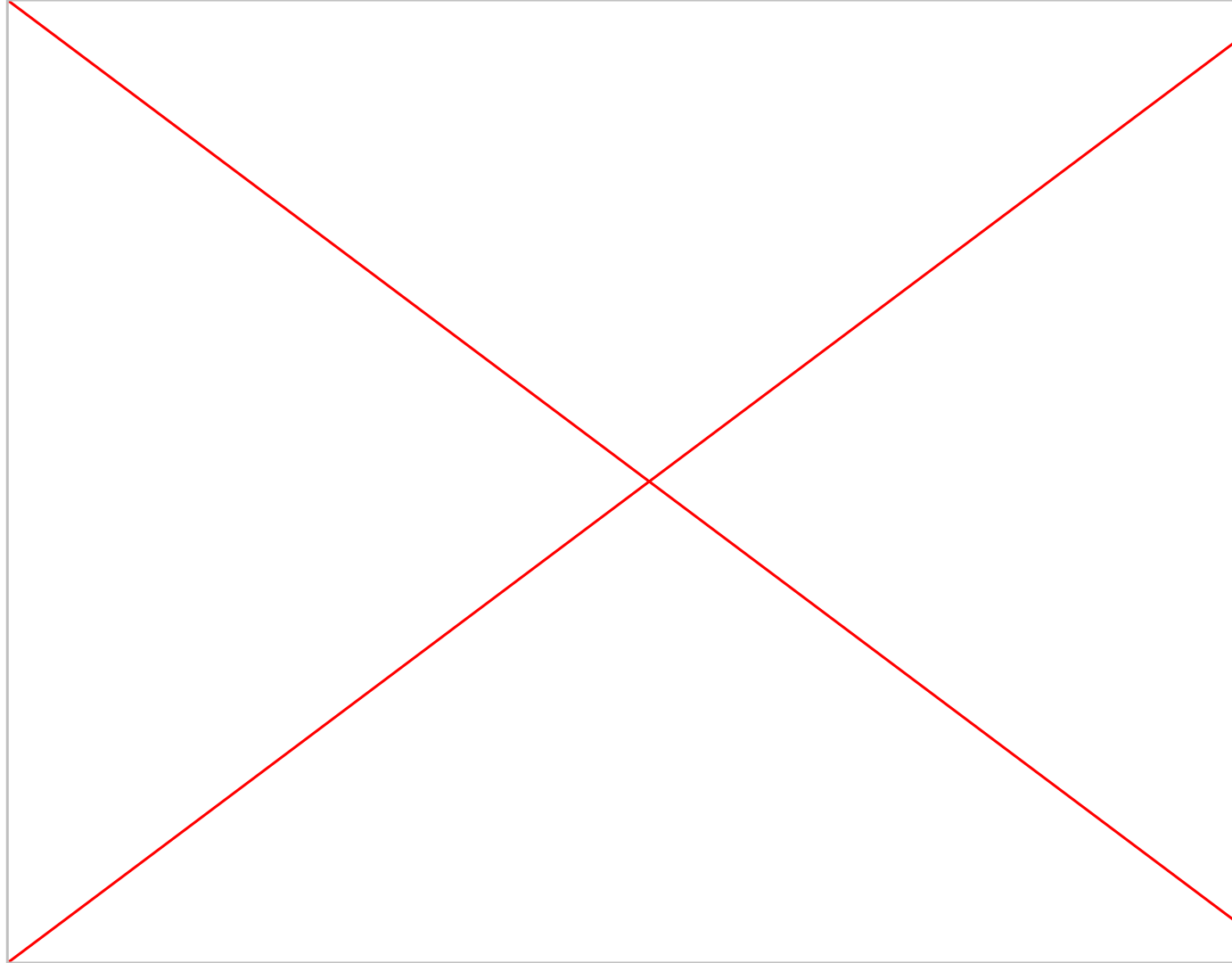


EHT-imaging Demo

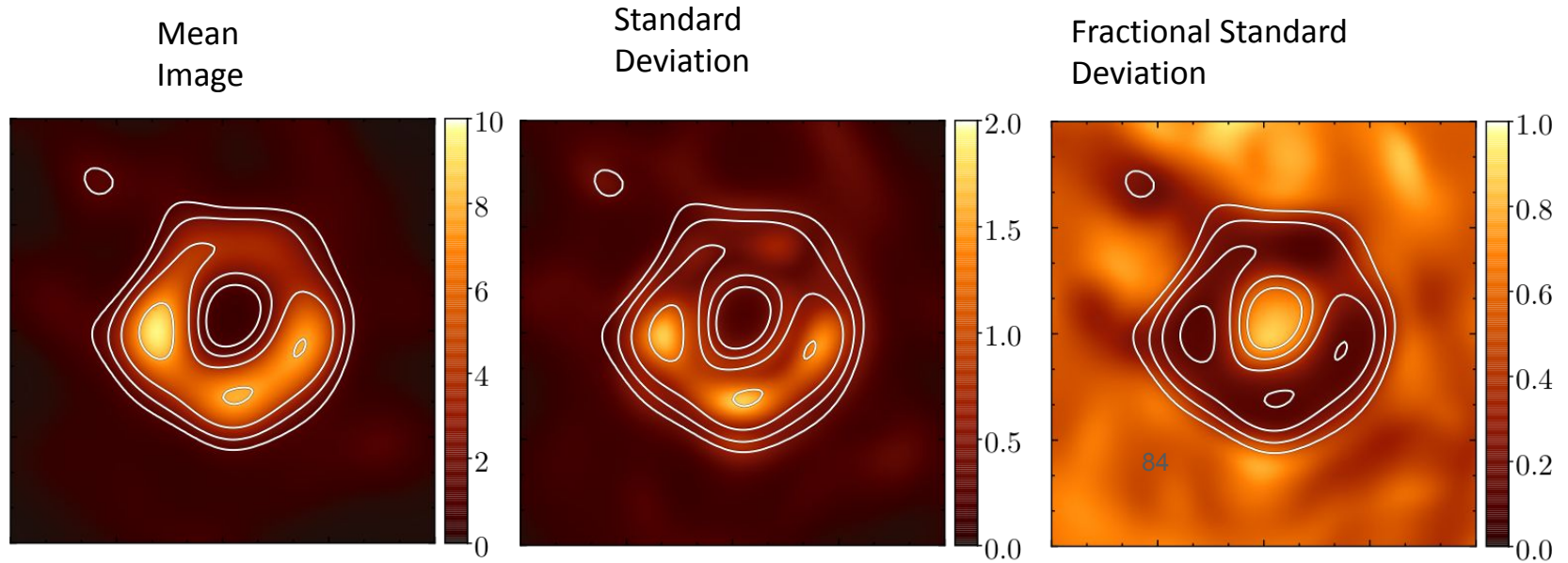
<https://github.com/achael>



Andrew Chael
(Princeton)

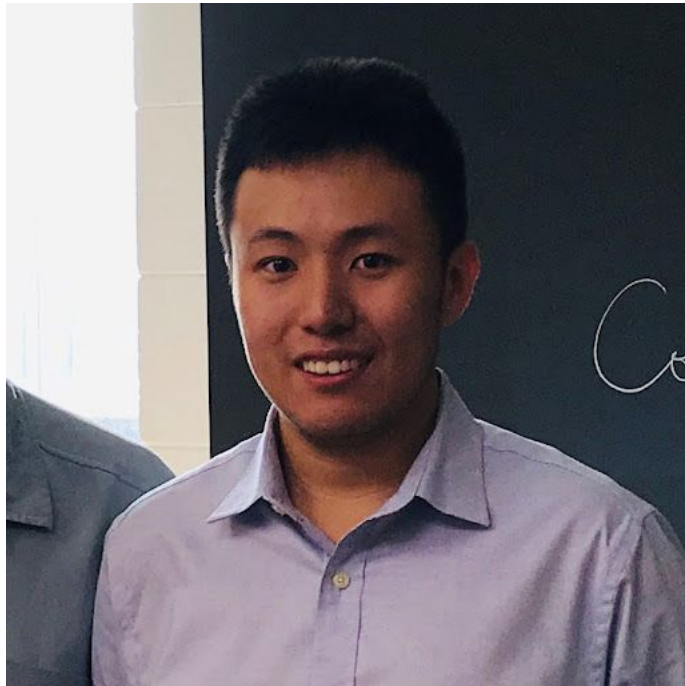


Uncertainty quantification is important!

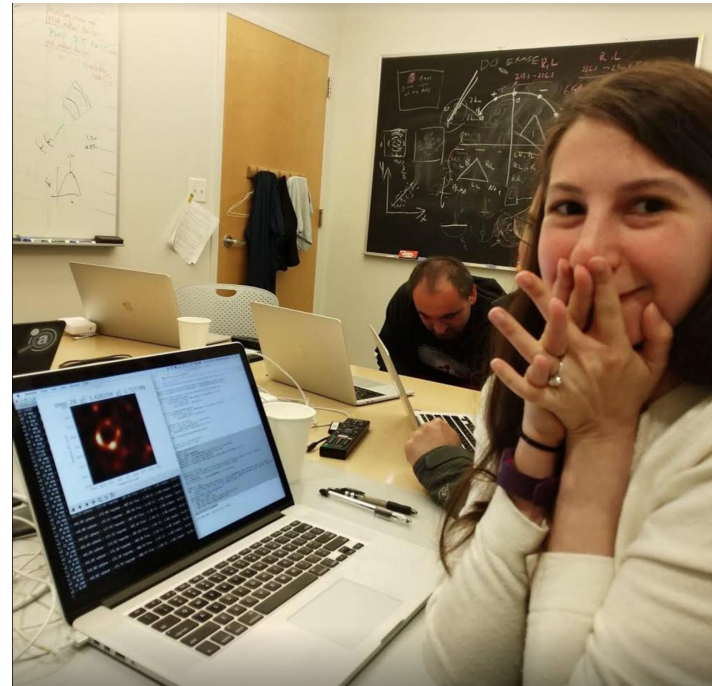


from [M87 Paper IV](#)

Deep Probabilistic Imaging: Uncertainty Quantification and Multi-modal Solution Characterization for Computational Imaging



He Sun (Caltech)



Katie Bouman (Caltech)

Deep Probabilistic Imaging

Big question: Given observable \mathbf{y} , what's the distribution of image \mathbf{x} ?



THE ASTROPHYSICAL JOURNAL LETTERS, 875:L6 (44pp), 2019 April 10

The EHT Collaboration et al.

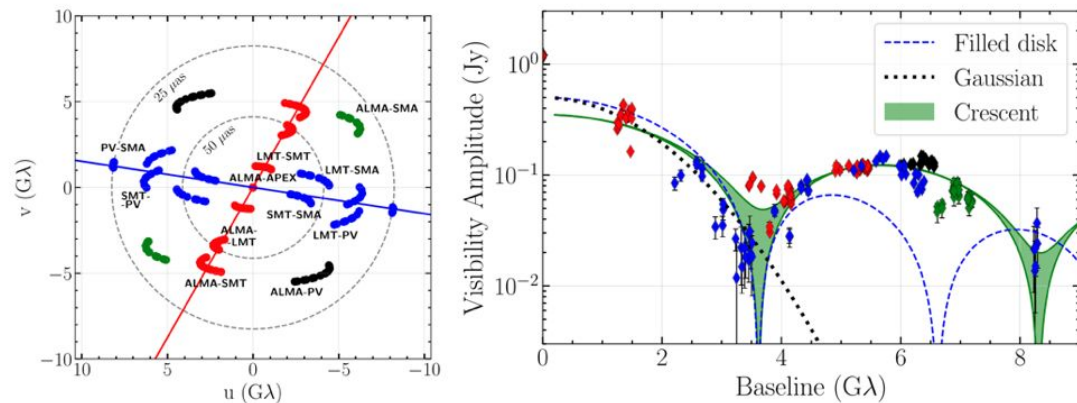
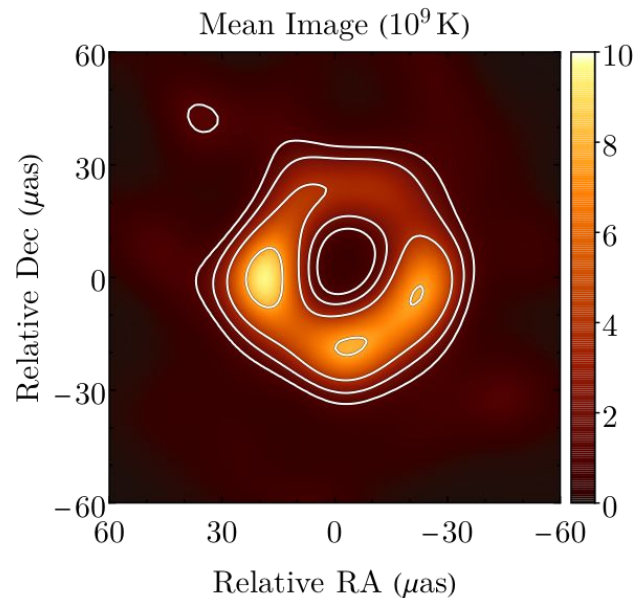


Figure 1. (u, v) -coverage (left panel) and visibility amplitudes (right panel) of M87 for the high-band April 11 data. The (u, v) -coverage has two primary orientations, east–west in blue and north–south in red, with two diagonal fillers at large baselines in green and black. Note that the Large Millimeter Telescope (LMT) and the Submillimeter Telescope (SMT) participate in both orientations, and that the LMT amplitudes are subject to significant gain errors. There is evidence for substantial depressions in the visibility amplitudes at $\sim 3.4 G\lambda$ and $\sim 8.3 G\lambda$. The various lines in the right panel show the expected behavior of (dotted line) a Gaussian, (dashed line) a filled disk, and (green area) a crescent shape along different orientations. The image of M87 does not appear to be consistent with a filled disk or a Gaussian.



Regularized Maximum Likelihood (RML)

Best Image

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{\text{MAP}} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{x}} [\log p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y})]$$
$$= \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{x}} [\underbrace{\log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})}_{\text{Likelihood}} + \underbrace{\log p(\mathbf{x})}_{\text{Prior}}]$$

Posterior Exploration

$$x \sim p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y})$$

The posterior can be sampled directly using Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method.

“Hybrid Very Long Baseline Interferometry Imaging and Modeling with themis”, ApJ 2020

Posterior Exploration

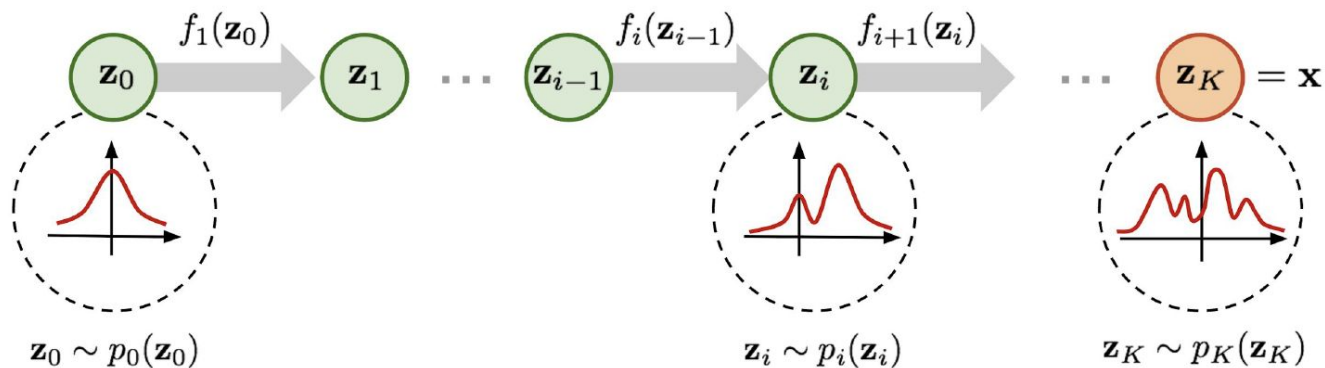
$$x \sim p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y})$$

Or we could use a **Neural Networks** (Normalizing Flow)!

Introduction to Normalizing Flow

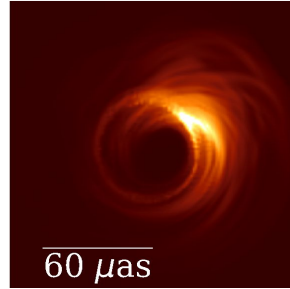
Normalizing Flows

A normalizing flow transforms a simple distribution into a complex one by applying a sequence of invertible transformation functions.

