Chapter 14

Autoencoders

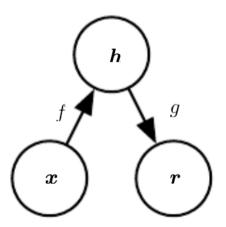
#### Autoencoders

- A type of neural networks trained to copy approximately its input to its output in the hopes of learning useful features
- The network of an autoencoder may be viewed as containing an encoder and a decoder, specifying deterministic or stochastic mappings

Encoder:  $\boldsymbol{h} = f(\boldsymbol{x})$  or  $p_{\mathsf{model}}(\boldsymbol{h}|\boldsymbol{x})$ 

Decoder: r = g(h) or  $p_{\text{model}}(x|h)$ 

where the hidden layer  $m{h}$  describes a code used to represent  $m{x}$ 



• The learning is to minimize a loss function, likely with regularization

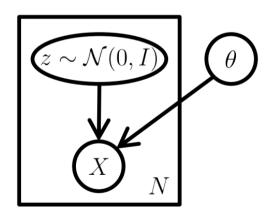
$$L(\boldsymbol{x}, g(f(\boldsymbol{x}))) + \Omega(\boldsymbol{h}, \boldsymbol{x})$$

- Most learning techniques for training feedforward networks can apply
- Traditionally, autorencoders were used for dimension reduction
- However, theoretical connections between autoencoders and some modern latent variable models have brought autoencoders to the forefront of generative modeling

## Variational Autoencoders (VAE)

 A probabilistic generative model with latent variables that is built on top of end-to-end trainable neural networks

$$p(\boldsymbol{z}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{z}; \boldsymbol{0}, \boldsymbol{I})$$
 
$$p(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{z}) = \underbrace{p(\boldsymbol{x}; o(\boldsymbol{z}; \boldsymbol{\theta}))}_{\text{Neural Networks}} = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{x}; o(\boldsymbol{z}; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{I})$$



### Training VAE

• To determine  $\theta$ , we would intuitively hope to maximize the marginal distribution  $p(x; \theta)$ 

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \int p(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{z}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\boldsymbol{z}) d\boldsymbol{z}$$

- This however becomes difficult as the integration over z is in general intractable when  $p(x|z;\theta)$  is modeled by a neural network
- To circumvent this difficulty, we recall that

$$\log p(\boldsymbol{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{X}, q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) + \mathsf{KL}(q(\boldsymbol{Z})||p(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta}))$$

where

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{X}, q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \int q(\boldsymbol{Z}) \log p(\boldsymbol{X}, \boldsymbol{Z}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) d\boldsymbol{Z} - \int q(\boldsymbol{Z}) \log q(\boldsymbol{Z}) d\boldsymbol{Z}$$
$$\mathsf{KL}(q(\boldsymbol{Z})||p(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta})) = \int q(\boldsymbol{Z}) \log \frac{q(\boldsymbol{Z})}{p(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta})} d\boldsymbol{Z}$$

• A rearrangement gives

$$\log p(\boldsymbol{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) - \mathsf{KL}(q(\boldsymbol{Z}) || p(\boldsymbol{Z} | \boldsymbol{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta})) = \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{X}, q, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

• As the equality holds for any choice of q(Z), we introduce a distribution  $q(Z|X;\theta')$  modeled by another neural network with parameter  $\theta'$  to obtain

$$\log p(\boldsymbol{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) - \mathsf{KL}(q(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta}') || p(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X}; \boldsymbol{\theta})) = \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{X}, q, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

