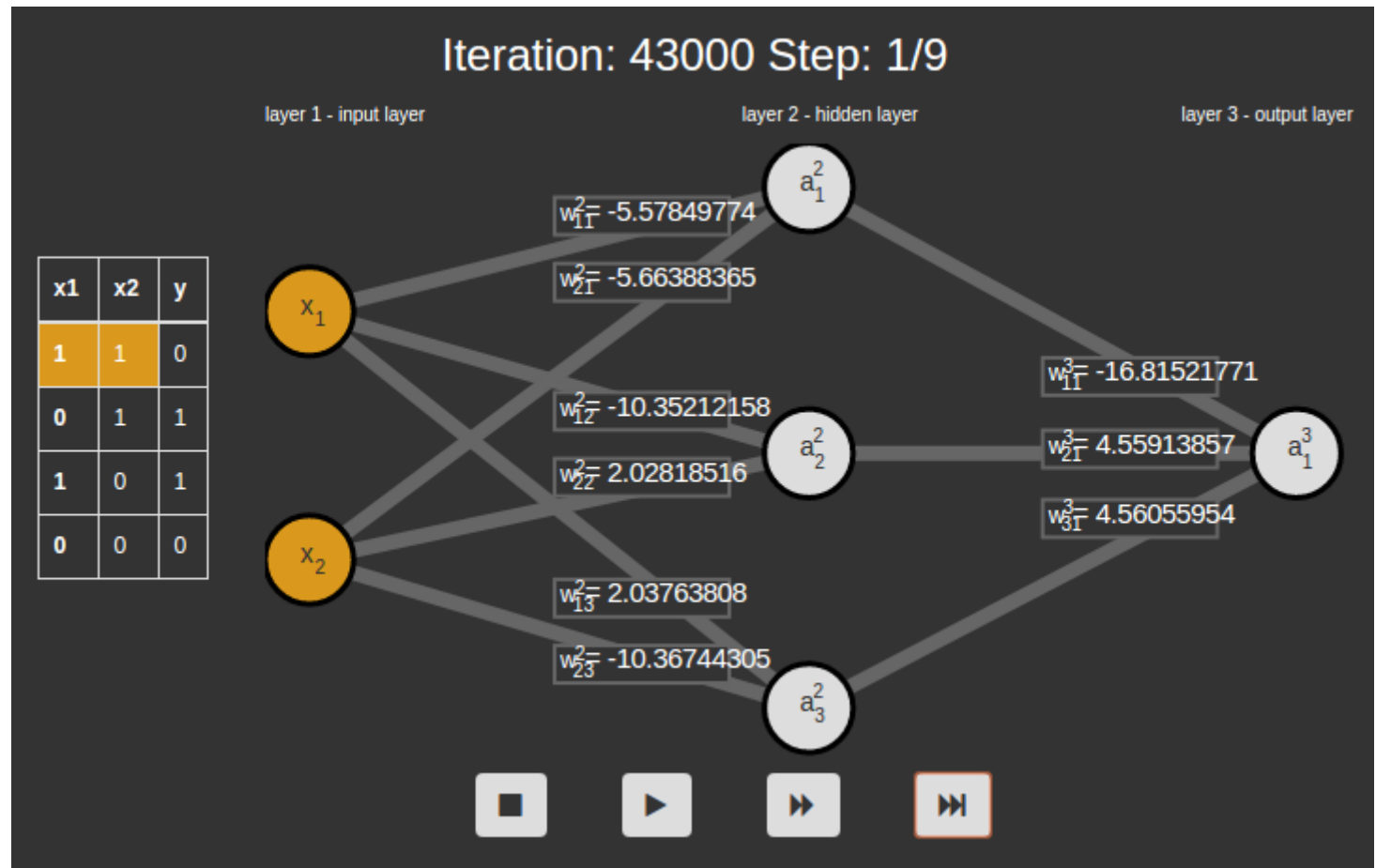


# Autoencoders

**Seoul AI Meetup, July 8**

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Visualized training of Multilayer Perceptron (<https://www.mladdict.com/>).



Structure of this presentation is largely based on chapter 15: *Autoencoders* from book Hands-On Machine Learning with Scikit-Learn & Tensorflow.

Some examples are modified version of <https://github.com/ageron/handson-ml>.

# Content

1. Efficient Data Representation
2. Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
3. Stacked Autoencoders
  - A. Denoising Autoencoders
  - B. Sparse Autoencoders
  - C. Variational Autoencoders
  - D. Other Autoencoders

# Efficient Data Representation

- Number sequences
  - 56, 46, 8, 56, 7, 6, 8, 52,...
  - 5, 16, 8, 4, 2, 1, 4, 2, 1,...