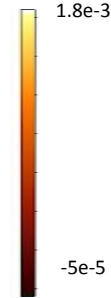
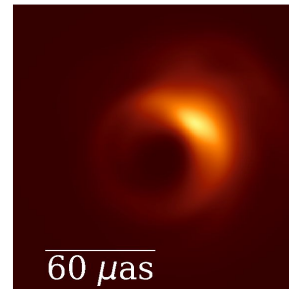


Characterizing Uncertainty & Multimodal Solutions

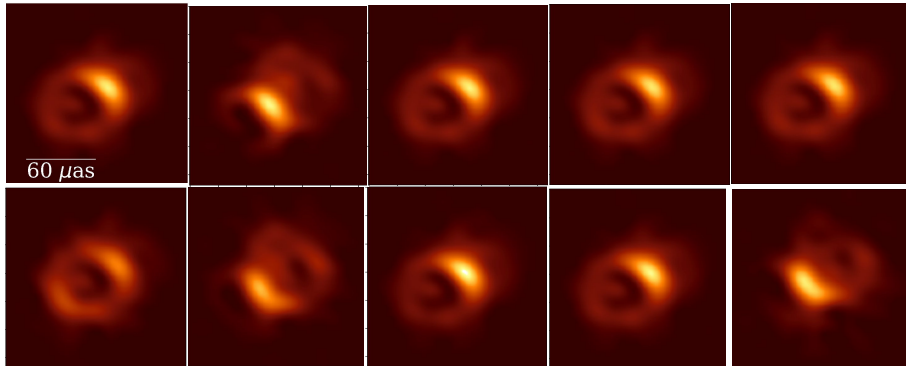
Truth



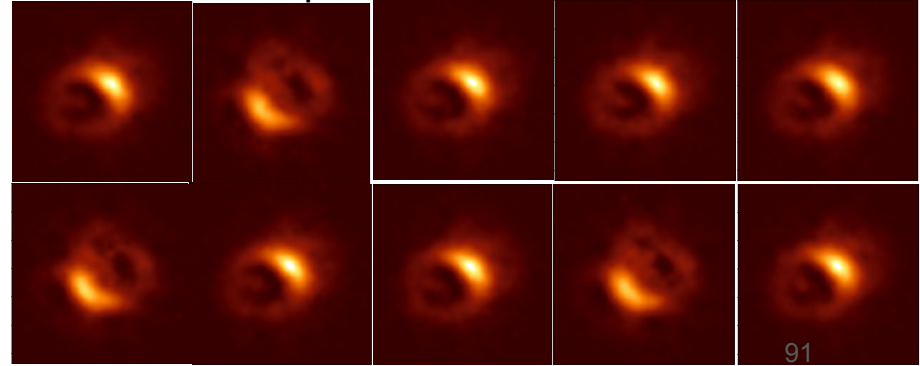
Blurred Truth



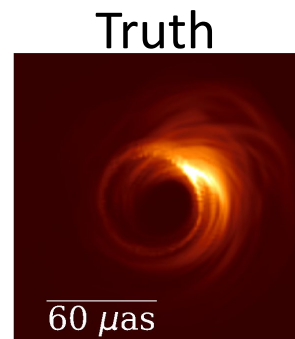
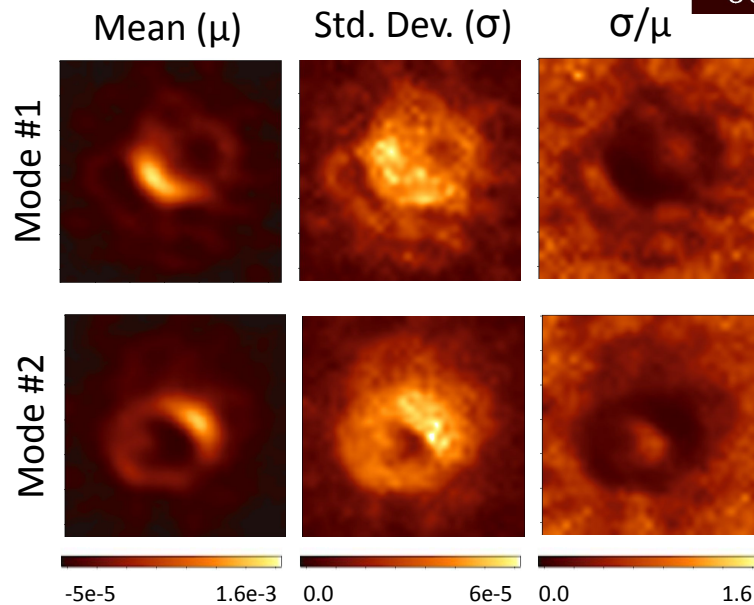
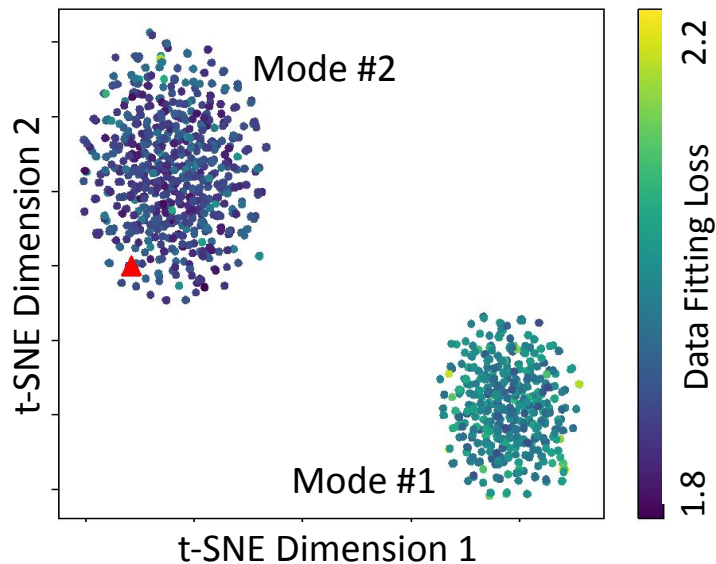
RML results from different initializations



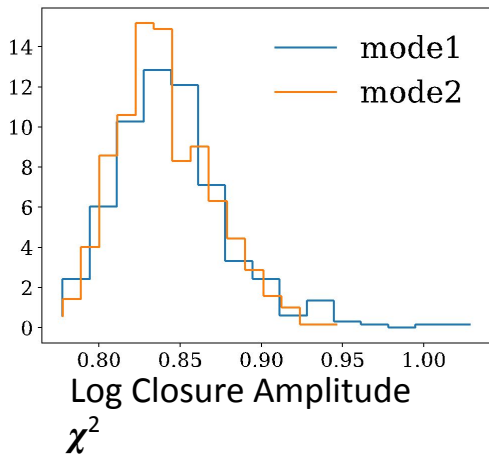
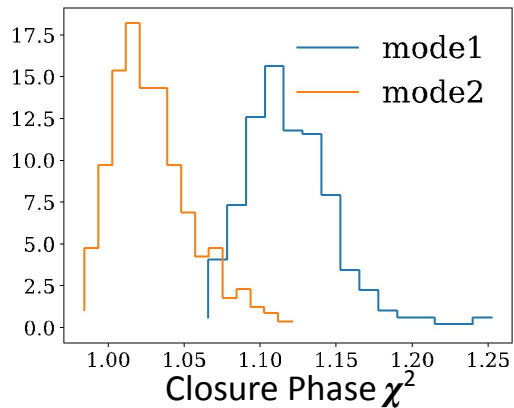
DPI samples from learned network



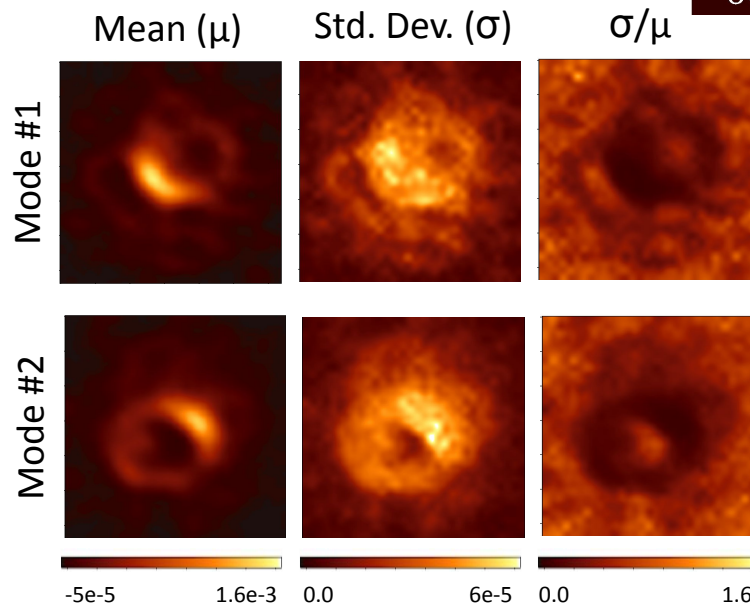
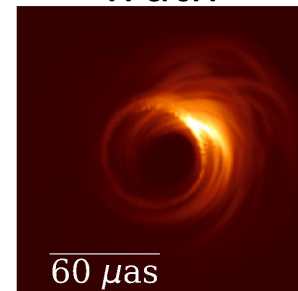
Exploring the Posterior



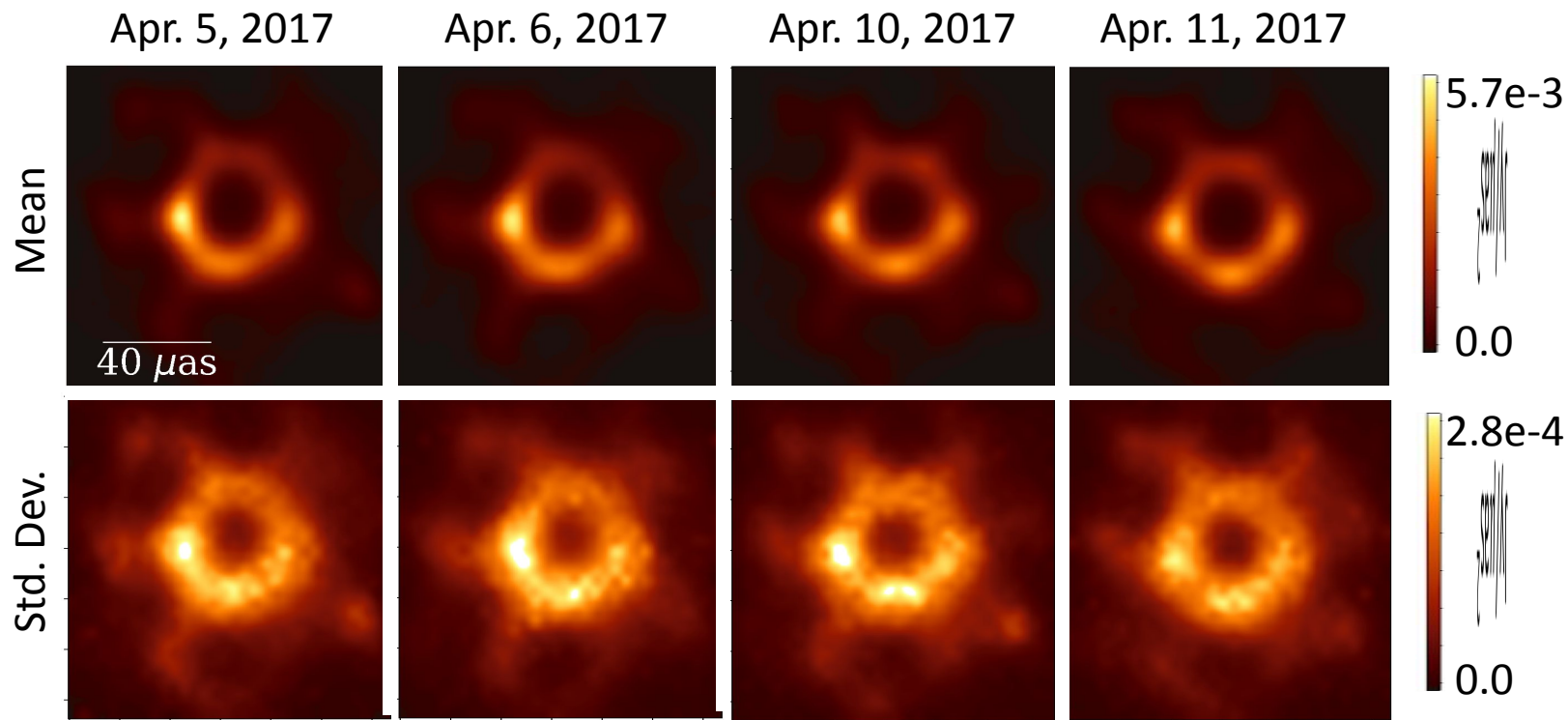
Exploring the Posterior



Truth



Real M87 results: closure quantities + vis amp + MEM+TV2



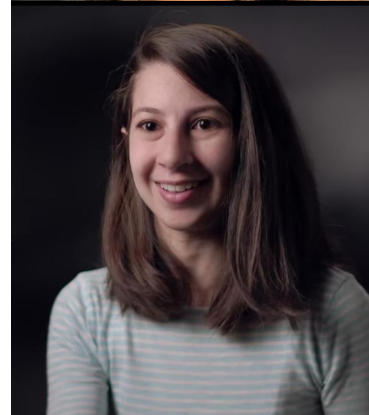
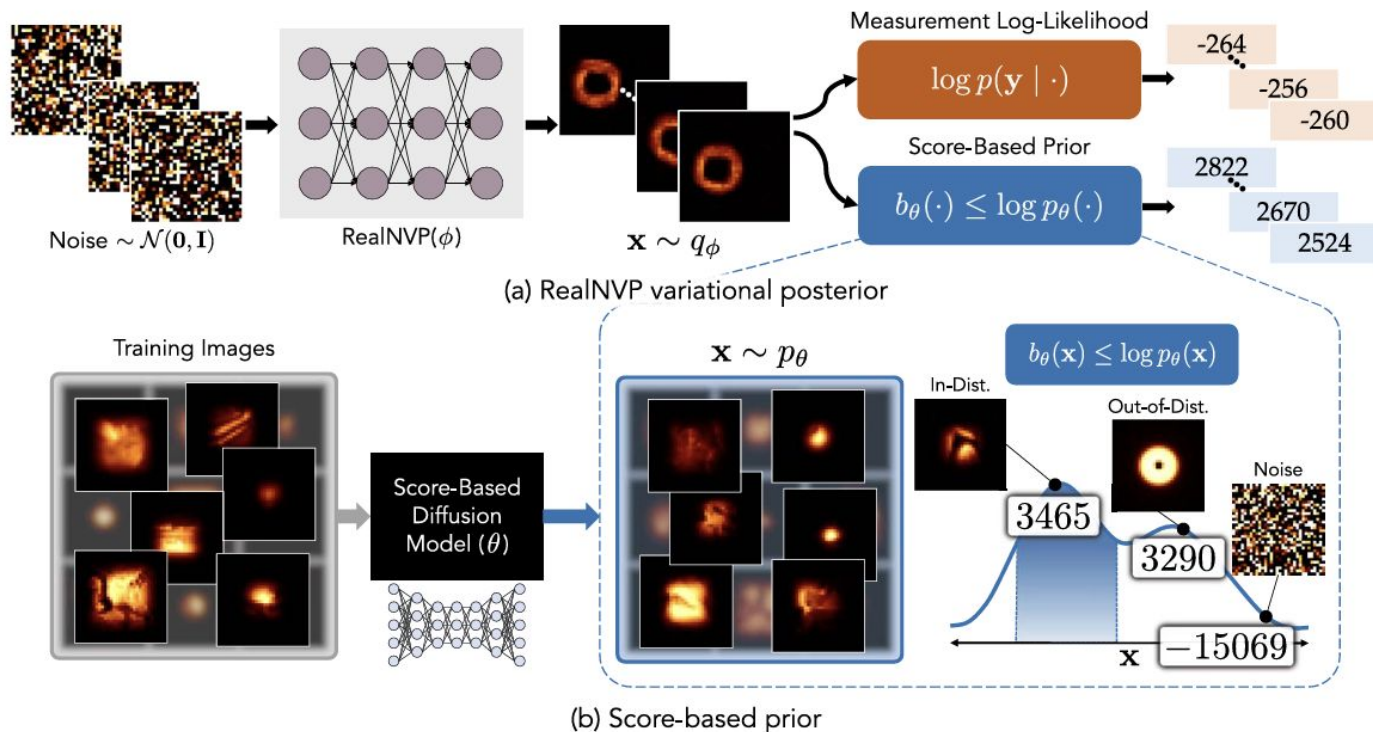
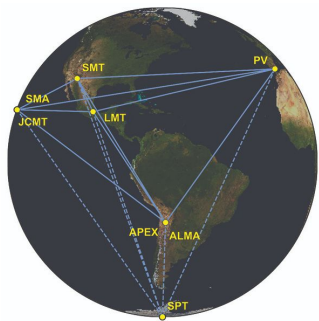
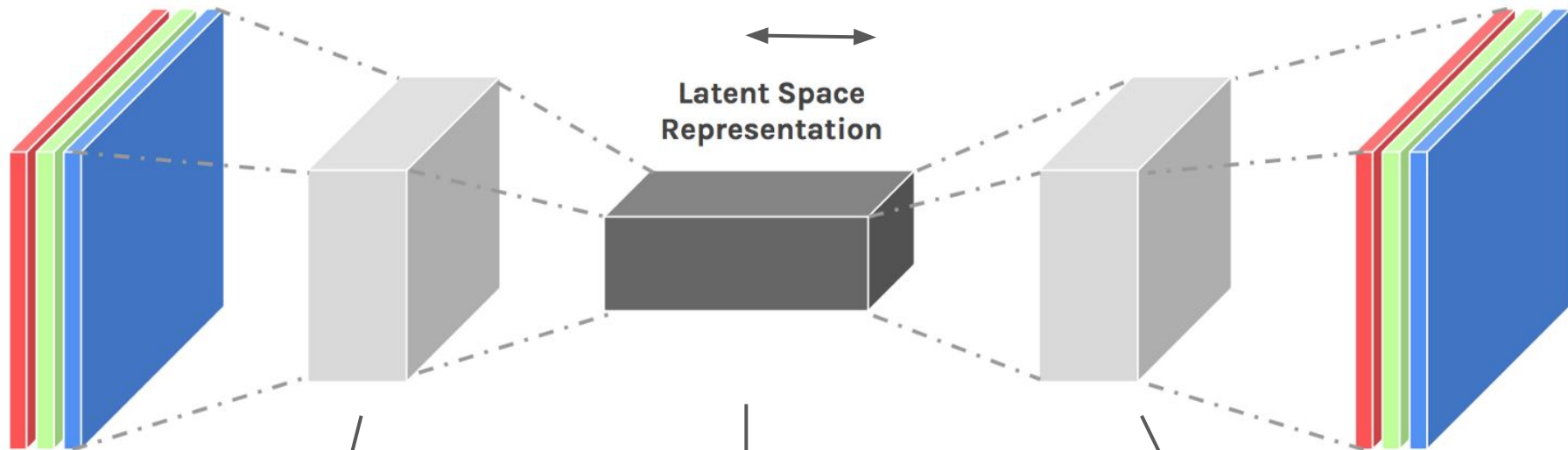
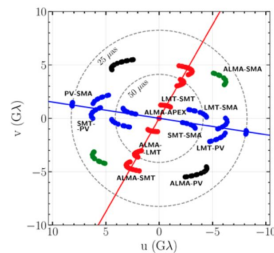


