

# EE-559 – Deep learning

## 7.2. Autoencoders

François Fleuret

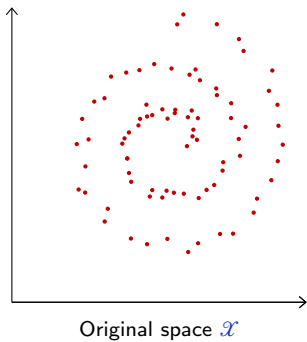
<https://fleuret.org/ee559/>

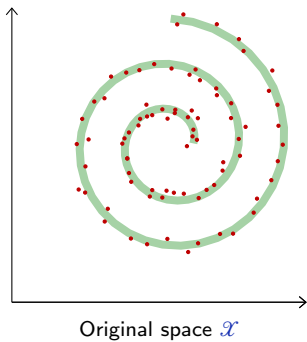
Mar 31, 2020

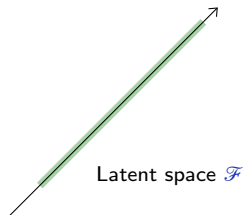
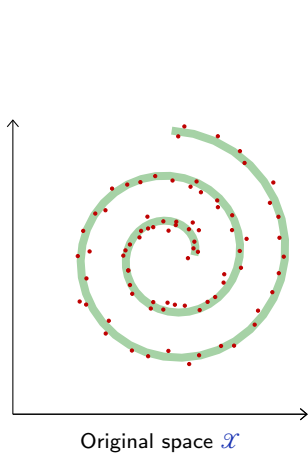
Many applications such as image synthesis, denoising, super-resolution, speech synthesis, compression, etc. require to go beyond classification and regression, and model explicitly a high dimension signal.

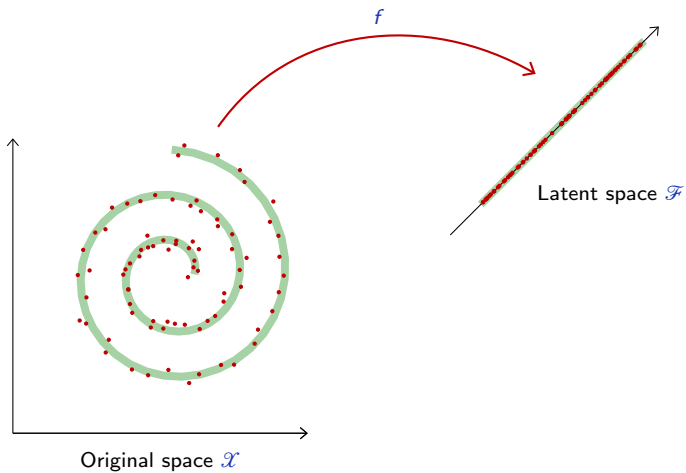
Many applications such as image synthesis, denoising, super-resolution, speech synthesis, compression, etc. require to go beyond classification and regression, and model explicitly a high dimension signal.

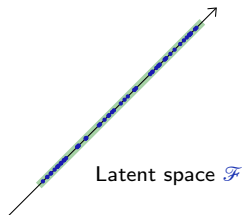
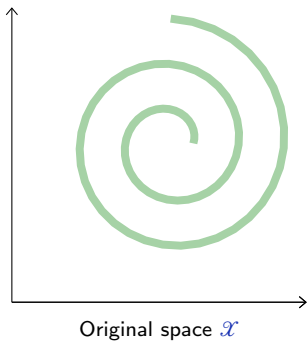
This modeling consists of finding “meaningful degrees of freedom” that describe the signal, and are of lesser dimension.