- Lower Data Dimensionality
  - Reduced computational cost
  - Easier to train (Curse of dimensionality)
  - Easier to visualize
    - ND -> 3D
    - ND -> 2D
- Information retrieval tasks
  - Semantic hashing
- Other methods
  - Factor Analysis
  - Independent Component Analysis
  - t-SNE

# Principal Component Analysis

- For unlabeled data
- Transformation from original coordinate system to the new one
- Orthogonal linear transformation
- Used for dimensionality reduction
- Principal components represent directions along which the data has the largest variations
- [sklearn.decomposition.PCA](#)

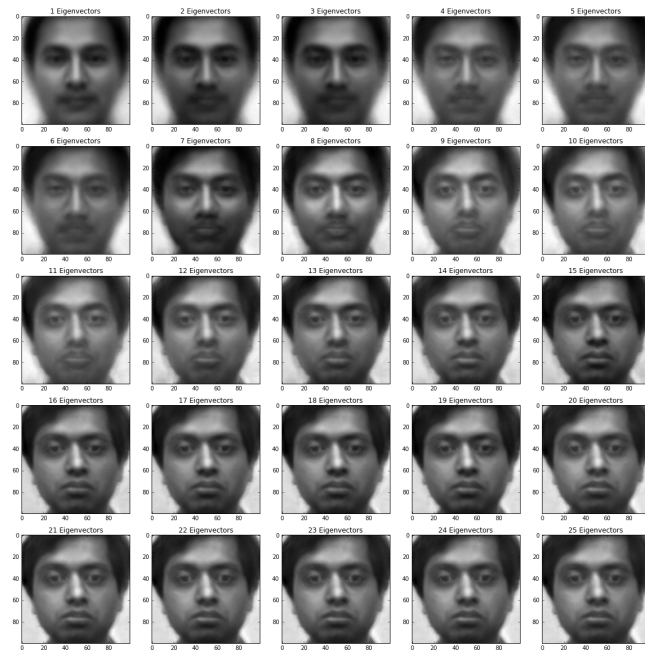
## Yale Face Database

- 15 people
- 11 images per subject one per different facial expression or configuration
- (center-light w/glasses, happy, left-light, w/no glasses, normal, right-light, sad, sleepy, surprised, and wink)





# Eigenfaces (Jupyter Notebook)

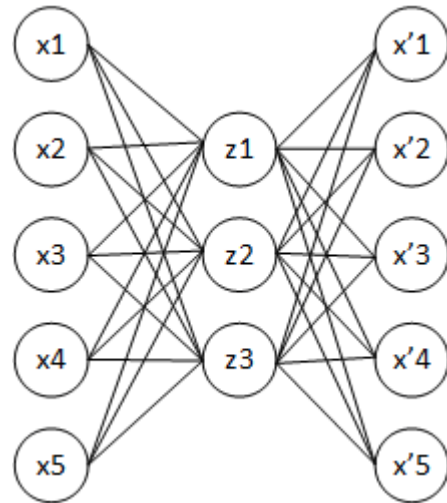


```
In [2]: # scikit-learn: Principal Component Analysis  
import numpy as np  
from sklearn.decomposition import PCA  
  
X = np.array([[ -1, -1], [ -2, -1], [ -3, -2], [ 1, 1], [ 2, 1], [ 3, 2]])  
pca = PCA(n_components=2)  
pca.fit(X)  
  
print(pca.explained_variance_ratio_)  
  
[ 0.99244289  0.00755711]
```

# Autoencoders

- Artificial Neural Networks
- Same architecture as Multi-Layer Perceptron
- Number of input neurons = Number of output neurons
- Trained to efficiently encode (**codings**) input information
- Purposes
  - Decrease dimensionality
  - Feature detectors (unsupervised pretraining for deep neural networks)
  - Randomly generate new data

- **Encoder** (Recognition network)
- **Decoder** (Generative network)



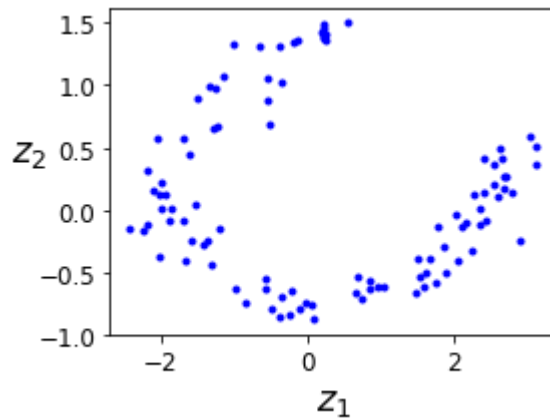
Example of **undercomplete** autoencoder.

