

CPEN 400D: Deep Learning

Lecture 8: Autoencoders, Denoising Autoencoders, and Variational Autoencoders

Renjie Liao

University of British Columbia

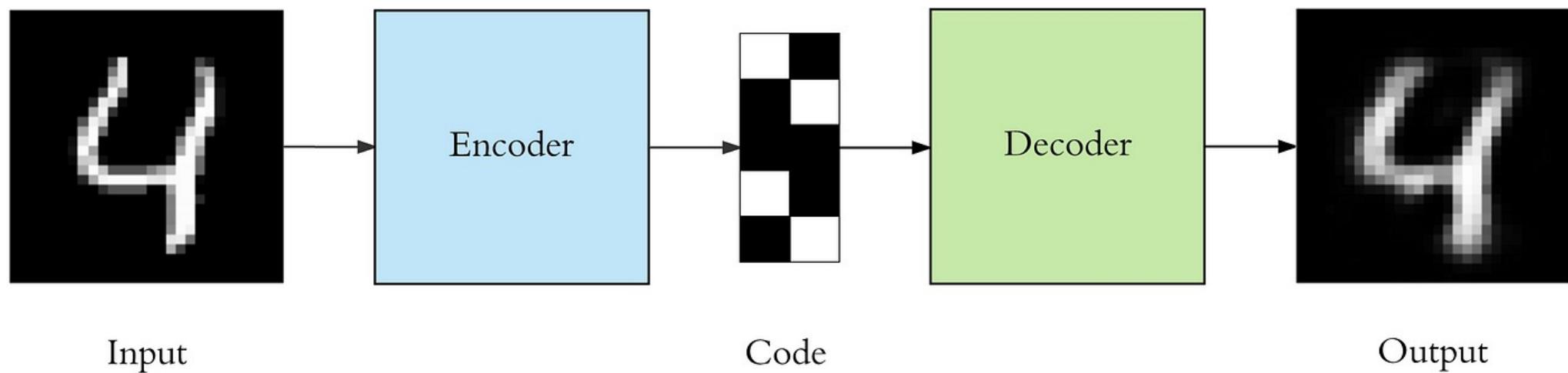
Winter, Term 2, 2022

Outline

- Autoencoders
 - **Motivation & Overview**
 - Linear Autoencoders & PCA
 - Deep Autoencoders
- Denoising Autoencoders
- Variational Autoencoders
 - Motivation & Overview
 - Evidence Lower Bound (ELBO)
 - Models
 - Amortized Inference
 - Reparameterization Trick

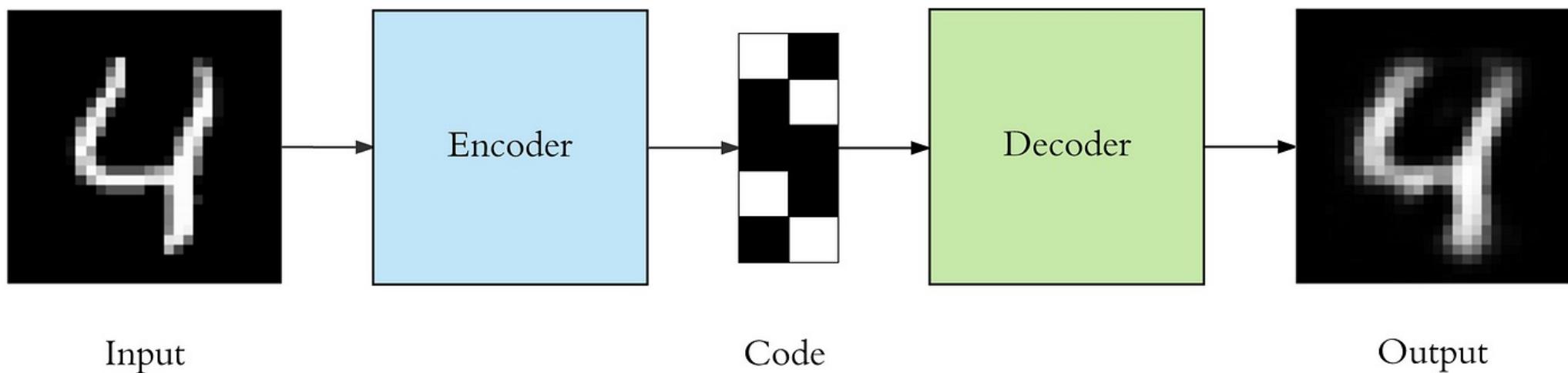
Autoencoders (AEs)

- Autoencoders are feed-forward neural networks that reconstruct/predict the input



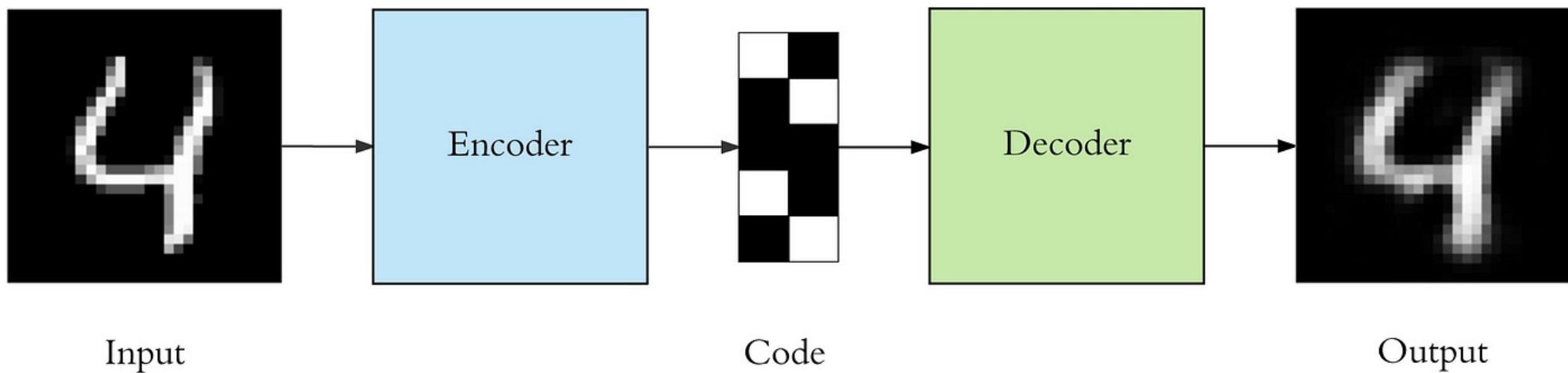
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Why should we care?

- Dimension reduction
 - e.g., visualizing high-dimension data

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Why should we care?

- Dimension reduction

e.g., visualizing high-dimension data

- Unsupervised representation learning

e.g., if we have abundant data without annotations, learned representations will potentially be useful for downstream tasks like classification and regression

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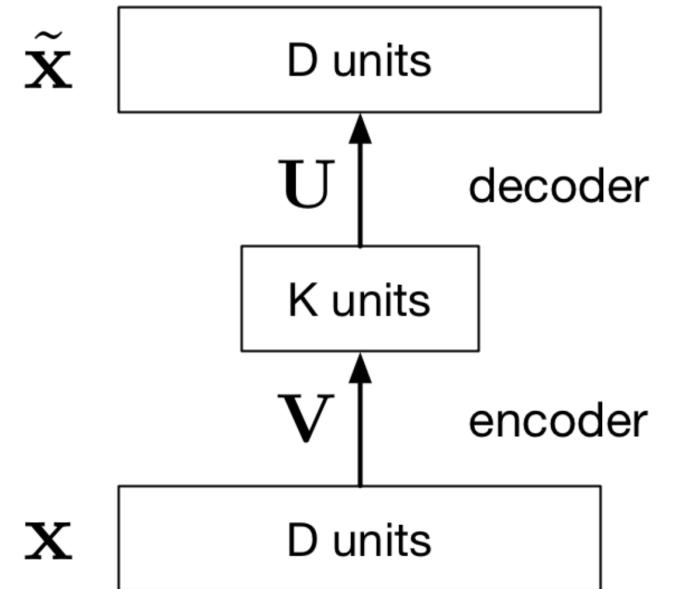
Linear Autoencoders

Simplest autoencoders: a single hidden layer with linear activations

We can train them by minimizing the mean squared errors (MSE):

$$\ell(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{x}) = \|\tilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}\|_2^2$$

The network is $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = UV\mathbf{x}$