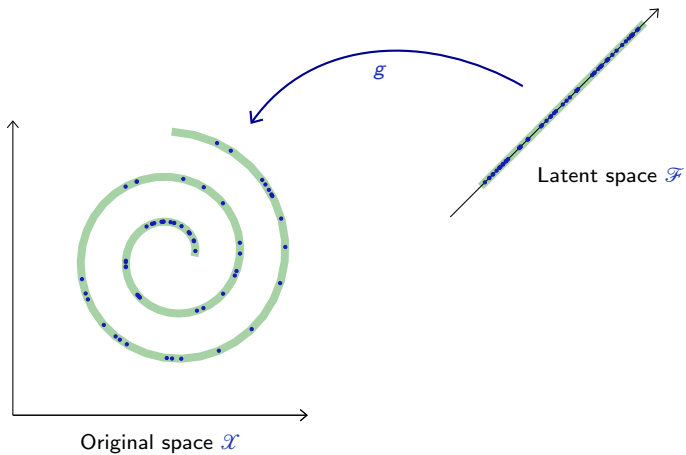


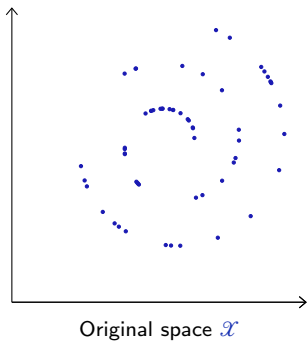












When dealing with real-world signals, this objective involves the same theoretical and practical issues as for classification or regression: defining the right class of high-dimension models, and optimizing them.

Regarding synthesis, we saw that deep feed-forward architectures exhibit good generative properties, which motivates their use explicitly for that purpose.

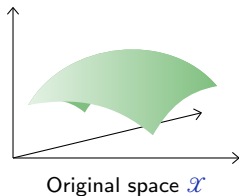
# Autoencoders

An autoencoder maps a space to itself and is [close to] the identity on the data.

Dimension reduction can be achieved with an autoencoder composed of an **encoder**  $f$  from the original space  $\mathcal{X}$  to a **latent** space  $\mathcal{F}$ , and a **decoder**  $g$  to map back to  $\mathcal{X}$  (Bourlard and Kamp, 1988; Hinton and Zemel, 1994).

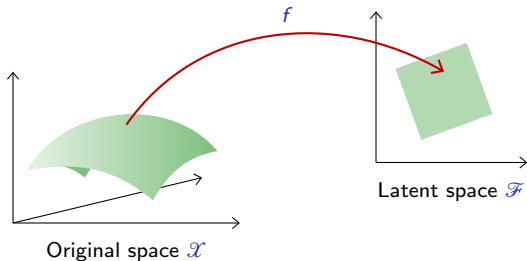
An autoencoder maps a space to itself and is [close to] the identity on the data.

Dimension reduction can be achieved with an autoencoder composed of an **encoder**  $f$  from the original space  $\mathcal{X}$  to a **latent** space  $\mathcal{F}$ , and a **decoder**  $g$  to map back to  $\mathcal{X}$  (Bourlard and Kamp, 1988; Hinton and Zemel, 1994).



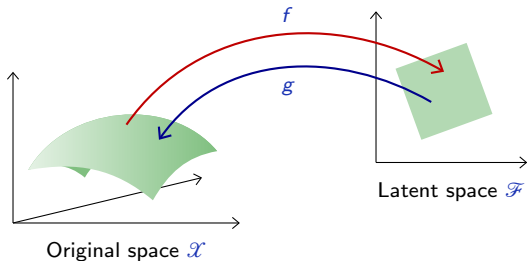
An autoencoder maps a space to itself and is [close to] the identity on the data.

Dimension reduction can be achieved with an autoencoder composed of an **encoder**  $f$  from the original space  $\mathcal{X}$  to a **latent space**  $\mathcal{F}$ , and a **decoder**  $g$  to map back to  $\mathcal{X}$  (Bourlard and Kamp, 1988; Hinton and Zemel, 1994).



An autoencoder maps a space to itself and is [close to] the identity on the data.

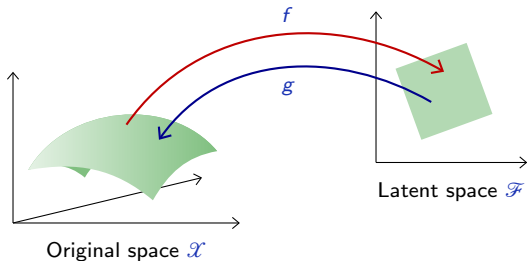
Dimension reduction can be achieved with an autoencoder composed of an **encoder**  $f$  from the original space  $\mathcal{X}$  to a **latent space**  $\mathcal{F}$ , and a **decoder**  $g$  to map back to  $\mathcal{X}$  (Bourlard and Kamp, 1988; Hinton and Zemel, 1994).





An autoencoder maps a space to itself and is [close to] the identity on the data.

Dimension reduction can be achieved with an autoencoder composed of an **encoder**  $f$  from the original space  $\mathcal{X}$  to a **latent space**  $\mathcal{F}$ , and a **decoder**  $g$  to map back to  $\mathcal{X}$  (Bourlard and Kamp, 1988; Hinton and Zemel, 1994).