# Autoencoder as PCA

- Linear activations
- Cost function Mean Squared Error

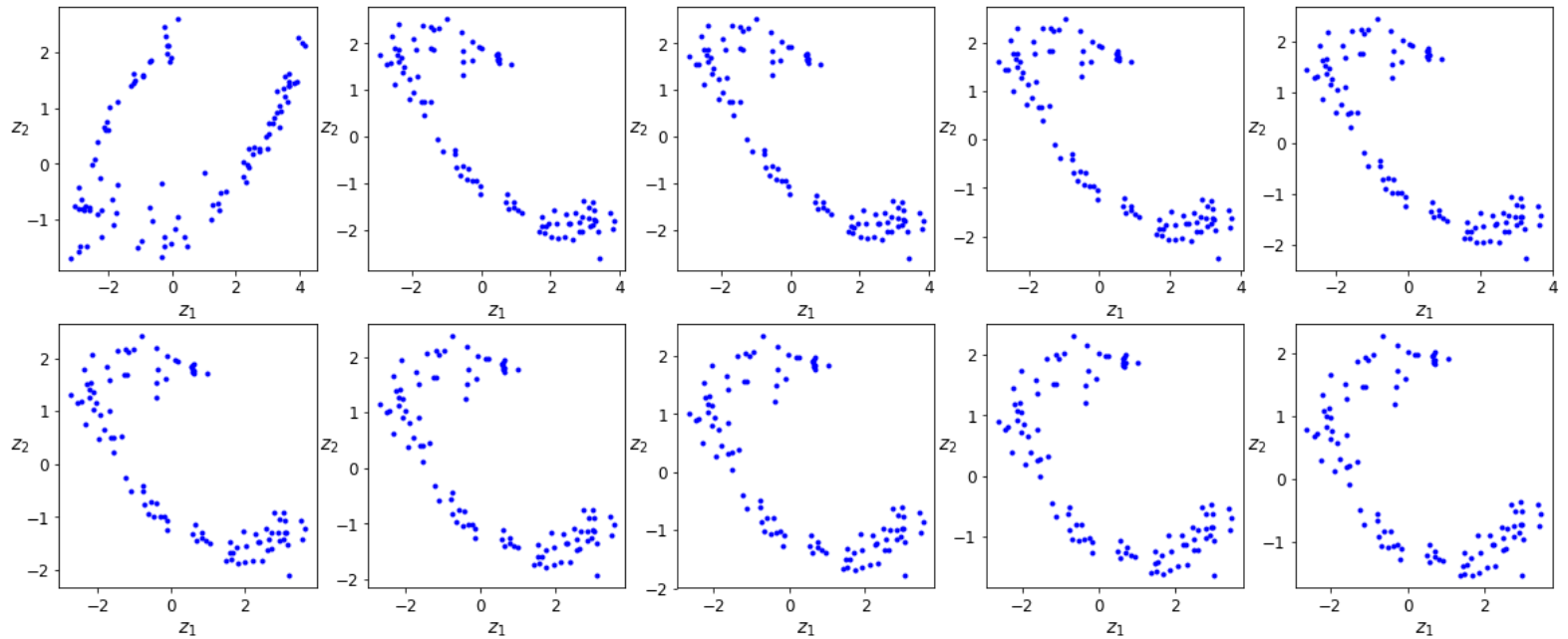
```
In [4]: # PCA
pca = PCA(n_components=2)
pca.fit(X_train)
pca_codings = pca.transform(X_test)

# Encodings created using PCA
plot_coding(pca_codings)
```



