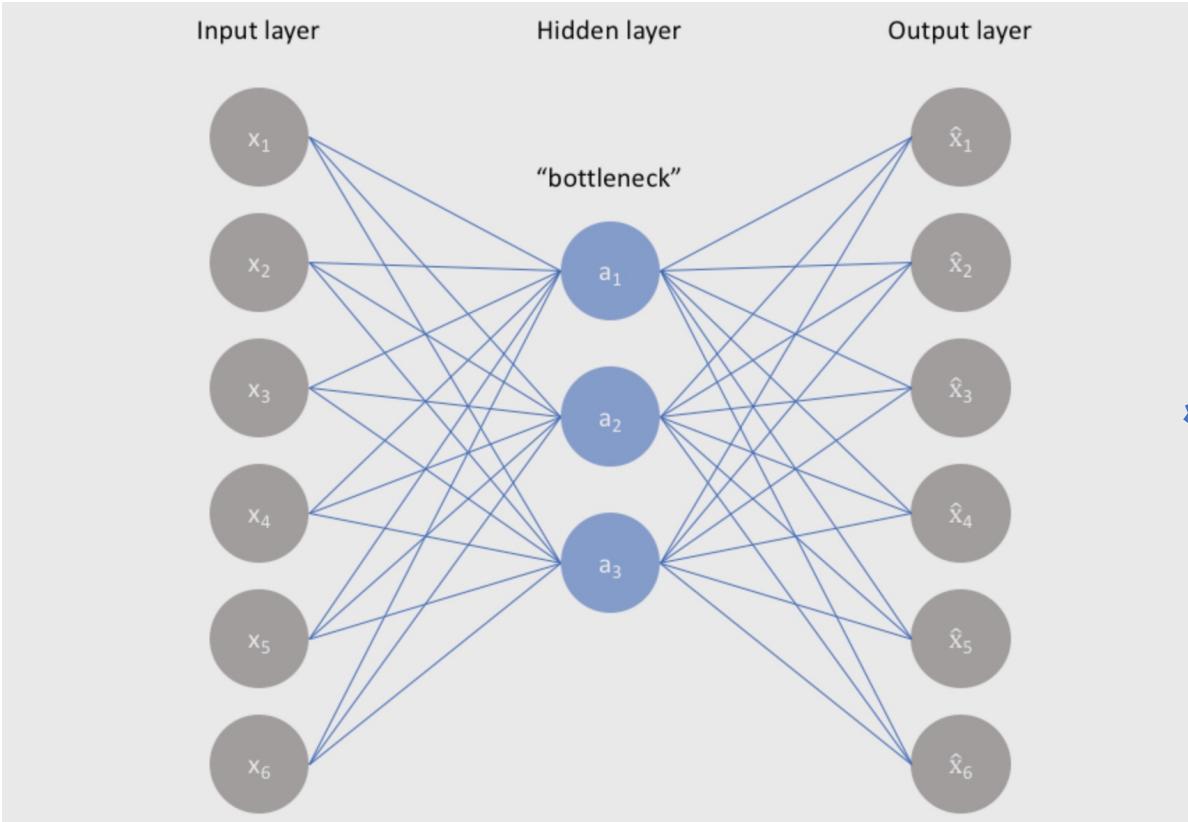


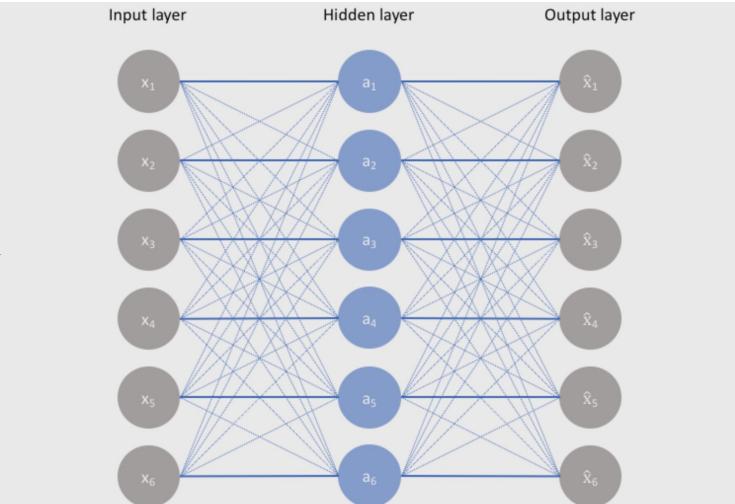
1. Autoencoders



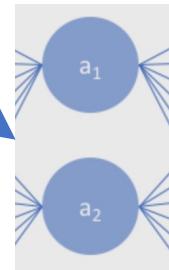
Reconstruction error to minimize:

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta, \phi) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x^i - f_\theta(g_\phi(x^i)))^2 \rightarrow \text{MSE}$$

Bottleneck essential:

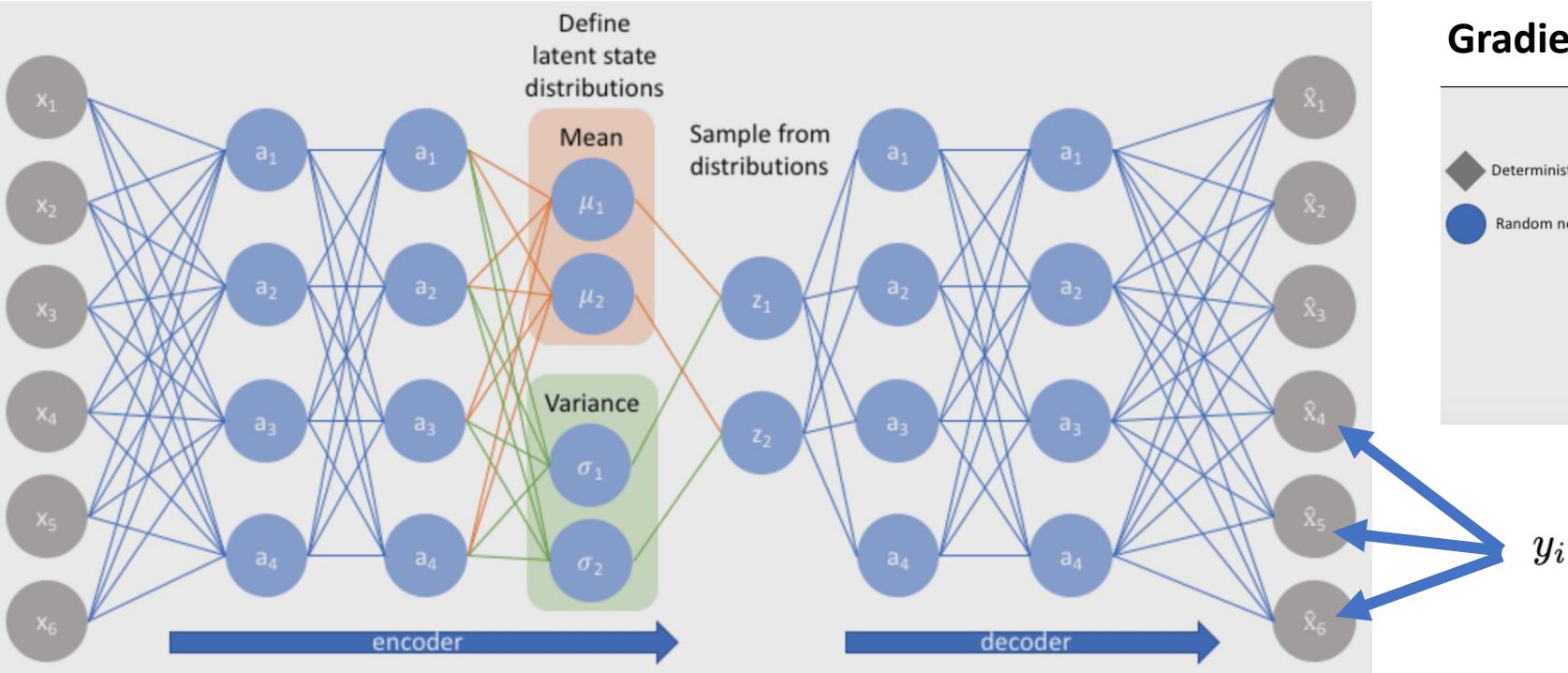


Activation functions

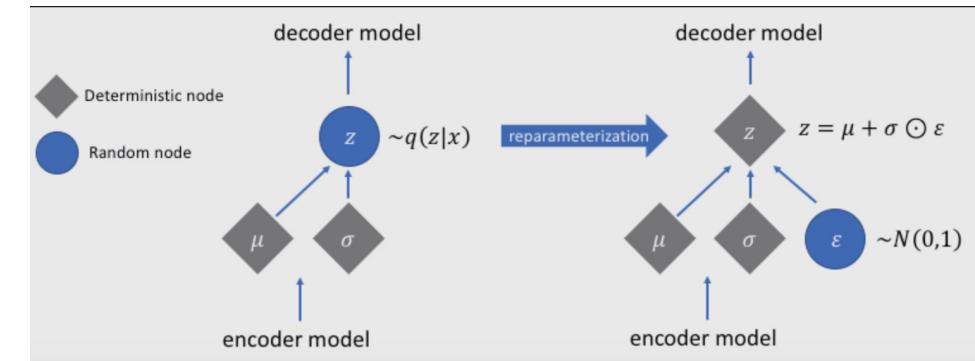


→ Linear functions =
similar to PCA

2. Variational autoencoders



Gradient computation



Reconstruction error to minimize:

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta, \phi) = \mathcal{R}(x^i, f_\theta(g_\phi(x^i))) + \beta D_{KL}(q_\phi(g_\phi(x^i)|x^i)||p_\theta(g_\phi(x^i))) = \mathcal{R}(x^i, y^i) + \beta D_{KL}(q_\phi(z^i)|x^i)||p_\theta(z^i))$$