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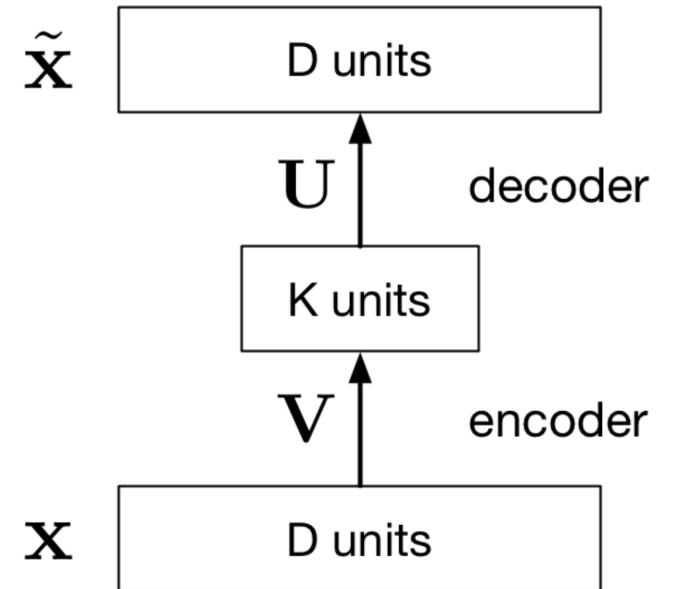
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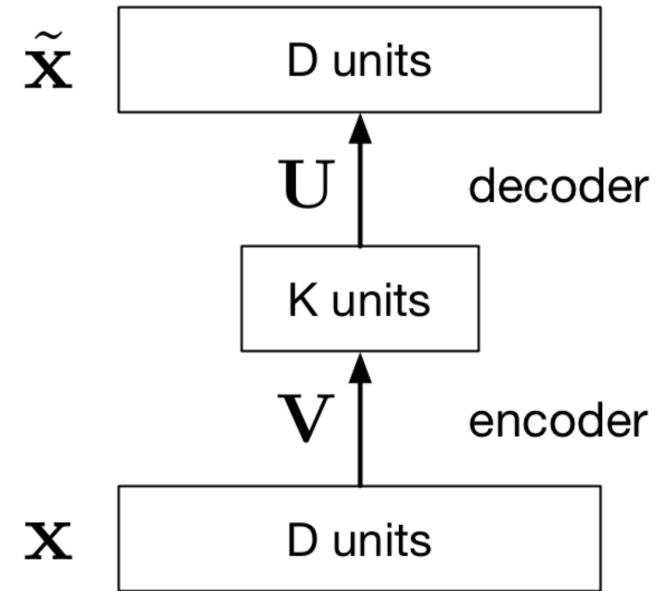
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If $K \geq D$, one can choose U and V such that $UV = I$ (copying input)

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Else $K < D$, we are reducing the dimension

The reconstructed output lies in the column space of U, which is a K-dimensional subspace



Linear Autoencoders & Principle Component Analysis

We know linear autoencoders map D-dimensional input to a K-dimensional subspace

What is the best possible K-dimensional mapping?

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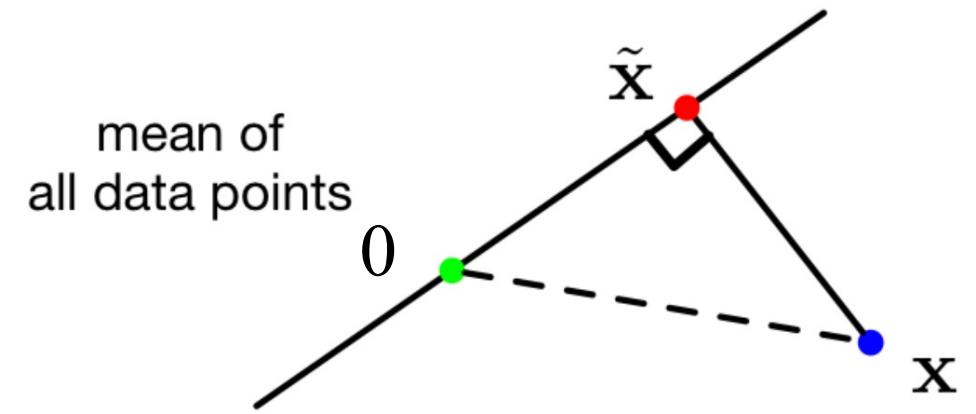
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By Pythagorean Theorem, we have:

$$\underbrace{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathbf{x}_i\|^2}_{\text{constant}} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathbf{x}_i - \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i\|^2}_{\text{reconstruction error}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \|\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i\|^2}_{\text{projected variance}}$$



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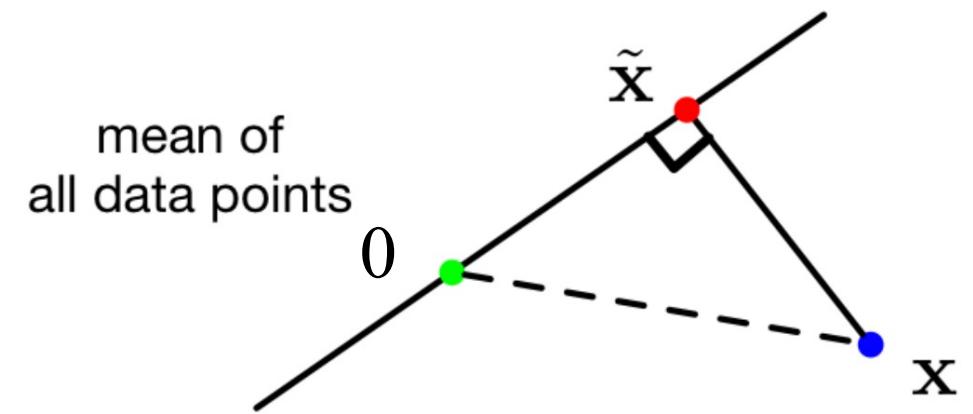
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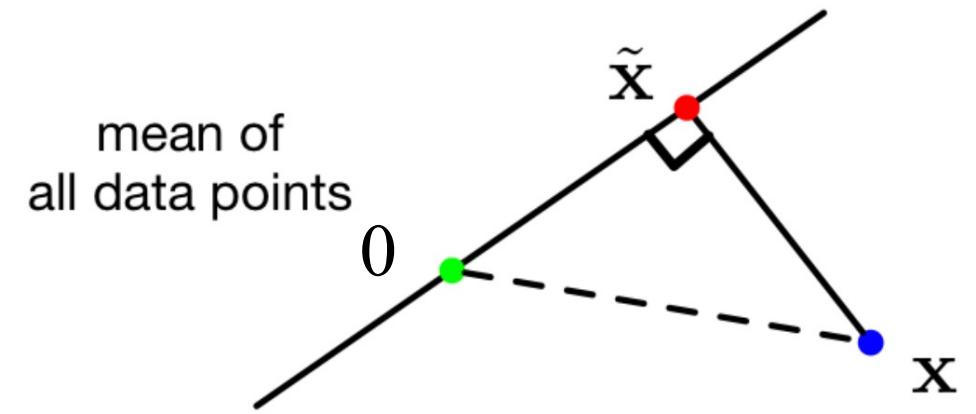
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You can maximize the variance in closed-form via *principle component analysis (PCA)*!

