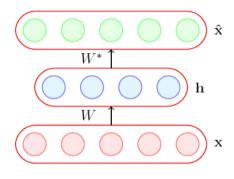
Autoencoders

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Overview



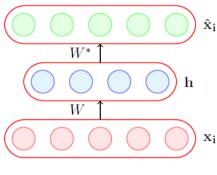
$$\mathbf{h} = g(W\mathbf{x_i} + \mathbf{b})$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{\mathbf{i}} = f(W^*\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{c})$$

- An autoencoder is a special type of feed forward neural network which does the following
- Encodes its input x_i into a hidden representation h
- <u>Decodes</u> the input again from this hidden representation
- The model is trained to minimize a certain loss function which will ensure that $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i$ is close to \mathbf{x}_i (we will see some such loss functions soon)

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Overview



$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{\mathbf{i}}$$

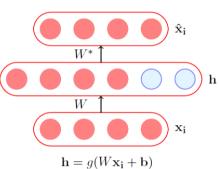
- \bullet Let us consider the case where $\dim(\mathbf{h}) < \dim(\mathbf{x_i})$
- If we are still able to reconstruct $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i$ perfectly from \mathbf{h} , then what does it say about \mathbf{h} ?
- h is a loss-free encoding of x_i . It captures all the important characteristics of x_i

$$\mathbf{h} = g(W\mathbf{x_i} + \mathbf{b})$$
$$\hat{\mathbf{x}_i} = f(W^*\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{c})$$

An autoencoder where $\dim(h) < \dim(x_i)$ is called an under complete autoencoder

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Overview



 $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{\mathbf{i}} = f(W^*\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{c})$

- Let us consider the case when $\dim(\mathbf{h}) \ge \dim(\mathbf{x_i})$
- In such a case the autoencoder could learn a trivial encoding by simply copying $\mathbf{x_i}$ into \mathbf{h} and then copying \mathbf{h} into $\hat{\mathbf{x}_i}$
- Such an identity encoding is useless in practice as it does not really tell us anything about the important characteristics of the data

An autoencoder where $\dim(\mathbf{h}) \geq \dim(\mathbf{x_i})$ is called an over complete autoencoder

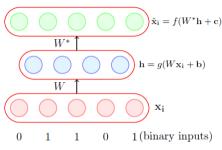
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Design choices

- What should be the choice of f() and g()?
- What should be the loss function?

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Choice of f(x) and g(x)



- $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i = f(W^*\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{c}) \bullet \text{ Suppose all our inputs are binary}$ $(\text{each } x_{ij} \in \{0, 1\})$
- $h = g(Wx_i + b)$ Which of the following functions would be most apt for the decoder?

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{i} = \tanh(W^*\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{c})$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{i} = W^*\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{c}$$

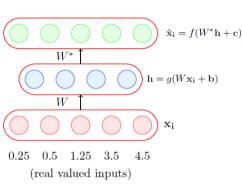
$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{i} = logistic(W^*\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{c})$$

 Logistic as it naturally restricts all outputs to be between 0 and 1

g is typically chosen as the sigmoid function

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Choice of f(x) and g(x)



Again, g is typically chosen as the sigmoid function

- Suppose all our inputs are real (each $x_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$)
- Which of the following functions would be most apt for the decoder?

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{i} = \tanh(W^*\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{c})$$

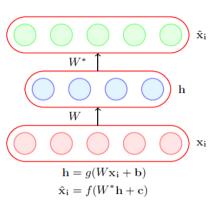
$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{i} = W^*\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{c}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{i} = \text{logistic}(W^*\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{c})$$

- What will logistic and tanh do?
- They will restrict the reconstructed $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i$ to lie between [0,1] or [-1,1] whereas we want $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$

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Choice of loss function: Real x



- Consider the case when the inputs are real valued
- The objective of the autoencoder is to reconstruct $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i$ to be as close to \mathbf{x}_i as possible
- This can be formalized using the following objective function:

$$\min_{W,W^*,c,b} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (\hat{x}_{ij} - x_{ij})^2$$
i.e.,
$$\min_{W,W^*,c,b} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i - \mathbf{x}_i)^T (\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i - \mathbf{x}_i)$$

- We can then train the autoencoder just like a regular feedforward network using backpropagation
- All we need is a formula for $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial W^*}$ and $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial W}$ which we will see now

