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

Umberto Michelucci¹

¹ Presenting author, umberto.michelucci@hslu.ch

March 13, 2023

Lucerne University of Applied Sciences and Arts

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You can find a complete discussion at [1]

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

GitHub:

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

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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:

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

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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. Timeseries

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

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Anomaly Detection

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.

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What does it mean well enough?

What does it mean informative?

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The informative aspect is important

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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

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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.

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

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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.

Structure of an autoencoder

The structure of an autoencoder looks typically like this

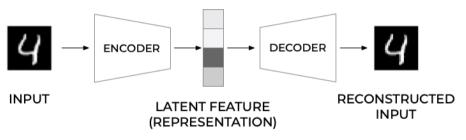


Figure: The typical structure of an autoencoder.

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- **1 Encoder**: generally speaking is a function $\mathbf{h}_i = g(\mathbf{x}_i)$ that depends on some parameters;
- **2 Latent Features**: the h_i are normally just an array of numbers (in 1 or 2 dimension depending on the function g());
- 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.

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The main elements of an autoencoder are the following:

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Another take on the informative aspect

is useful for other purposes.

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An **informative representation** means to obtain a latent representation h_i that

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- 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**

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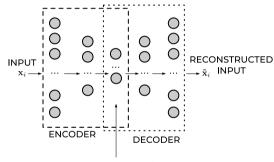
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A diagram of a bottleneck with Feed Forward Neural Networks is the following



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.

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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).

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

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]

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For autoencoders one can use both typical loss functions:

- MSE
- 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.

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)

BIG RECONSTRUCTION ERROR **ORIGINAL IMAGE** SMALL

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

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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

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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.

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.

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```
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
```

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- 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).

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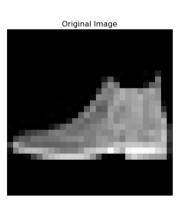
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Anomaly Detection - how the autoencoder reconstruct the shoe

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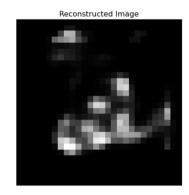


Figure: The shoe and the autoencoder's reconstruction trained on the 60000 hand-written images of the MNIST dataset. This image has the biggest RE in the entire 10001 test dataset we built with a value of 0.062

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- 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

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- 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 BE
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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.

- - U. Michelucci, "An introduction to autoencoders," arXiv preprint arXiv:2201.03898, 2022.
 - 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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