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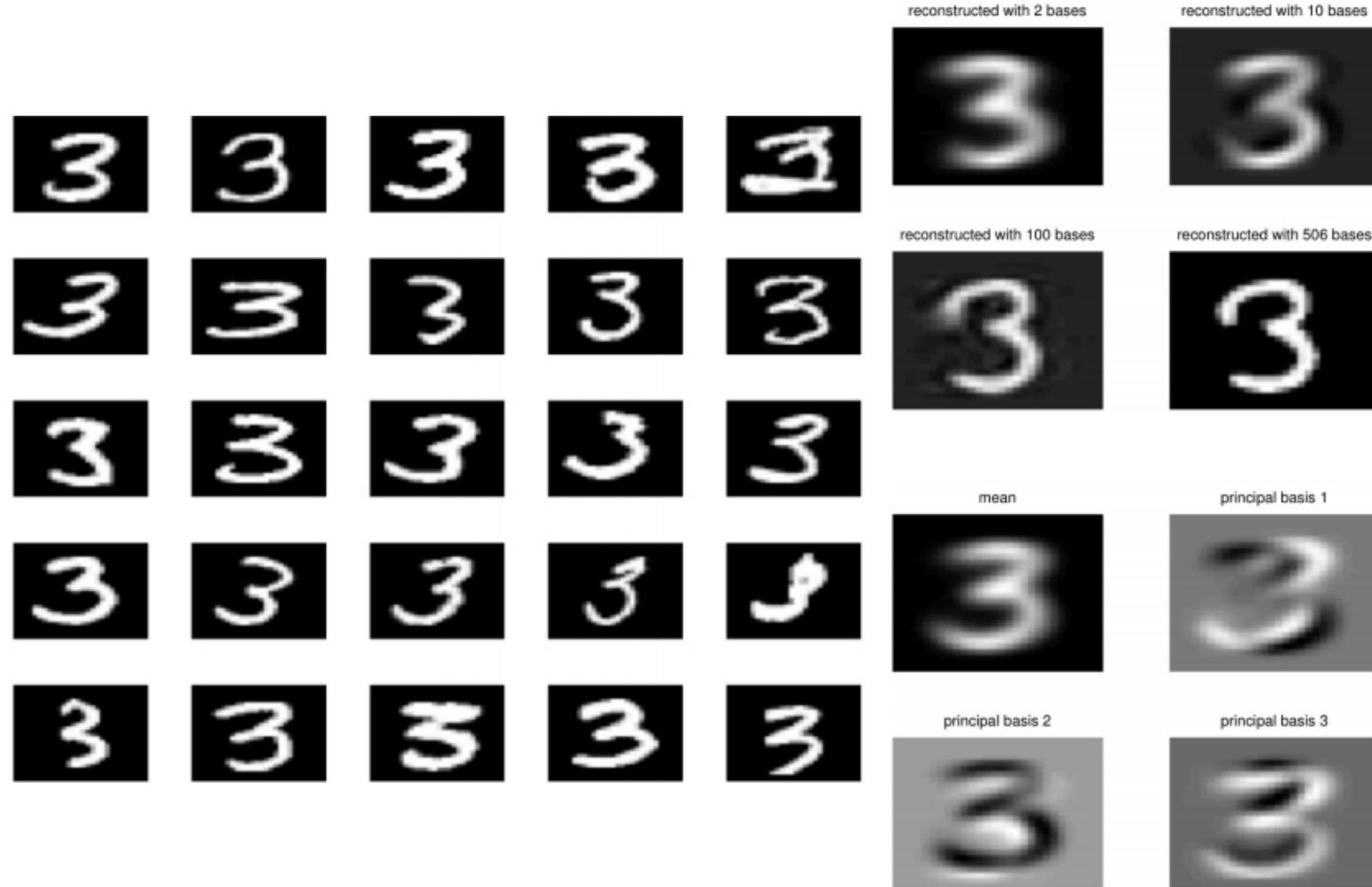
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Principle components of faces (“Eigenfaces”) from CBCL dataset:



Linear Autoencoders & Principle Component Analysis

Principle components of digits from MNIST dataset:



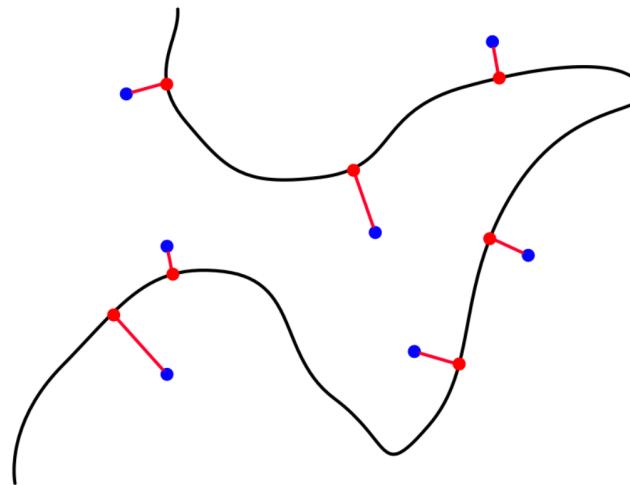
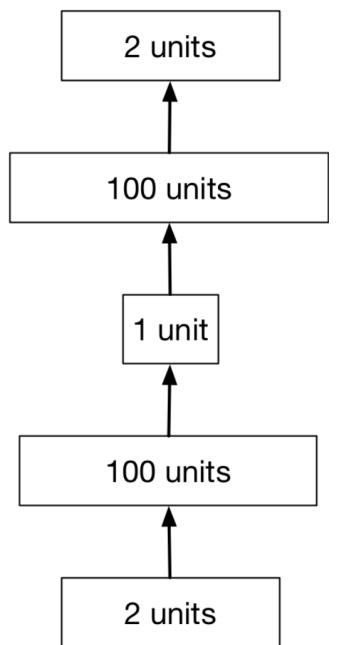
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Deep Autoencoders

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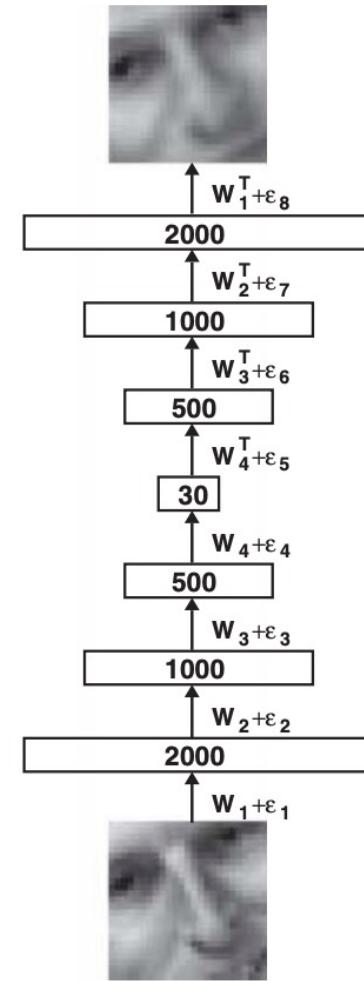
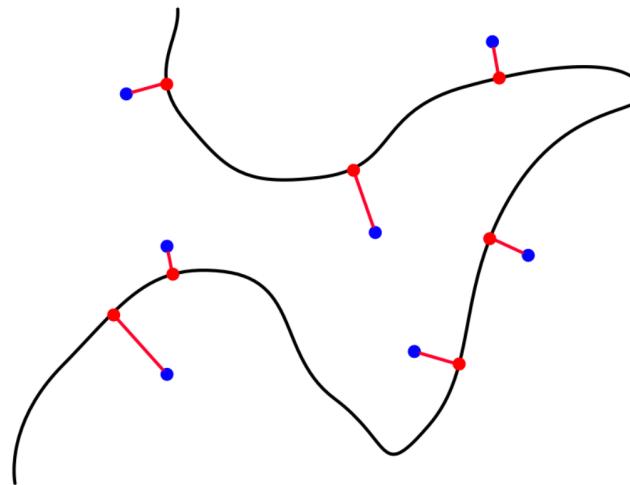
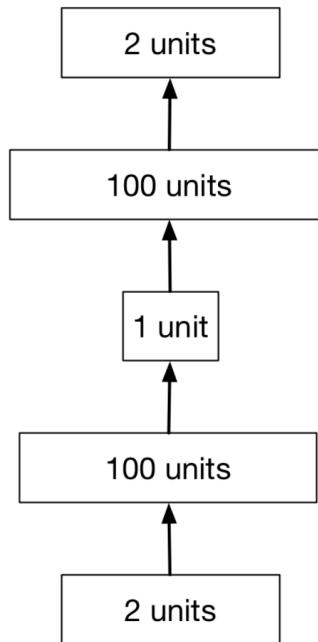
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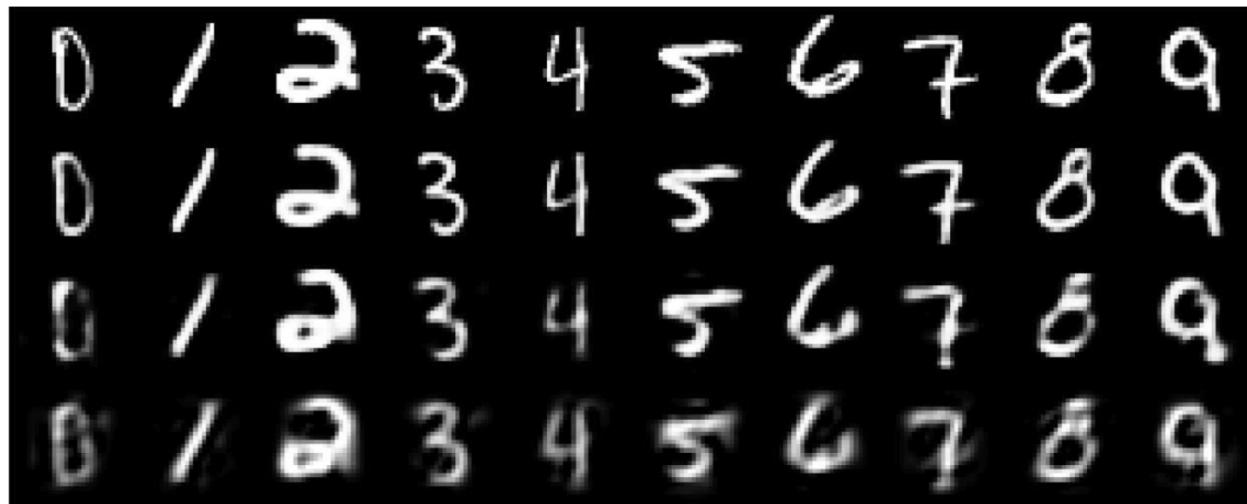
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Deep autoencoders can learn more powerful codes/representations compared to linear ones (PCA)