Total cross-entropy

Entanglement

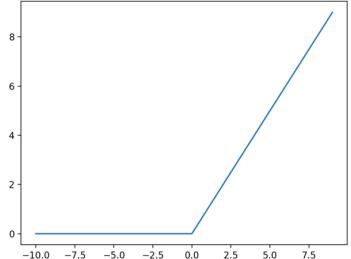
Kullback-Leibler divergence

Cross-entropy loss:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}_{CL} &= - \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{c=1}^C 1_{f_\theta(g_\phi(x_i)) \in C_c} \log(p(f_\theta(g_\phi(x_i)) \in C_c)) = - \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{c=1}^C 1_{f_\theta(z_i) \in C_c} \log(p(f_\theta(z_i) \in C_c)) \\ &= - \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{c=1}^C 1_{y_i \in C_c} \log(p(y_i \in C_c))\end{aligned}$$

ReLU activation:

$$ReLU(x) = \max(0, x)$$



KL divergence:

$$D_{KL}(q_\phi(z^k) || p_\theta(z^k)) = \sum_{z_i \in z^k} q_\phi(z_i) \log \left(\frac{q_\phi(z_i)}{p_\theta(z_i)} \right) = - \sum_{z_i \in z^k} q_\phi(z_i) \log \left(\frac{p_\theta(z_i)}{q_\phi(z_i)} \right)$$

In our VAE model, the KL divergence is actually based on points and not whole distributions:

$$D_{KL}(q_\phi(z^k) || p_\theta(z^k)) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N (1 + \log(\sigma_i^2) - (\mu_i^2) - (\sigma_i^2))$$

The parameters ϕ and θ of our encoder and decoder MLP are optimized jointly.

3 Example: Variational Auto-Encoder

In this section we'll give an example where we use a neural network for the probabilistic encoder $q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$ (the approximation to the posterior of the generative model $p_\theta(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$) and where the parameters ϕ and θ are optimized jointly with the AEVB algorithm.

Let the prior over the latent variables be the centered isotropic multivariate Gaussian $p_\theta(\mathbf{z}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$. Note that in this case, the prior lacks parameters. We let $p_\theta(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})$ be a multivariate Gaussian (in case of real-valued data) or Bernoulli (in case of binary data) whose distribution parameters are computed from \mathbf{z} with a MLP (a fully-connected neural network with a single hidden layer, see appendix C). Note the true posterior $p_\theta(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$ is in this case intractable. While there is much freedom in the form $q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$, we'll assume the true (but intractable) posterior takes on a approximate Gaussian form with an approximately diagonal covariance. In this case, we can let the variational approximate posterior be a multivariate Gaussian with a diagonal covariance structure²:

$$\log q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = \log \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}; \boldsymbol{\mu}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{2(i)}\mathbf{I}) \quad (9)$$

where the mean and s.d. of the approximate posterior, $\boldsymbol{\mu}^{(i)}$ and $\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{(i)}$, are outputs of the encoding MLP, i.e. nonlinear functions of datapoint $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ and the variational parameters ϕ (see appendix C).

As explained in section 2.4, we sample from the posterior $\mathbf{z}^{(i,l)} \sim q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$ using $\mathbf{z}^{(i,l)} = g_\phi(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{(l)}) = \boldsymbol{\mu}^{(i)} + \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{(i)} \odot \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{(l)}$ where $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{(l)} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$. With \odot we signify an element-wise product. In this model both $p_\theta(\mathbf{z})$ (the prior) and $q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$ are Gaussian; in this case, we can use the estimator of eq. (7) where the KL divergence can be computed and differentiated without estimation (see appendix B). The resulting estimator for this model and datapoint $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ is:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\phi}; \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) &\simeq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^J \left(1 + \log((\sigma_j^{(i)})^2) - (\mu_j^{(i)})^2 - (\sigma_j^{(i)})^2 \right) + \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^L \log p_\theta(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}|\mathbf{z}^{(i,l)}) \\ \text{where } \mathbf{z}^{(i,l)} &= \boldsymbol{\mu}^{(i)} + \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{(i)} \odot \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{(l)} \quad \text{and} \quad \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{(l)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I}) \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

As explained above and in appendix C, the decoding term $\log p_\theta(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}|\mathbf{z}^{(i,l)})$ is a Bernoulli or Gaussian MLP, depending on the type of data we are modelling.

Literature review:

- **Auto-Encoding Variational Bayes**, Diederik P Kingma, Max Welling, 2013
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- **Deep generative models for T cell receptor protein sequences**, Kristian Davidsen et al., 2019
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- <https://www.jeremyjordan.me/variational-autoencoders/>
- [https://medium.com/@j.zh/mathematics-behind-variational-autoencoders-c69297301957#:~:text=Variational%20Auto%2DEncoder\(VAE\),learning%20and%20dimensionality%20reduction%20etc.](https://medium.com/@j.zh/mathematics-behind-variational-autoencoders-c69297301957#:~:text=Variational%20Auto%2DEncoder(VAE),learning%20and%20dimensionality%20reduction%20etc.)

List is not complete and updated though the writing of the report.