If the latent space is of lower dimension, the autoencoder has to capture a “good” parametrization, and in particular dependencies between components.

Let  $q$  be the data distribution over  $\mathcal{X}$ . A good autoencoder could be characterized with the quadratic loss

$$\mathbb{E}_{X \sim q} [\|X - g \circ f(X)\|^2] \simeq 0.$$

Let  $q$  be the data distribution over  $\mathcal{X}$ . A good autoencoder could be characterized with the quadratic loss

$$\mathbb{E}_{X \sim q} \left[ \|X - g \circ f(X)\|^2 \right] \simeq 0.$$

Given two parametrized mappings  $f(\cdot; w)$  and  $g(\cdot; w)$ , training consists of minimizing an empirical estimate of that loss

$$\hat{w}_f, \hat{w}_g = \underset{w_f, w_g}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \|x_n - g(f(x_n; w_f); w_g)\|^2.$$

Let  $q$  be the data distribution over  $\mathcal{X}$ . A good autoencoder could be characterized with the quadratic loss

$$\mathbb{E}_{X \sim q} \left[ \|X - g \circ f(X)\|^2 \right] \simeq 0.$$

Given two parametrized mappings  $f(\cdot; w)$  and  $g(\cdot; w)$ , training consists of minimizing an empirical estimate of that loss

$$\hat{w}_f, \hat{w}_g = \underset{w_f, w_g}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \|x_n - g(f(x_n; w_f); w_g)\|^2.$$

A simple example of such an autoencoder would be with both  $f$  and  $g$  linear, in which case the optimal solution is given by PCA.

Let  $q$  be the data distribution over  $\mathcal{X}$ . A good autoencoder could be characterized with the quadratic loss

$$\mathbb{E}_{X \sim q} [\|X - g \circ f(X)\|^2] \simeq 0.$$

Given two parametrized mappings  $f(\cdot; w)$  and  $g(\cdot; w)$ , training consists of minimizing an empirical estimate of that loss

$$\hat{w}_f, \hat{w}_g = \underset{w_f, w_g}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \|x_n - g(f(x_n; w_f); w_g)\|^2.$$

A simple example of such an autoencoder would be with both  $f$  and  $g$  linear, in which case the optimal solution is given by PCA. Better results can be achieved with more sophisticated classes of mappings, in particular deep architectures.

# Deep Autoencoders

A deep autoencoder combines an encoder composed of convolutional layers, with a decoder composed of transposed convolution or other interpolating layers.  
*E.g.* for MNIST:

```
AutoEncoder (  
  (encoder): Sequential (  
    (0): Conv2d(1, 32, kernel_size=(5, 5), stride=(1, 1))  
    (1): ReLU (inplace)  
    (2): Conv2d(32, 32, kernel_size=(5, 5), stride=(1, 1))  
    (3): ReLU (inplace)  
    (4): Conv2d(32, 32, kernel_size=(4, 4), stride=(2, 2))  
    (5): ReLU (inplace)  
    (6): Conv2d(32, 32, kernel_size=(3, 3), stride=(2, 2))  
    (7): ReLU (inplace)  
    (8): Conv2d(32, 8, kernel_size=(4, 4), stride=(1, 1))  
  )  
  (decoder): Sequential (  
    (0): ConvTranspose2d(8, 32, kernel_size=(4, 4), stride=(1, 1))  
    (1): ReLU (inplace)  
    (2): ConvTranspose2d(32, 32, kernel_size=(3, 3), stride=(2, 2))  
    (3): ReLU (inplace)  
    (4): ConvTranspose2d(32, 32, kernel_size=(4, 4), stride=(2, 2))  
    (5): ReLU (inplace)  
    (6): ConvTranspose2d(32, 32, kernel_size=(5, 5), stride=(1, 1))  
    (7): ReLU (inplace)  
    (8): ConvTranspose2d(32, 1, kernel_size=(5, 5), stride=(1, 1))  
  )  
)
```