Reconstructions with various methods on MNIST dataset:



Real data

30-d deep autoencoder

30-d logistic PCA

30-d PCA

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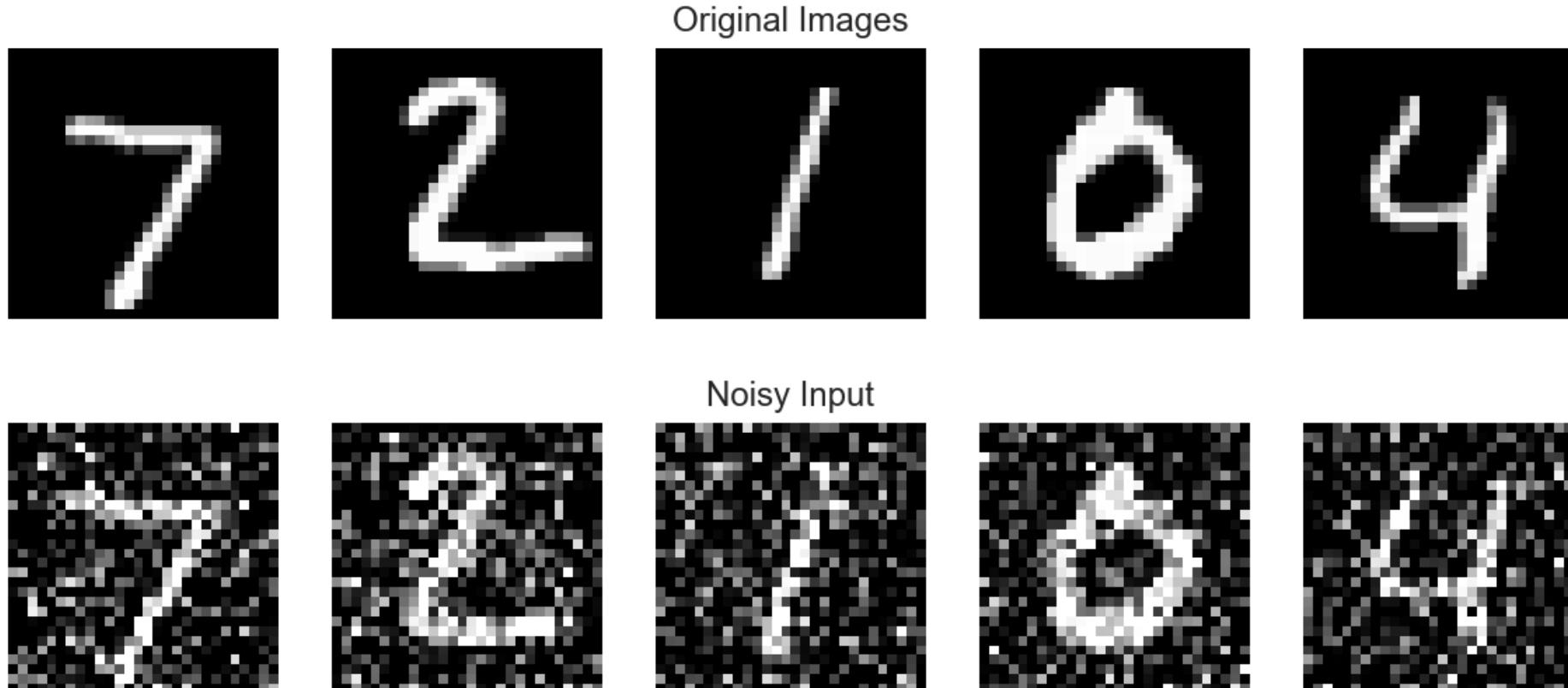
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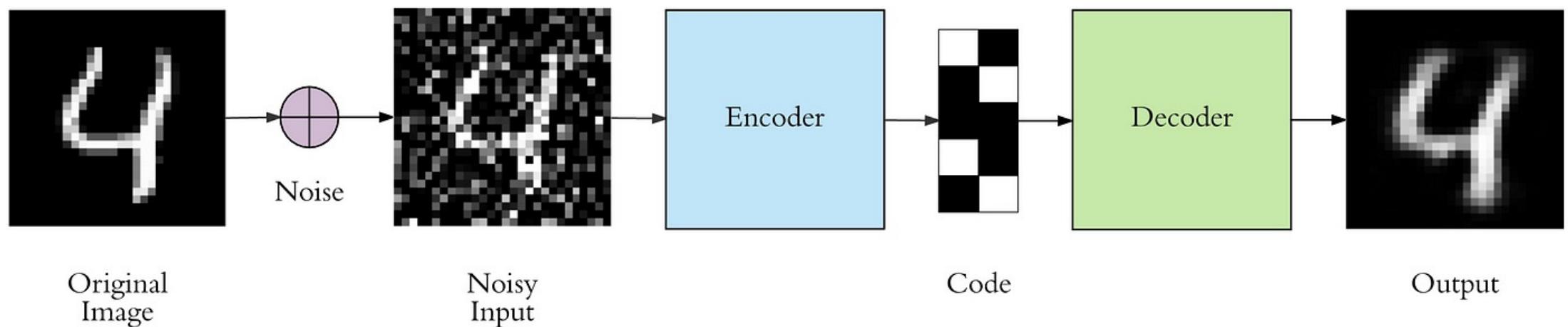


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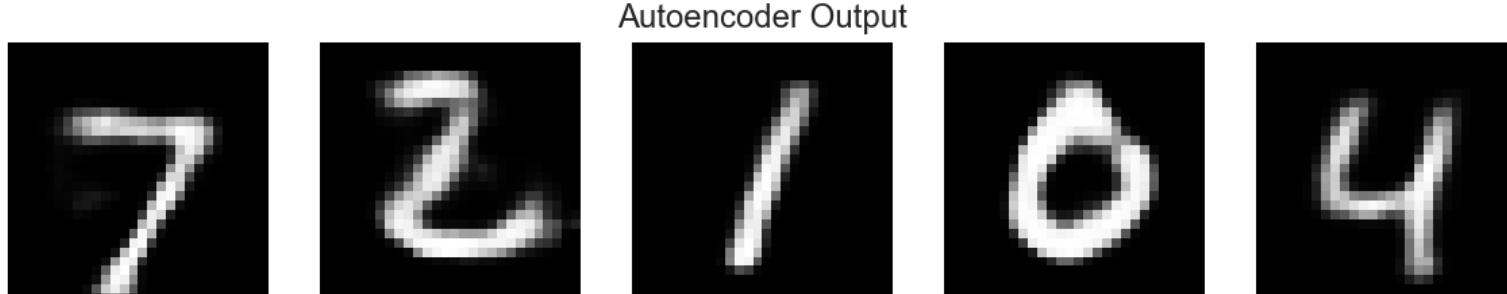
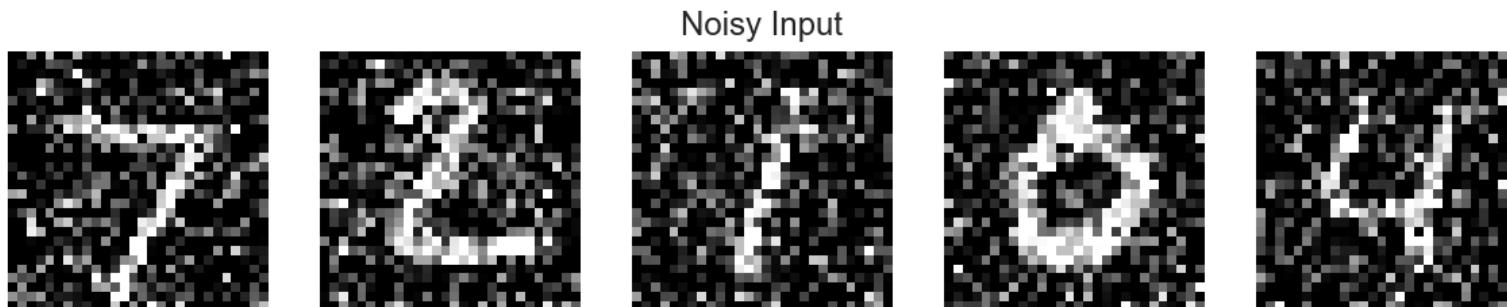
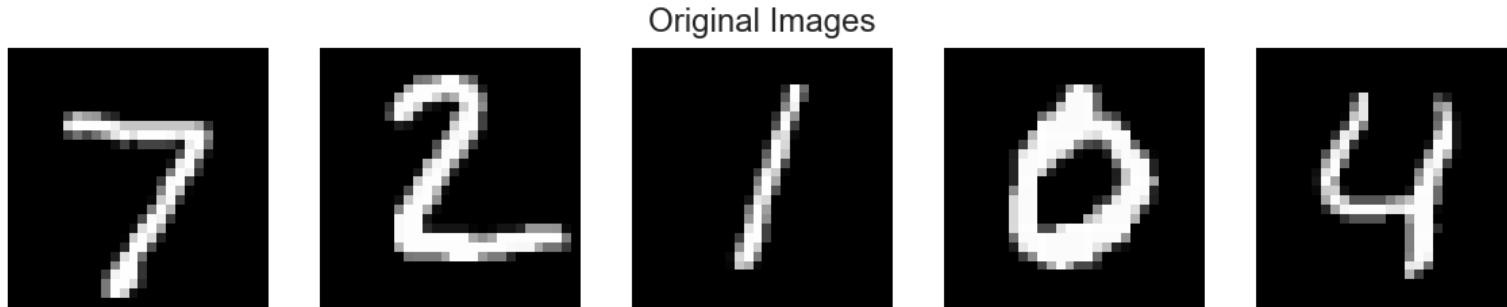
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We add random noise (e.g., additive Gaussian) and force the neural network to learn useful representations so that *structures in images are preserved whereas noise is removed!*