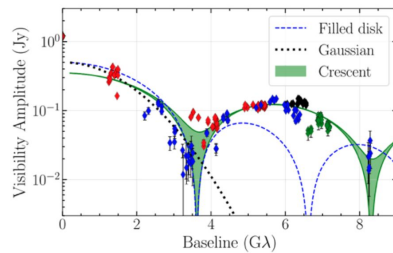
Figure 1. Method illustration. The CIFAR-10 prior was used for these examples; images are shown as 32×32 pixels on a $[0, 1]$ scale. At a high level, we optimize a variational distribution q_ϕ to approximate the image posterior $p_\theta(\cdot | \mathbf{y})$ given a score-based prior p_θ and log likelihood based on EHT measurements. Panel (a) illustrates our particular variational distribution: a RealNVP with parameters ϕ . At each optimization iteration i , the measurement log likelihood (Equation (2)) and the log density under the score-based prior of each sample \mathbf{x} from $q_\phi = q_{\phi^{(i)}}$ are evaluated. The average gradient is computed with respect to ϕ to update $\phi^{(i)}$. In other words, q_ϕ is optimized to produce samples that have high probability under both measurement likelihood and prior. Panel (b) zooms in to the score-based prior. A score-based prior is based on a score-based diffusion model, a deep generative model with parameters θ , that is trained on images from a target prior. Once trained, the diffusion model generates samples from a generative image distribution p_θ . There is an analytical formula for computing the ELBO $b_\theta(\mathbf{x})$ of the log probability $\log p_\theta(\mathbf{x})$ for any image \mathbf{x} , even for out-of-distribution images and images of pure noise.



Radio Telescope config.



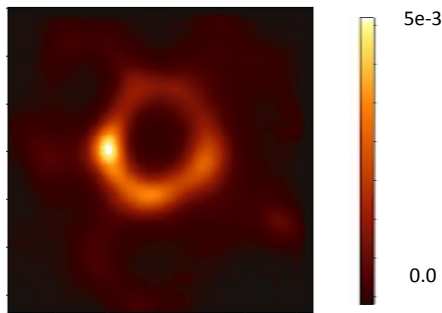
Visibility



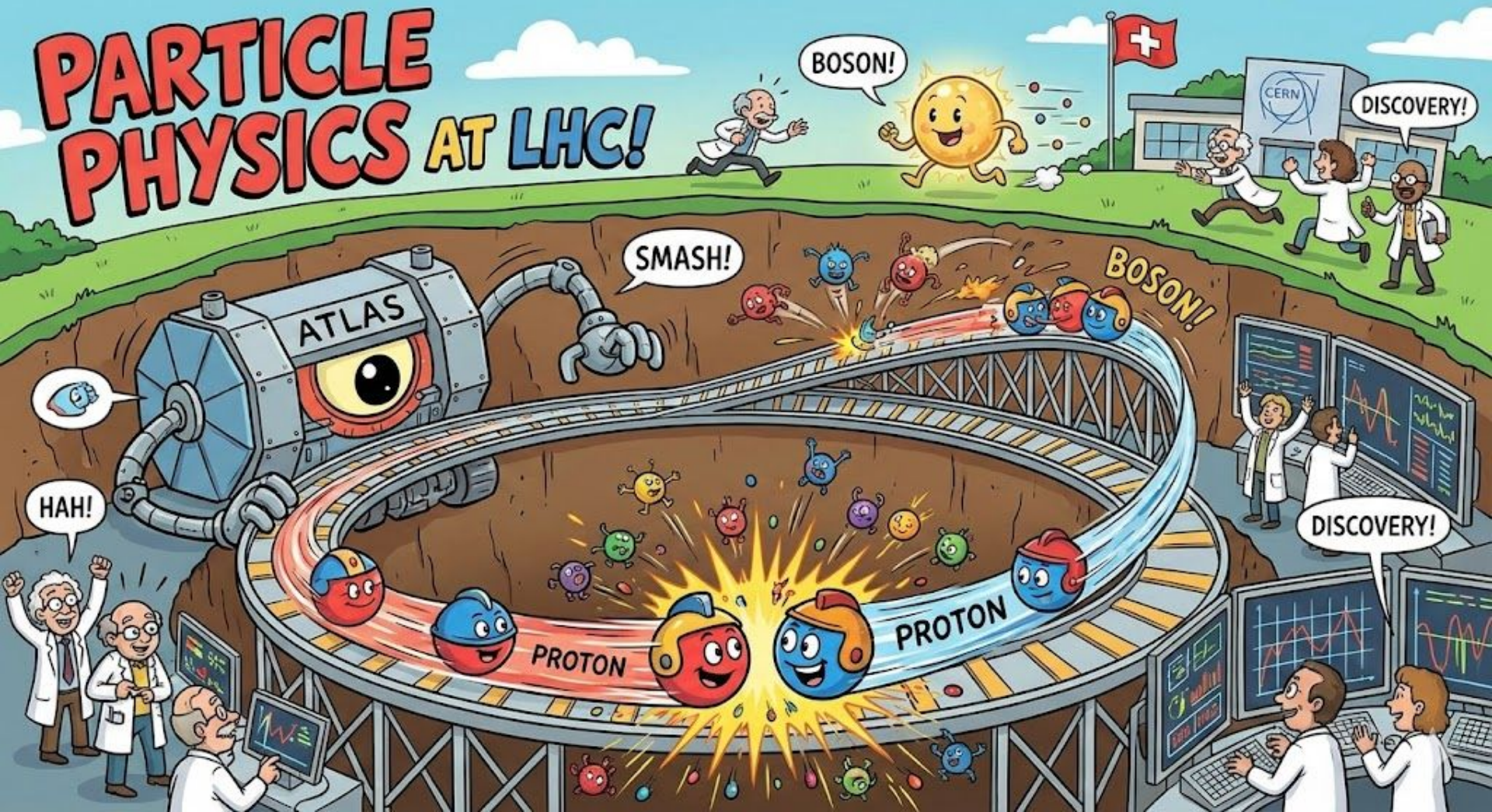
**Image Reconstruction
Algo. (e.g. RML, CLEAN)**

Summary

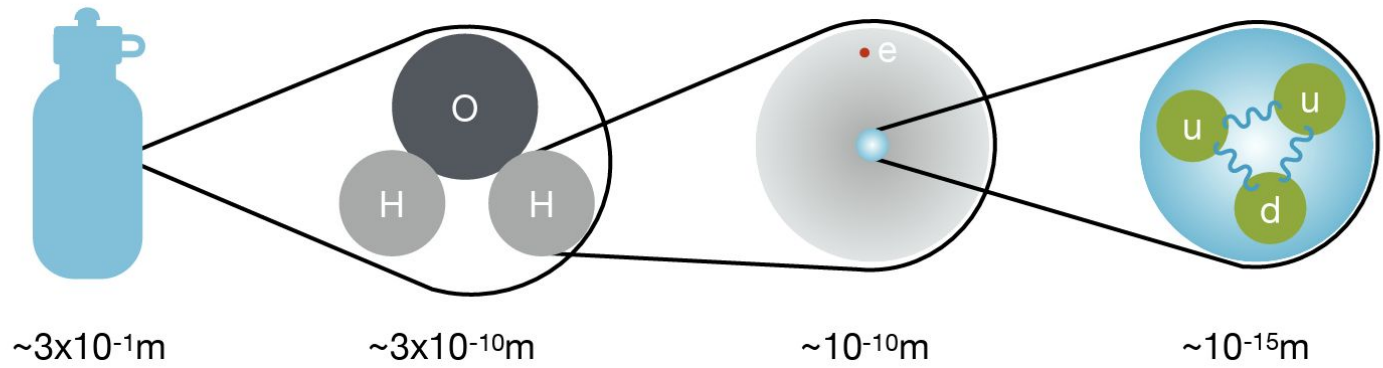
- Deep Probabilistic Imaging (DPI) using variational methods and generative model to approximate the posterior distribution of reconstructed image;
- DPI can capture multiple feasible solutions and quantify the uncertainty;
- DPI is preliminarily tested on EHT simulated data and EHT2017 M87 data.
- Generalizable to other parameter estimation problems



PARTICLE PHYSICS AT LHC!



Particle Physics in a Nutshell 1/2

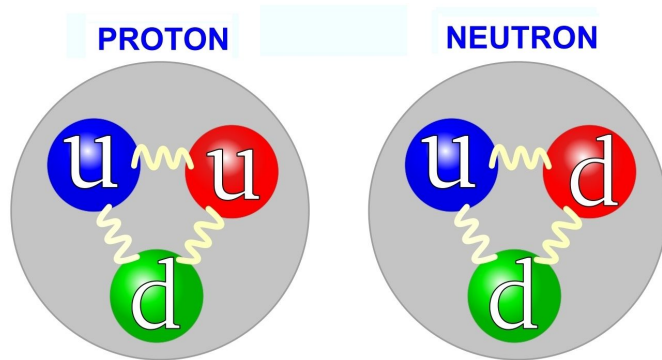


<div>u</div>	<div>c</div>	<div>t</div>	<div>γ</div>	<div>H</div>
<div>d</div>	<div>s</div>	<div>b</div>	<div>g</div>	
<div>e</div>	<div>μ</div>	<div>τ</div>	<div>Z</div>	
<div>ν_e</div>	<div>ν_μ</div>	<div>ν_τ</div>	<div>W</div>	

Fermions
 Bosons

$$\begin{aligned}
 &-\frac{1}{2}\partial_\nu g_\mu^a \partial_\nu g_\mu^a - g_s f^{abc} \partial_\mu g_\nu^a g_\mu^b g_\nu^c - \frac{1}{4}g_s^2 f^{abc} f^{ade} g_\mu^b g_\nu^c g_\mu^d g_\nu^e + \\
 &\frac{1}{2}ig_s^2 (\bar{q}_i^\alpha \gamma^\mu q_j^\alpha) g_\mu^a + \bar{G}^a \partial^2 G^a + g_s f^{abc} \partial_\mu \bar{G}^a G^b g_\mu^c - \partial_\nu W_\mu^+ \partial_\nu W_\mu^- - \\
 &M^2 W_\mu^+ W_\mu^- - \frac{1}{2}\partial_\nu Z_\mu^0 \partial_\nu Z_\mu^0 - \frac{1}{2c_w^2} M^2 Z_\mu^0 Z_\mu^0 - \frac{1}{2}\partial_\mu A_\nu \partial_\mu A_\nu - \frac{1}{2}\partial_\mu H \partial_\mu H - \\
 &\frac{1}{2}m_h^2 H^2 - \partial_\mu \phi^+ \partial_\mu \phi^- - M^2 \phi^+ \phi^- - \frac{1}{2}\partial_\mu \phi^0 \partial_\mu \phi^0 - \frac{1}{2c_w^2} M \phi^0 \phi^0 - \beta_h [\frac{2M^2}{g^2} + \\
 &\frac{2M}{g} H + \frac{1}{2}(H^2 + \phi^0 \phi^0 + 2\phi^+ \phi^-)] + \frac{2M^4}{g^2} \alpha_h - igc_w [\partial_\nu Z_\mu^0 (W_\mu^+ W_\nu^- - \\
 &W_\mu^- W_\nu^+) - Z_\nu^0 (W_\mu^+ \partial_\nu W_\mu^- - W_\mu^- \partial_\nu W_\mu^+) + Z_\mu^0 (W_\nu^+ \partial_\nu W_\mu^- - \\
 &W_\nu^- \partial_\nu W_\mu^+)] - ig s_w [\partial_\nu A_\mu (W_\mu^+ W_\nu^- - W_\mu^- W_\nu^+) - A_\nu (W_\mu^+ \partial_\nu W_\mu^- - \\
 &W_\mu^- \partial_\nu W_\mu^+) + A_\mu (W_\nu^+ \partial_\nu W_\mu^- - W_\nu^- \partial_\nu W_\mu^+)] - \frac{1}{2}g^2 W_\mu^+ W_\mu^- W_\nu^+ W_\nu^- + \\
 &\frac{1}{2}g^2 W_\mu^+ W_\mu^- W_\nu^+ W_\nu^- + g^2 c_w^2 (Z_\mu^0 W_\mu^+ Z_\nu^0 W_\nu^- - Z_\mu^0 Z_\nu^0 W_\mu^+ W_\nu^-) + \\
 &g^2 s_w^2 (A_\mu W_\mu^+ A_\nu W_\nu^- - A_\mu A_\nu W_\mu^+ W_\nu^-) + g^2 s_w c_w [A_\mu Z_\nu^0 (W_\mu^+ W_\nu^- - \\
 &W_\mu^- W_\nu^+) - 2A_\mu Z_\nu^0 W_\mu^+ W_\nu^-] - g\alpha [H^3 + H\phi^0 \phi^0 + 2H\phi^+ \phi^-] - \\
 &\frac{1}{8}g^2 \alpha_h [H^4 + (\phi^0)^4 + 4(\phi^+ \phi^-)^2 + 4(\phi^0)^2 \phi^+ \phi^- + 4H^2 \phi^+ \phi^- + 2(\phi^0)^2 H^2] - \\
 &\dots
 \end{aligned}$$

Standard Model of Elementary Particles



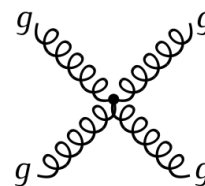
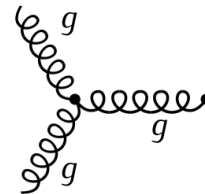
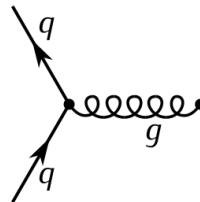
three generations of matter (fermions)			interactions / force carriers (bosons)	
LEPTONS	I	II	III	
	mass $\approx 2.16 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ charge $\frac{2}{3}$ spin $\frac{1}{2}$ u up	mass $\approx 1.273 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ charge $\frac{2}{3}$ spin $\frac{1}{2}$ c charm	mass $\approx 172.57 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ charge $\frac{2}{3}$ spin $\frac{1}{2}$ t top	mass 0 charge 0 spin 1 g gluon
	mass $\approx 4.7 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ charge $-\frac{1}{3}$ spin $\frac{1}{2}$ d down	mass $\approx 93.5 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ charge $-\frac{1}{3}$ spin $\frac{1}{2}$ s strange	mass $\approx 4.183 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ charge $-\frac{1}{3}$ spin $\frac{1}{2}$ b bottom	mass 0 charge 0 spin 1 γ photon
	mass $\approx 0.511 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ charge -1 spin $\frac{1}{2}$ e electron	mass $\approx 105.66 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ charge -1 spin $\frac{1}{2}$ μ muon	mass $\approx 1.77693 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ charge -1 spin $\frac{1}{2}$ τ tau	mass $\approx 91.188 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ charge 0 spin 1 Z Z boson
	mass $< 0.8 \text{ eV}/c^2$ charge 0 spin $\frac{1}{2}$ ν_e electron neutrino	mass $< 0.17 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ charge 0 spin $\frac{1}{2}$ ν_μ muon neutrino	mass $< 18.2 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ charge 0 spin $\frac{1}{2}$ ν_τ tau neutrino	mass $\approx 80.3692 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ charge ± 1 spin 1 W W boson
				SCALAR BOSONS mass $\approx 125.2 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ charge 0 spin 0 H higgs
				GAUGE BOSONS VECTOR BOSONS