## Encoder

Tensor sizes / operations

---

$$1 \times 28 \times 28$$

`nn.Conv2d(1, 32, kernel_size=5, stride=1)`

$$32 \times 24 \times 24$$

`nn.Conv2d(32, 32, kernel_size=5, stride=1)`

$$32 \times 20 \times 20$$

`nn.Conv2d(32, 32, kernel_size=4, stride=2)`

$$32 \times 9 \times 9$$

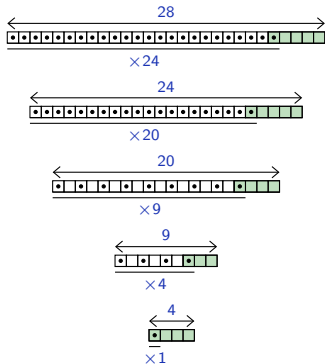
`nn.Conv2d(32, 32, kernel_size=3, stride=2)`

$$32 \times 4 \times 4$$

`nn.Conv2d(32, 8, kernel_size=4, stride=1)`

$$8 \times 1 \times 1$$

---





## Decoder

Tensor sizes / operations

---

$$8 \times 1 \times 1$$

`nn.ConvTranspose2d(8, 32, kernel_size=4, stride=1)`

$$32 \times 4 \times 4$$

`nn.ConvTranspose2d(32, 32, kernel_size=3, stride=2)`

$$32 \times 9 \times 9$$

`nn.ConvTranspose2d(32, 32, kernel_size=4, stride=2)`

$$32 \times 20 \times 20$$

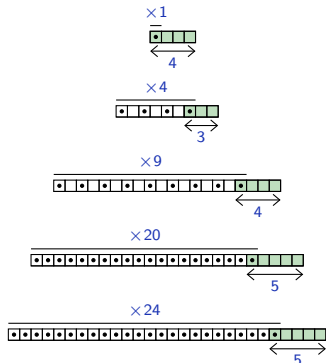
`nn.ConvTranspose2d(32, 32, kernel_size=5, stride=1)`

$$32 \times 24 \times 24$$

`nn.ConvTranspose2d(32, 1, kernel_size=5, stride=1)`

$$1 \times 28 \times 28$$

---



Training is achieved with quadratic loss and Adam

```
model = AutoEncoder(nb_channels, embedding_dim)

optimizer = optim.Adam(model.parameters(), lr = 1e-3)

for epoch in range(args.nb_epochs):
    for input in train_input.split(batch_size):
        z = model.encode(input)
        output = model.decode(z)
        loss = 0.5 * (output - input).pow(2).sum() / input.size(0)

        optimizer.zero_grad()
        loss.backward()
        optimizer.step()
```

$X$  (original samples)

7 2 1 0 4 1 4 9 5 9 0 6  
9 0 1 5 9 7 3 4 9 6 6 5  
4 0 7 4 0 1 3 1 3 4 7 2

$g \circ f(X)$  (CNN,  $d = 2$ )

7 2 1 0 9 1 9 9 6 9 0 6  
9 0 1 5 9 7 5 9 9 6 6 5  
9 0 7 9 0 1 3 1 3 6 7 2

$g \circ f(X)$  (PCA,  $d = 2$ )

9 3 1 0 9 1 9 9 9 9 0 0  
9 0 1 3 9 9 3 9 9 9 9 3  
9 0 9 9 0 1 3 1 3 9 9 0

$X$  (original samples)

7 2 1 0 4 1 4 9 5 9 0 6  
9 0 1 5 9 7 8 4 9 6 6 5  
4 0 7 4 0 1 3 1 3 4 7 2

$g \circ f(X)$  (CNN,  $d = 4$ )

7 2 1 0 4 1 9 9 9 9 0 6  
9 0 1 5 4 7 5 4 9 6 6 5  
9 0 7 4 0 1 3 1 3 0 7 2

$g \circ f(X)$  (PCA,  $d = 4$ )

9 2 1 0 9 1 9 9 0 9 0 0  
9 0 1 3 9 9 0 9 9 0 4 9  
9 0 9 9 0 1 3 1 3 4 9 0

$X$  (original samples)

7 2 1 0 4 1 4 9 5 9 0 6  
9 0 1 5 9 7 3 4 9 6 6 5  
4 0 7 4 0 1 3 1 3 4 7 2

$g \circ f(X)$  (CNN,  $d = 8$ )

7 2 1 0 4 1 4 9 5 9 0 6  
9 0 1 5 9 7 3 4 9 6 6 5  
4 0 7 4 0 1 3 1 3 4 7 2

$g \circ f(X)$  (PCA,  $d = 8$ )