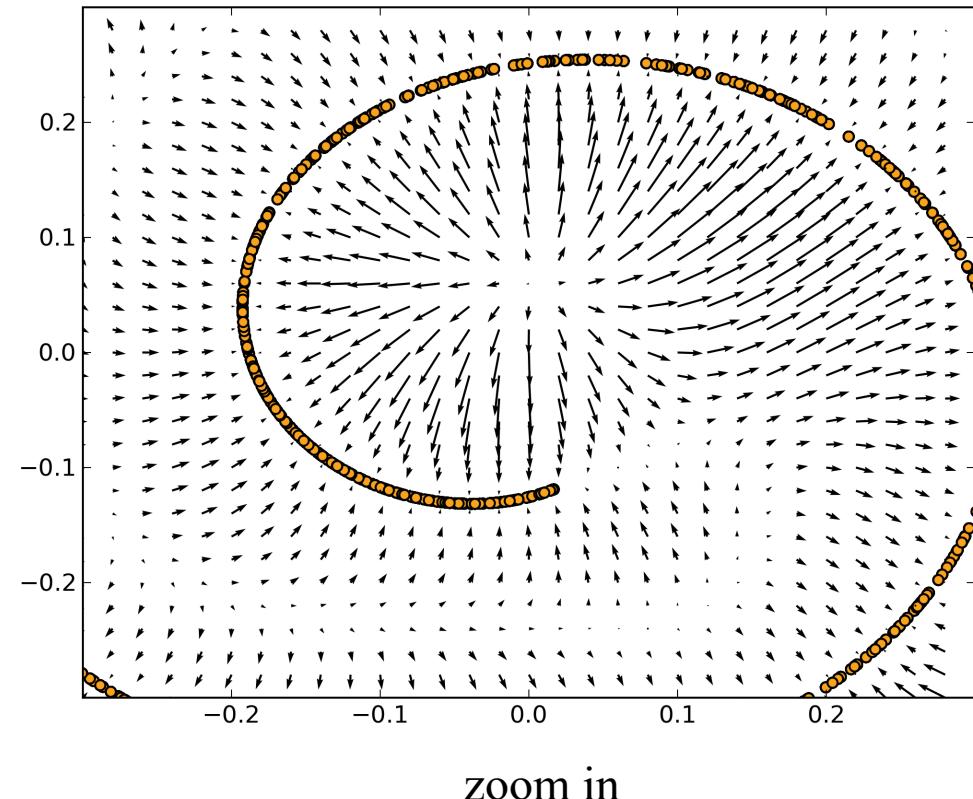
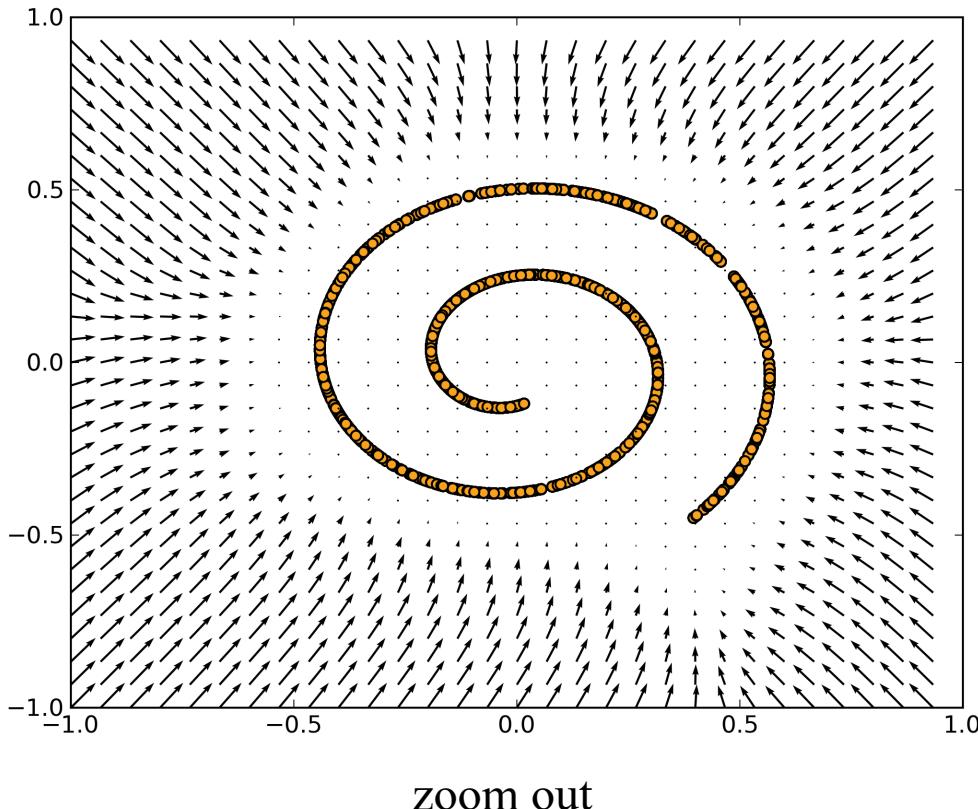
Denoising Autoencoders (DAEs)

DAEs can do a great job in denoising:



Denoising Autoencoders (DAEs)

DAEs can learn correct vector fields (reconstruction – noisy input) that point to data manifold (spiral):