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Choice of Loss function: Real x

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = (\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i - \mathbf{x}_i)^T (\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i - \mathbf{x}_i)$$

$$\mathbf{h}_2 = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_i$$

$$\mathbf{h}_1$$

$$\mathbf{h}_1$$

$$\mathbf{h}_1$$

$$\mathbf{h}_1$$

$$\mathbf{h}_1$$

 $h_0 = x_i$

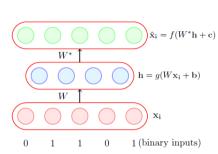
$$\bullet \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial W^*} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial \mathbf{h_2}} \boxed{\frac{\partial \mathbf{h_2}}{\partial \mathbf{a_2}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{a_2}}{\partial W^*}}$$

- $\bullet \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial \mathbf{h}_2} \boxed{\frac{\partial \mathbf{h}_2}{\partial \mathbf{a}_2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}_2}{\partial \mathbf{h}_1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}_1}{\partial \mathbf{a}_1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}_1}{\partial W}}$
- We have already seen how to calculate the expression in the boxes when we learnt backpropagation

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial \mathbf{h}_2} &= \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial \hat{\mathbf{x}}_i} \\ &= \nabla_{\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i} \{ (\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i - \mathbf{x}_i)^T (\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i - \mathbf{x}_i) \} \\ &= 2 (\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i - \mathbf{x}_i) \end{split}$$

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Choice of loss function: Binary x



What value of \hat{x}_{ij} will minimize this function?

- If $x_{ij} = 1$?
- If $x_{ij} = 0$?

Indeed the above function will be minimized when $\hat{x}_{ij} = x_{ij}$!

- Consider the case when the inputs are binary
- We use a sigmoid decoder which will produce outputs between 0 and 1, and can be interpreted as probabilities.
- For a single n-dimensional *i*th input we can use the following loss function

$$\min\{-\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (x_{ij} \log \hat{x}_{ij} + (1 - x_{ij}) \log(1 - \hat{x}_{ij}))\}$$

• Again we need is a formula for $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial W^*}$ and $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial W}$ to use backpropagation

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Choice of loss function: Binary x

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{ij} \log \hat{x}_{ij} + (1 - x_{ij}) \log(1 - \hat{x}_{ij}))$$

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = -\sum_{j=1}^{n} \left(x_{ij} \log \hat{x}_{ij} + (1 - x_{ij}) \log (1 - \hat{x}_{ij}) \right)$$

$$\mathbf{h}_{2} = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{i}$$

$$\mathbf{a}_{2}$$

$$\mathbf{\partial} \mathcal{L}(\theta) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial W^{*}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial \mathbf{h}_{2}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}_{2}}{\partial \mathbf{a}_{2}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}_{2}}{\partial W^{*}}$$

$$W^* \bullet \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial \mathbf{h_2}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{h_2}}{\partial \mathbf{a_2}} \left[\frac{\partial \mathbf{a_2}}{\partial \mathbf{h_1}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{h_1}}{\partial \mathbf{a_1}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{a_1}}{\partial W} \right]$$
• We have already seen how to calculate the expressions in the

square boxes when we learnt BP • The first two terms on RHS can be

computed as:
$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial h_{2j}} = -\frac{x_{ij}}{\hat{x}_{ij}} + \frac{1 - x_{ij}}{1 - \hat{x}_{ij}}$$
$$\frac{\partial h_{2j}}{\partial a_{2j}} = \sigma(a_{2j})(1 - \sigma(a_{2j}))$$

 h_1 $\mathbf{a_1}$

Equivalence of Autoencoders and PCA

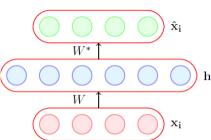
The encoder of a linear autoencoder is equivalent to PCA if we

- use a linear encoder
- use a linear decoder
- use a squared error loss function
- and normalize the inputs to

$$\hat{x}_{ij} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \left(x_{ij} - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^{m} x_{kj} \right)$$

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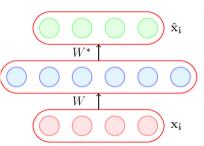
Regularization in Autoencoders