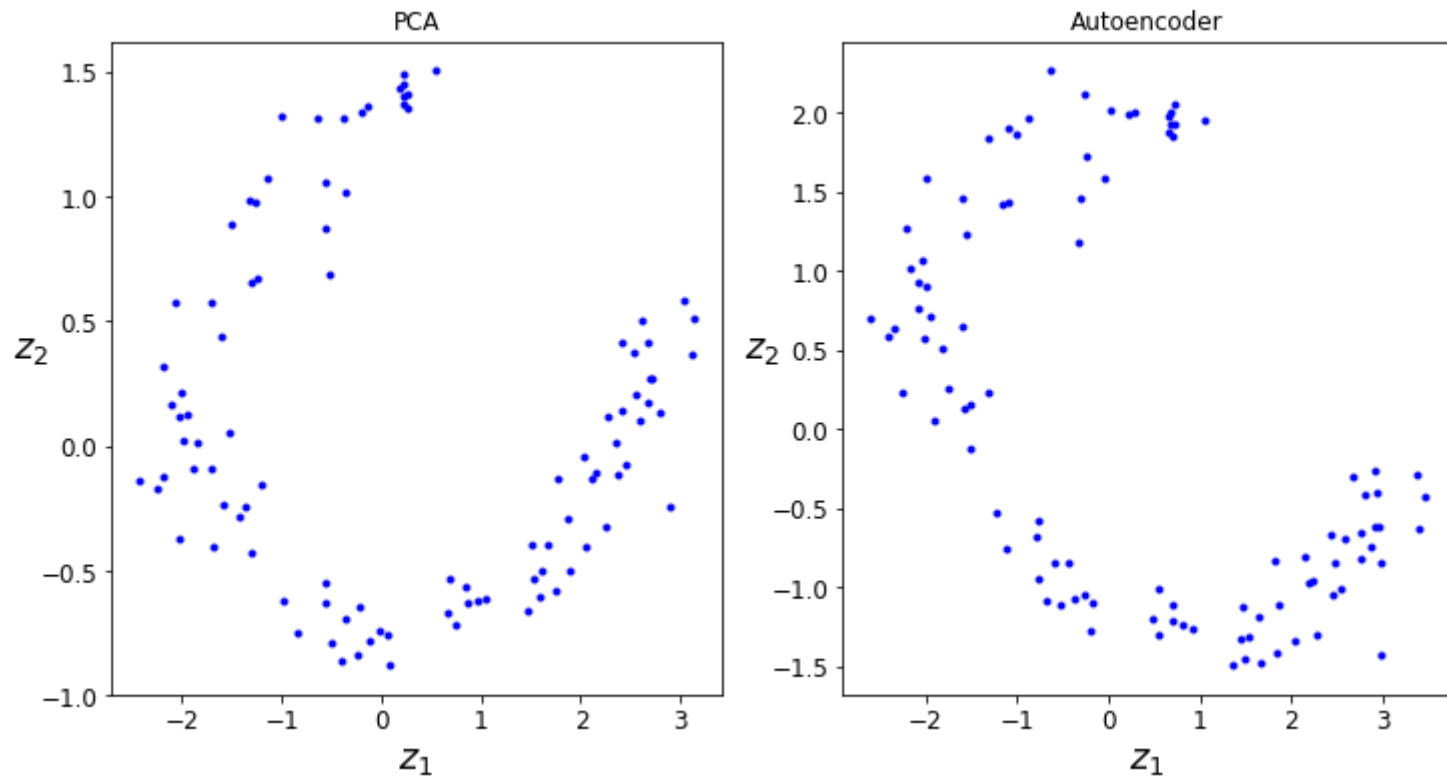
# Autoencoder Temporary Results

In [6]: `plot_many_codings(codings_val_progress)`



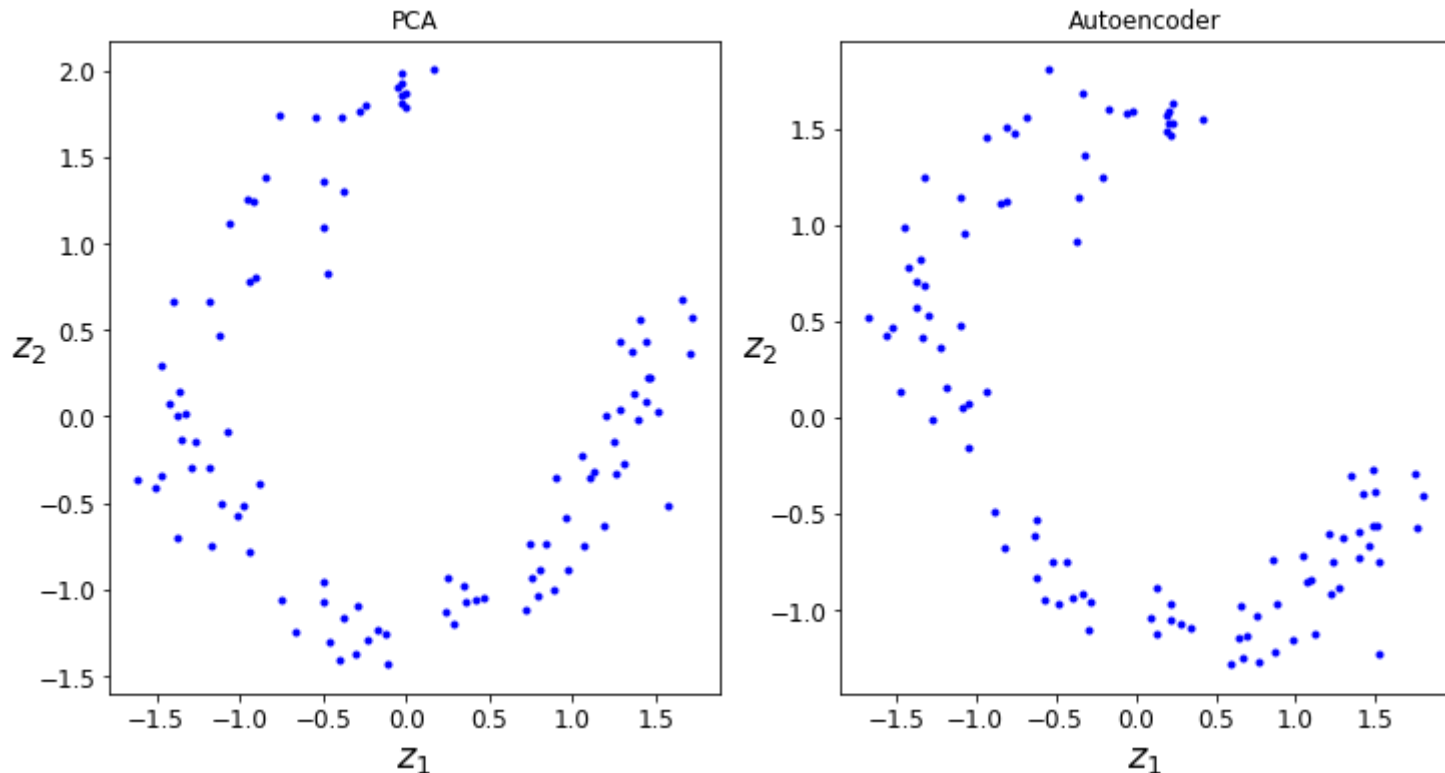
# PCA vs Autoencoder

```
In [7]: plot_codings(pca_codings, codings_val)
```



