ex7\_sol

June 13, 2019

## 1 Exercise 7 - AutoEncoders

This exercise is based on https://github.com/leriomaggio/deep-learning-keras-tensorflow and https://blog.keras.io/building-autoencoders-in-keras.html

"Autoencoding" is a data compression algorithm where the compression and decompression functions are data-specific, lossy, and learned automatically from examples rather than engineered by a human. Additionally, in almost all contexts where the term "autoencoder" is used, the compression and decompression functions are implemented with neural networks.

The aim of an autoencoder is to learn a representation (encoding) for a set of data.. typically for the purpose of dimensionality reduction or feature learning.

To build an autoencoder, you need three things: an encoding function, a decoding function, and a distance function between the amount of information loss between the compressed representation of your data and the decompressed representation (i.e. a "loss" function)

Autoencoders are not a true unsupervised learning technique (which would imply a different learning process altogether), they are a self-supervised technique, a specific instance of supervised learning where the targets are generated from the input data. In order to get self-supervised models to learn interesting features, you have to come up with an interesting synthetic target and loss function, and that's where problems arise: merely learning to reconstruct your input in minute detail might not be the right choice here.

#### 1.1 AutoEncoder and the MNIST dataset

We will use the MNIST dataset in order to train a few simple autoencoder.

## 1.2 Single fully-connected neural layer Autoencoder

## 1.2.1 Building the Model with Keras Functional API

The Keras functional API is the way to go for defining complex models, such as multi-output models, directed acyclic graphs, or models with shared layers. All the Functional API relies on the fact that each keras. Layer object is a *callable* object! More details can be found here: https://keras.io/getting-started/functional-api-guide/

Let's start with the simplest possible model:

```
# this is the size of our encoded representations
encoding_dim = 32  # 32 floats -> compression of factor 24.5, assuming the input is 78.

# this is our input placeholder
input_img = Input(shape=(784,))
# "encoded" is the encoded representation of the input
encoded = Dense(encoding_dim, activation='relu')(input_img)
# "decoded" is the lossy reconstruction of the input
decoded = Dense(784, activation='sigmoid')(encoded)

# this model maps an input to its reconstruction
autoencoder = Model(input_img, decoded)
```

Using TensorFlow backend.

WARNING:tensorflow:From /home/nackenho/miniconda/envs/TUDortmundMLSeminar/lib/python2.7/site-particular for updating:
Colocations handled automatically by placer.

Let's also create a separate encoder model:

```
In [2]: # this model maps an input to its encoded representation
    encoder = Model(input_img, encoded)
```

As well as the decoder model:

```
In [3]: # create a placeholder for an encoded (32-dimensional) input
    encoded_input = Input(shape=(encoding_dim,))
    # retrieve the last layer of the autoencoder model
    decoder_layer = autoencoder.layers[-1]
    # create the decoder model
    decoder = Model(encoded_input, decoder_layer(encoded_input))
```

First, we'll configure our autoencoder model to use a per-pixel binary crossentropy loss, and the Adadelta optimizer:

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
input_1 (InputLayer)	(None, 784)	0
dense_1 (Dense)	(None, 32)	25120
dense_2 (Dense)	(None, 784)	25872

------

```
Total params: 50,992
Trainable params: 50,992
Non-trainable params: 0
```

\_\_\_\_\_\_

## 1.3 Data preparation for Dense-Layered Autoencoder

Let's prepare our input data. We're using MNIST digits, we won't need the labels (since we're only interested in encoding/decoding the input images).

### **Split Training and Validation Data**

## 1.4 Training the Autoencoder

Now let's train our autoencoder:

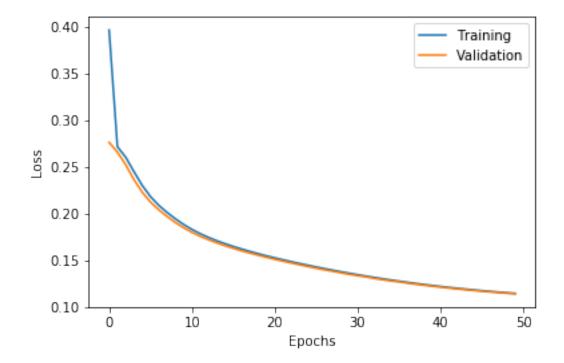
WARNING:tensorflow:From /home/nackenho/miniconda/envs/TUDortmundMLSeminar/lib/python2.7/site-particles for updating:

```
Use tf.cast instead.
Train on 42000 samples, validate on 18000 samples
Epoch 1/50
Epoch 2/50
Epoch 3/50
Epoch 4/50
Epoch 5/50
Epoch 6/50
Epoch 7/50
Epoch 8/50
Epoch 9/50
Epoch 10/50
Epoch 11/50
Epoch 12/50
Epoch 13/50
Epoch 14/50
Epoch 15/50
Epoch 16/50
Epoch 17/50
Epoch 18/50
Epoch 19/50
Epoch 20/50
Epoch 21/50
Epoch 22/50
```

```
Epoch 23/50
Epoch 24/50
Epoch 25/50
Epoch 26/50
Epoch 27/50
Epoch 28/50
Epoch 29/50
Epoch 30/50
Epoch 31/50
Epoch 32/50
Epoch 33/50
Epoch 34/50
Epoch 35/50
Epoch 36/50
Epoch 37/50
Epoch 38/50
Epoch 39/50
Epoch 40/50
Epoch 41/50
Epoch 42/50
Epoch 43/50
Epoch 44/50
Epoch 45/50
Epoch 46/50
```

Let's plot the loss function to see if the training is stable

In [10]: plot\_history(history)



Well, not yet done, but we don't have more time....

## 1.5 Testing the Autoencoder

```
In [11]: # encode and decode some digits
       # note that we take them from the *test* set
       encoded_imgs = encoder.predict(x_test)
       decoded_imgs = decoder.predict(encoded_imgs)
       n = 10 # how many digits we will display
       plt.figure(figsize=(20, 4))
       for i in range(n):
           # display original
           ax = plt.subplot(2, n, i + 1)
          plt.imshow(x_test[i].reshape(28, 28))
          plt.gray()
           ax.get_xaxis().set_visible(False)
           ax.get_yaxis().set_visible(False)
           # display reconstruction
           ax = plt.subplot(2, n, i + 1 + n)
           plt.imshow(decoded_imgs[i].reshape(28, 28))
           plt.gray()
           ax.get_xaxis().set_visible(False)
           ax.get_yaxis().set_visible(False)
       plt.show()
    7210414959
   7210914369
```

The top row is the original digits, and the bottom row is the reconstructed digits. We are losing quite a bit of detail with this basic approach.

### 1.6 Sample generation with Autoencoder

Can we actually generate numbers using the trained decoder, if we just draw random numbers for the encoded image?

```
n = 10
plt.figure(figsize=(20, 4))
for i in range(n):
    # generation
    ax = plt.subplot(2, n, i + 1 + n)
    plt.imshow(decoded_imgs[i].reshape(28, 28))
    plt.gray()
    ax.get_xaxis().set_visible(False)
    ax.get_yaxis().set_visible(False)
plt.show()
```



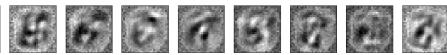


















Although you might see some structures which look similar to numbers in the middle, using the decoder as a generator for handwritten digits clearly doesn't work.

We could now study deeper structures, feel free to try this at home, but the result will only improve slightly. Another way to constrain the representations to be compact is to add a sparsity contraint on the activity of the hidden representations, so fewer units would "fire" at a given time. In Keras, this can be done by adding the L1 norm regularizer as an activity\_regularizer to our Dense layer.

#### 1.7 Convolutional AutoEncoder

Since our inputs are images, it makes sense to use convolutional neural networks (convnets) as encoders and decoders. In practical settings, autoencoders applied to images are always convolutional autoencoders -- they simply perform much better.