Feynman Diagram

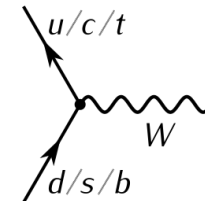
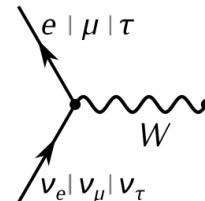
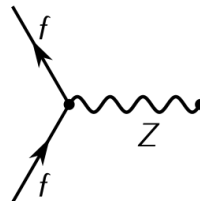


Richard Feynman

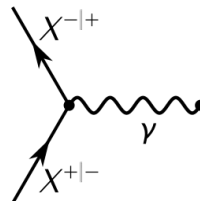
STRONG VERTICES



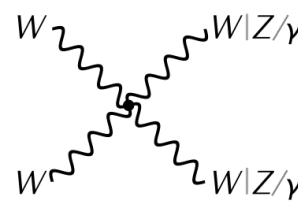
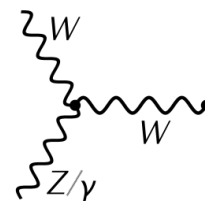
WEAK VERTICES



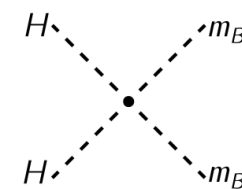
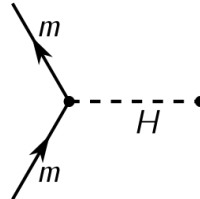
ELECTROMAGNETIC VERTEX



ELECTROWEAK VERTICES



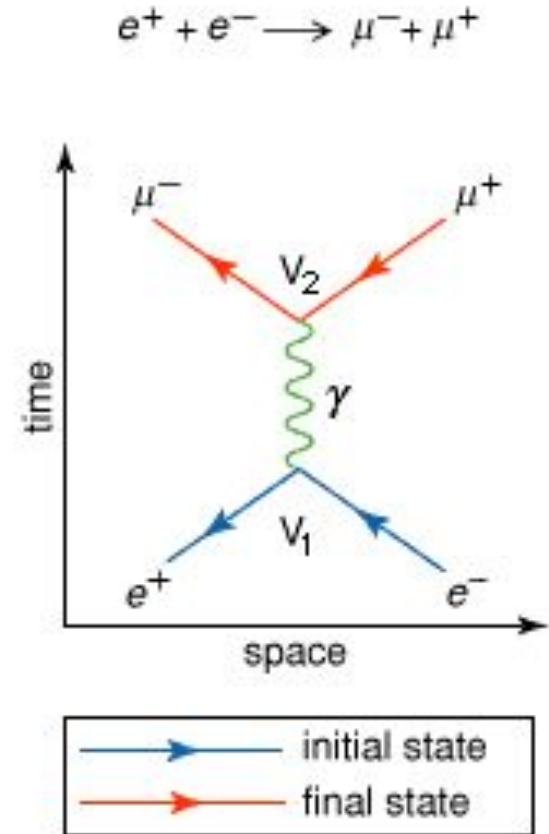
HIGGS VERTICES



Feynman Diagram 101

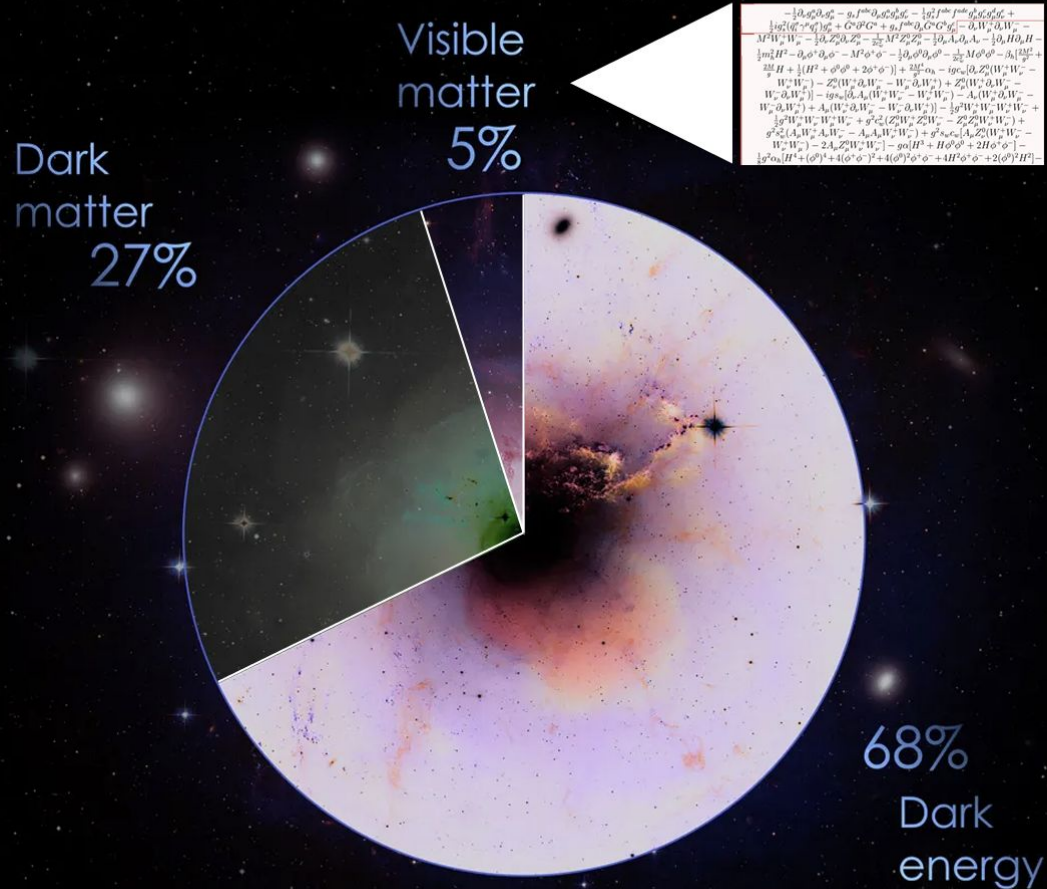


Richard Feynman

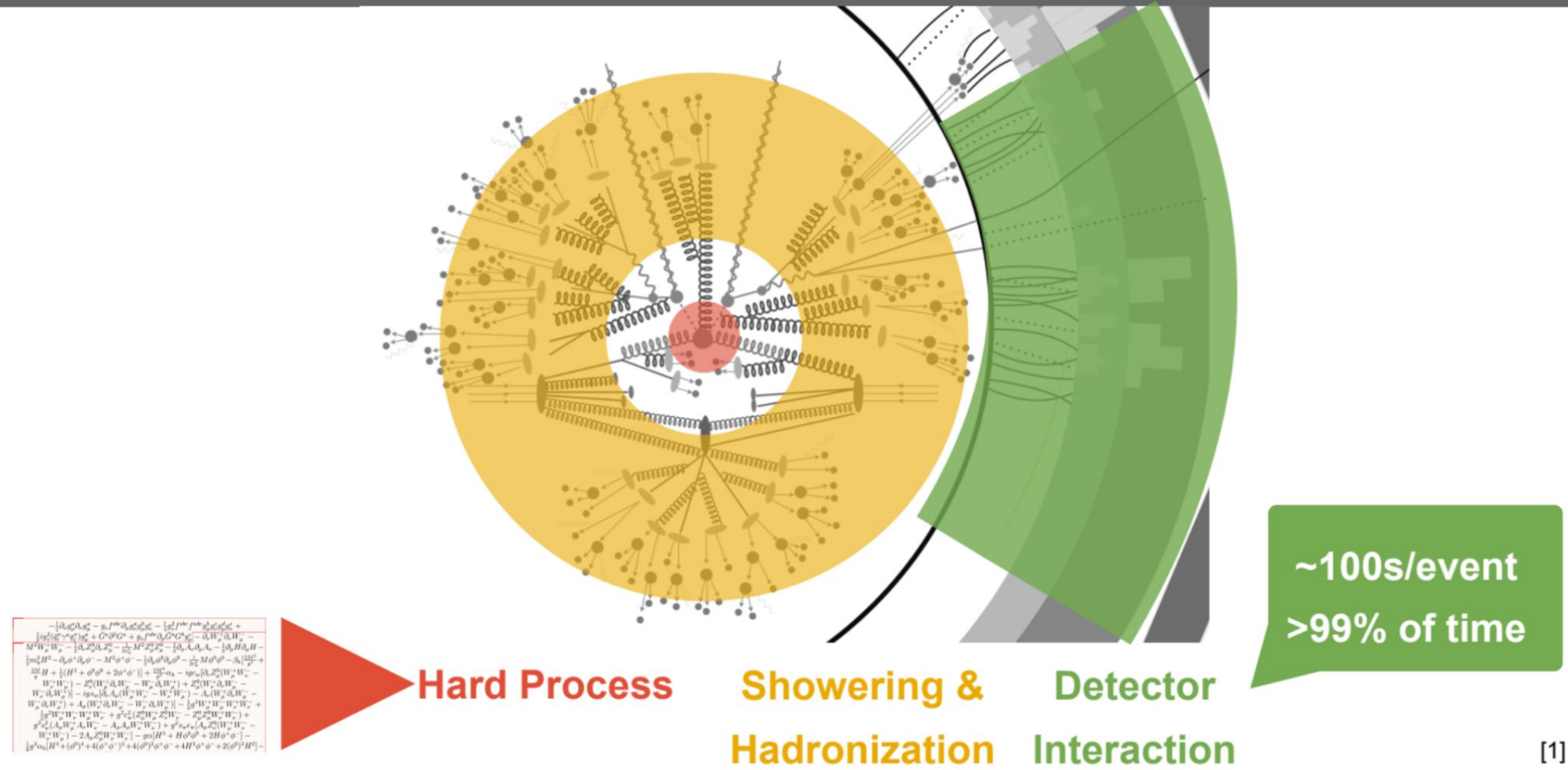


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Particle Physics in a Nutshell 2/2



Very Precise Simulations Available ... But Expensive!



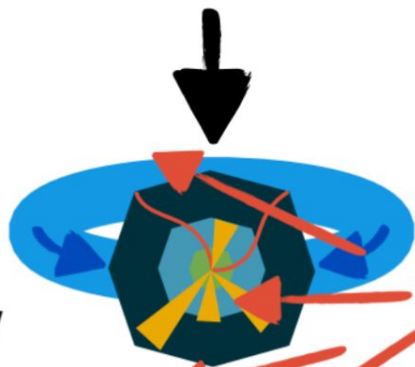
$$\begin{aligned} & -\frac{1}{2}g_s^2\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma - g_s^2\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma - \frac{1}{2}g_s^2\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma + \\ & \frac{1}{2}g_s^2\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma + G\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma - \frac{1}{2}g_s^2\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma - \\ & M^2W_\mu^+W_\nu^- - \frac{1}{2}g_s^2\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma - \frac{1}{2}M^2Z_\mu^0Z_\nu^0 - \frac{1}{2}g_s^2\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma - \\ & \frac{1}{2}M^2H^+H^- - \frac{1}{2}g_s^2\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma - \frac{1}{2}M^2\phi^+\phi^- - \frac{1}{2}g_s^2\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma - \frac{1}{2}M^2\chi^0\chi^0 + \\ & \frac{1}{2}M^2H + \frac{1}{2}(H^+ + \phi^+\phi^- + 2\phi^+\phi^-) + \frac{1}{2}M^2\phi_\alpha - (g_s^2\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma W_\mu^+W_\nu^- - \\ & W_\mu^+W_\nu^-) - Z_\mu^0(W_\mu^+W_\nu^- - W_\mu^-W_\nu^-) + Z_\mu^0(W_\mu^+W_\nu^- - \\ & W_\mu^-W_\nu^-) - (g_s^2\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma W_\mu^+W_\nu^- - W_\mu^+W_\nu^-) - A_\mu(W_\mu^+W_\nu^- - \\ & W_\mu^-W_\nu^-) + A_\mu(W_\mu^+W_\nu^- - W_\mu^-W_\nu^-) - \frac{1}{2}g_s^2\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma W_\mu^+W_\nu^- + \\ & \frac{1}{2}g_s^2\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma W_\mu^+W_\nu^- + g_s^2\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma Z_\mu^0Z_\nu^0 - Z_\mu^0Z_\nu^0(W_\mu^+W_\nu^- + \\ & W_\mu^-W_\nu^-) - 2A_\mu Z_\mu^0(W_\mu^+W_\nu^- - W_\mu^-W_\nu^-) - g_s^2\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma A_\mu Z_\mu^0(W_\mu^+W_\nu^- - \\ & W_\mu^-W_\nu^-) - 2A_\mu Z_\mu^0(W_\mu^+W_\nu^- - W_\mu^-W_\nu^-) - g_s^2\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma H^+H^- + 2H^+H^- - \\ & \frac{1}{2}g_s^2\partial_\mu\partial_\nu\partial_\rho\partial_\sigma (H^+ + (\phi^+\phi^-)^2 + 4(\phi^+\phi^-)^2 + 4H^+H^- + 2(\phi^+\phi^-)^2) - \end{aligned}$$

Nature

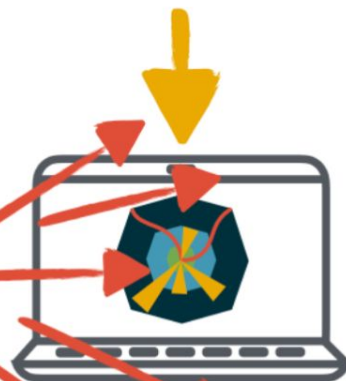
Theory

Experiment:

- Tracking
- Particle Flow



ML

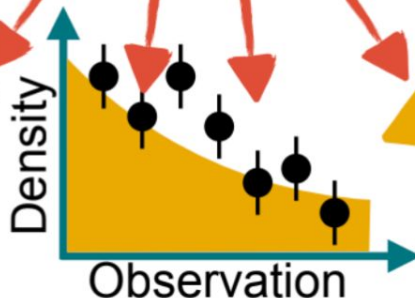


Simulation:

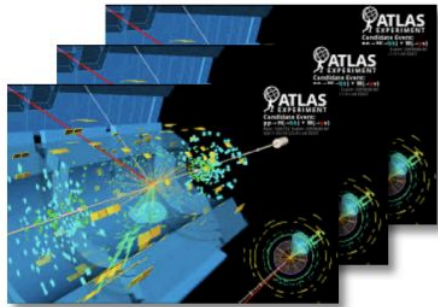
- GANs
- CFMs

Comparison:

- Classic Analysis
- Anomaly Detection



Foundation Models

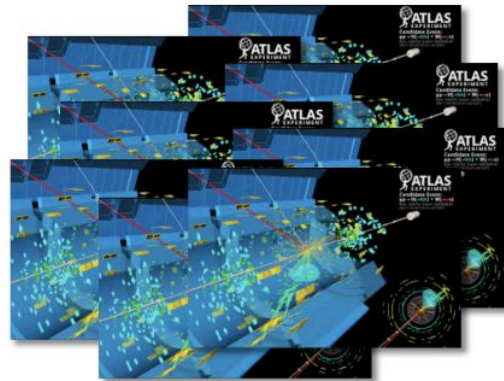


Simulation /
Recorded Data

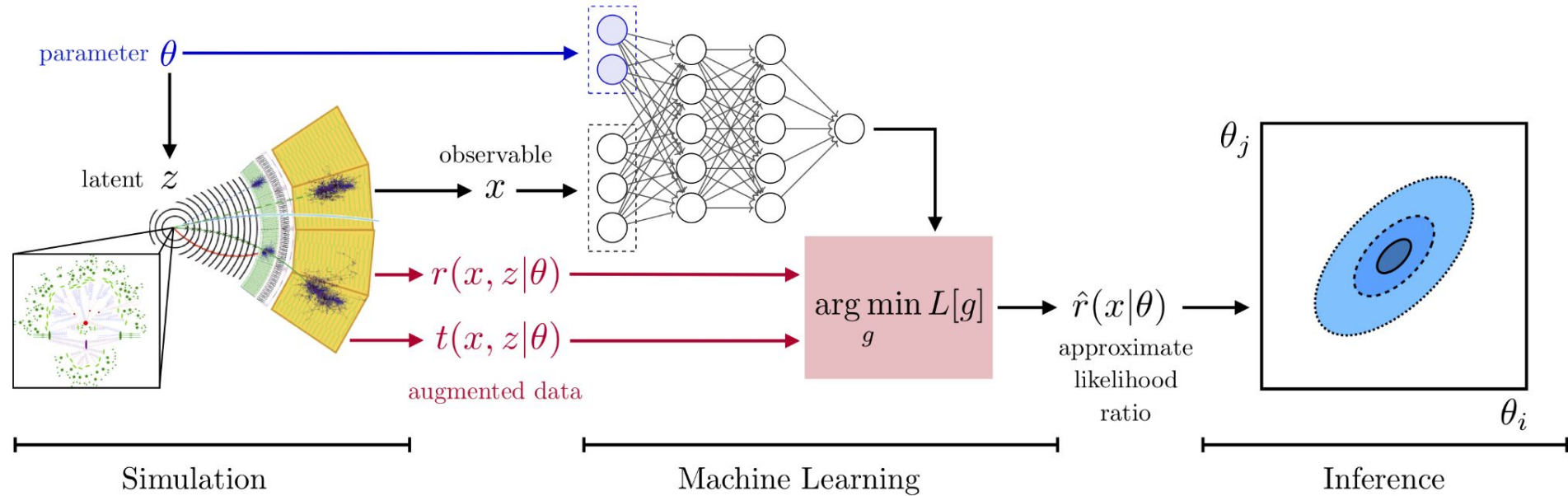


Generative ML Model

- GANs
- Variational AEs
- Normalizing Flows
- Diffusion Models
- ...

