

Advanced Institute for Artificial Intelligence – Al2

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# Introduction

What are Autoencoders?

#### **Definitions**

- □ "Unsupervised" learning algorithm that applies backpropagation, setting the target values to be equal to the inputs:
  - uses  $y^{(i)} = x^{(i)}$
- ☐ Internally, it has a hidden layer that describes a code used to represent the input;
- ☐ Consists of two parts:
  - Encoder function h = f(x), and
  - Decoder function that produces a **reconstruction** r = g(h);
- ☐ Designed to be **unable to learn to copy perfectly**;

#### Question

Why simply learning to set g(f(x)) = x everywhere is not especially useful?

#### **Definitions**

- □ Special cases of feedforward networks and may be trained with all the same techniques (minibatch gradient descent, back-propagation, etc.);
- ☐ Usually restricted to copy only approximately, i.e., producing data **that only resembles the training data**.
  - ∃ The model is forced to prioritize only a few aspects of the input;
    - Often learns useful properties of the data, e.g., relevant features;
- Traditionally used for dimensionality reduction or feature learning;

### **Example**

Suppose the inputs x are the pixel intensity values from a  $10 \times 10$  image (100 pixels) - n=100, and there are  $s_2 = 50$  hidden units in layer  $L_2$ .

From the definition of Autoencoders we have  $y \in \mathcal{R}^{100}$ . Since there are only 50 hidden units, the network is forced to learn a "compressed" representation of the input.

Given only the vector of hidden unit activations  $a^{(2)} \in \mathcal{R}^{50}$ , it **must try to "reconstruct"** the 100-pixel input x.

#### **Definitions**

- ☐ If there is some underlying structure in the data, e.g., some of the input features are correlated, then this algorithm will be able to discover some of those correlations.
- □ This simple form of autoencoder most likely will learn a low-dimensional representation very similar to PCAs.
- Can be thought of as data compression algorithms;
- ☐ Compression and decompression functions are:
  - 1. data-specific,
  - 2. lossy, and
  - 3. learned automatically from examples rather than engineered by a human;

#### Question

- 1. Why Autoencoders wouldn't make great **general-purpose** compression algorithms?
- 2. Why do they **need** to be lossy?
- 3. An autoencoder trained on pictures of faces would do a good job on compressing pictures of trees?

### What are they good for?

- □ Data compression?
  - Almost impossible to beat standard algorithms, such as JPEG, MP3, etc.;
  - You can improve the performance by restricting the type of data it uses;
    - Loss of generalization capability!
  - Generally impractical for real-world data compression problems:
    - Can only be used on data that is similar to what they were trained on.
- Dimensionality reduction:
  - If the decoder is linear and the cost function is the Mean Square Error, an Autoencoder learns to span the same subspace as the PCA;
- Data denoising
  - the data is partially corrupted by noises;
  - the model is trained to predict the original, uncorrupted data point as its output;



- ☐ Autoencoder whose code dimension is less than the input dimension;
- ☐ Forces the autoencoder to capture the most relevant features of the training data;
  - Also known as bottlenecks;
- $\square$  Minimize the Loss function, where f is the function learned by the encoder and g is the function learned by the decoder by tweaking the parameters  $\theta$  and  $\phi$ :

$$L_{AE}(\theta,\phi) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x^{(i)} - f_{\theta}(g_{\phi}(x^{(i)})))^{2}$$

 $\square$  Nonlinear encoder functions f and nonlinear decoder functions g can learn a more powerful nonlinear generalization of PCA;

### **Implementation**

☐ General Architecture:

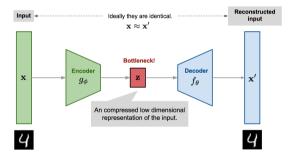


Figure: General architecture of an undercomplete autoencoder

Image from Autoencoder architecture by Lilian Weng

### **Implementation**

☐ Dimensionality Reduction for a 3D dataset

```
encoding_dim = 2
input_layer = keras.Input(shape=(3,))
encoded = layers.Dense(encoding_dim, activation="sigmoid")(input_layer)
decoded = layers.Dense(3, activation="sigmoid")(encoded)
autoencoder = keras.Model(input_layer, decoded)
autoencoder.compile(loss="mse", optimizer="SGD")
```

### **Implementations**

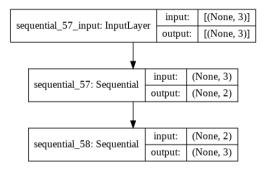


Figure: Autoencoder Architecture

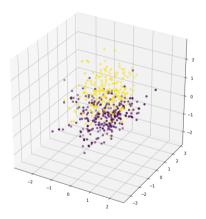


Figure: 3D data before encoding

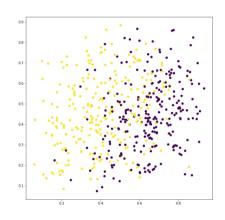


Figure: 2D data after encoding

Jupyter Notebook with example and exercises.