The encoder will consist in a stack of Conv2D and MaxPooling2D layers (max pooling being used for spatial down-sampling), while the decoder will consist in a stack of Conv2D and UpSampling2D layers.

```
In [13]: from keras.layers import Input, Dense, Conv2D, MaxPooling2D, UpSampling2D
        from keras.models import Model
        from keras import backend as K
         input_img = Input(shape=(28, 28, 1)) # adapt this if using `channels_first` image da
        x = Conv2D(16, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same')(input_img)
        x = MaxPooling2D((2, 2), padding='same')(x)
        x = Conv2D(8, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same')(x)
        x = MaxPooling2D((2, 2), padding='same')(x)
        x = Conv2D(8, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same')(x)
```

```
encoded = MaxPooling2D((2, 2), padding='same')(x)

# at this point the representation is (4, 4, 8) i.e. 128-dimensional

x = Conv2D(8, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same')(encoded)
x = UpSampling2D((2, 2))(x)
x = Conv2D(8, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same')(x)
x = UpSampling2D((2, 2))(x)
x = Conv2D(16, (3, 3), activation='relu')(x)
x = UpSampling2D((2, 2))(x)
decoded = Conv2D(1, (3, 3), activation='sigmoid', padding='same')(x)

conv_autoencoder = Model(input_img, decoded)
conv_autoencoder.compile(optimizer='adadelta', loss='binary_crossentropy')
conv_autoencoder.summary()
```

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
input_3 (InputLayer)	(None, 28, 28, 1)	0
conv2d_1 (Conv2D)	(None, 28, 28, 16)	160
max_pooling2d_1 (MaxPooling2	(None, 14, 14, 16)	0
conv2d_2 (Conv2D)	(None, 14, 14, 8)	1160
max_pooling2d_2 (MaxPooling2	(None, 7, 7, 8)	0
conv2d_3 (Conv2D)	(None, 7, 7, 8)	584
max_pooling2d_3 (MaxPooling2	(None, 4, 4, 8)	0
conv2d_4 (Conv2D)	(None, 4, 4, 8)	584
up_sampling2d_1 (UpSampling2	(None, 8, 8, 8)	0
conv2d_5 (Conv2D)	(None, 8, 8, 8)	584
up_sampling2d_2 (UpSampling2	(None, 16, 16, 8)	0
conv2d_6 (Conv2D)	(None, 14, 14, 16)	1168
up_sampling2d_3 (UpSampling2	(None, 28, 28, 16)	0
conv2d_7 (Conv2D)	(None, 28, 28, 1)	145 ======

Total params: 4,385

Trainable params: 4,385 Non-trainable params: 0

\_\_\_\_\_

#### 1.8 Task 1: Train and evaluate the Convolutional Autoencoder

- Prepare the data for the Convolutional Autoencoder
- Train the Convolutional Autoencoder and plot the training and validation loss
- Test the Convolutional Autoencoder by plotting 10 of the decoded predictions next to the original images
- Plot the encoded representations in order to visualize how the digits are encoded

## 1.9 Data Preparation for Convolutional Autoencoder

```
In [14]: from keras import backend as K
         if K.image_data_format() == 'channels_last':
             shape_ord = (28, 28, 1)
         else:
             shape_ord = (1, 28, 28)
         #Load
         (x_train, y_train), (x_test, y_test) = mnist.load_data()
         #Scale
         x_train = x_train.astype('float32') / 255.
         x_{test} = x_{test.astype}('float32') / 255.
         #Shape for CNN
         x_train = np.reshape(x_train, ((x_train.shape[0],) + shape_ord))
         x_test = np.reshape(x_test, ((x_test.shape[0],) + shape_ord))
         #Split into validation
         x_train, x_val, y_train, y_val = train_test_split(x_train, y_train, test_size=0.3, rate
In [15]: x_train.shape
Out[15]: (42000, 28, 28, 1)
```

# 1.10 Training the Convolutional Autoencoder

Let's train this model. For the sake of demonstrating how to visualize the results of a model during training, we will be using the TensorFlow backend and the TensorBoard callback.

First, let's open up a terminal and start a TensorBoard server that will read logs stored at /tmp/autoencoder.

tensorboard --logdir=/tmp/autoencoder

Then let's train our model. In the callbacks list we pass an instance of the TensorBoard callback. After every epoch, this callback will write logs to /tmp/autoencoder, which can be read by our TensorBoard server.

```
In [16]: from keras.callbacks import TensorBoard
  history = conv_autoencoder.fit(x_train, x_train,
     epochs=50,
     batch_size=256,
     shuffle=True,
     validation_data=(x_test, x_test),
     callbacks=[TensorBoard(log_dir='/tmp/autoencoder')])
Train on 42000 samples, validate on 10000 samples
Epoch 1/50
Epoch 2/50
Epoch 3/50
Epoch 4/50
Epoch 5/50
Epoch 6/50
Epoch 7/50
Epoch 8/50
Epoch 9/50
Epoch 10/50
Epoch 11/50
Epoch 12/50
Epoch 13/50
Epoch 14/50
Epoch 15/50
Epoch 16/50
Epoch 17/50
```

```
Epoch 18/50
Epoch 19/50
Epoch 20/50
Epoch 21/50
Epoch 22/50
Epoch 23/50
Epoch 24/50
Epoch 25/50
Epoch 26/50
Epoch 27/50
Epoch 28/50
Epoch 29/50
Epoch 30/50
Epoch 31/50
Epoch 32/50
Epoch 33/50
Epoch 34/50
Epoch 35/50
Epoch 36/50
Epoch 37/50
Epoch 38/50
Epoch 39/50
Epoch 40/50
Epoch 41/50
```