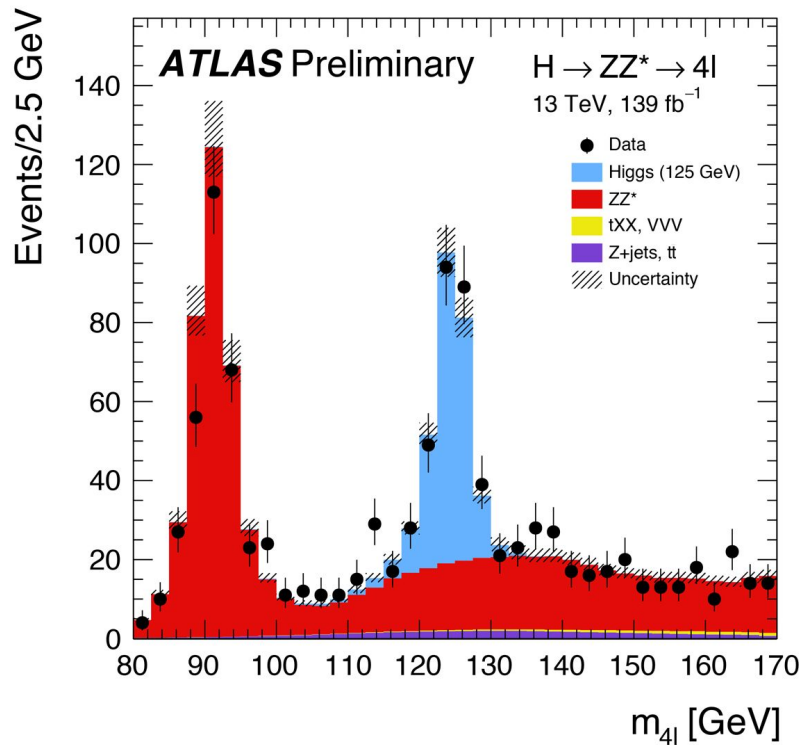
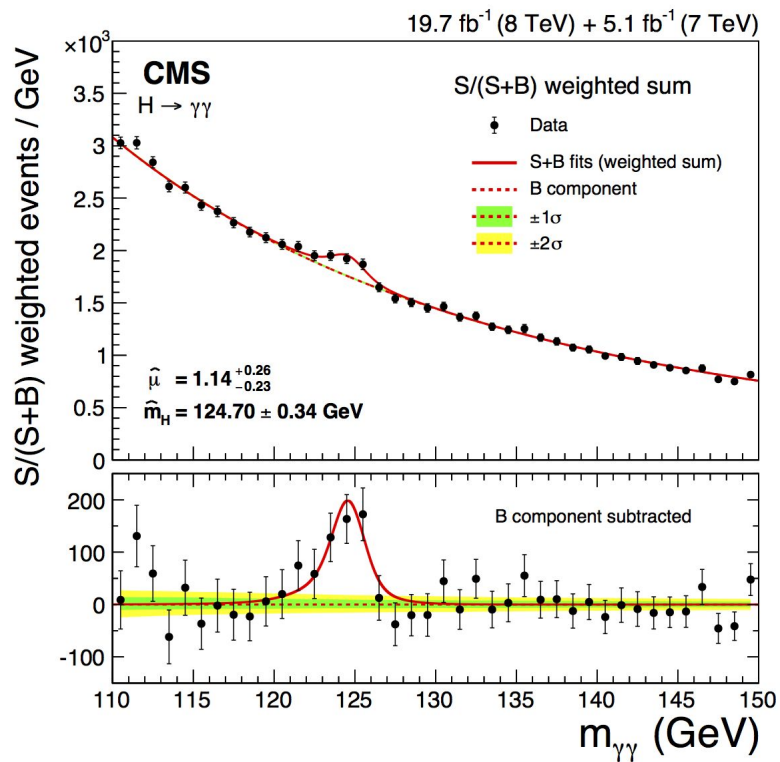


Oversampled /
Interpolated



K. Cranmer, J. Brehmer and G. Louppe

What analysis looks like...



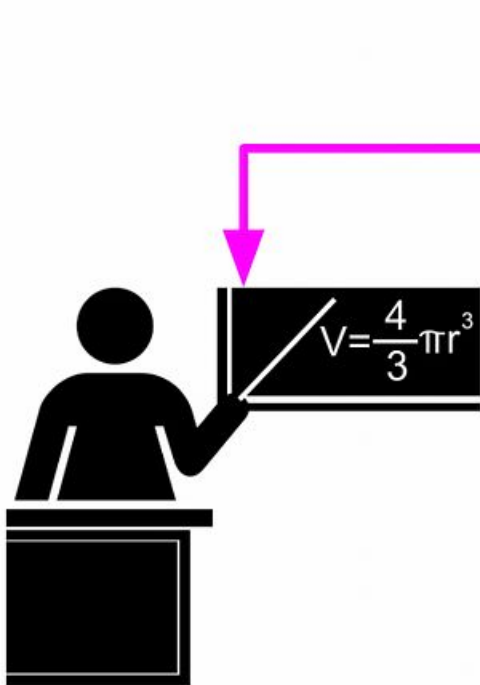
AI for Math

$$\frac{1}{\pi} = \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{9801} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(4n)! (1103 + 26390n)}{(n!)^4 396^{4n}}$$

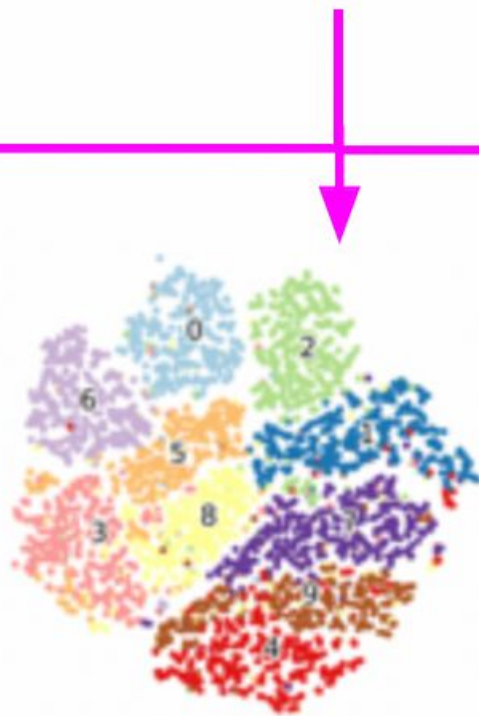
$$\pi = \frac{9801}{1103\sqrt{8}}$$



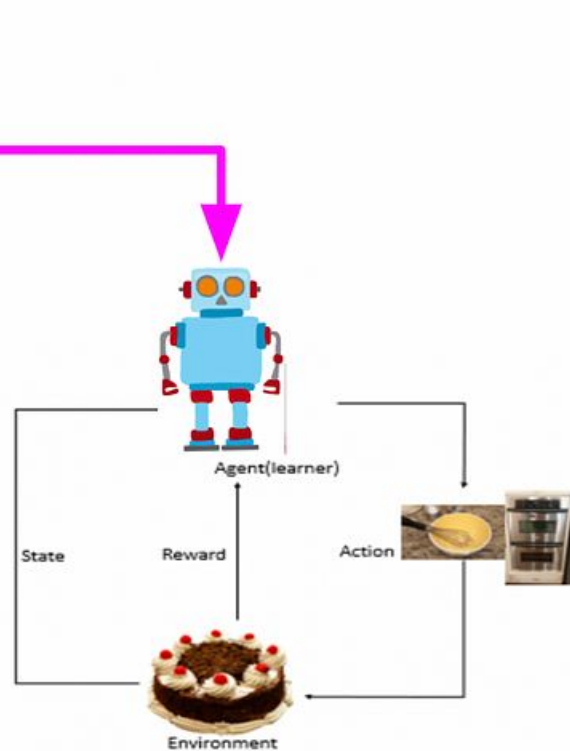
Machine Learning



Supervised Learning

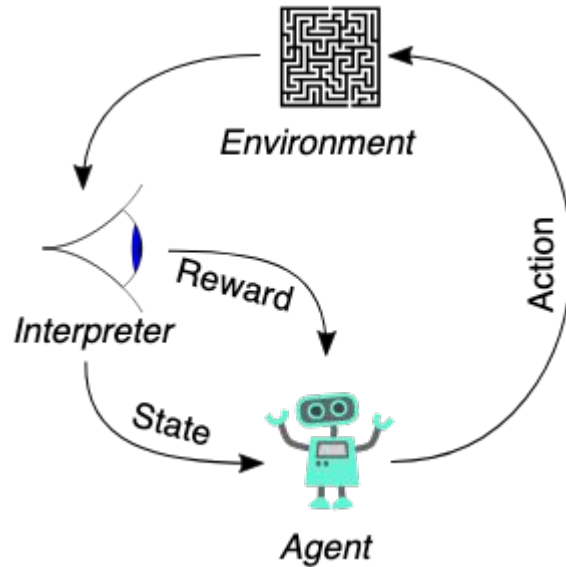


Unsupervised Learning



Reinforcement Learning

What's Reinforcement Learning



Successful example of Reinforcement Learning



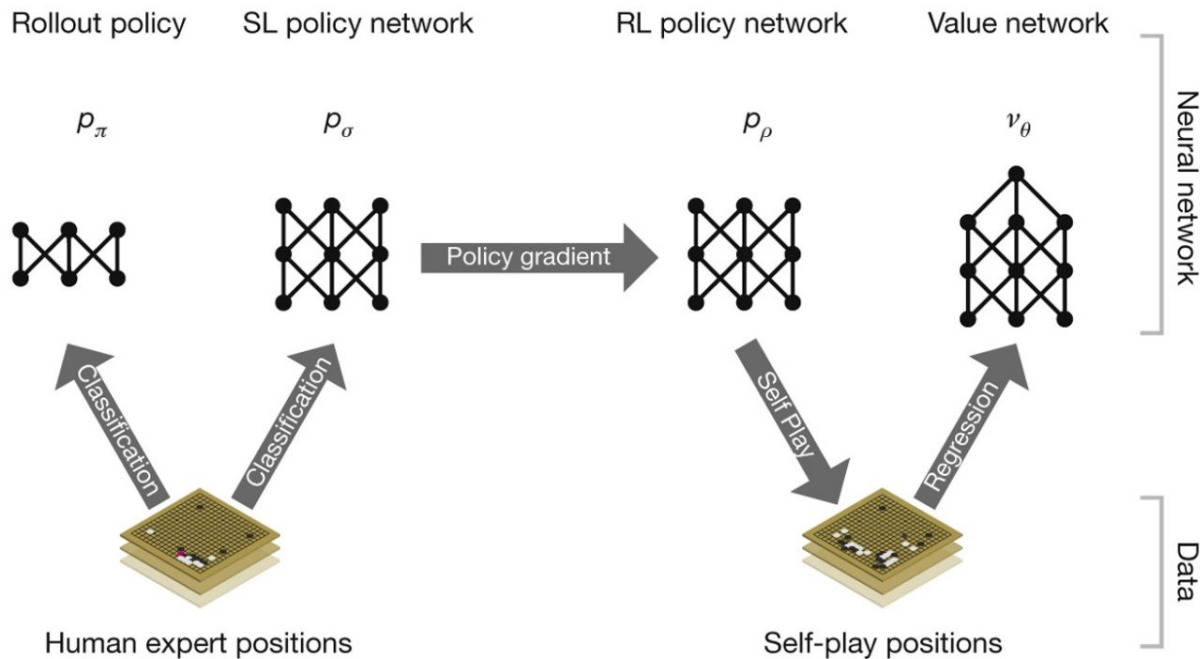
AlphaGo



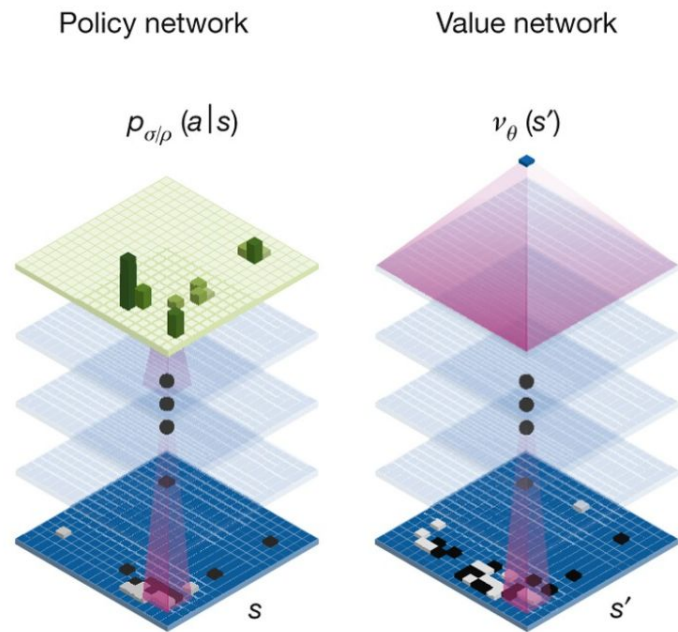
LLM with CoT +
Reinforcement Learning

AlphaGo Fan/Lee (2016)

a



b



Learning from Human Expert Move



Generating new self-play to prevent overfitting in RL



Reinforcement learning of value networks

The final stage of the training pipeline focuses on position evaluation, estimating a value function $v^p(s)$ that predicts the outcome from position s of games played by using policy p for both players²⁸⁻³⁰

$$v^p(s) = \mathbb{E}[z_t | s_t = s, a_{t...T} \sim p]$$

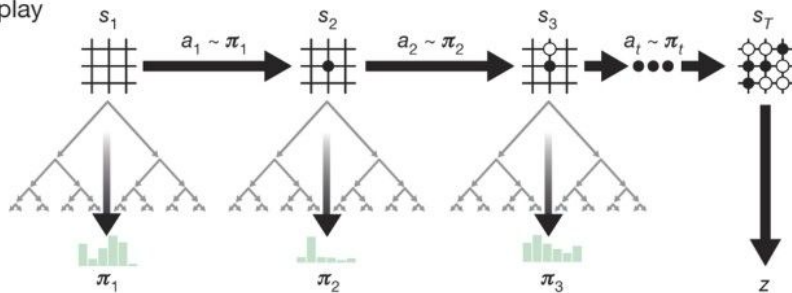
Ideally, we would like to know the optimal value function under perfect play $v^*(s)$; in practice, we instead estimate the value function v^{p_ρ} for our strongest policy, using the RL policy network p_ρ . We approximate the value function using a value network $v_\theta(s)$ with weights θ , $v_\theta(s) \approx v^{p_\rho}(s) \approx v^*(s)$. This neural network has a similar architecture to the policy network, but outputs a single prediction instead of a probability distribution. We train the weights of the value network by regression on state-outcome pairs (s, z) , using stochastic gradient descent to minimize the mean squared error (MSE) between the predicted value $v_\theta(s)$, and the corresponding outcome z

$$\Delta\theta \propto \frac{\partial v_\theta(s)}{\partial \theta} (z - v_\theta(s))$$

