Autoencoders - an Introduction What they are and what you can do with them

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Table of Contents

Introduction

2 Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features



- Autoencoders
 - Michelucci
- autoencoder
- Classification features
- Data
- Anomaly Detection

- Umberto
- Introduction
- Structure of
- with latent

5 Anomaly Detection

4 Data Compression



Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencode

Classification with latent

Data Compression

Anomaly Detection

Introduction

Reference / Paper / GitHub



Autoencoders

Limberto Michelucci

Structure of autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data

Anomaly

Detection

https://arxiv.org/pdf/2201.03898.pdf

You can find a complete discussion at [1]

GitHub:

https://github.com/toelt-llc/ETH-ZURICH-GDSC-WORKSHOPS-2022



Normally in Machine learning we use the following notation for **supervised learning**:

 x_i indicates the input observations (e.g. images)

 y_i indicate the expected value or label.

Now suppose we have only unlabelled observations. We have only a training dataset S_T with M observations:

$$S_T = \{\mathbf{x}_i \mid i = 1, ..., M\} \text{ with } \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression



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Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression



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Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression



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Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

History



Autoencoders were first introduced¹ by Rumelhart, Hinton, and Williams [2] in 1986 with the goal of learning to reconstruct the input observations \mathbf{x}_i with the lowest error possible.

If you have problems imagining what that means, think of having a dataset made of images. An autoencoder would be an algorithm that can give as output an image that is as similar as possible to the input one.

Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

¹https://web.stanford.edu/class/psych209a/ReadingsByDate/02_06/PDPVolIChapter8.pdf

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Autoencoders

Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

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Definition



Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

Anomaly

Definition

An autoencoder is a type of algorithm with the primary purpose of learning an "informative" representation of the data that can be used for different applications [3] by learning to reconstruct a set of input observations well enough.

What does it mean well enough?

What does it mean informative?

Definition



Autoencoders

Limberto Michelucci

Structure of

Classification with latent

Data Compression

Anomaly

autoencoder

features

Detection

Definition

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Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

Anomaly

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What does it mean well enough?

What does it mean informative?

The informative aspect is important



Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

Anomaly Detection

Building an algorithm that reconstruct perfectly the input is very easy...

It is enough to use the identify function I(x) = x

This is not useful at all (and dumb)

The *informative* aspect is important

It is enough to use the identify function I(x) = x



Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Structure of

Classification

Data

Anomaly Detection

autoencoder

with latent features

Building an algorithm that reconstruct perfectly the input is very easy...

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Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

Anomaly Detection

Building an algorithm that reconstruct perfectly the input is very easy...

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The informative representation



For example, an informative representation of hand-written digits could be the number of lines required to write each number or the angle of each line and how they connect.

Learning how to write numbers certainly does not require to learn the gray values of each pixel in the input image.

We humans do not certainly learn to write by filling pixels with gray values.

Autoencoders

Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

The informative representation

how they connect.



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Autoencoders

Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

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Autoencoders

Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression



Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencod

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

Anomaly Detection

Structure of an autoencoder

Structure of an autoencoder



The structure of an autoencoder looks typically like this

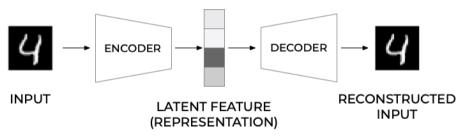


Figure: The typical structure of an autoencoder.

Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencode

Classification with latent features

Data Compression



The main elements of an autoencoder are the following:

- **1 Encoder**: generally speaking is a function $\mathbf{h}_i = g(\mathbf{x}_i)$ that depends on some parameters;
- **2 Latent Features**: the \mathbf{h}_i are normally just an array of numbers (in 1 or 2 dimension depending on the function q());
- **3 Decoder:** a second function that has as output the reconstructed image $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i = f(\mathbf{x}_i) = f(g(\mathbf{x}_i));$
- 4 The functions f() and g() are typically neural networks.

Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

structure of an autoencode

Classification with latent features

Data Compression



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Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

an autoencode

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

Anomaly



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Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencode

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

Anomaly



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Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencodei

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

Another take on the informative aspect



Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

Anomaly Detection

An **informative representation** means to obtain a latent representation \mathbf{h}_i that is useful for other purposes.

Bottleneck in autoencoders



- 1 To enforce h_i to be useful, we impose that it must be of lower dimension than \mathbf{x}_i ;

Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Classification with latent features

Data

Bottleneck in autoencoders



Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

an autoencode

Classification with latent features

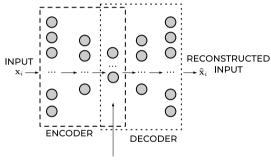
Data Compression

- 1 To enforce h_i to be useful, we impose that it must be of lower dimension than x_i :
- 2 The fact that the dimension of h_i is lower than that of x_i is called a **bottleneck**.

Example of bottleneck



A diagram of a bottleneck with Feed Forward Neural Networks is the following



FEATURE GENERATING LAYER

Figure: A typical architecture of a Feed-Forward Autoencoder. The number of neurons in the layers at first goes down as we move through the network until it reaches the middle and then starts to grow again until the last layer has the same number of neurons as the input dimensions.

Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencode

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

Bottleneck II



Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

an autoencode

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

Anomaly Detection

Information

The encoder can reduce the number of dimensions of the input observation (n) and create a learned representation (\mathbf{h}_i) of the input that has a smaller dimension q < n. This learned representation is enough for the decoder to reconstruct the input accurately (if the autoencoder training was successful as intended).