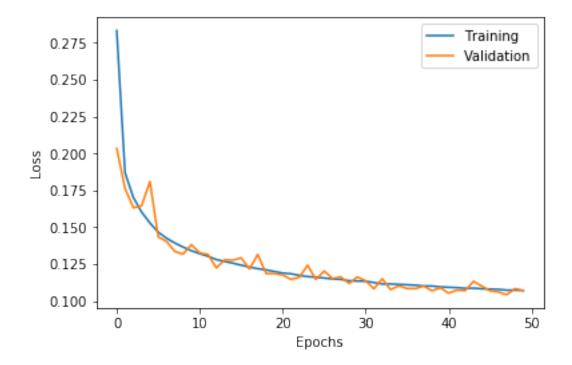
```
Epoch 42/50
Epoch 43/50
Epoch 44/50
Epoch 45/50
Epoch 46/50
Epoch 47/50
Epoch 48/50
Epoch 49/50
Epoch 50/50
```

This allows us to monitor training in the TensorBoard web interface (by navighating to http://0.0.0.0:6006

Tensorboard is pretty cool, you can also have a look at the graphs to see a representation of you model. Using tensorboard is quite useful to understand if your model is working an visualize a few features of your model right in the beginning of your training. This way you know immediately if it is working or not and don't need to wait until the training is done. More information can be found here:

https://www.tensorflow.org/programmers\_guide/summaries\_and\_tensorboard Let's plot the loss here as well:

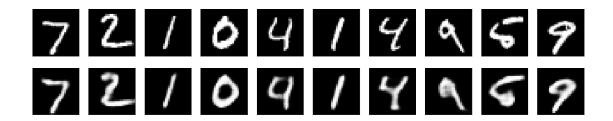
In [17]: plot\_history(history)



The model converges to a loss, which is significantly better than our previous models (this is in large part due to the higher entropic capacity of the encoded representation, 128 dimensions vs. 32 previously). Let's take a look at the reconstructed digits:

## 1.11 Testing the Convolutional Autoencoder

```
In [18]: decoded_imgs = conv_autoencoder.predict(x_test)
         n = 10
         plt.figure(figsize=(20, 4))
         for i in range(n):
             # display original
             ax = plt.subplot(2, n, i+1)
             plt.imshow(x_test[i].reshape(28, 28))
             plt.gray()
             ax.get_xaxis().set_visible(False)
             ax.get_yaxis().set_visible(False)
             # display reconstruction
             ax = plt.subplot(2, n, i + n + 1)
             plt.imshow(decoded_imgs[i].reshape(28, 28))
             plt.gray()
             ax.get_xaxis().set_visible(False)
             ax.get_yaxis().set_visible(False)
         plt.show()
```



We can also have a look at the 128-dimensional encoded representations. These representations are 8x4x4, so we reshape them to 4x32 in order to be able to display them as grayscale images.

```
In [19]: conv_encoder = Model(input_img, encoded)
    encoded_imgs = conv_encoder.predict(x_test)

n = 10
    plt.figure(figsize=(20, 8))
    for i in range(n):
        ax = plt.subplot(1, n, i+1)
        plt.imshow(encoded_imgs[i].reshape(4, 4 * 8).T)
        plt.gray()
        ax.get_xaxis().set_visible(False)
        ax.get_yaxis().set_visible(False)
    plt.show()
```

# 1.12 Application to Image Denoising

Let's put our convolutional autoencoder to work on an image denoising problem. It's simple: we will train the autoencoder to map noisy digits images to clean digits images.