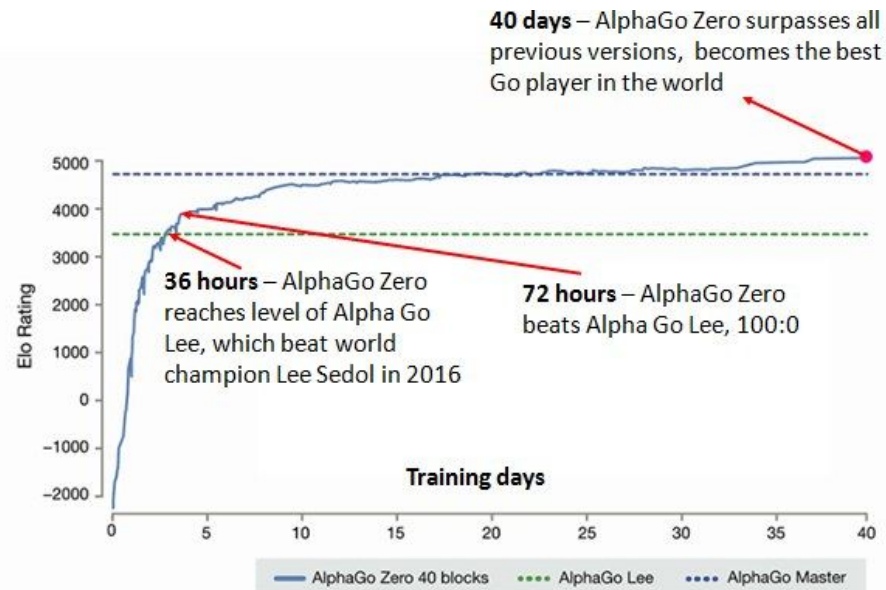
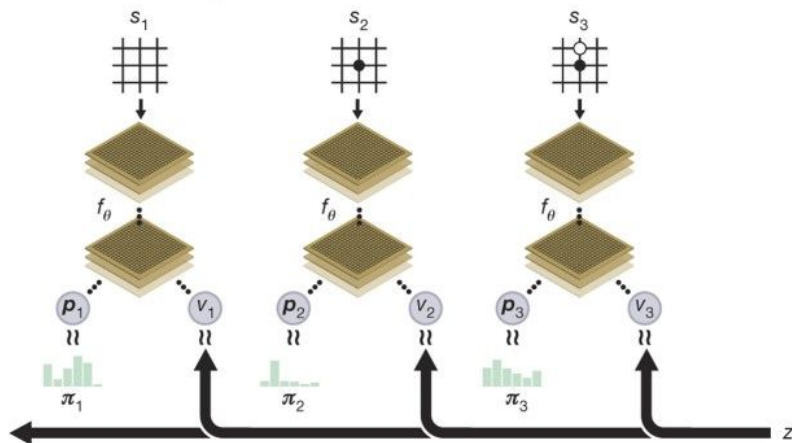
The naive approach of predicting game outcomes from data consisting of complete games leads to overfitting. The problem is that successive positions are strongly correlated, differing by just one stone, but the regression target is shared for the entire game. When trained on the KGS data set in this way, the value network memorized the game outcomes rather than generalizing to new positions, achieving a minimum MSE of 0.37 on the test set, compared to 0.19 on the training set. To mitigate this problem, we generated a new self-play data set consisting of 30 million distinct positions, each sampled from a separate game. Each game was played between the RL policy network and itself until the game terminated. Training on this data set led to MSEs of 0.226 and 0.234 on the training and test set respectively, indicating minimal overfitting. Figure 2b shows the position evaluation accuracy of the value network, compared to Monte Carlo rollouts using the fast rollout policy p_π ; the value function was consistently more accurate. A single evaluation of $v_\theta(s)$ also approached the accuracy of Monte Carlo rollouts using the RL policy network p_ρ but using 15,000 times less computation.

AlphaGO Zero (2017)

a Self-play



b Neural network training



[Mastering the game of Go without human knowledge](#) (DeepMind, 2017)

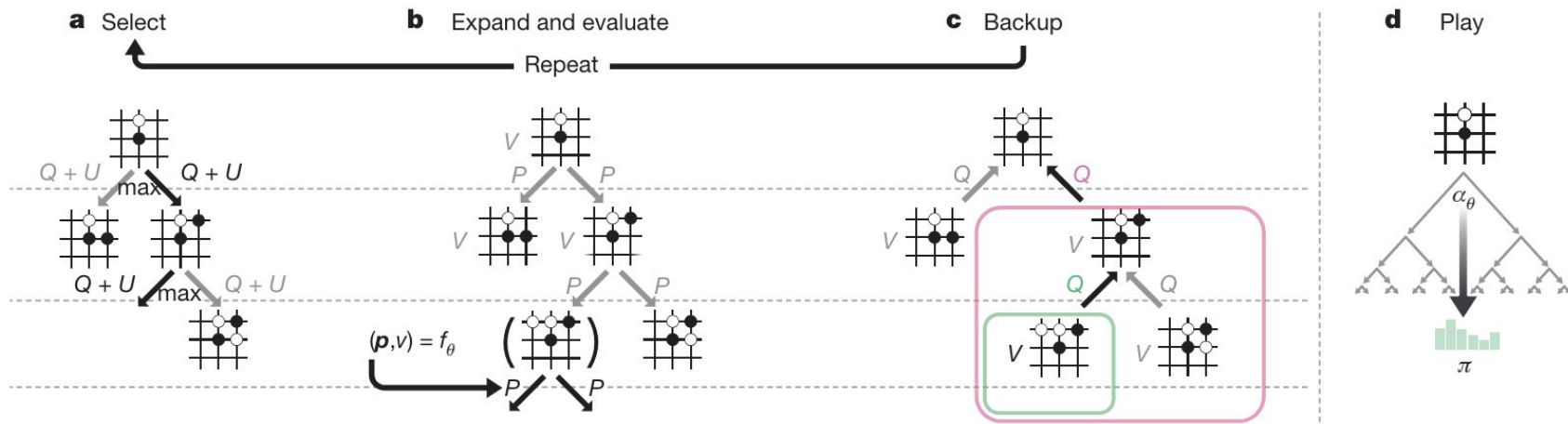


Figure 2 | MCTS in AlphaGo Zero. **a**, Each simulation traverses the tree by selecting the edge with maximum action value Q , plus an upper confidence bound U that depends on a stored prior probability P and visit count N for that edge (which is incremented once traversed). **b**, The leaf node is expanded and the associated position s is evaluated by the neural network $(P(s, \cdot), V(s)) = f_\theta(s)$; the vector of P values are stored in

the outgoing edges from s . **c**, Action value Q is updated to track the mean of all evaluations V in the subtree below that action. **d**, Once the search is complete, search probabilities π are returned, proportional to $N^{1/\tau}$, where N is the visit count of each move from the root state and τ is a parameter controlling temperature.

Self-play. The best current player α_{θ_*} , as selected by the evaluator, is used to generate data. In each iteration, α_{θ_*} plays 25,000 games of self-play, using 1,600 simulations of MCTS to select each move (this requires approximately 0.4 s per search). For the first 30 moves of each game, the temperature is set to $\tau = 1$; this selects moves proportionally to their visit count in MCTS, and ensures a diverse set of positions are encountered. For the remainder of the game, an infinitesimal **temperature** is used, $\tau \rightarrow 0$. Additional exploration is achieved by adding Dirichlet

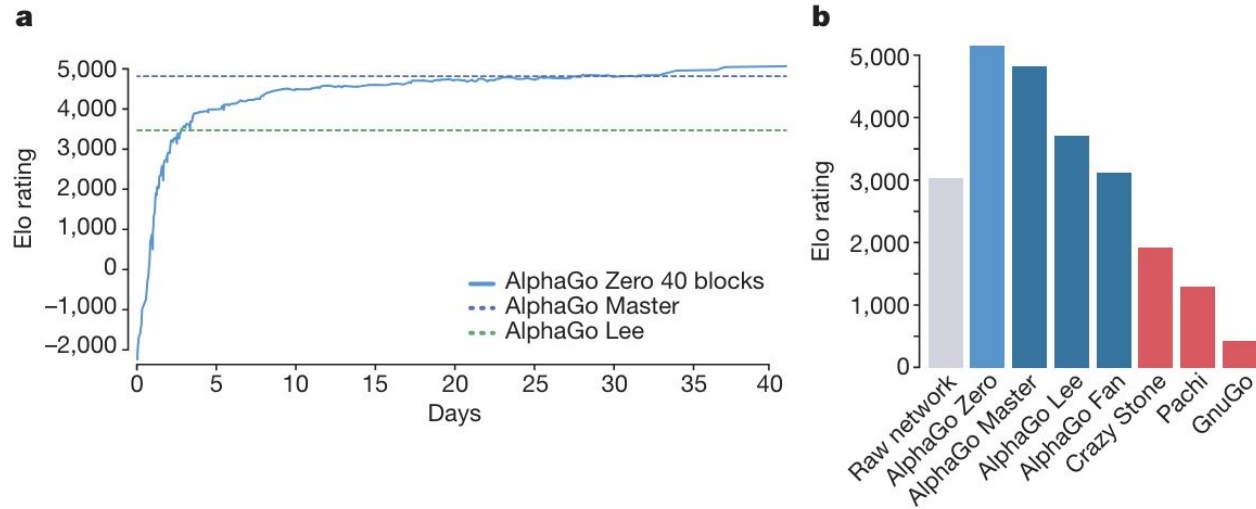


Figure 6 | Performance of AlphaGo Zero. **a**, Learning curve for AlphaGo Zero using a larger 40-block residual network over 40 days. The plot shows the performance of each player α_{θ_i} from each iteration i of our reinforcement learning algorithm. Elo ratings were computed from evaluation games between different players, using 0.4 s per search (see Methods). **b**, Final performance of AlphaGo Zero. AlphaGo Zero was trained for 40 days using a 40-block residual neural network. The plot shows the results of a tournament between: AlphaGo Zero, AlphaGo Master (defeated top human professionals 60–0 in online games), AlphaGo

Lee (defeated Lee Sedol), AlphaGo Fan (defeated Fan Hui), as well as previous Go programs Crazy Stone, Pachi and GnuGo. Each program was given 5 s of thinking time per move. AlphaGo Zero and AlphaGo Master played on a single machine on the Google Cloud; AlphaGo Fan and AlphaGo Lee were distributed over many machines. The raw neural network from AlphaGo Zero is also included, which directly selects the move a with maximum probability p_a , without using MCTS. Programs were evaluated on an Elo scale²⁵: a 200-point gap corresponds to a 75% probability of winning.

DeepSeek R1

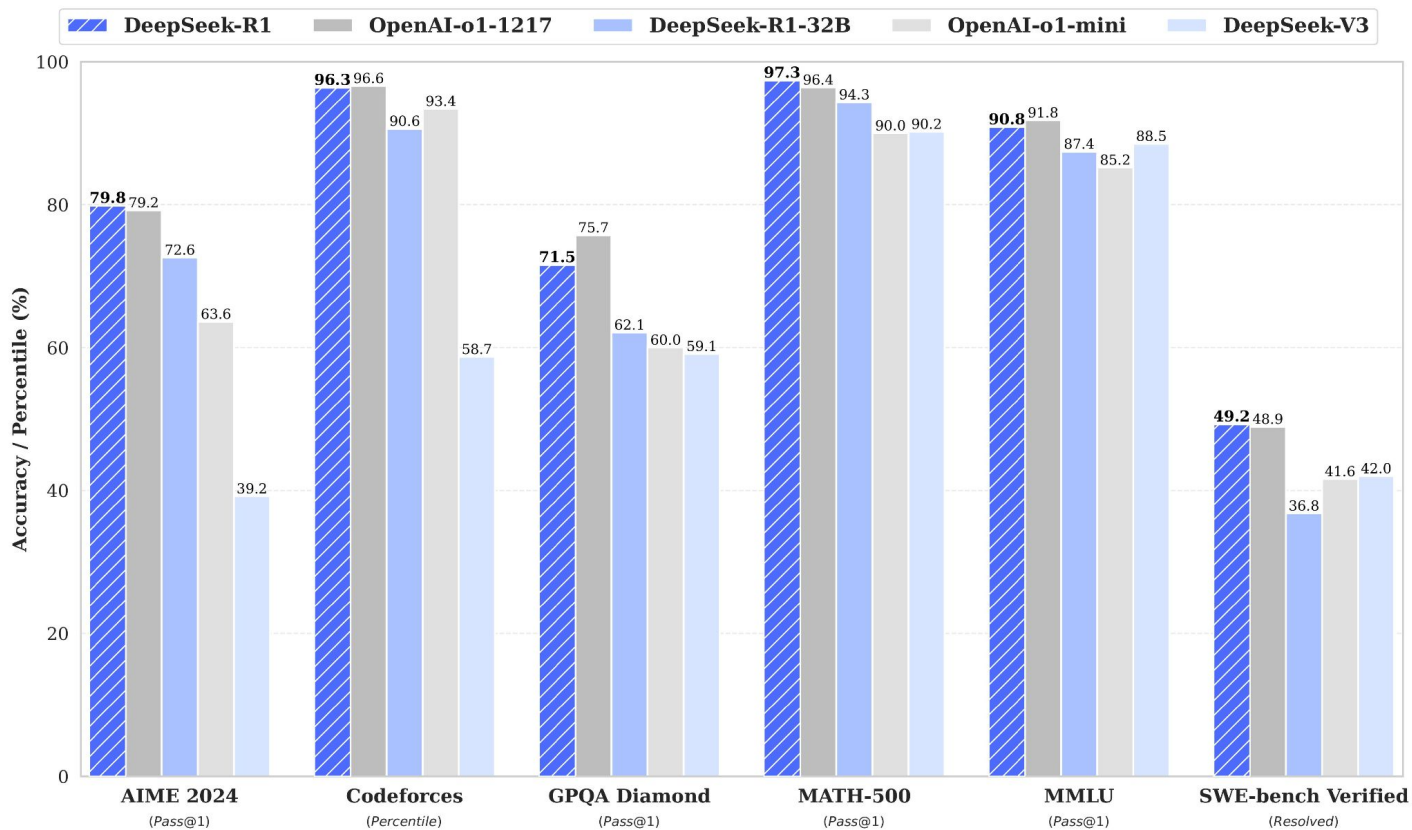


Summary of DeepSeek-R1:

- **Overview:** Launched in January 2025 by Chinese AI startup DeepSeek, **DeepSeek-R1 is an open-source large language model** excelling in advanced reasoning tasks like math, coding, and logic, competing with OpenAI's o1.
- **Technology:** Built on the 671-billion-parameter DeepSeek-V3-Base, it uses **reinforcement learning (RL)** with minimal supervised fine-tuning (SFT) and **Group Relative Policy Optimization (GRPO)** for efficient training, achieving high performance (e.g., 79.8% on AIME, 97.3% on MATH-500).
- **Cost Efficiency:** Trained for ~\$6 million using ~2,000 Nvidia H800 chips, far less than the \$100 million–\$1 billion spent by U.S. competitors. API pricing is significantly lower (\$0.55/million input tokens vs. OpenAI's \$15).
- **Accessibility:** Available under MIT License, supporting commercial use and model distillation, with six smaller distilled models (1.5B–70B parameters). Powers DeepSeek's chatbot via web, app, and API.
- **Performance:** Outperforms or matches U.S. models like OpenAI's o1 and Meta's Llama in benchmarks, with a top-five ranking on Chatbot Arena.