### What they are not good at?

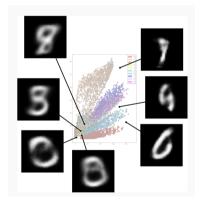


Figure: Latent Space representation for the MNIST dataset

#### What they are not good at?

- ☐ Some of the biggest challenges regarding the latent space are:
  - Gaps in the latent space: we do not know what data points in these spaces may look like
  - **Separability in the latent space**: there are also regions where the labeled is randomly interspersed
  - Discrete latent space: we do not have a statistical model that has been trained for arbitrary input

# Under/over complete Autoencoders

#### **Limitations**

- ☐ Unfortunately, undercomplete autoencoders **fail to learn anything useful** if the encoder and decoder **are given too much capacity**
- □ Also occurs if the hidden code has the same dimension as the input;
- ☐ The same happens in the overcomplete case, where the hidden code has dimension greater than the input;
- ☐ Even a linear encoder and decoder can **learn to copy the input** to the output
  - Nothing useful is learned about the data distribution



- ☐ Use a loss function that encourages the model to have other properties, e.g., sparsity of the representation, and robustness to noise or to missing inputs;
- □ Can be nonlinear and overcomplete but still learn something useful about the data distribution;
- ☐ The two of the most common Regularized Autoencoders are:
  - Sparse Autoencoders: sparsity penalty added to his original loss function;
  - Denoising Autoencoders: adding noise (Gaussian for example) to the inputs forces our model to learn important features;

### **Sparse Autoencoders**

- ☐ Is simply an autoencoder whose training criterion involves a **sparsity penalty**;
- ☐ Presents a larger latent dimension than the input or output dimensions;
- ☐ Typically used to **learn features for another task**, such as classification;
- □ Think of the penalty simply as a regularizer term;
- □ We would like to constrain the neurons to be inactive most of the time;
- Reduce the propensity for the network to overfit;
- ☐ It can no longer copy the input through certain nodes:
  - in each run, those nodes may not be the active

### **Sparse Autoencoders**

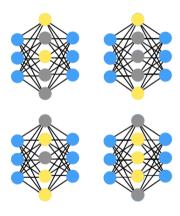


Image by Shreya Chaudhary

#### **Sparse Autoencoders - Implementation**

In Keras, this can be done by adding an activity\_regularizer to our Dense layer

With the added regularization the model is less likely to overfit and can be trained longer;

□ Example Notebook for the MNIST dataset;

#### **Denoising Autoencoders**

- ☐ The input is partially corrupted by adding noises to or masking some values of the input vector in a stochastic manner;
- □ the model is trained to recover the original input (note: not the corrupt one);

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}}^{(i)} \sim \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{D}}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}^{(i)}|\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$

$$L_{\mathsf{DAE}}(\theta, \phi) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - f_{\theta}(g_{\phi}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}^{(i)})))^{2}$$

where  $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{D}}$  defines the mapping from the true data samples to the noisy or corrupted ones.

### **Denoising Autoencoders**

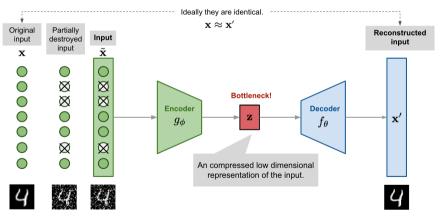


Image by Lilian Weng

### **Denoising Autoencoders**

- ☐ Design motivated by the fact that humans can easily recognize an object even the view partially occluded;
- □ To "repair" the input, the DAE has to discover the relationship between dimensions of input in order to infer missing pieces;
- On images, the model is likely to depend on evidence gathered from a combination of many input dimensions to recover the denoised version;
  - This builds up a good foundation for learning robust latent representation;
- □ In the original DAE paper, a fixed proportion of input dimensions are selected at random and their values are forced to 0 (same as dropout?;

#### **Denoising Autoencoders - Implementation**

In the case of the MNIST dataset:

```
noise_factor = 0.5
x_train_noisy = x_train + noise_factor * np.random.normal(loc=0.0, scale=1
.0, size=x_train.shape)
x_test_noisy = x_test + noise_factor * np.random.normal(loc=0.0, scale=1.0
, size=x_test.shape)
```



Figure: MNIST digits after adding Noise

Jupyter Notebook with the example implementation of Denoising Autoencoder for the MNIST.