Here's how we will generate synthetic noisy digits: we just apply a gaussian noise matrix and clip the images between 0 and 1.

```
In [20]: noise_factor = 0.5
        x_train_noisy = x_train + noise_factor * np.random.normal(loc=0.0, scale=1.0, size=x_
        x_test_noisy = x_test + noise_factor * np.random.normal(loc=0.0, scale=1.0, size=x_tex
        x_train_noisy = np.clip(x_train_noisy, 0., 1.)
        x_test_noisy = np.clip(x_test_noisy, 0., 1.)
  Here's how the noisy digits look like:
In [21]: n = 10
        plt.figure(figsize=(20, 2))
        for i in range(n):
            ax = plt.subplot(1, n, i+1)
            plt.imshow(x_test_noisy[i].reshape(28, 28))
            plt.gray()
            ax.get_xaxis().set_visible(False)
            ax.get_yaxis().set_visible(False)
        plt.show()
```

If you squint you can still recognize them, but barely.

## 1.13 Question: Can our autoencoder learn to recover the original digits?

Compared to the previous convolutional autoencoder,we'll use a slightly different model with more filters per layer in order to improve the quality of the reconstructed:

```
In [22]: input_img = Input(shape=(28, 28, 1))  # adapt this if using `channels_first` image da

x = Conv2D(32, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same')(input_img)
x = MaxPooling2D((2, 2), padding='same')(x)
x = Conv2D(32, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same')(x)
encoded = MaxPooling2D((2, 2), padding='same')(x)

# at this point the representation is (7, 7, 32)

x = Conv2D(32, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same')(encoded)
x = UpSampling2D((2, 2))(x)
x = Conv2D(32, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same')(x)
x = UpSampling2D((2, 2))(x)
decoded = Conv2D(1, (3, 3), activation='sigmoid', padding='same')(x)
```

```
autoencoder = Model(input_img, decoded)
autoencoder.compile(optimizer='adadelta', loss='binary_crossentropy')
autoencoder.summary()
```

```
Output Shape Param #
Layer (type)
______
input_4 (InputLayer)
                (None, 28, 28, 1)
_____
conv2d_8 (Conv2D)
                (None, 28, 28, 32) 320
_____
max_pooling2d_4 (MaxPooling2 (None, 14, 14, 32) 0
                (None, 14, 14, 32)
conv2d 9 (Conv2D)
max_pooling2d_5 (MaxPooling2 (None, 7, 7, 32)
conv2d_10 (Conv2D) (None, 7, 7, 32)
                            9248
up_sampling2d_4 (UpSampling2 (None, 14, 14, 32)
conv2d_11 (Conv2D) (None, 14, 14, 32) 9248
up_sampling2d_5 (UpSampling2 (None, 28, 28, 32)
conv2d_12 (Conv2D) (None, 28, 28, 1) 289
______
Total params: 28,353
```

Total params: 28,353 Trainable params: 28,353 Non-trainable params: 0

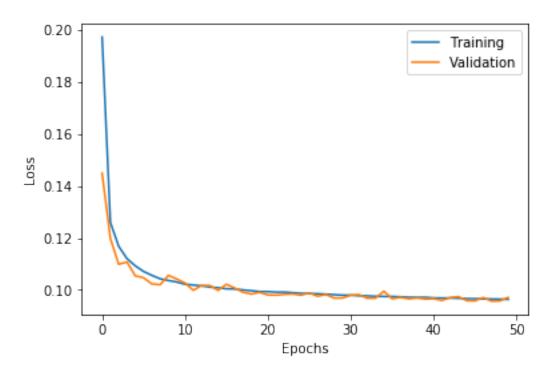
\_\_\_\_\_\_

#### Let's train the AutoEncoder

```
Epoch 3/50
Epoch 4/50
Epoch 5/50
Epoch 6/50
Epoch 7/50
Epoch 8/50
Epoch 9/50
Epoch 10/50
Epoch 11/50
Epoch 12/50
Epoch 13/50
Epoch 14/50
Epoch 15/50
Epoch 16/50
Epoch 17/50
Epoch 18/50
Epoch 19/50
Epoch 20/50
Epoch 21/50
Epoch 22/50
Epoch 23/50
Epoch 24/50
Epoch 25/50
Epoch 26/50
```

```
Epoch 27/50
Epoch 28/50
Epoch 29/50
Epoch 30/50
Epoch 31/50
Epoch 32/50
Epoch 33/50
Epoch 34/50
Epoch 35/50
Epoch 36/50
Epoch 37/50
Epoch 38/50
Epoch 39/50
Epoch 40/50
Epoch 41/50
Epoch 42/50
Epoch 43/50
Epoch 44/50
Epoch 45/50
Epoch 46/50
Epoch 47/50
Epoch 48/50
Epoch 49/50
Epoch 50/50
```