Impact on Nvidia Stock (January–May 2025):

- **Initial Market Shock:** DeepSeek-R1's release on January 20, 2025, triggered a 17% drop in Nvidia's stock on January 27, erasing ~\$593 billion in market value, the largest single-day loss in Wall Street history. The cost-efficient model raised fears of reduced demand for Nvidia's high-end GPUs



2.2.1. Reinforcement Learning Algorithm



Core technology of DeepSeek

Group Relative Policy Optimization In order to save the training costs of RL, we adopt Group Relative Policy Optimization (GRPO) (Shao et al., 2024), which foregoes the critic model that is typically the same size as the policy model, and estimates the baseline from group scores instead. Specifically, for each question q , GRPO samples a group of outputs $\{o_1, o_2, \dots, o_G\}$ from the old policy $\pi_{\theta_{old}}$ and then optimizes the policy model π_{θ} by maximizing the following objective:

$$\mathcal{J}_{GRPO}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}[q \sim P(Q), \{o_i\}_{i=1}^G \sim \pi_{\theta_{old}}(O|q)]$$
$$\frac{1}{G} \sum_{i=1}^G \left(\min \left(\frac{\pi_{\theta}(o_i|q)}{\pi_{\theta_{old}}(o_i|q)} A_i, \text{clip} \left(\frac{\pi_{\theta}(o_i|q)}{\pi_{\theta_{old}}(o_i|q)}, 1 - \varepsilon, 1 + \varepsilon \right) A_i \right) - \beta \mathbb{D}_{KL}(\pi_{\theta} || \pi_{ref}) \right), \quad (1)$$

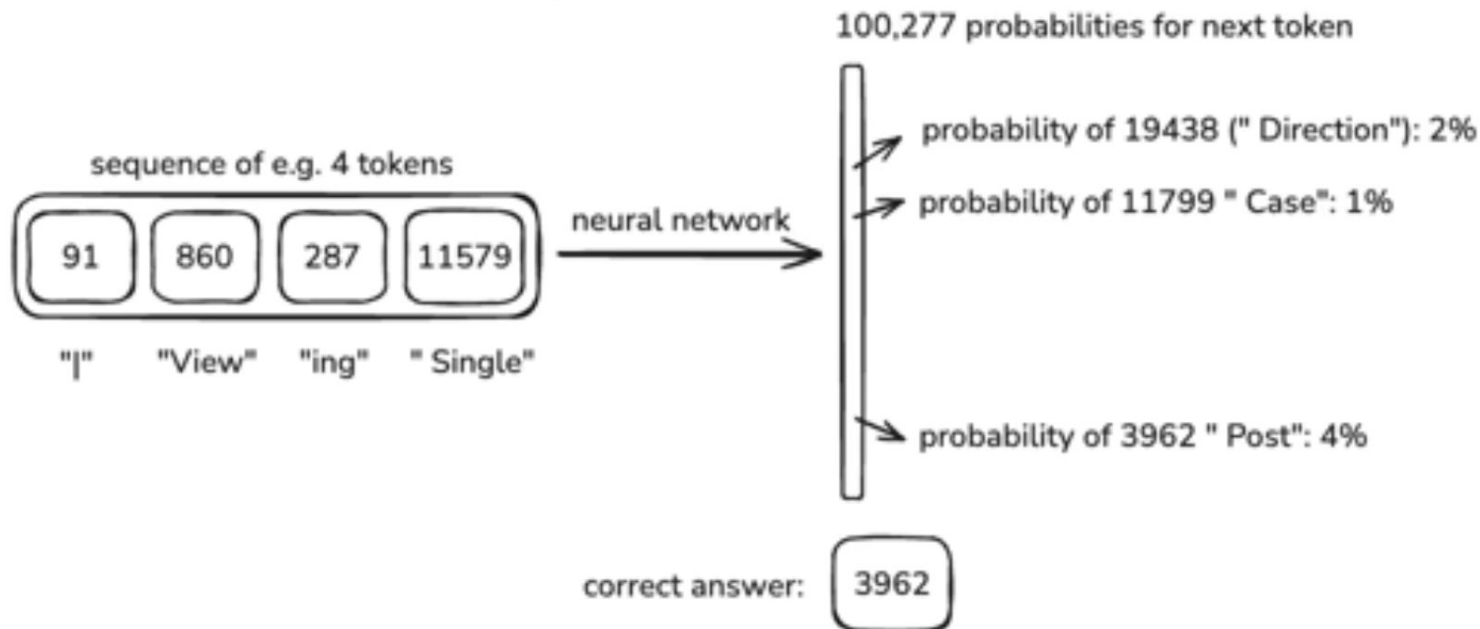
$$\mathbb{D}_{KL}(\pi_{\theta} || \pi_{ref}) = \frac{\pi_{ref}(o_i|q)}{\pi_{\theta}(o_i|q)} - \log \frac{\pi_{ref}(o_i|q)}{\pi_{\theta}(o_i|q)} - 1, \quad (2)$$

where ε and β are hyper-parameters, and A_i is the advantage, computed using a group of rewards $\{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_G\}$ corresponding to the outputs within each group:

$$A_i = \frac{r_i - \text{mean}(\{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_G\})}{\text{std}(\{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_G\})}. \quad (3)$$

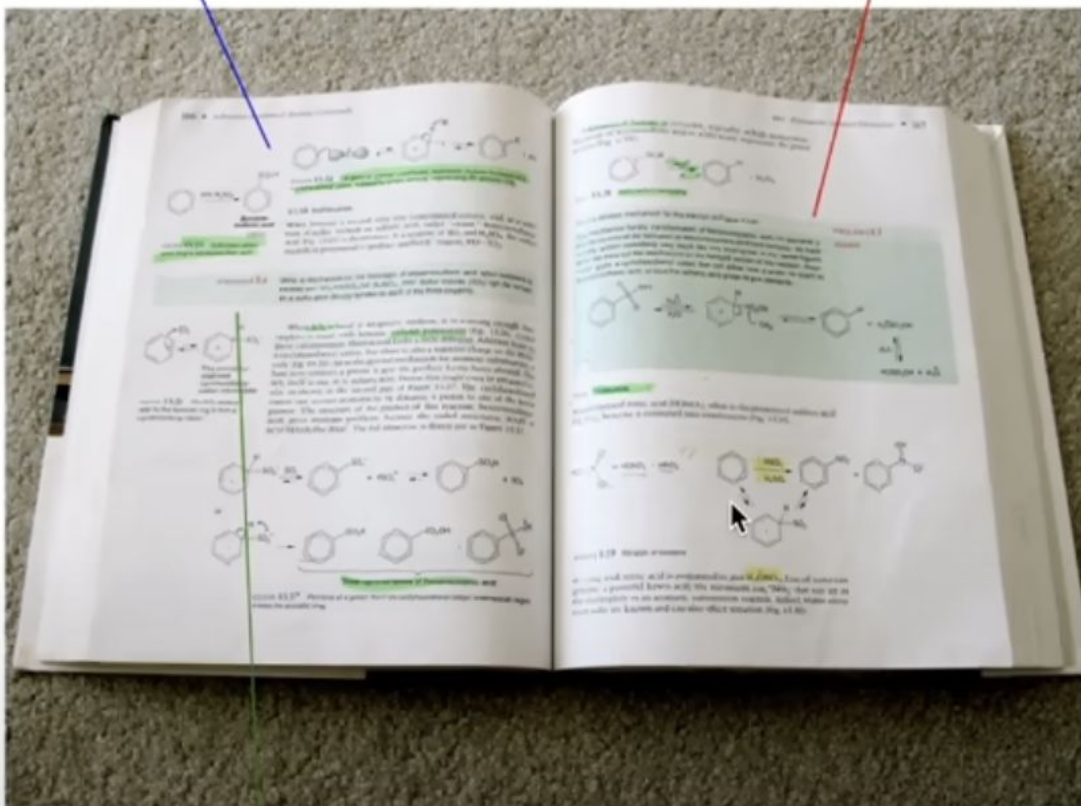
Next token generation as policy

Step 3: neural network training

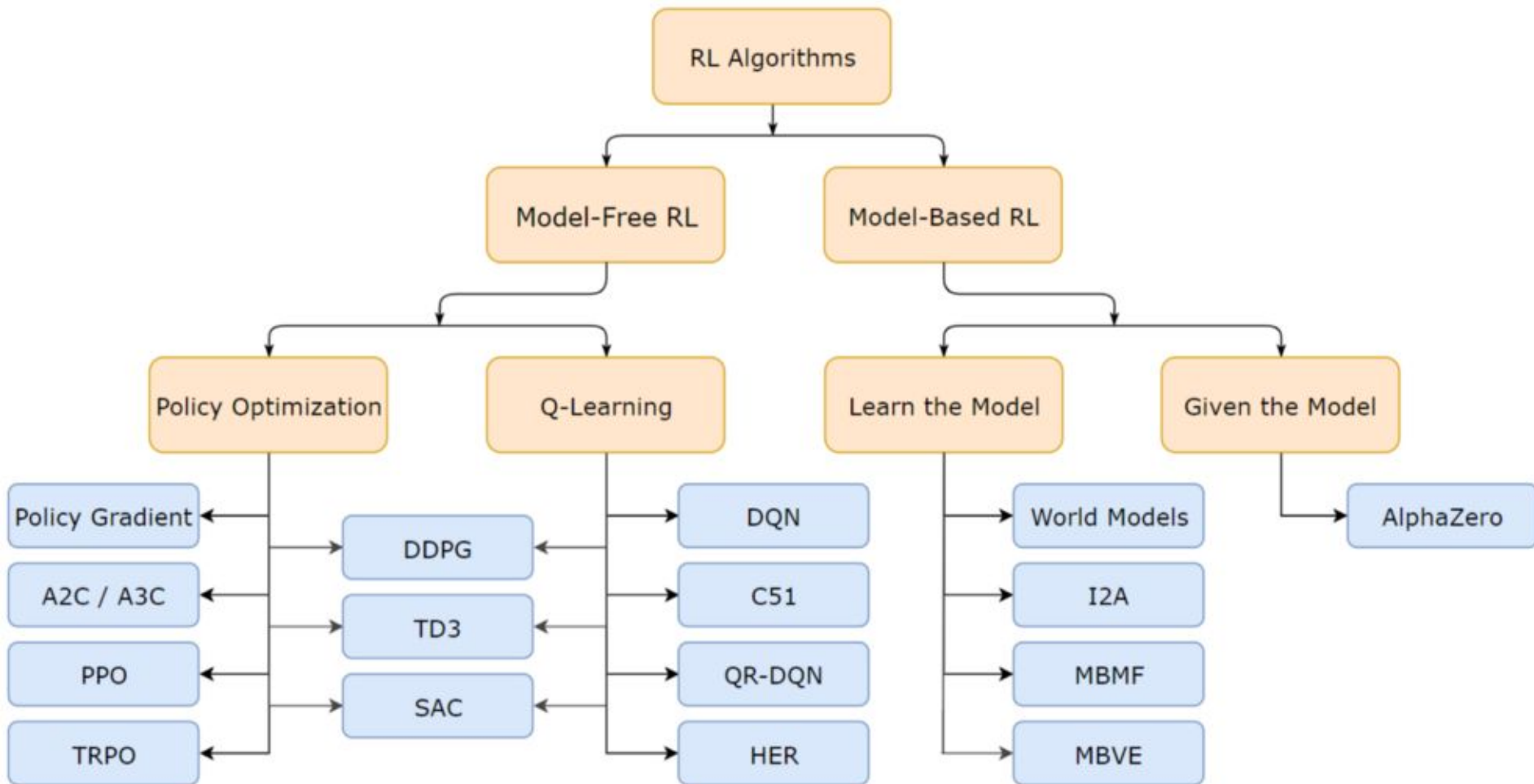


exposition \Leftrightarrow pretraining
(background knowledge)

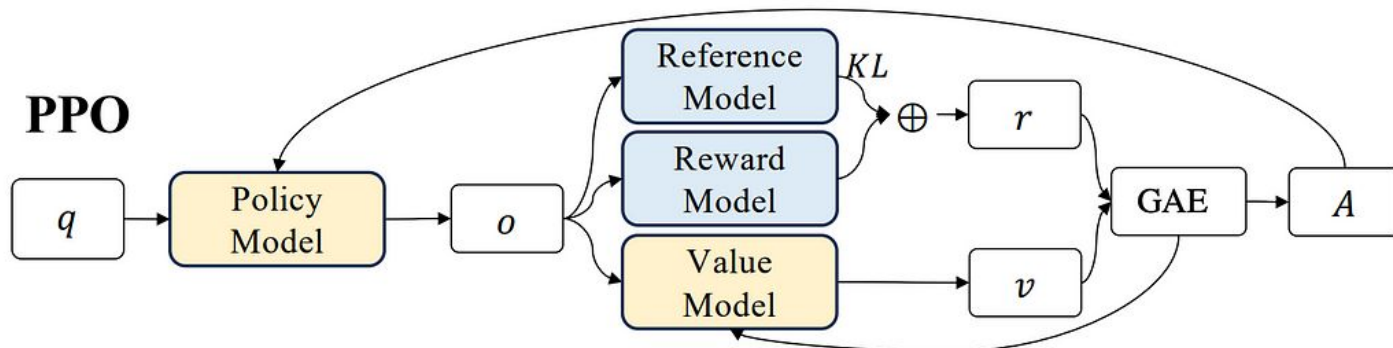
worked problems \Leftrightarrow supervised finetuning
(problem + demonstrated solution, for imitation)



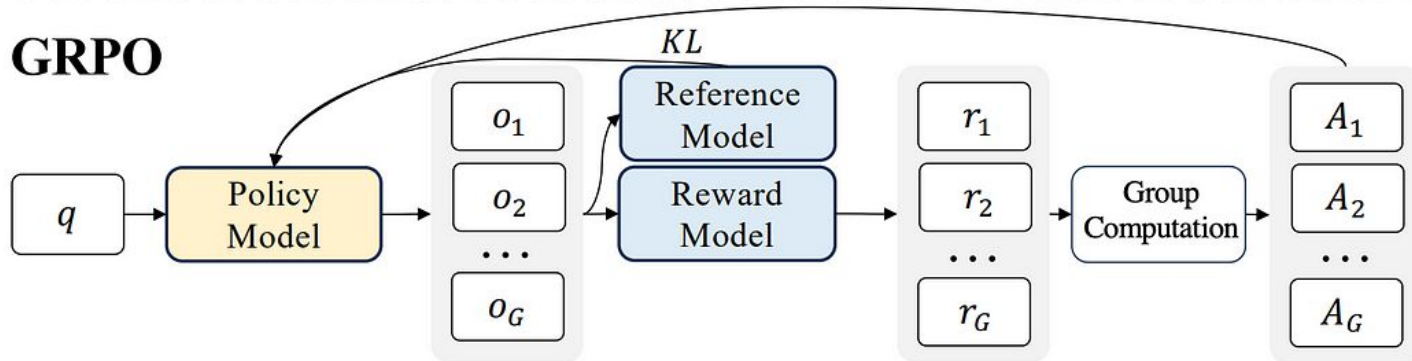
practice problems \Leftrightarrow reinforcement learning
(prompts to practice, trial & error until you reach the correct answer)



PPO



GRPO



2.2.1. Reinforcement Learning Algorithm

Group Relative Policy Optimization In order to save the training costs of RL, we adopt Group Relative Policy Optimization (GRPO) (Shao et al., 2024), which foregoes the critic model that is typically the same size as the policy model, and estimates the baseline from group scores instead. Specifically, for each question q , GRPO samples a group of outputs $\{o_1, o_2, \dots, o_G\}$ from the old policy $\pi_{\theta_{old}}$ and then optimizes the policy model π_{θ} by maximizing the following objective:

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$$\mathbb{D}_{KL}(\pi_{\theta} || \pi_{ref}) = \frac{\pi_{ref}(o_i|q)}{\pi_{\theta}(o_i|q)} - \log \frac{\pi_{ref}(o_i|q)}{\pi_{\theta}(o_i|q)} - 1, \quad (2)$$

where ε and β are hyper-parameters, and A_i is the advantage, computed using a group of rewards $\{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_G\}$ corresponding to the outputs within each group:

$$A_i = \frac{r_i - \text{mean}(\{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_G\})}{\text{std}(\{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_G\})}. \quad (3)$$

PPO

Proximal Policy Optimization Algorithms

John Schulman, Filip Wolski, Prafulla Dhariwal, Alec Radford, Oleg Klimov

OpenAI

{joschu, filip, prafulla, alec, oleg}@openai.com

Abstract

We propose a new family of policy gradient methods for reinforcement learning, which alternate between sampling data through interaction with the environment, and optimizing a “surrogate” objective function using stochastic gradient ascent. Whereas standard policy gradient methods perform one gradient update per data sample, we propose a novel objective function that enables multiple epochs of minibatch updates. The new methods, which we call proximal policy optimization (PPO), have some of the benefits of trust region policy optimization (TRPO), but they are much simpler to implement, more general, and have better sample complexity (empirically). Our experiments test PPO on a collection of benchmark tasks, including simulated robotic locomotion and Atari game playing, and we show that PPO outperforms other online policy gradient methods, and overall strikes a favorable balance between sample complexity, simplicity, and wall-time.

[cs.LG] 28 Aug 2017

2.1 Policy Gradient Methods

Policy gradient methods work by computing an estimator of the policy gradient and plugging it into a stochastic gradient ascent algorithm. The most commonly used gradient estimator has the form

$$\hat{g} = \hat{\mathbb{E}}_t \left[\nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(a_t | s_t) \hat{A}_t \right] \quad (1)$$

where π_{θ} is a stochastic policy and \hat{A}_t is an estimator of the advantage function at timestep t . Here, the expectation $\hat{\mathbb{E}}_t[\dots]$ indicates the empirical average over a finite batch of samples, in an algorithm that alternates between sampling and optimization. Implementations that use automatic differentiation software work by constructing an objective function whose gradient is the policy gradient estimator; the estimator \hat{g} is obtained by differentiating the objective

$$L^{PG}(\theta) = \hat{\mathbb{E}}_t \left[\log \pi_{\theta}(a_t | s_t) \hat{A}_t \right]. \quad (2)$$

While it is appealing to perform multiple steps of optimization on this loss L^{PG} using the same trajectory, doing so is not well-justified, and empirically it often leads to destructively large policy updates (see Section 6.1; results are not shown but were similar or worse than the “no clipping or penalty” setting).