Activation Function of the Output Layer I



The most used ones are ReLU and sigmoid.

$$ReLU(x) = \max(0, x) \tag{1}$$

and

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} \tag{2}$$

Warning

ReLU activation function for the output layer is well suited for cases when the input observations x_i assume a wide range of positive real values.

Warning

sigmoid activation function for the output layer is well suited for cases when the input observations \mathbf{x}_i assume a range of values in [0,1]

Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

n utoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

Anomaly

Loss Functions



For autoencoders one can use both typical loss functions:

- 1 MSE
- 2 Cross-entropy

Warning

An essential prerequisite for using the binary cross-entropy loss function is that the inputs must be normalized between 0 and 1 and that the activation function for the last layer must be a sigmoid or softmax function.

Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencode

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

Reconstruction Error



Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

an autoencode

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

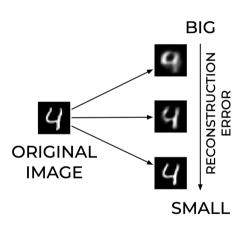
Anomaly

The typical reconstruction error (RE) is a metric that gives an indication of how good (or bad) the autoencoder was able to reconstruct the input observation.

$$RE = MSE = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} |\mathbf{x}_i - \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i|^2$$
(3)

Reconstruction Error - an example





Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencode

Classification with latent features

Data Compressior

Anomaly Detection

Figure: An example of big and small reconstruction error when an autoencoder tries to reconstruct an image.



Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

an autoencoder

Classification with latent

Data Compression

Anomaly Detection

Classification with latent features

An example



Dataset: MNIST (handwritten digits, 28x28 gray levels, 60000 training images, 10000 test images)

Model: With kNN with k=7 on MNIST (60000 images, $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{784}$) takes ca. 16.6 minutes (ca. 1000 sec.) with an accuracy of 96.4%.

Model with latent features: if we consider an FFA with 8 neurons in the middle layer and again train a kNN algorithm on the latent features $g(\mathbf{x}_i) \in \mathbb{R}^8$ we get an accuracy of 89% in 1.1 sec

Autoencoders

Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression



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Autoencoders

Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression



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Autoencoders

Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression



Input Data	Accuracy	Running Time
Original data $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{784}$	96.4%	1000 sec. ≈ 16.6
		min.
Latent Features $g(\mathbf{x}_i) \in \mathbb{R}^8$	89%	1.1 sec.

Table: the different in accuracy and running time when applying the kNN algorithm to the original 784 features or the 8 latent features for the MNIST dataset.

Autoencoders Umberto

Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression



Input Data	Accuracy	Running Time
Original data $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{784}$	85.4%	1040 sec. ≈ 16.6
		min.
Latent Features $enc(\mathbf{x}_i) \in$	79.9%	1.2 sec.
\mathbb{R}^8		
Latent Features $enc(\mathbf{x}_i) \in$	83.6%	3.0 sec.
\mathbb{R}^{16}		

Table: the difference in accuracy and running time when applying the kNN algorithm to the original 784 features with a FFA with 8 neurons and with a FFA with 16 neurons for the Fashion MNIST dataset.

Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent eatures

Data Compression



Data Compression

Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

an autoencode

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

Compression

Data Compression



You can do also data compression by using instead of the original dataset the latent features (16 neurons).

```
np.save('temp_orig', mnist_x_test)
! ls -al temp_orig*
-rw-r--r- 1 umberto staff 31360128 May 5 13:45 temp_orig.npy
and with the latent features
np.save('temp_encoded', encoded_imgs)
! ls -al temp_encoded*
-rw-r--r- 1 umberto staff 320128 May 5 13:45 temp_encoded.npy
```

Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compressior



Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

an autoencode

Classification with latent features

Data Compression



- We consider n autoencoder with only three layers with 784 neurons in the first, 64 in the latent feature generation layer, and again 784 neurons in the output layer;
- We will train it with the MNIST dataset and in particular with the 60000 training portion of it;
- 3 Let us choose an image of a shoe from this dataset and add it to the testing portion of the MNIST dataset (that now will have 10001 images).

Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression



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Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression



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Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

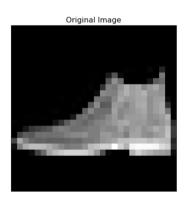
Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

Anomaly Detection - how the autoencoder reconstruct the shoe





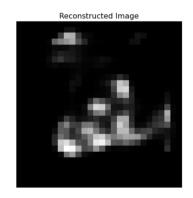


Figure: The shoe and the autoencoder's reconstruction trained on the 60000 hand-written images of the MNIST dataset. This image has the biggest RE in the entire 10001 test dataset we built with a value of 0.062

Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression



- 1 One train an autoencoder on the entire dataset (or if possible, on a portion of the dataset known not to have any outlier)
- 2 For each observation (or input) of the portion of the dataset known to have the wanted outliers one calculates the RE
- 3 One sorts the observations by the RE.
- One classifies the observations with the highest RE as outliers. Note that how many observations are outliers will depend on the problem at hand and require an analysis of the results and usually lot of knowledge of the data and the problem

Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression



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Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression



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Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression



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Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

Assumption in anomaly detection



Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression

Anomaly

Warning

If one train the autoencoder on the entire dataset at disposal, there is an essential assumption: the outliers are a negligible part of the dataset and their presence will not influence (or will influence in an insignificant way) how the autoencoder learns to reconstruct the observations.

References I



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- D. E. Rumelhart, G. E. Hinton, and R. J. Williams, "Learning internal representations by error propagation, parallel distributed processing, vol. 1," *Foundations. MIT Press, Cambridge*, 1986.
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Autoencoders

Umberto Michelucci

Introduction

Structure of an autoencoder

Classification with latent features

Data Compression