In [24]: plot\_history(history)



Now let's take a look at the results. Top, the noisy digits fed to the network, and bottom, the digits are reconstructed by the network.

```
In [25]: decoded_imgs = autoencoder.predict(x_test_noisy)
         n = 10
         plt.figure(figsize=(20, 4))
         for i in range(n):
             # display original
             ax = plt.subplot(3, n, i+1)
             plt.imshow(x_test[i].reshape(28, 28))
             plt.gray()
             ax.get_xaxis().set_visible(False)
             ax.get_yaxis().set_visible(False)
             ax = plt.subplot(3, n, i + n + 1)
             plt.imshow(x_test_noisy[i].reshape(28, 28))
             plt.gray()
             ax.get_xaxis().set_visible(False)
             ax.get_yaxis().set_visible(False)
             # display reconstruction
             ax = plt.subplot(3, n, i + 2*n + 1)
             plt.imshow(decoded_imgs[i].reshape(28, 28))
```

```
plt.gray()
ax.get_xaxis().set_visible(False)
ax.get_yaxis().set_visible(False)
plt.show()

7 2 / 0 4 / 9 9 6 9

7 2 / 0 4 / 9 6 9
```

It seems to work pretty well. If you scale this process to a bigger convnet, you can start building document denoising or audio denoising models.

## 2 Bonus: Variational AutoEncoder

Reference <a href="https://blog.keras.io/building-autoencoders-in-keras.html">https://blog.keras.io/building-autoencoders-in-keras.html</a> and https://github.com/keras-team/keras/blob/master/examples/variational\_autoencoder.py Variational autoencoders are a slightly more modern and interesting take on autoencoding.

#### 2.0.1 What is a variational autoencoder?

It's a type of autoencoder with added constraints on the encoded representations being learned.

More precisely, it is an autoencoder that learns a latent variable model for its input data.

So instead of letting your neural network learn an arbitrary function, you are learning the parameters of a probability distribution modeling your data.

If you sample points from this distribution, you can generate new input data samples: a **VAE** is a **"generative model"**.

### 2.0.2 How does a variational autoencoder work?

First, an encoder network turns the input samples x into two parameters in a latent space, which we will note  $z_{\mu}$  and  $z_{log_{\sigma}}$ .

Then, we randomly sample similar points z from the *latent normal distribution* that is assumed to generate the data, via  $z = z_{\mu} + \exp(z_{log_{\sigma}}) * \epsilon$ , where  $\epsilon$  is a random normal tensor.

Finally, a decoder network maps these latent space points back to the original input data.

The parameters of the model are trained via two loss functions:

- a **reconstruction loss** forcing the decoded samples to match the initial inputs (just like in our previous autoencoders);
- and the **KL divergence** between the learned latent distribution and the prior distribution, acting as a regularization term.

You could actually get rid of this latter term entirely, although it does help in learning well-formed latent spaces and reducing overfitting to the training data.

#### 2.1 Load MNIST

```
In [26]: from keras.layers import Lambda, Input, Dense
         from keras.models import Model
         from keras.datasets import mnist
         from keras.losses import binary_crossentropy
         from keras.utils import plot model
         from keras import backend as K
         import numpy as np
         import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
         import argparse
         import os
In [27]: (x_train, y_train), (x_test, y_test) = mnist.load_data()
         image_size = x_train.shape[1]
         original_dim = image_size * image_size
         x_train = np.reshape(x_train, [-1, original_dim])
         x_test = np.reshape(x_test, [-1, original_dim])
         x train = x train.astype('float32') / 255
         x_test = x_test.astype('float32') / 255
```

## 2.2 Encoder Network

First, here's our encoder network, mapping inputs to our latent distribution parameters:

We can use these parameters to sample new similar points from the latent space:

```
In [30]: # reparameterization trick

# instead of sampling from Q(z|X), sample eps = N(0,I)

# z = z_mean + sqrt(var)*eps

def sampling(args):

"""Reparameterization trick by sampling fr an isotropic unit Gaussian.

# Arguments:
```

```
args (tensor): mean and log of variance of Q(z|X)
# Returns:
    z (tensor): sampled latent vector
"""

z_mean, z_log_var = args
batch = K.shape(z_mean)[0]
dim = K.int_shape(z_mean)[1]
# by default, random_normal has mean=0 and std=1.0
epsilon = K.random_normal(shape=(batch, dim))
return z_mean + K.exp(0.5 * z_log_var) * epsilon

# use reparameterization trick to push the sampling out as input
# note that "output_shape" isn't necessary with the TensorFlow backend
z = Lambda(sampling, output_shape=(latent_dim,), name='z')([z_mean, z_log_var])

# instantiate encoder model
encoder = Model(inputs, [z_mean, z_log_var, z], name='encoder')
encoder.summary()
```

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #	Connected to
encoder_input (InputLayer)	(None, 784)	0	
dense_3 (Dense)	(None, 512)	401920	encoder_input[0][0]
z_mean (Dense)	(None, 2)	1026	dense_3[0][0]
z_log_var (Dense)	(None, 2)	1026	dense_3[0][0]
z (Lambda)	(None, 2)	0	z_mean[0][0] z_log_var[0][0]

Total params: 403,972 Trainable params: 403,972 Non-trainable params: 0

-----

### 2.3 Decoder Network

Finally, we can map these sampled latent points back to reconstructed inputs:

```
# instantiate decoder model
decoder = Model(latent_inputs, outputs, name='decoder')
decoder.summary()
```

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
z_sampling (InputLayer)	(None, 2)	0
dense_4 (Dense)	(None, 512)	1536
dense_5 (Dense)	(None, 784)	402192

Total params: 403,728 Trainable params: 403,728 Non-trainable params: 0

------

### 2.4 Variational AutoEncoder

We train the model using the end-to-end model, with a custom loss function: the sum of a reconstruction term, and the KL divergence regularization term.

```
In [33]: reconstruction_loss = binary_crossentropy(inputs,outputs)
    reconstruction_loss *= original_dim
    kl_loss = 1 + z_log_var - K.square(z_mean) - K.exp(z_log_var)
    kl_loss = K.sum(kl_loss, axis=-1)
    kl_loss *= -0.5
    vae_loss = K.mean(reconstruction_loss + kl_loss)
    vae.add_loss(vae_loss)
    vae.compile(optimizer='adam')
    vae.summary()
```

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
encoder_input (InputLayer)	(None, 784)	0
encoder (Model)	[(None, 2), (None, 2), (N	403972
decoder (Model)	(None, 784)	403728

Total params: 807,700

```
Trainable params: 807,700 Non-trainable params: 0
```

\_\_\_\_\_

### Traing on MNIST Digits

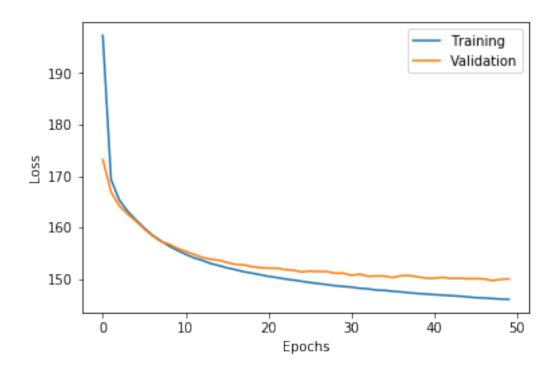
Epoch 18/50

```
Train on 60000 samples, validate on 10000 samples
Epoch 1/50
Epoch 2/50
Epoch 3/50
Epoch 4/50
Epoch 5/50
Epoch 6/50
Epoch 7/50
Epoch 8/50
Epoch 9/50
Epoch 10/50
Epoch 11/50
Epoch 12/50
Epoch 13/50
60000/60000 [============== ] - 9s 150us/step - loss: 153.6171 - val_loss: 154.
Epoch 14/50
Epoch 15/50
Epoch 16/50
Epoch 17/50
```

```
Epoch 19/50
Epoch 20/50
Epoch 21/50
Epoch 22/50
60000/60000 [=============== ] - 11s 191us/step - loss: 150.2733 - val loss: 152
Epoch 23/50
Epoch 24/50
60000/60000 [============== ] - 11s 184us/step - loss: 149.7923 - val_loss: 151
Epoch 25/50
Epoch 26/50
Epoch 27/50
Epoch 28/50
Epoch 29/50
Epoch 30/50
Epoch 31/50
60000/60000 [=============== ] - 10s 160us/step - loss: 148.4056 - val_loss: 150
Epoch 32/50
Epoch 33/50
Epoch 34/50
60000/60000 [============== ] - 10s 169us/step - loss: 147.8503 - val_loss: 150
Epoch 35/50
Epoch 36/50
Epoch 37/50
Epoch 38/50
Epoch 39/50
Epoch 40/50
Epoch 41/50
Epoch 42/50
```

```
Epoch 43/50
Epoch 44/50
60000/60000 [===
           =======] - 9s 152us/step - loss: 146.6619 - val_loss: 150.
Epoch 45/50
60000/60000 [===
             ======] - 9s 152us/step - loss: 146.5239 - val loss: 150.
Epoch 46/50
60000/60000 [==
             ======] - 9s 150us/step - loss: 146.3688 - val_loss: 150.
Epoch 47/50
Epoch 48/50
Epoch 49/50
Epoch 50/50
```