- While poor generalization could happen even in undercomplete autoencoders it is an even more serious problem for overcomplete auto encoders
- Here, (as stated earlier) the model can simply learn to copy $\mathbf{x_i}$ to \mathbf{h} and then \mathbf{h} to $\hat{\mathbf{x_i}}$
- To avoid poor generalization, we need to introduce regularization

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Regularization in autoencoders



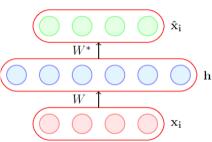
The simplest solution is to add a L₂-regularization term to the objective function

$$\min_{\theta, w, w^*, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n (\hat{x}_{ij} - x_{ij})^2 + \lambda \|\theta\|^2$$

This is very easy to implement and just adds a term λW to the gradient $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial W}$ (and similarly for other parameters)

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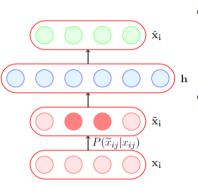
Regularization in autoencoders



- Another trick is to tie the weights of the encoder and decoder i.e., $W^* = W^T$
- This effectively reduces the capacity of Autoencoder and acts as a regularizer

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Denoising autoencoders



- A denoising encoder simply corrupts the input data using a probabilistic process $(P(\widetilde{x}_{ij}|x_{ij}))$ before feeding it to the network
- A simple $P(\tilde{x}_{ij}|x_{ij})$ used in practice is the following

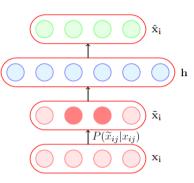
$$P(\widetilde{x}_{ij} = 0|x_{ij}) = q$$

$$P(\widetilde{x}_{ij} = x_{ij}|x_{ij}) = 1 - q$$

• In other words, with probability q the input is flipped to 0 and with probability (1-q) it is retained as it is

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Denoising Autoencoders: How does it help?



For example, it will have to learn to reconstruct a corrupted x_{ij} correctly by relying on its interactions with other elements of \mathbf{x}_i

• This helps because the objective is still to reconstruct the original (uncorrupted) \mathbf{x}_i

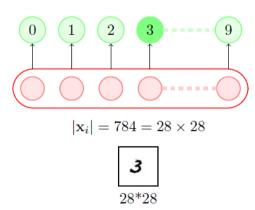
$$\arg\min_{\theta} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (\hat{x}_{ij} - x_{ij})^{2}$$

- It no longer makes sense for the model to copy the corrupted $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i$ into $h(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i)$ and then into $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i$ (the objective function will not be minimized by doing so)
- Instead the model will now have to capture the characteristics of the data correctly.

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Practical Applications: Handwritten digit recognition



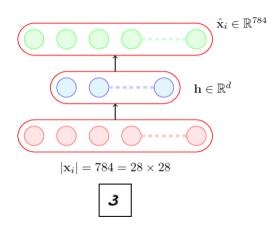


Basic approach: Raw data as input features

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Practical Applications: Handwriting Recognition



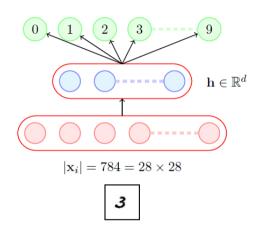


AE approach: Learn important characteristic of the data

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Practical Application: Handwriting Recognition

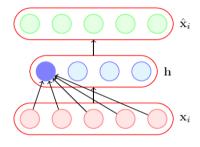




AE approach: Train a classifier on top of hidden representation

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Visualizing Autoencoder Representations



$$\max_{\mathbf{x}_i} \{W_1^T \mathbf{x}_i\}$$

$$s.t. \ ||\mathbf{x}_i||^2 = \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_i = 1$$

- We can think of each neuron as a filter which will fire (or get maximally) activated for a certain input configuration x_i
- For example,

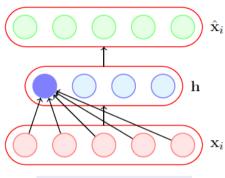
$$\mathbf{h}_1 = \sigma(W_1^T \mathbf{x}_i) \ [ignoring \ bias \ b]$$

Where W_1 is the trained vector of weights connecting the input to the first hidden neuron

- What values of \mathbf{x}_i will cause \mathbf{h}_1 to be maximum (or maximally activated)
- Suppose we assume that our inputs are normalized so that $\|\mathbf{x}_i\| = 1$