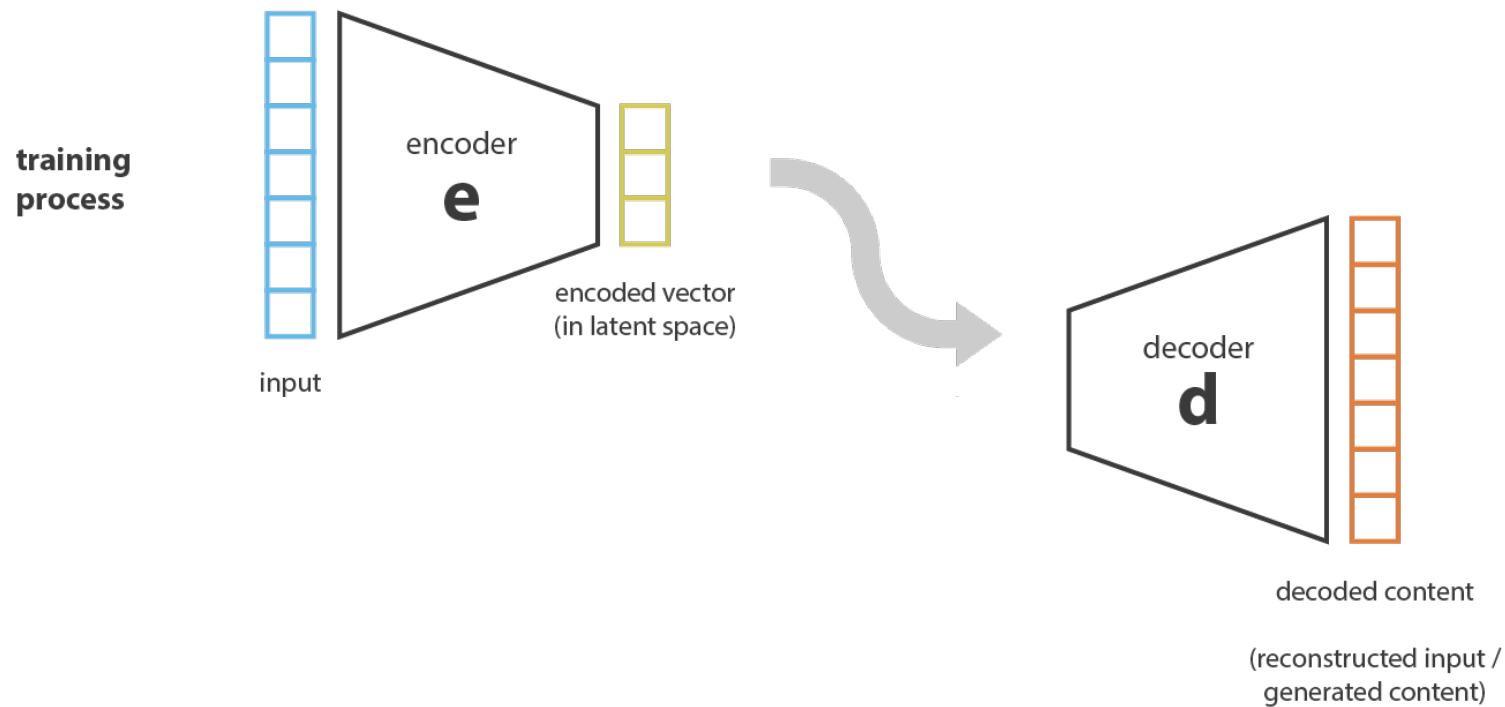


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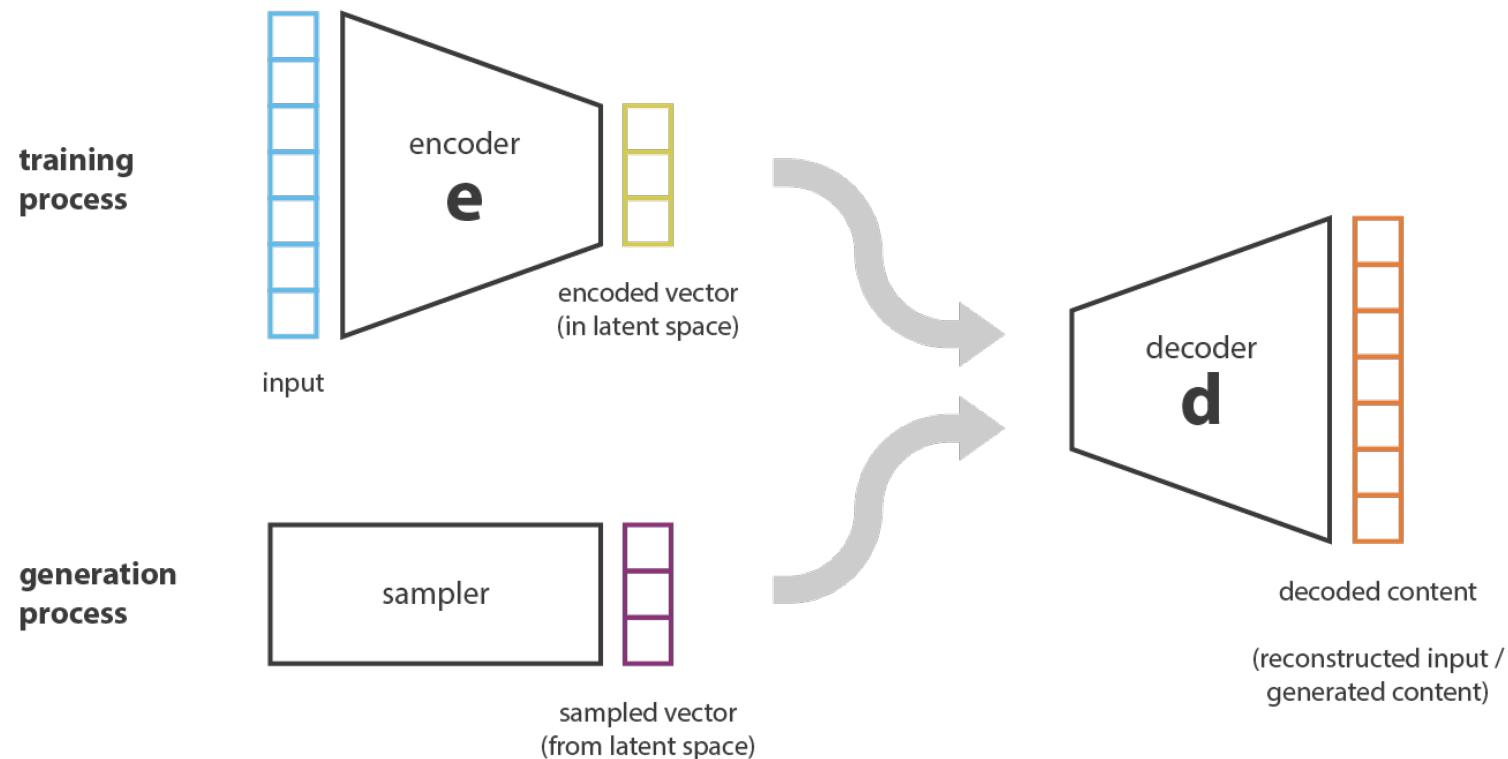
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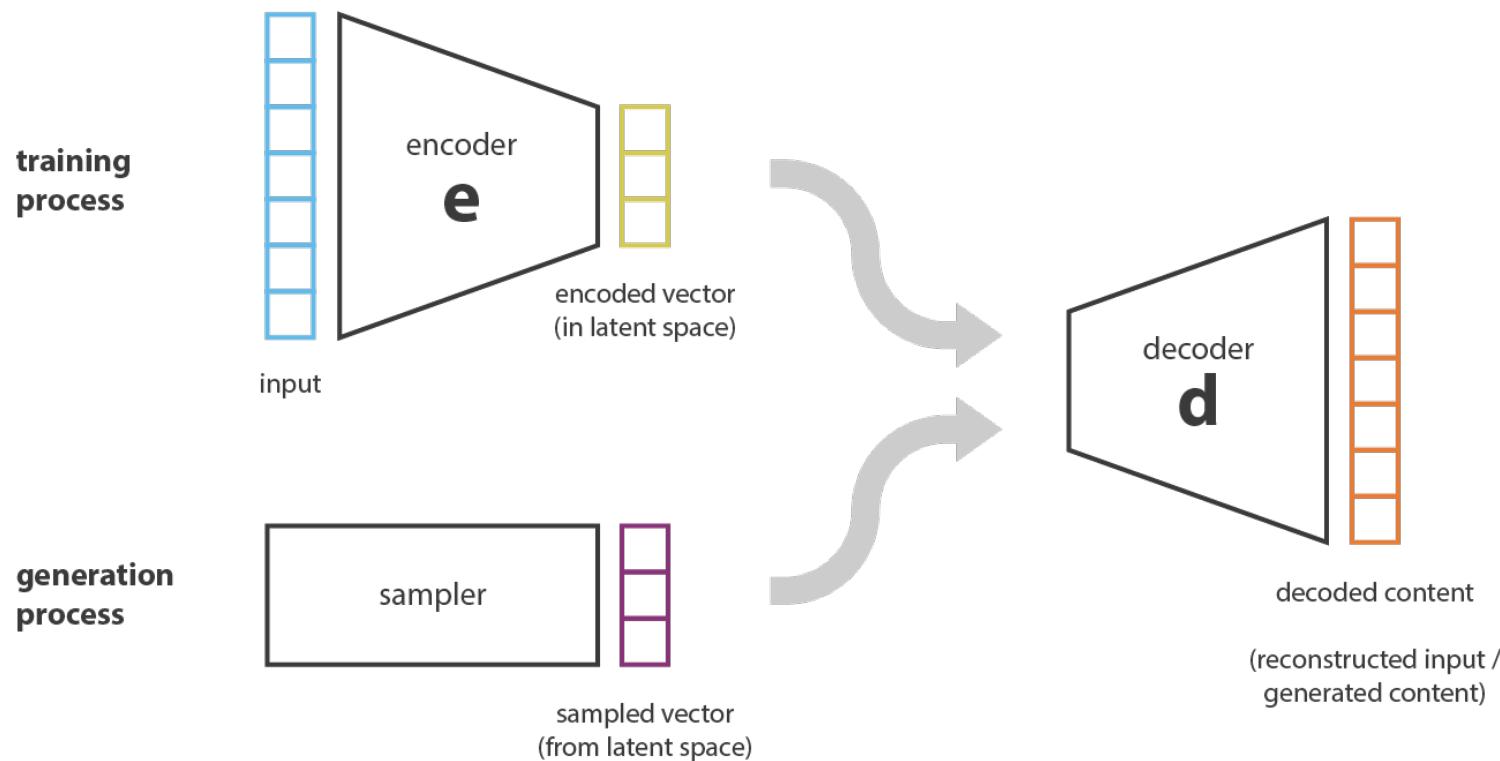
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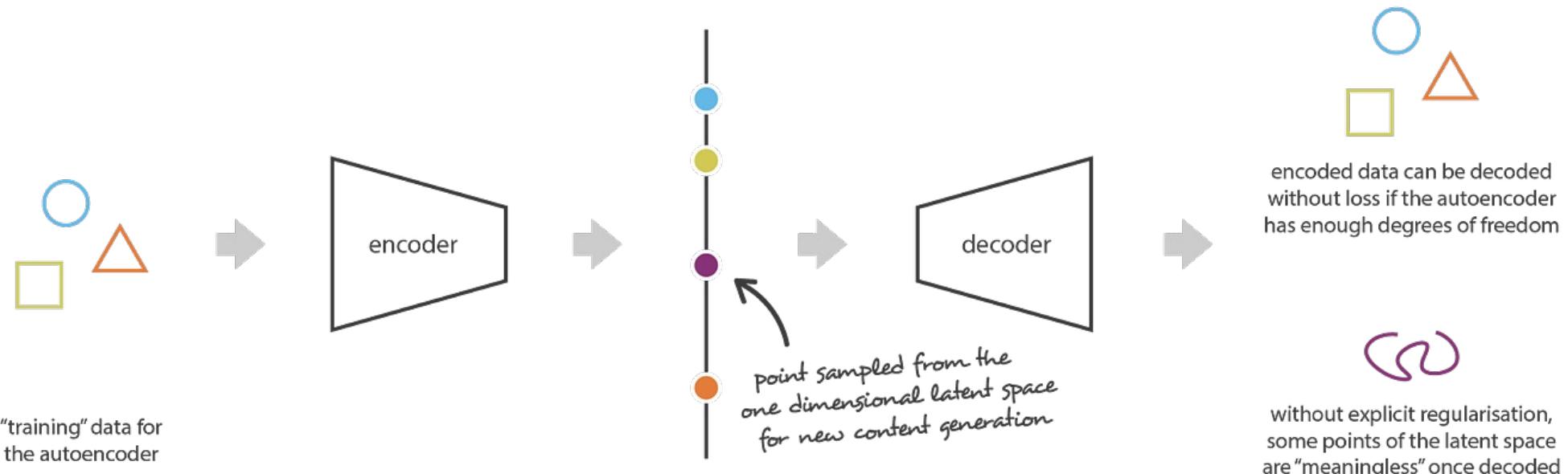
What would happen?