## sklearn.preprocessing.StandardScaler

```
In [8]: scaler1 = StandardScaler()  
pca_norm = scaler.fit_transform(pca_codings)  
scaler2 = StandardScaler()  
autoencoder_norm = scaler.fit_transform(codings_val)  
plot_codings(pca_norm, autoencoder_norm)
```

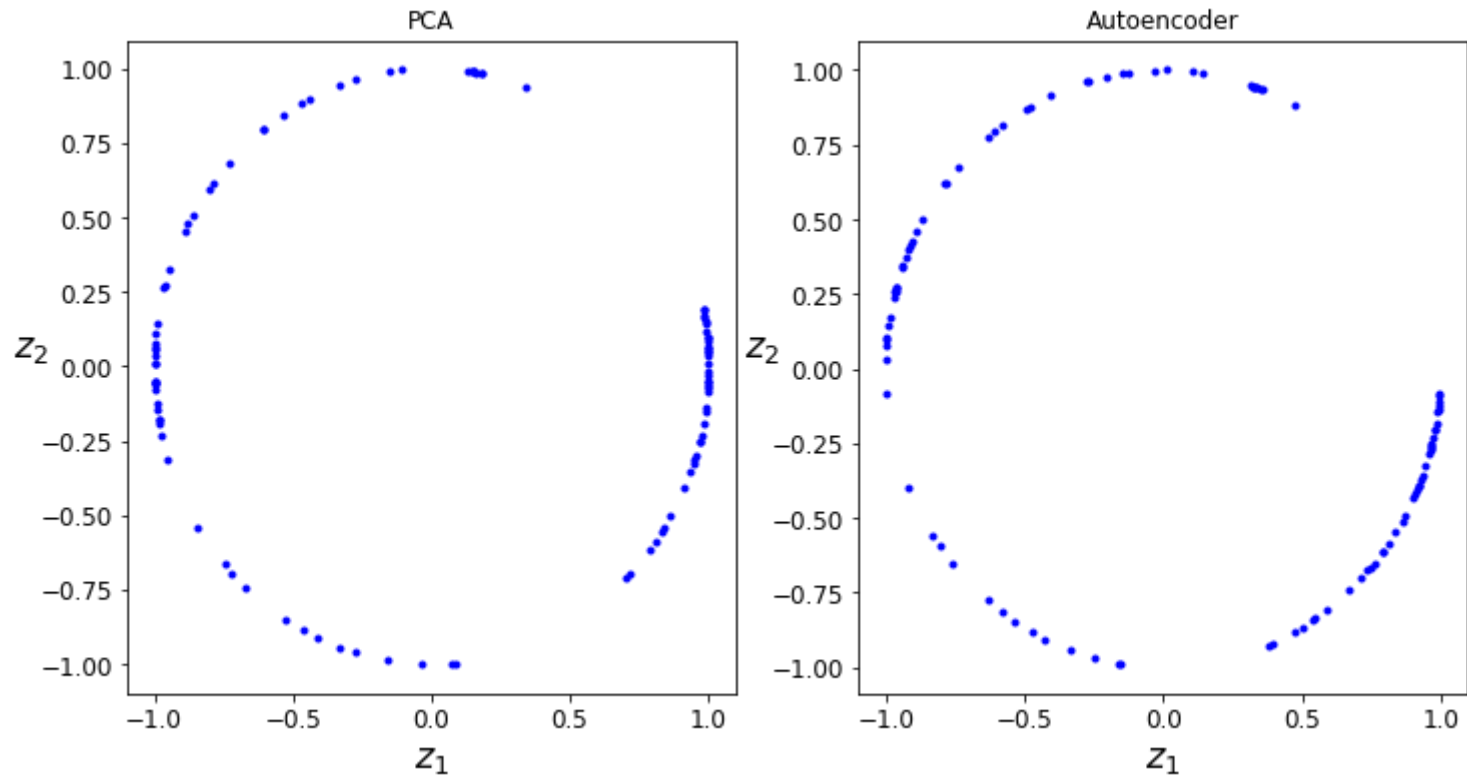




## sklearn.preprocessing.normalize

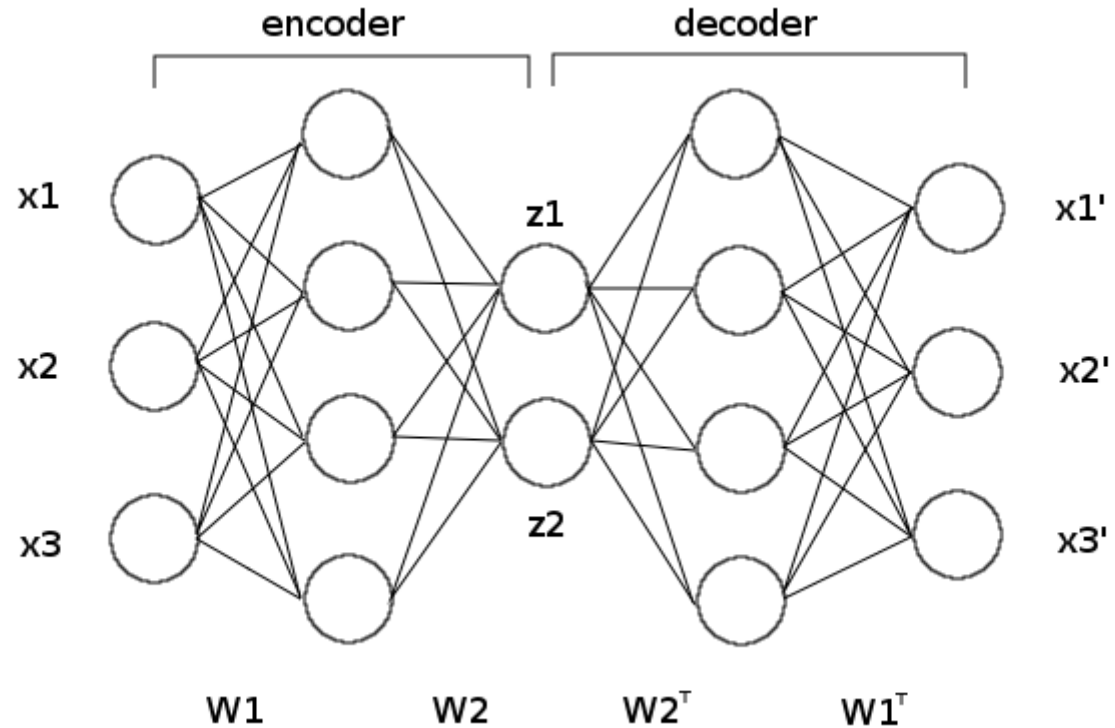
In [9]: `from sklearn.preprocessing import normalize`

```
pca_norm = normalize(pca_codings)
autoencoder_norm = normalize(codings_val)
plot_codings(pca_norm, autoencoder_norm)
```



# Stacked Autoencoders

- Multiple hidden layers => Stacked Autoencoders, Deep Autoencoders