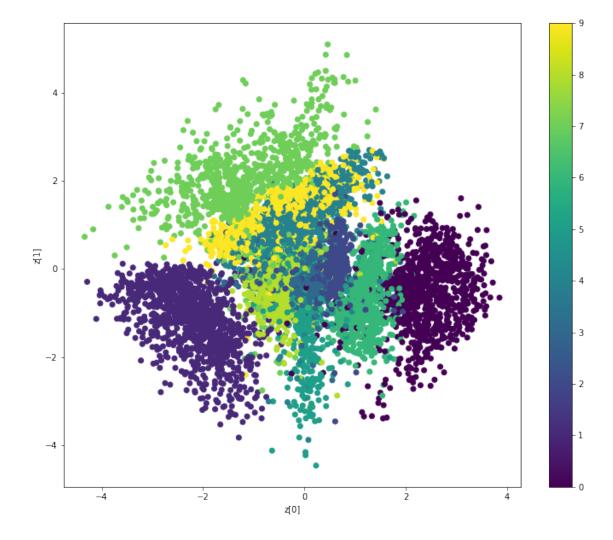
In [35]: plot\_history(history)



Because our latent space is two-dimensional, there are a few cool visualizations that can be done at this point.

One is to look at the neighborhoods of different classes on the latent 2D plane:

```
In [36]: x_test_encoded = encoder.predict(x_test, batch_size=batch_size)
```



Each of these colored clusters is a type of digit. Close clusters are digits that are structurally similar (i.e. digits that share information in the latent space).

Because the VAE is a generative model, we can also use it to generate new digits! Here we will scan the latent plane, sampling latent points at regular intervals, and generating the corresponding digit for each of these points. This gives us a visualization of the latent manifold that "generates" the MNIST digits.

```
In [38]: # display a 30x30 2D manifold of digits
        n = 30
         digit_size = 28
         figure = np.zeros((digit_size * n, digit_size * n))
         # linearly spaced coordinates corresponding to the 2D plot
         # of digit classes in the latent space
         grid x = np.linspace(-4, 4, n)
         grid_y = np.linspace(-4, 4, n)[::-1]
         for i, yi in enumerate(grid_y):
             for j, xi in enumerate(grid_x):
                 z_sample = np.array([[xi, yi]])
                 x_decoded = decoder.predict(z_sample)
                 digit = x_decoded[0].reshape(digit_size, digit_size)
                 figure[i * digit_size: (i + 1) * digit_size,
                        j * digit_size: (j + 1) * digit_size] = digit
         plt.figure(figsize=(20, 20))
         start_range = digit_size // 2
         end_range = n * digit_size + start_range + 1
         pixel_range = np.arange(start_range, end_range, digit_size)
         sample_range_x = np.round(grid_x, 1)
         sample_range_y = np.round(grid_y, 1)
         plt.xticks(pixel_range, sample_range_x)
         plt.yticks(pixel_range, sample_range_y)
         plt.xlabel("z[0]")
         plt.ylabel("z[1]")
         plt.imshow(figure, cmap='Greys_r')
         plt.show()
```