2.2 Trust Region Methods

In TRPO [Sch+15b], an objective function (the “surrogate” objective) is maximized subject to a constraint on the size of the policy update. Specifically,

$$\underset{\theta}{\text{maximize}} \quad \hat{\mathbb{E}}_t \left[\frac{\pi_{\theta}(a_t | s_t)}{\pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}(a_t | s_t)} \hat{A}_t \right] \quad (3)$$

$$\text{subject to} \quad \hat{\mathbb{E}}_t [\text{KL}[\pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}(\cdot | s_t), \pi_{\theta}(\cdot | s_t)]] \leq \delta. \quad (4)$$

Here, θ_{old} is the vector of policy parameters before the update. This problem can efficiently be approximately solved using the conjugate gradient algorithm, after making a linear approximation to the objective and a quadratic approximation to the constraint.

The theory justifying TRPO actually suggests using a penalty instead of a constraint, i.e., solving the unconstrained optimization problem

$$\underset{\theta}{\text{maximize}} \quad \hat{\mathbb{E}}_t \left[\frac{\pi_{\theta}(a_t | s_t)}{\pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}(a_t | s_t)} \hat{A}_t - \beta \text{KL}[\pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}(\cdot | s_t), \pi_{\theta}(\cdot | s_t)] \right] \quad (5)$$

3 Clipped Surrogate Objective

Let $r_t(\theta)$ denote the probability ratio $r_t(\theta) = \frac{\pi_\theta(a_t | s_t)}{\pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}(a_t | s_t)}$, so $r(\theta_{\text{old}}) = 1$. TRPO maximizes a “surrogate” objective

$$L^{CPI}(\theta) = \hat{\mathbb{E}}_t \left[\frac{\pi_\theta(a_t | s_t)}{\pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}(a_t | s_t)} \hat{A}_t \right] = \hat{\mathbb{E}}_t [r_t(\theta) \hat{A}_t]. \quad (6)$$

The superscript *CPI* refers to conservative policy iteration [KL02], where this objective was proposed. Without a constraint, maximization of L^{CPI} would lead to an excessively large policy update; hence, we now consider how to modify the objective, to penalize changes to the policy that move $r_t(\theta)$ away from 1.

The main objective we propose is the following:

$$L^{CLIP}(\theta) = \hat{\mathbb{E}}_t \left[\min(r_t(\theta) \hat{A}_t, \text{clip}(r_t(\theta), 1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon) \hat{A}_t) \right] \quad (7)$$

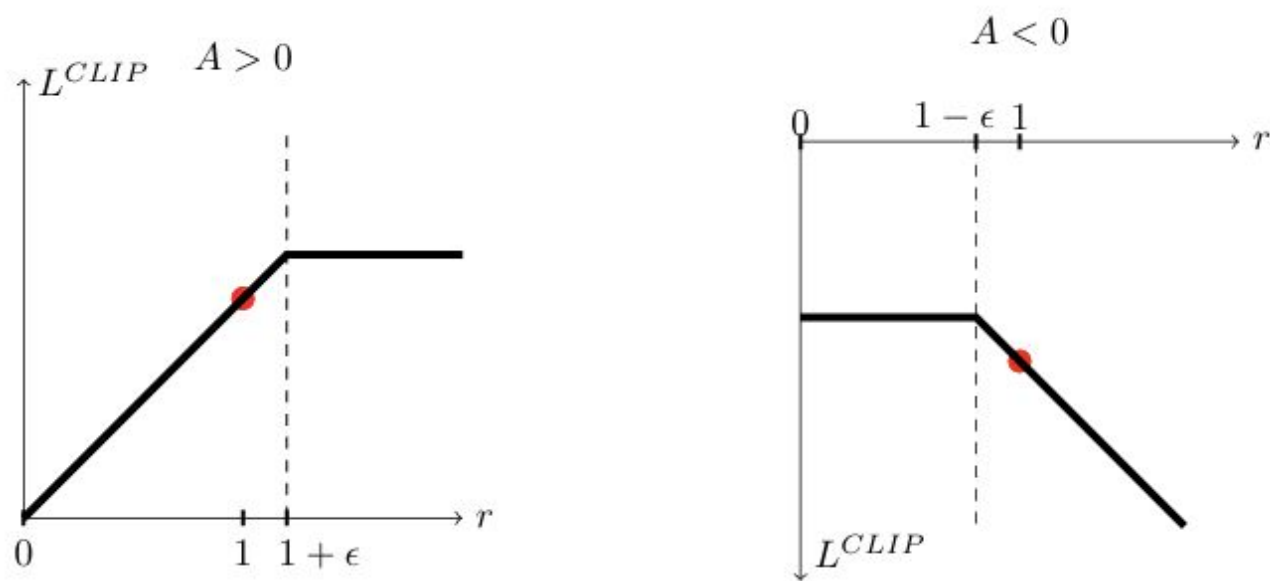



Figure 1: Plots showing one term (i.e., a single timestep) of the surrogate function L^{CLIP} as a function of the probability ratio r , for positive advantages (left) and negative advantages (right). The red circle on each plot shows the starting point for the optimization, i.e., $r = 1$. Note that L^{CLIP} sums many of these terms.


DeepResearch

Good evening, Joshua Yao-Yu.
How can I help you today?

|What do you want to know?



 DeepSearch | ▾

 Think

Grok 3 ▾



Hello, Joshua Yao-Yu

Tell me what
you can do

Save me
time

Research
a topic

Write an essay
on the history of chess

Ask Gemini



Deep Research



Canvas



AlphaEvolve



- Advancing the frontiers in mathematics and algorithm discovery
- Enhancing AI training and inference
 - AlphaEvolve achieved up to a 32.5% speedup for the [FlashAttention](#) kernel implementation in [Transformer](#)-based AI models
- Designing better algorithms with large language models

Scientist / Engineer

Prompt template
and configuration

Choice of existing
or custom LLMs

Evaluation code

Initial program
with components
to evolve



Prompt sampler



LLMs ensemble



Evaluators pool



Program database



Best program

Distributed Controller Loop

```
parent_program, inspirations = database.sample()
prompt = prompt_sampler.build(parent_program, inspirations)
diff = llm.generate(prompt)
child_program = apply_diff(parent_program, diff)
results = evaluator.execute(child_program)
database.add(child_program, results)
```



AlphaEvolve

$$\max_{-1/2 \leq s \leq 1/2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t-x)f(x) \, dx \geq C \left(\int_{-1/4}^{1/4} f(x) \, dx \right)^2$$

$$1.5098 \rightarrow \mathbf{1.5053}$$

$$\|f * f\|_2^2 \leq C \|f * f\|_1 \|f * f\|_\infty$$

$$0.8892 \rightarrow \mathbf{0.8962}$$

$$\max_{-1/2 \leq s \leq 1/2} \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t-x)f(x) \, dx \right| \geq C \left(\int_{-1/4}^{1/4} f(x) \, dx \right)^2$$

$$1.4581 \rightarrow \mathbf{1.4557}$$

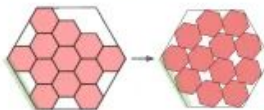
$$A(f)A(\hat{f}) \geq C'''$$

$$0.3523 \rightarrow \mathbf{0.3521}$$

Analysis

Hexagon outer edge

$$4.000 \rightarrow \mathbf{3.942}$$



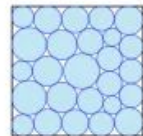
Max distance/min distance

$$12.890 \rightarrow \mathbf{12.889}$$



Sum of radii

$$2.6340 \rightarrow \mathbf{2.6358}$$



Geometry



$$\sup_{x \in [-2, 2]} \int_{-1}^1 f(t)g(x+t) \, dt \geq C$$

$$0.380926 \rightarrow \mathbf{0.380924}$$

$$|A+B| \ll |A|$$

$$|A-B| \gg |A|^C$$

$$1.1446 \rightarrow \mathbf{1.1584}$$

Combinatorics

The Strassen algorithm partitions A , B and C into equally sized **block matrices**

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} \end{bmatrix},$$

with $A_{ij}, B_{ij}, C_{ij} \in \text{Mat}_{2^{n-1} \times 2^{n-1}}(\mathcal{R})$. The naive algorithm would be:

$$\begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} \times B_{11} + A_{12} \times B_{21} & A_{11} \times B_{12} + A_{12} \times B_{22} \\ A_{21} \times B_{11} + A_{22} \times B_{21} & A_{21} \times B_{12} + A_{22} \times B_{22} \end{bmatrix}.$$

This construction does not reduce the number of multiplications: 8 multiplications of matrix blocks are still needed to calculate the C_{ij} matrices, the same number of multiplications needed when using standard matrix multiplication.

The Strassen algorithm defines instead new values:

$$M_1 = (A_{11} + A_{22}) \times (B_{11} + B_{22});$$

$$M_2 = (A_{21} + A_{22}) \times B_{11};$$

$$M_3 = A_{11} \times (B_{12} - B_{22});$$

$$M_4 = A_{22} \times (B_{21} - B_{11});$$

$$M_5 = (A_{11} + A_{12}) \times B_{22};$$

$$M_6 = (A_{21} - A_{11}) \times (B_{11} + B_{12});$$

$$M_7 = (A_{12} - A_{22}) \times (B_{21} + B_{22}),$$

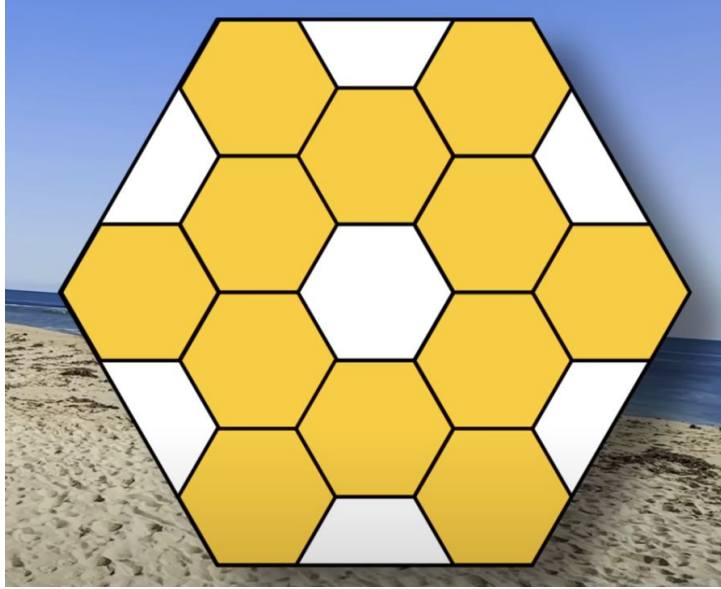
using only 7 multiplications (one for each M_k) instead of 8. We may now express the C_{ij} in terms of M_k :

$$\begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} M_1 + M_4 - M_5 + M_7 & M_3 + M_5 \\ M_2 + M_4 & M_1 - M_2 + M_3 + M_6 \end{bmatrix}.$$

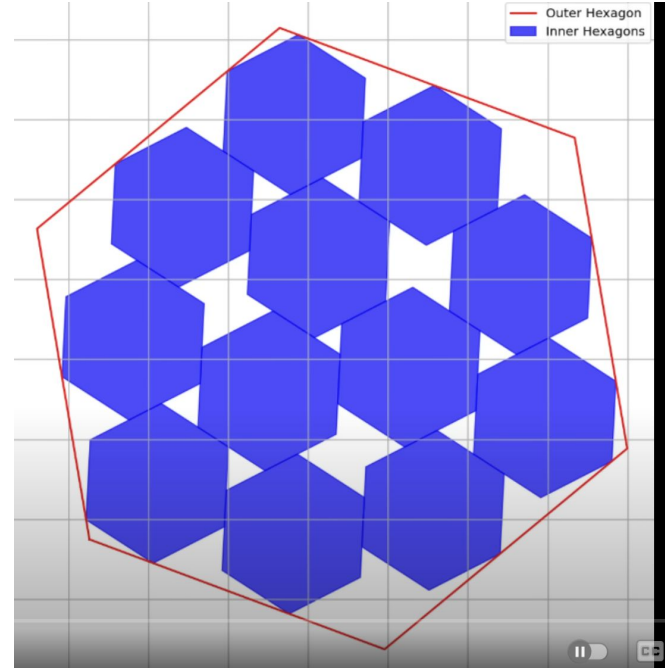
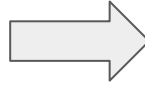
[Strassen's 1969 algorithm](#)

Packing problem: Hexagons in Hexagons

The following pictures show n regular hexagons with side 1 packed inside the smallest known regular hexagon (of side length s).



side lengths = 4



side lengths = 3.942

New result distribution

Visualization of results across 67 problems.

■ New result ■ Former new result, got improved upon ■ Worse than literature bound
■ Matched known optimal bound ■ Matched literature bound / N/A



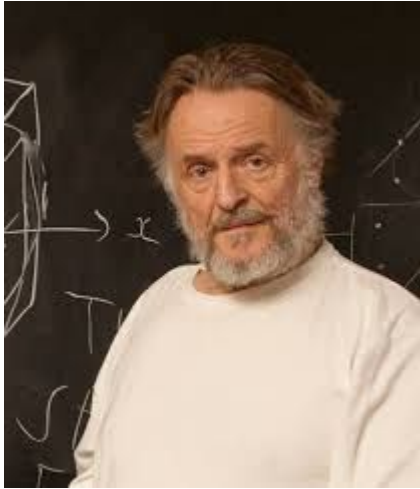
Terry Tao

Blogpost:

[Mathematical exploration and discovery at scale](#)

Bonus (emergent Phenome):

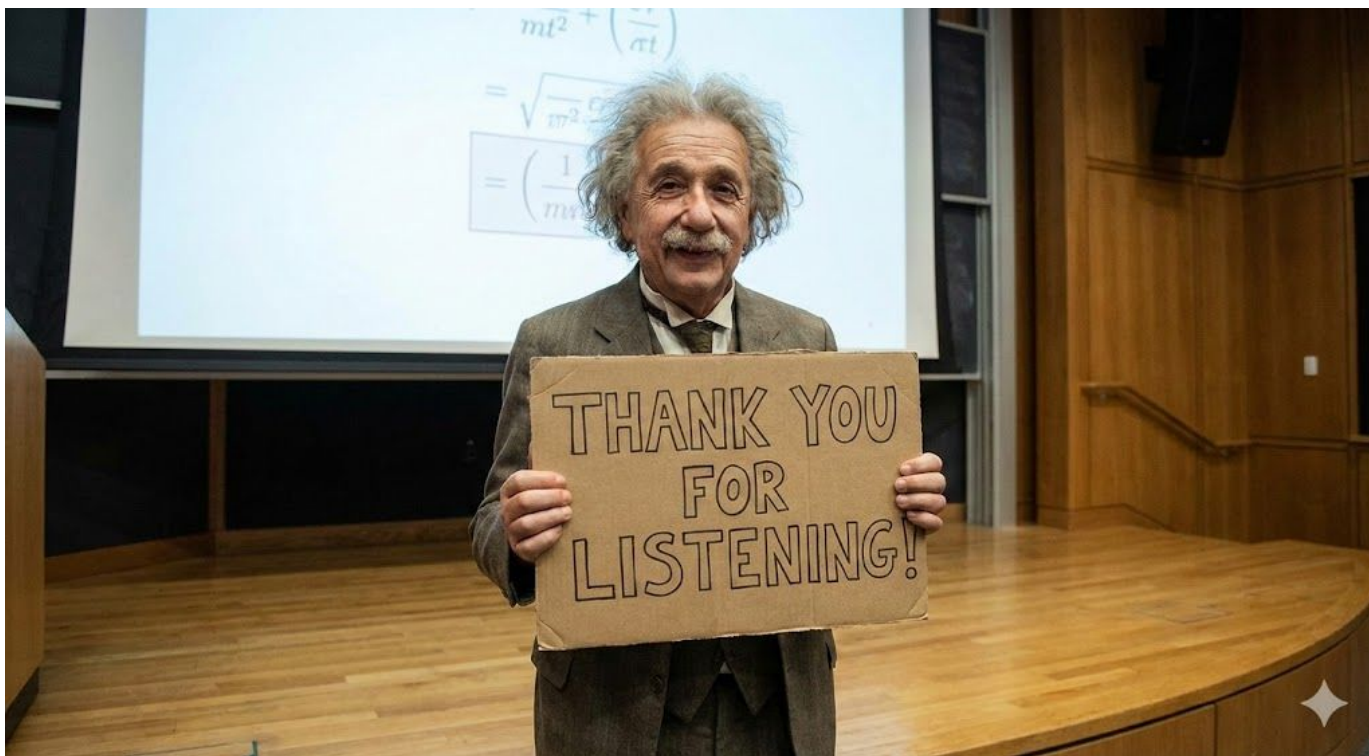
- [Game of Life](#)
- [Neural Cellular Automata](#)



John Conway



Stephen Wolfram



p.s. We're hiring! Please feel free to reach out!

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