- Learn more complex codings
- Typically symmetrical architecture



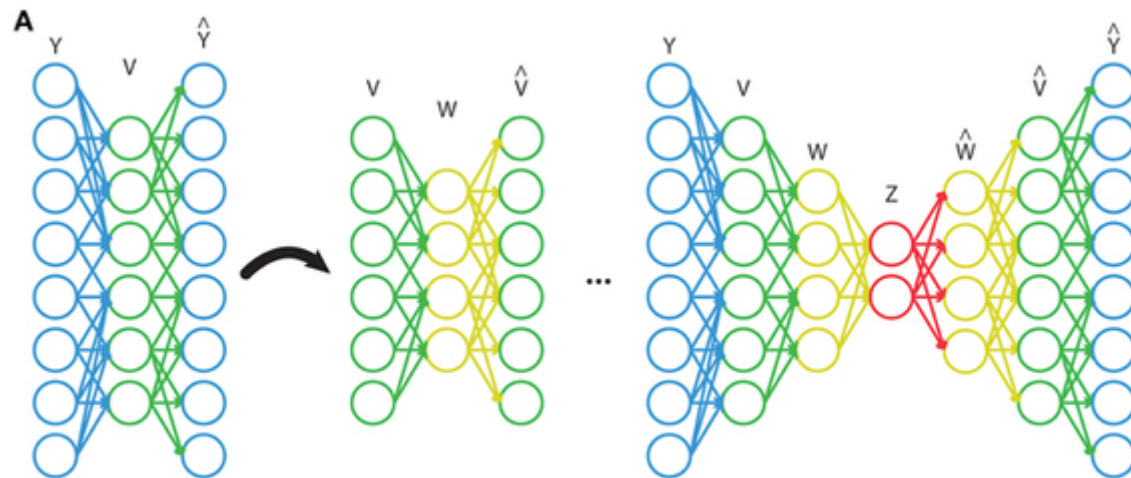
## Tying Weights

- When layers of **Encoder** are symmetrical to **Decoder**, weights can be shared => Tying Weights
- Half of the weights
  - Speed up training
  - Limiting risk of overfitting

$$W_{N-L+1} = W_L^T \text{ for } L = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N/2$$

## Training One Autoencoder at a Time

- Training of shallow autoencoder is faster than training stacked autoencoders at once.
- Training is performed in phases.