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Visualizing Autoencoder Representations



$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\mathbf{x}_i} & \{W_1^T \mathbf{x}_i\} \\ s.t. & ||\mathbf{x}_i||^2 = \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_i = 1 \\ \text{Solution:} & \mathbf{x}_i = \frac{W_1}{\sqrt{W_i^T W_1}} \end{aligned}$$

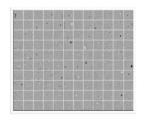
• Thus the inputs

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \frac{W_1}{\sqrt{W_1^T W_1}}, \frac{W_2}{\sqrt{W_2^T W_2}}, \dots \frac{W_n}{\sqrt{W_n^T W_n}}$$

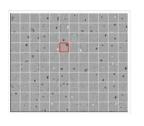
will respectively cause hidden neurons 1 to n to maximally fire

- Let us plot these images (x_i's) which maximally activate the first k neurons of the hidden representations learned by a vanilla autoencoder and different denoising autoencoders
- These \mathbf{x}_i 's are computed by the above formula using the weights $(W_1, W_2 \dots W_k)$ learned by the respective autoencoders

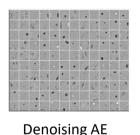
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Denoising AE a = 0.25

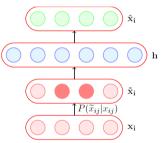


q = 0.50

- The vanilla AE does not learn many meaningful patterns
- The hidden neurons of the denoising AEs seem to act like pen-stroke detectors (for example, in the highlighted neuron the black region is a stroke that you would expect in a '0' or a '2' or a '3' or a '8' or a '9')
- As the noise increases the filters become more wide because the neuron has to rely on more adjacent pixels to feel confident about a stroke

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Alternate forms of Denoising AE

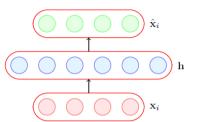


- We saw one form of $P(\widetilde{x}_{ij}|x_{ij})$ which flips a fraction q of the inputs to zero
- Another way of corrupting the inputs is to add a Gaussian noise to the input

$$\widetilde{x}_{ij} = x_{ij} + \mathcal{N}(0,1)$$

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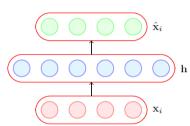
Sparse Autoencoder



- A hidden neuron with sigmoid activation will have values between 0 and 1
- We say that the neuron is activated when its output is close to 1 and not activated when its output is close to 0.
- A sparse autoencoder tries to ensure the neuron is inactive most of the times.

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Sparse Autoencoders



The average value of the activation of a neuron l is given by

$$\hat{\rho}_l = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m h(\mathbf{x}_i)_l$$

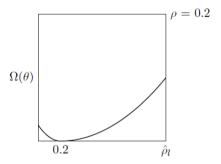
- If the neuron l is sparse (i.e. mostly inactive) then $\hat{\rho}_l \to 0$
- A sparse autoencoder uses a sparsity parameter ρ (typically very close to 0, say, 0.005) and tries to enforce the constraint $\hat{\rho}_l = \rho$
- One way of ensuring this is to add the following term to the objective function

$$\Omega(\theta) = \sum_{l=1}^{k} \rho \log \frac{\rho}{\hat{\rho}_l} + (1 - \rho) \log \frac{1 - \rho}{1 - \hat{\rho}_l}$$

 When will this term reach its minimum value and what is the minimum value? Let us plot it and check.

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Sparse Autoencoders



• The function will reach its minimum value(s) when $\hat{\rho}_l = \rho$.

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 Now, $\hat{\mathscr{L}}(\theta) = \mathscr{L}(\theta) + \Omega(\theta)$

cross entropy loss and
$$\Omega(\theta)$$
 is the sparsity constraint.