7 3 7 0 4 7 9 9 0 9 0 0  
9 0 1 0 9 7 3 4 9 6 0 5  
4 0 7 4 0 1 3 1 3 0 7 0

$X$  (original samples)

7 2 1 0 4 1 4 9 5 9 0 6  
9 0 1 5 9 7 3 4 9 6 6 5  
4 0 7 4 0 1 3 1 3 4 7 2

$g \circ f(X)$  (CNN,  $d = 16$ )

7 2 1 0 4 1 4 9 5 9 0 6  
9 0 1 5 9 7 3 4 9 6 6 5  
4 0 7 4 0 1 3 1 3 4 7 2

$g \circ f(X)$  (PCA,  $d = 16$ )

7 2 1 0 4 1 4 9 5 9 0 6  
9 0 1 5 9 7 3 4 9 6 6 5  
4 0 7 4 0 1 3 1 3 4 7 2

$X$  (original samples)

7 2 1 0 4 1 4 9 5 9 0 6  
9 0 1 5 9 7 8 4 9 6 6 5  
4 0 7 4 0 1 3 1 3 4 7 2

$g \circ f(X)$  (CNN,  $d = 32$ )

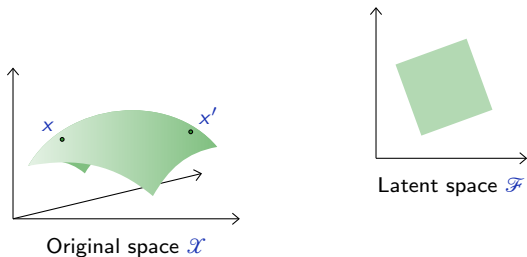
7 2 1 0 4 1 4 9 5 9 0 6  
9 0 1 5 9 7 8 4 9 6 6 5  
4 0 7 4 0 1 3 1 3 4 7 2

$g \circ f(X)$  (PCA,  $d = 32$ )

7 2 1 0 4 1 4 9 5 9 0 6  
9 0 1 5 9 7 8 4 9 6 6 5  
4 0 7 4 0 1 3 1 3 4 7 2

To get an intuition of the latent representation, we can pick two samples  $x$  and  $x'$  at random and interpolate samples along the line in the latent space

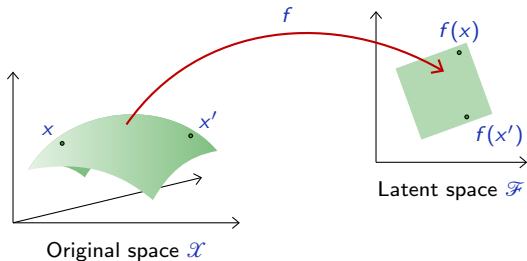
$$\forall x, x' \in \mathcal{X}^2, \alpha \in [0, 1], \xi(x, x', \alpha) = g((1 - \alpha)f(x) + \alpha f(x')).$$





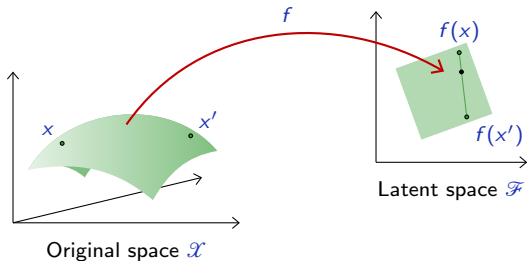
To get an intuition of the latent representation, we can pick two samples  $x$  and  $x'$  at random and interpolate samples along the line in the latent space

$$\forall x, x' \in \mathcal{X}^2, \alpha \in [0, 1], \xi(x, x', \alpha) = g((1 - \alpha)f(x) + \alpha f(x')).$$



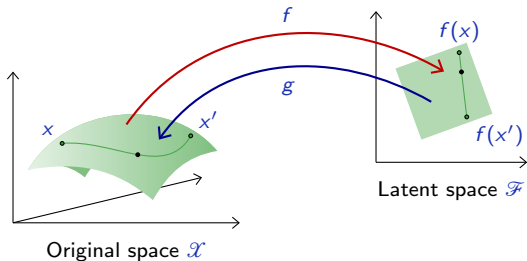
To get an intuition of the latent representation, we can pick two samples  $x$  and  $x'$  at random and interpolate samples along the line in the latent space

$$\forall x, x' \in \mathcal{X}^2, \alpha \in [0, 1], \xi(x, x', \alpha) = g((1 - \alpha)f(x) + \alpha f(x')).$$