## Visualizing the Reconstructions

```
In [18]: show_reconstructed_digits(X, outputs, model_path="my_model_one_at_a_time.ckpt")
```

```
INFO:tensorflow:Restoring parameters from my_model_one_at_a_time.ckpt
```

7



2



## Techniques of Visualizing Features

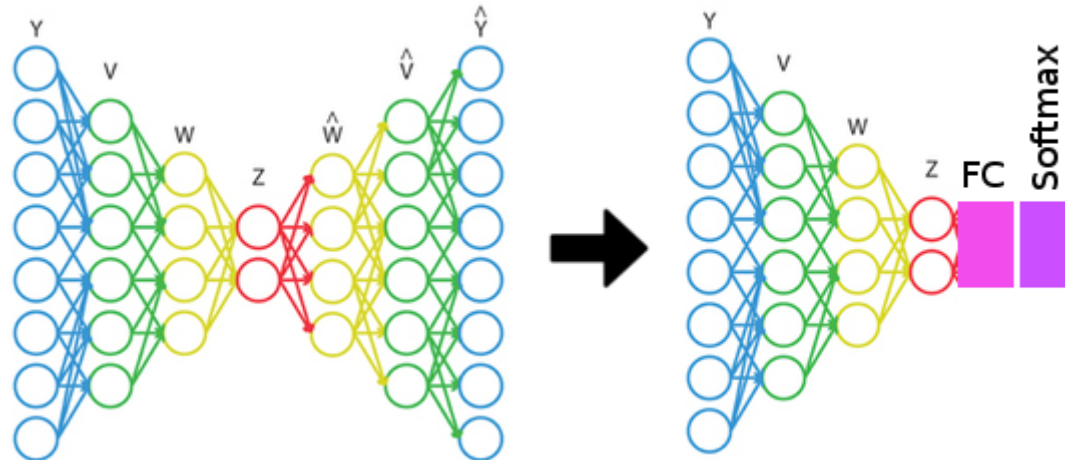
1. Examine each neuron in every layer independently
2. Display weights of each neuron in the first layer

```
In [21]: plot_features_from_first_hidden_layer(weights1_val)
```



# Unsupervised Pretraining Using Stacked Autoencoders

1. Train autoencoder
2. Remove Decoder
3. If not enough training data, freeze **Encoder** weights
4. Train classifier on top of network



# Overcomplete Autoencoders

Autoencoders with the same size (or even larger) of codings as the input layer.

1. Denoising Autoencoders
2. Sparse Autoencoders



## Denoising Autoencoders

- Added noise to its inputs.
  - Gaussian noise
  - Dropout layer
- Train to recover the original, noise-free inputs.
- Find patterns in data.

## Reconstructions From Denoising Autoencoder

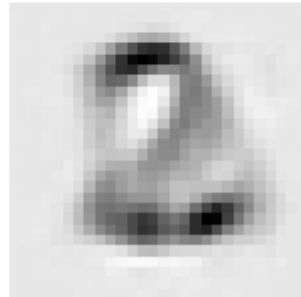
In [27]: `show_denoising_autoencoder_results(X, outputs)`

INFO:tensorflow:Restoring parameters from ./my\_model\_stacked\_denoising\_gaussian.ckpt

7



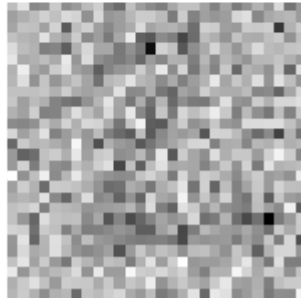
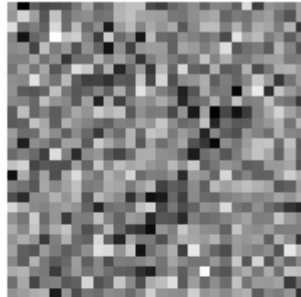
2



## Noisy Inputs

```
In [29]: plot_noisy_inputs(X, X_noisy)
```

```
INFO:tensorflow:Restoring parameters from ./my_model_stacked_denoising_gaussian.ckpt
```