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What would happen? *Sampled data could be very bad if sampled latent codes are far off the manifold!*

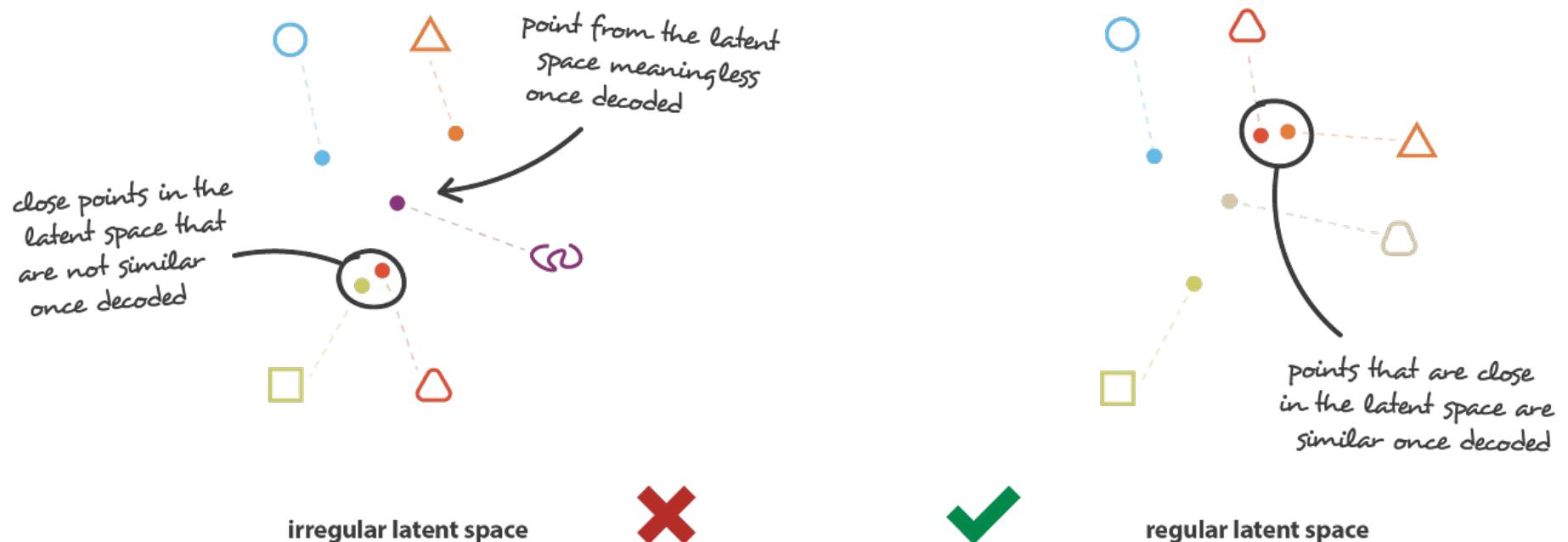


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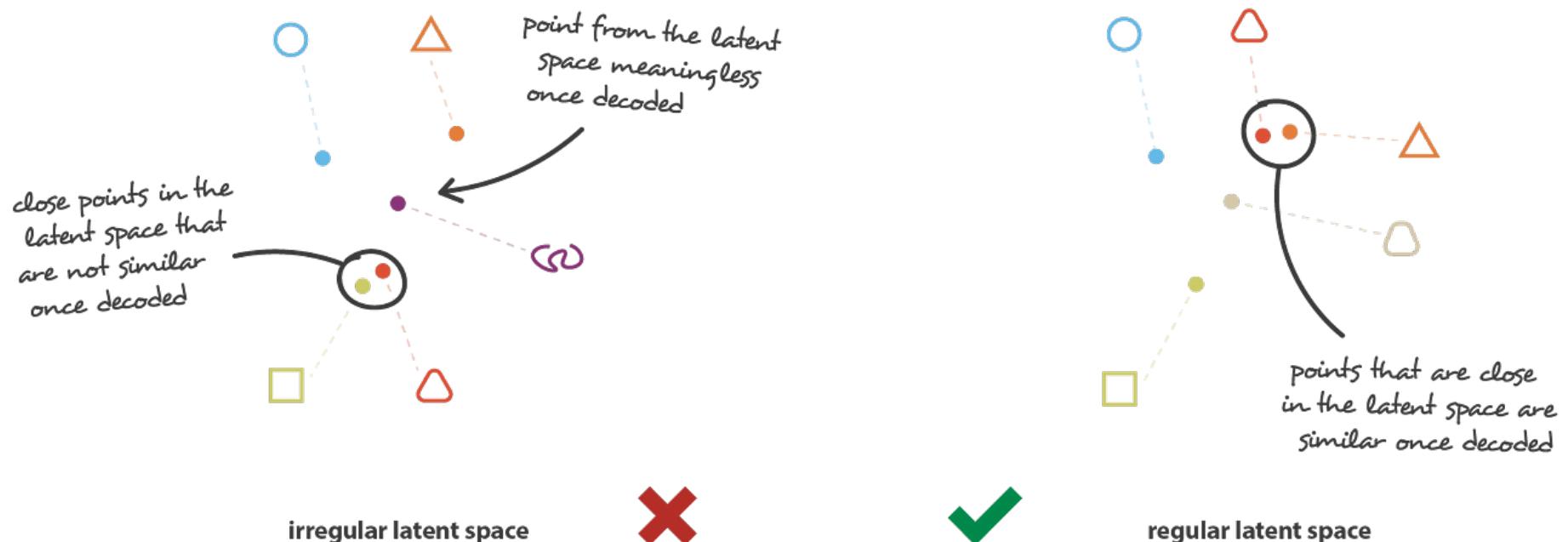


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Can AEs learn such latent spaces that are good for reconstruction + generation? Yes, VAEs [7,8]!

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Intractable Integration!