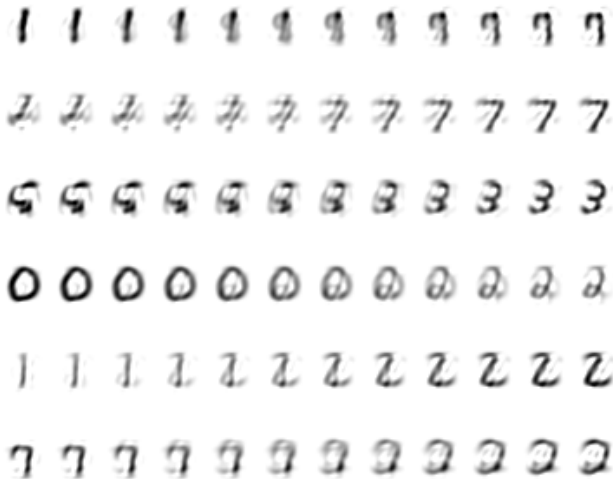


To get an intuition of the latent representation, we can pick two samples  $x$  and  $x'$  at random and interpolate samples along the line in the latent space

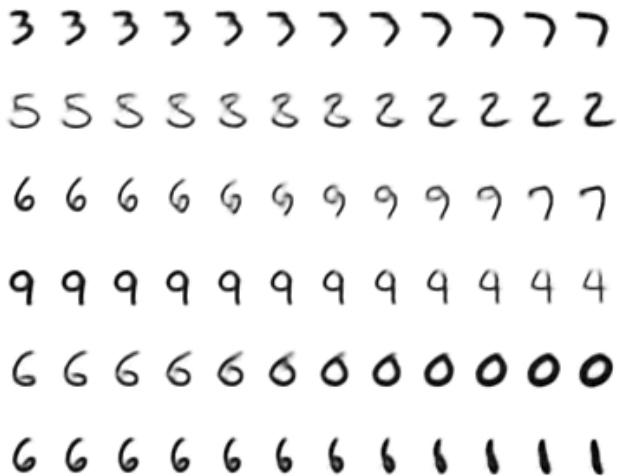
$$\forall x, x' \in \mathcal{X}^2, \alpha \in [0, 1], \xi(x, x', \alpha) = g((1 - \alpha)f(x) + \alpha f(x')).$$



PCA interpolation ( $d = 32$ )



Autoencoder interpolation ( $d = 8$ )



Autoencoder interpolation ( $d = 32$ )



And we can assess the generative capabilities of the decoder  $g$  by introducing a [simple] density model  $q^z$  over the latent space  $\mathcal{F}$ , sample there, and map the samples into the image space  $\mathcal{X}$  with  $g$ .

And we can assess the generative capabilities of the decoder  $g$  by introducing a [simple] density model  $q^Z$  over the latent space  $\mathcal{F}$ , sample there, and map the samples into the image space  $\mathcal{X}$  with  $g$ .

We can for instance use a Gaussian model with diagonal covariance matrix.

$$f(X) \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{m}, \hat{\Delta})$$

where  $\hat{m}$  is a vector and  $\hat{\Delta}$  a diagonal matrix, both estimated on training data.

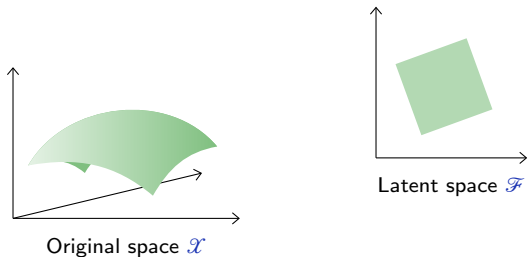


And we can assess the generative capabilities of the decoder  $g$  by introducing a [simple] density model  $q^Z$  over the latent space  $\mathcal{F}$ , sample there, and map the samples into the image space  $\mathcal{X}$  with  $g$ .

We can for instance use a Gaussian model with diagonal covariance matrix.

$$f(X) \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{m}, \hat{\Delta})$$

where  $\hat{m}$  is a vector and  $\hat{\Delta}$  a diagonal matrix, both estimated on training data.