## Sparse Autoencoders

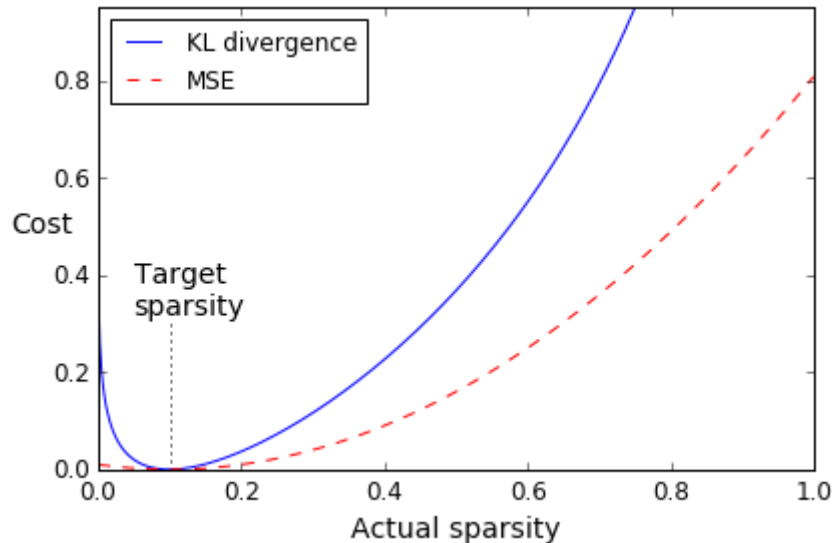
- Loss function involves **sparsity penalty** on the coding layer.
- Used to learn features for another task such as classification.
- Represent each input as a combination of **small** number of activations.

$$L(\mathbf{x}, g(f(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}))) + \lambda \Omega(\mathbf{h}), \text{ where } \mathbf{h} = f(\tilde{\mathbf{x}})$$

## Sparsity of Coding Layer

1. Decide target sparsity (e.g. 0.1).
2. Compute average activation of each neuron in the coding layer, over the whole training batch.
  - *sigmoid* activation
  - `tf.reduce_mean(hidden1, axis=0)`
3. Compute Kullback-Leibler divergence (stronger gradients than for example MSE).

$$D_{KL}(P||Q) = \sum_i P(i) \log \frac{P(i)}{Q(i)}$$



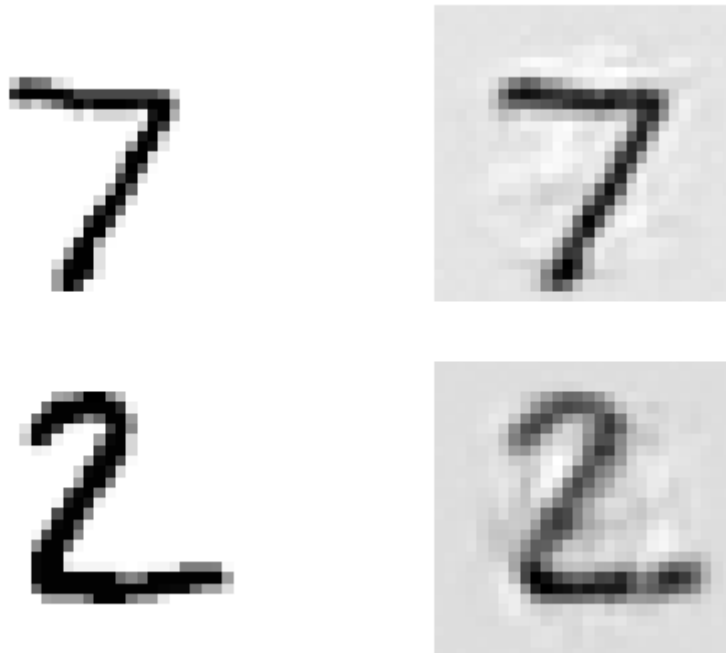
# Reconstructions From Sparse Autoencoder

- 3 layers
- 1,000 coding neurons

```
sparsity_target = 0.1  
sparsity_weight = 0.2  
n_epochs = 100  
batch_size = 1000
```

```
In [35]: show_sparse_autoencoder_results(X, outputs)
```

INFO:tensorflow:Restoring parameters from ./my\_model\_sparse.ckpt



## Variational Autoencoders

- Probabilistic
  - Outputs are partly determined by chance.
- Generative
  - Generate new instances that are similar to the one in the training dataset.

Similar to Restricted Boltzmann Machines.



## Coding Generation

1. Encoder produces mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$  of coding.
2. Coding is then sampled from Gaussian distribution.
3. Loss = Reconstruction loss + Latent loss

```
hidden3_mean = my_dense_layer(hidden2, n_hidden3, activation=None)
hidden3_gamma = my_dense_layer(hidden2, n_hidden3, activation=None)
noise = tf.random_normal(tf.shape(hidden3_gamma), dtype=tf.float32)
#hidden3 = hidden3_mean + hidden3_gamma * noise
hidden3 = hidden3_mean + tf.exp(0.5 * hidden3_gamma) * noise
```

## Generated Digits

In [39]: `generate_digits()`



## Other Autoencoders

- Contractive Autoencoders
  - two similar inputs have similar condings
- Stacked Convolutional Autoencoders
- Generative Stochastic Network
  - denoising autoencoders with added capability to generate data
- Winner-take-all Autoencoder
  - only top  $k$  activations is preserved, leads to sparse coding
- Adversial Autoencoders
  - two networks
  - one is trained to reproduce its inputs
  - the other one find inputs that the first network cannot reconstruct properly