• We already know how to calculate
$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial W}$$

• Let us see how to calculate
$$\frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial W}$$
.
• Finally,

$$\frac{\partial \hat{\mathcal{L}}(\theta)}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial W} + \frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial W}$$
(and we know how to calculate bot

(and we know how to calculate both terms on R.H.S)

 $\Omega(\theta) = \sum_{l=1}^{\tilde{n}} \rho log \rho - \rho log \hat{\rho}_l + (1-\rho)log(1-\rho) - (1-\rho)log(1-\hat{\rho}_l)$

By Chain rule:

 $\frac{\partial \hat{\rho}_l}{\partial \mathbf{U}} = \mathbf{x}_i (g'(W^T \mathbf{x}_i + \mathbf{b}))^T \text{(see next slide)}$

 $\frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial \hat{\rho}} \cdot \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial W}$

 $\Omega(\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^{k} \rho \log \frac{\rho}{\hat{\rho}_{k}} + (1 - \rho) \log \frac{1 - \rho}{1 - \hat{\rho}_{k}}$

 $\frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial \hat{\rho}} = \left[\frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial \hat{\rho}_1}, \frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial \hat{\rho}_2}, \dots \frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial \hat{\rho}_k} \right]^T$

For each neuron $l \in 1 \dots k$ in hidden layer, we have $\frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial \hat{\rho}_l} = -\frac{\rho}{\hat{\rho}_l} + \frac{(1-\rho)}{1-\hat{\rho}_l}$

Derivation

$$\frac{\partial \hat{\rho}}{\partial W} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \hat{\rho}_1}{\partial W} & \frac{\partial \hat{\rho}_2}{\partial W} \dots \frac{\partial \hat{\rho}_k}{\partial W} \end{bmatrix}$$

For each element in the above equation we can calculate $\frac{\partial \hat{\rho}_l}{\partial W}$ (which is the partial derivative of a scalar w.r.t. a matrix = matrix). For a single element of a matrix W_{jl} :-

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial \hat{\rho}_{l}}{\partial W_{jl}} &= \frac{\partial \left[\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} g\left(W_{:,l}^{T} \mathbf{x_{i}} + b_{l}\right)\right]}{\partial W_{jl}} \\ &= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\partial \left[g\left(W_{:,l}^{T} \mathbf{x_{i}} + b_{l}\right)\right]}{\partial W_{jl}} \\ &= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} g'\left(W_{:,l}^{T} \mathbf{x_{i}} + b_{l}\right) x_{ij} \end{split}$$

So in matrix notation we can write it as:

$$\frac{\partial \hat{\rho}_l}{\partial W} = \mathbf{x}_i (g'(W^T \mathbf{x}_i + \mathbf{b}))^T$$

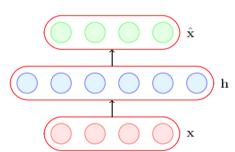
Contrastive autoencoders

- A contractive autoencoder also tries to prevent an overcomplete autoencoder from learning the identity function.
- It does so by adding the following regularization term to the loss function

$$\Omega(\theta) = ||J_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{h})||_F^2$$

where $J_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{h})$ is the Jacobian of the encoder.

• Let us see what it looks like.



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Contrastive Autoencoders

- If the input has n dimensions and the hidden layer has k dimensions then
- In other words, the (l, j) entry of the Jacobian captures the variation in the output of the l^{th} neuron with a small variation in the j^{th} input.

$$J_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{h}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \dots & \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \dots & \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial h_k}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \dots & \frac{\partial h_k}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

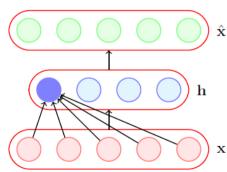
$$||J_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{h})||_F^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^k \left(\frac{\partial h_l}{\partial x_j}\right)^2$$

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Contrastive Autoencoder

- What is the intuition behind this?
- Consider $\frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_1}$, what does it mean if $\frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_2} = 0$
- It means that this neuron is not very sensitive to variations in the input x_1 .
- But doesn't this contradict our other goal of minimizing L(θ) which requires h to capture variations in the input.

$$||J_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{h})||_F^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^k \left(\frac{\partial h_l}{\partial x_j}\right)^2$$

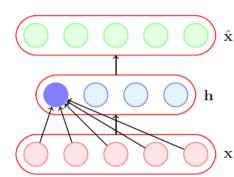


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Contrastive autoencoder

- Indeed it does and that's the idea
- By putting these two contradicting objectives against each other we ensure that h is sensitive to only very important variations as observed in the training data.
- $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$ capture important variations in data
- $\Omega(\theta)$ do not capture variations in data
- Tradeoff capture only very important variations in the data

$$||J_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{h})||_F^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^k \left(\frac{\partial h_l}{\partial x_j}\right)^2$$



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