The right hand side can be spell out as

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{X},q,\boldsymbol{\theta}) &= & E_{\boldsymbol{Z} \sim q(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X};\boldsymbol{\theta}')} \log p(\boldsymbol{X}|\boldsymbol{Z};\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ &+ E_{\boldsymbol{Z} \sim q(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X};\boldsymbol{\theta}')} \log p(\boldsymbol{Z}) - E_{\boldsymbol{Z} \sim q(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X};\boldsymbol{\theta}')} \log q(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X};\boldsymbol{\theta}') \\ &= & E_{\boldsymbol{Z} \sim q(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X};\boldsymbol{\theta}')} \log p(\boldsymbol{X}|\boldsymbol{Z};\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ &- & \mathsf{KL}(q(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X};\boldsymbol{\theta}')||p(\boldsymbol{Z})) \end{split}$$

• Now, instead of directly maximizing the intractable  $p(X; \theta)$ , we attempt to maximize

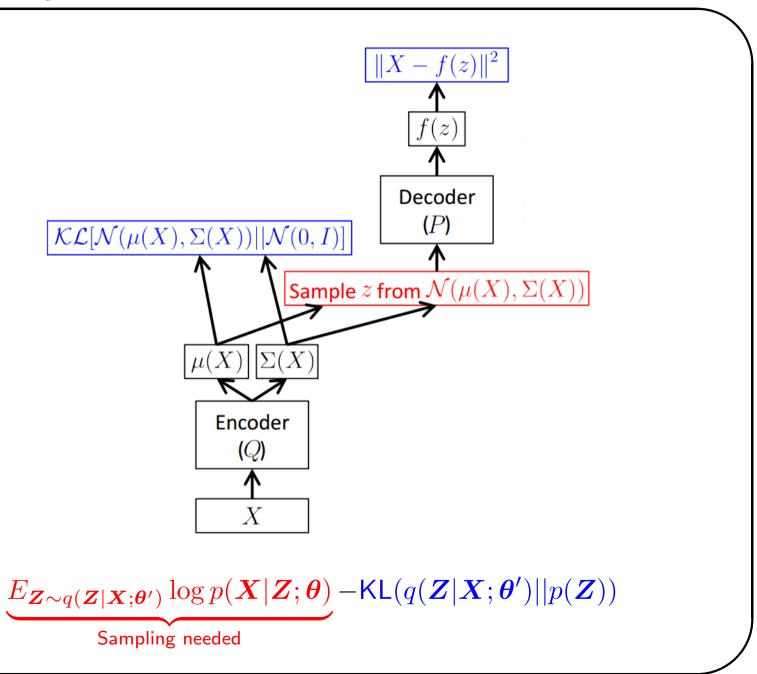
$$\log p(\boldsymbol{X};\boldsymbol{\theta}) - \mathsf{KL}(q(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X};\boldsymbol{\theta}')||p(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X};\boldsymbol{\theta}))$$

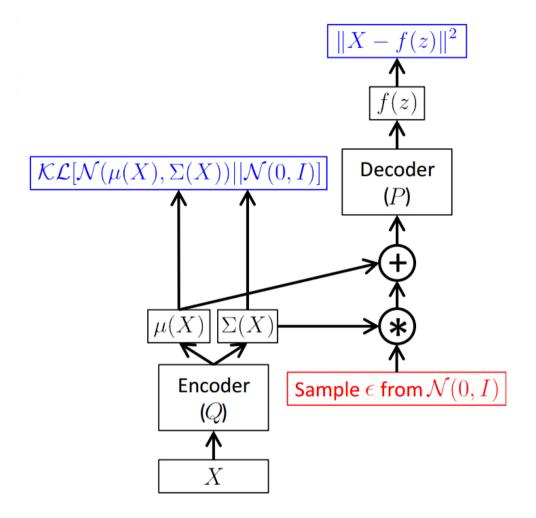
which amounts to maximizing

$$E_{\boldsymbol{Z} \sim q(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X};\boldsymbol{\theta}')} \log p(\boldsymbol{X}|\boldsymbol{Z};\boldsymbol{\theta}) - \mathsf{KL}(q(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X};\boldsymbol{\theta}')||p(\boldsymbol{Z}))$$