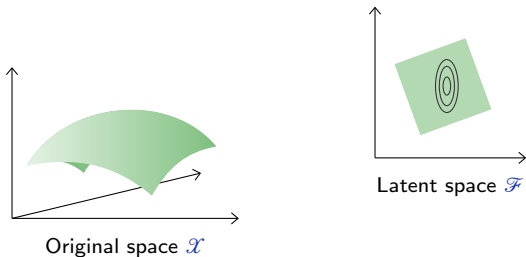


And we can assess the generative capabilities of the decoder  $g$  by introducing a [simple] density model  $q^Z$  over the latent space  $\mathcal{F}$ , sample there, and map the samples into the image space  $\mathcal{X}$  with  $g$ .

We can for instance use a Gaussian model with diagonal covariance matrix.

$$f(X) \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{m}, \hat{\Delta})$$

where  $\hat{m}$  is a vector and  $\hat{\Delta}$  a diagonal matrix, both estimated on training data.

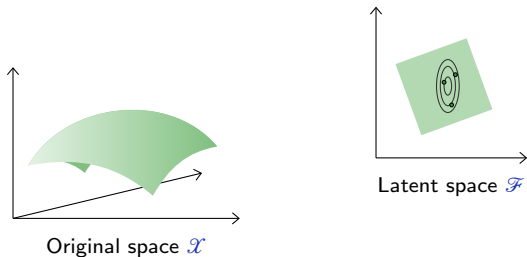


And we can assess the generative capabilities of the decoder  $g$  by introducing a [simple] density model  $q^Z$  over the latent space  $\mathcal{F}$ , sample there, and map the samples into the image space  $\mathcal{X}$  with  $g$ .

We can for instance use a Gaussian model with diagonal covariance matrix.

$$f(X) \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{m}, \hat{\Delta})$$

where  $\hat{m}$  is a vector and  $\hat{\Delta}$  a diagonal matrix, both estimated on training data.

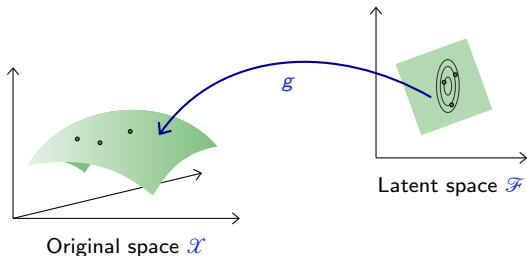


And we can assess the generative capabilities of the decoder  $g$  by introducing a [simple] density model  $q^Z$  over the latent space  $\mathcal{F}$ , sample there, and map the samples into the image space  $\mathcal{X}$  with  $g$ .

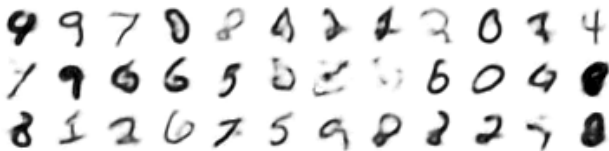
We can for instance use a Gaussian model with diagonal covariance matrix.

$$f(X) \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{m}, \hat{\Delta})$$

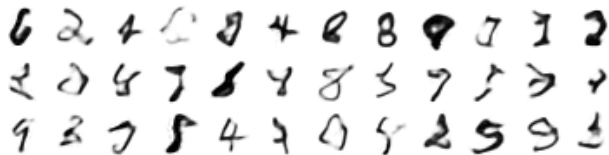
where  $\hat{m}$  is a vector and  $\hat{\Delta}$  a diagonal matrix, both estimated on training data.



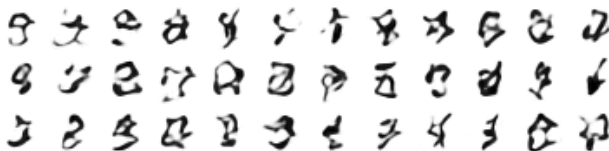
Autoencoder sampling ( $d = 8$ )



Autoencoder sampling ( $d = 16$ )



Autoencoder sampling ( $d = 32$ )



These results are unsatisfying, because the density model used on the latent space  $\mathcal{F}$  is too simple and inadequate.

Building a “good” model amounts to our original problem of modeling an empirical distribution, although it may now be in a lower dimension space.

The end

## References

- H. Bourlard and Y. Kamp. **Auto-association by multilayer perceptrons and singular value decomposition.** Biological Cybernetics, 59(4):291–294, 1988.
- G. E. Hinton and R. S. Zemel. **Autoencoders, minimum description length and helmholtz free energy.** In Neural Information Processing Systems (NIPS), pages 3–10, 1994.