• A by-product of this training process is a stochastic encoder

$$q(Z|X;\theta') \approx p(Z|X;\theta)$$





$$E_{\boldsymbol{Z} \sim q(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X};\boldsymbol{\theta}')} \log p(\boldsymbol{X}|\boldsymbol{Z};\boldsymbol{\theta}) - \mathsf{KL}(q(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X};\boldsymbol{\theta}')||p(\boldsymbol{Z}))$$

Re-parameterization for end-to-end training

• Even though the following term can be evaluated by sampling Z from  $q(Z|X;\theta')$ , it becomes difficult to compute the gradient w.r.t.  $\theta'$ 

$$E_{\mathbf{Z} \sim q(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{X};\boldsymbol{\theta}')} \log p(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Z};\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

• The re-parameterization technique works around this difficulty by generating samples input to the decoder with

$$B(X)\epsilon + \mu(X)$$

where  $m{B}m{B}^T = \Sigma$  and  $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, m{I})$ 

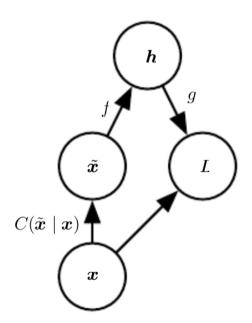
ullet In fact, the encoder can learn  $oldsymbol{B}(oldsymbol{X})$  directly

# Denoising Autoencoders (DAE)

• The DAE is to receive a corrupted data point as input and to predict the uncorrupted data point as output; that is, to minimize

$$L(\boldsymbol{x}, g(f(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}})))$$

where  $ilde{x}$  is a noise-corrupted version of x



- To be precise, the training of DAE proceeds as follows
  - 1. Sample an x from the training data
  - 2. Sample a corrupted version  $\tilde{x}$  from  $C(\tilde{x}|x)$
  - 3. Minimize the negative log-likelihood by performing gradient descent w.r.t. model parameters

$$-\log p_{\mathsf{decoder}}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{h} = f(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}))$$

ullet When the encoder f is deterministic, the training of DAE is no different than training a feedforward network

• It is shown that when both  $p_{\text{decoder}}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{h})$  and  $C(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}|\boldsymbol{x})$  are assumed to be Gaussian, i.e., training with

$$\min \|g(f(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}})) - \boldsymbol{x}\|^2 \text{ and } C(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}|\boldsymbol{x}) \sim \mathcal{N}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}; \boldsymbol{x}, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{I}),$$

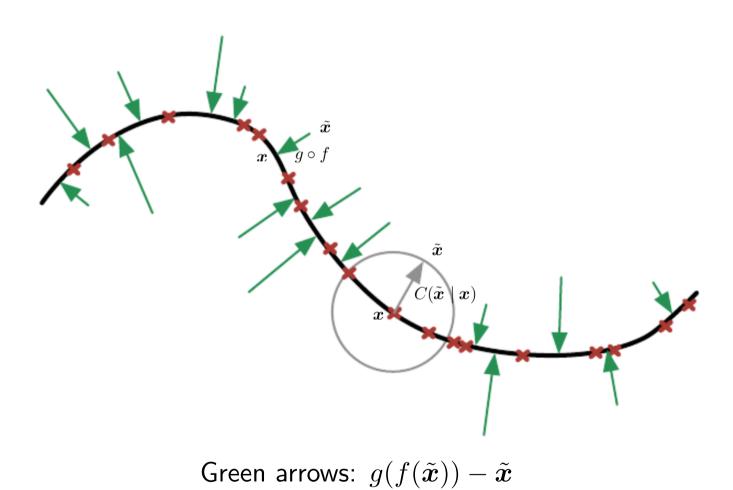
the DAE learns a vector field (g(f(x)) - x) that gives estimates of the score of the data distribution defined as

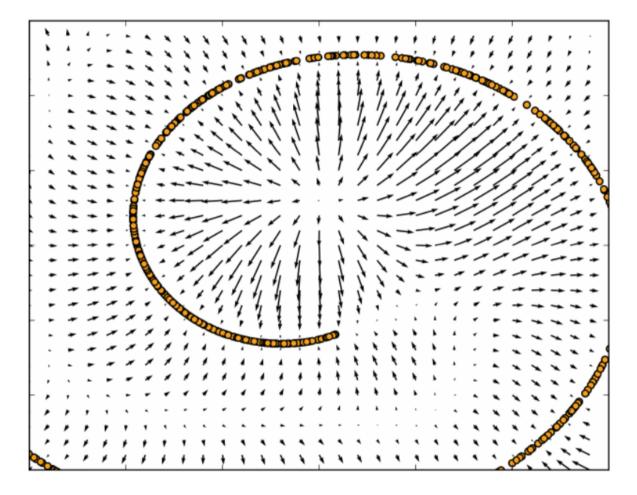
$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} \log p(\boldsymbol{x})$$

ullet Note that when  $\|g(f( ilde{m{x}})) - m{x}\|^2$  is minimized, we have

$$g(f(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}})) pprox E_{\boldsymbol{x}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} \sim \hat{p}_{\mathsf{data}}(\boldsymbol{x})C(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}|\boldsymbol{x})}[\boldsymbol{x}|\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}]$$

ullet Thus,  $(g(f( ilde{x})) - ilde{x})$  is a vector that points approximately back to the nearest point on the data manifold





Vector filed learned by a DAE (Vector field has zeros at both maxima and minima of  $p(\boldsymbol{x})$ )

### Sparse Autoencoders

• A sparse autoencoder is an autoencoder whose training criterion involves a sparsity penalty  $\Omega(\boldsymbol{h})$ 

$$L(\boldsymbol{x}, g(f(\boldsymbol{x}))) + \Omega(\boldsymbol{h})$$

• It can be interpreted as approximating the maximum likelihood training of a generative model  $p_{\mathsf{model}}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{h})$  with latent variables  $\boldsymbol{h}$ 

$$\log p_{\mathsf{model}}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \log \sum_{\boldsymbol{h}} p_{\mathsf{model}}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{h})$$

$$\approx \underbrace{\log p_{\mathsf{model}}(\boldsymbol{h})}_{\Omega} + \underbrace{\log p_{\mathsf{model}}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{h})}_{L},$$

where the  $p_{\mathsf{model}}(\boldsymbol{h})$  is factorial and follows the Laplace prior

$$p_{\mathsf{model}}(\boldsymbol{h}) = \frac{\lambda}{2} e^{-\lambda |h_i|}$$

# Contractive Autoencoders (CAE)

ullet The CAE imposes a regularizer on the code h which encourages to learn an encoder function that does not change much when input x changes slightly

$$L(\boldsymbol{x}, g(f(\boldsymbol{x})) + \Omega(\boldsymbol{h}, \boldsymbol{x}))$$

where

$$\Omega(m{h}, m{x}) = \lambda \left\| rac{\partial f(m{x})}{\partial m{x}} 
ight\|_F^2$$

ullet The encoder  $f(oldsymbol{x})$  at a training point  $oldsymbol{x}_0$  can be approximated as

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}) pprox f(\boldsymbol{x}_0) + rac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{x}_0)}{\partial \boldsymbol{x}}(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}_0)$$

• As such, the CAE is seen to encourage the Jacobian matrix  $\partial f(x_0)/\partial x$  at every training point  $x_0$  to become contractive, making their singular values become as small as possible

- It is however noticed that the optimization has to respect also the reconstruction error; this leads to an effect that keeps the singular values along directions with large local variances
- These directions are known as tangent directions to the data manifold; that is, they correspond to real variations in the data

### Review

- Stochastic vs. deterministic autoencoders
- Autoencoders vs. generative models with latent variables
- Training autoencoders vs. learning data manifolds