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Variational Approximation

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Integrating from both sides:

Why is it a lower bound? **KL is nonnegative!**

$$\begin{aligned}\log p_\theta(X) &= \int q_\phi(Z|X) \log p_\theta(X) dZ \\ &= \int q_\phi(Z|X) \log \left(\frac{p_\theta(X, Z)}{q_\phi(Z|X)} \frac{q_\phi(Z|X)}{p_\theta(Z|X)} \right) dZ \\ &= \int q_\phi(Z|X) \log \left(\frac{p_\theta(X, Z)}{q_\phi(Z|X)} \right) dZ + \int q_\phi(Z|X) \log \left(\frac{q_\phi(Z|X)}{p_\theta(Z|X)} \right) dZ \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(Z|X)} \left[\log \left(\frac{p_\theta(X, Z)}{q_\phi(Z|X)} \right) \right] + \text{KL} (q_\phi(Z|X) \| p_\theta(Z|X))\end{aligned}$$

Evidence Lower Bound (ELBO) Kullback-Leibler (KL) Divergence

Evidence Lower Bound (ELBO)

Variational Approximation

$$\begin{aligned}\log p_\theta(X) &= \log \left(\frac{p_\theta(X, Z)}{p_\theta(Z|X)} \right) \\ &= \log \left(\frac{p_\theta(X, Z)}{q_\phi(Z|X)} \frac{q_\phi(Z|X)}{p_\theta(Z|X)} \right)\end{aligned}$$

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Why is it called variational approximation?
We choose one distribution (function) from a family to approximate the target!

Evidence Lower Bound (ELBO) Kullback-Leibler (KL) Divergence

Evidence Lower Bound (ELBO)

Since true posterior $p_\theta(Z|X)$ is often unknown, KL term is intractable

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ELBO:

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Reconstruction Error/Loss Regularizer

Evidence Lower Bound (ELBO)

Since true posterior $p_\theta(Z|X)$ is often unknown, KL term is intractable

ELBO:

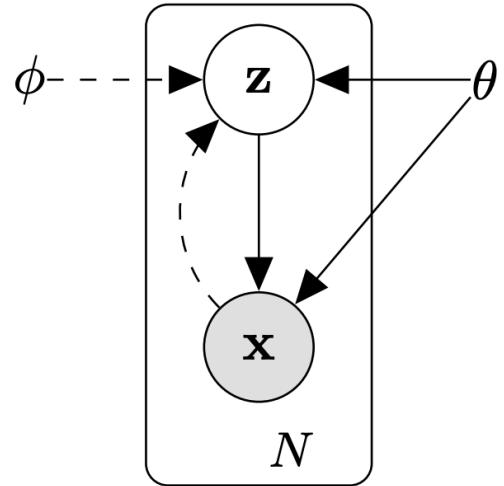
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Reconstruction Error/Loss Regularizer

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 - **Models**
 - Amortized Inference
 - Reparameterization Trick

Variational Autoencoders

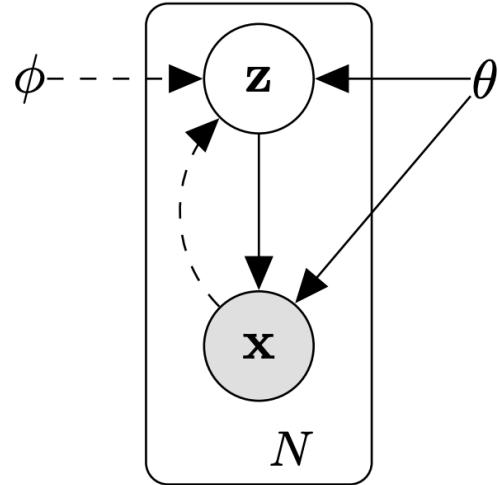


Encoder: $q_\phi(Z|X)$

Decoder: $p_\theta(X|Z)$

Prior: $p_\theta(Z)$

Variational Autoencoders



Since we typically use continuous latent variable Z , Gaussian distribution is a natural choice for the encoder:

$$q_\phi(Z|X) = \mathcal{N}(Z|\mu, \sigma^2 I)$$

$$\mu = \text{EncoderNetwork}_\phi(X)$$

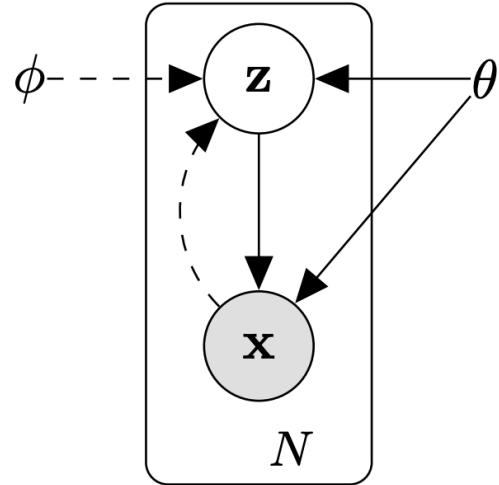
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Similarly, Gaussian distribution is often adopted for the decoder:

$$p_\theta(X|Z) = \mathcal{N}(X|\tilde{\mu}, \tilde{\sigma}^2 I)$$

$$\tilde{\mu} = \text{DecoderNetwork}_\theta(Z)$$

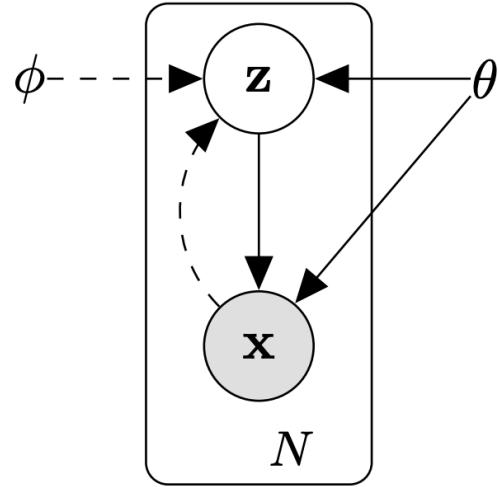
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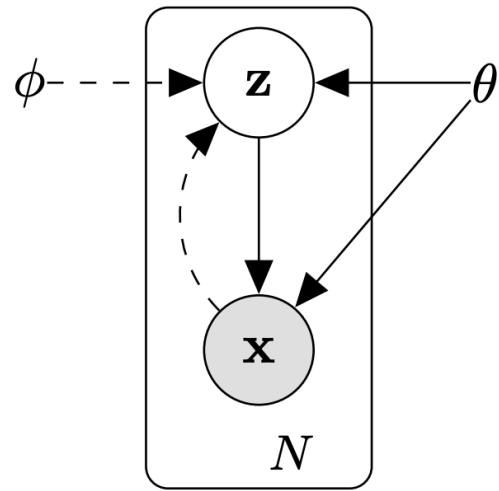
We often fix the prior as, e.g., standard Normal $p_\theta(Z) = \mathcal{N}(Z|\mathbf{0}, I)$

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Variational Autoencoders

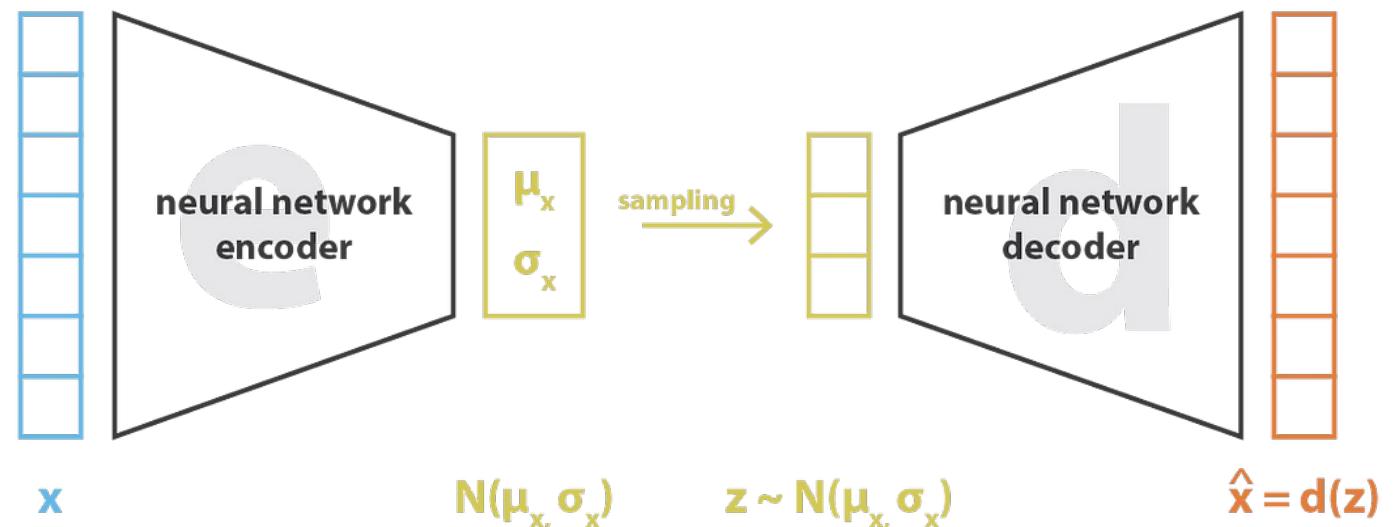


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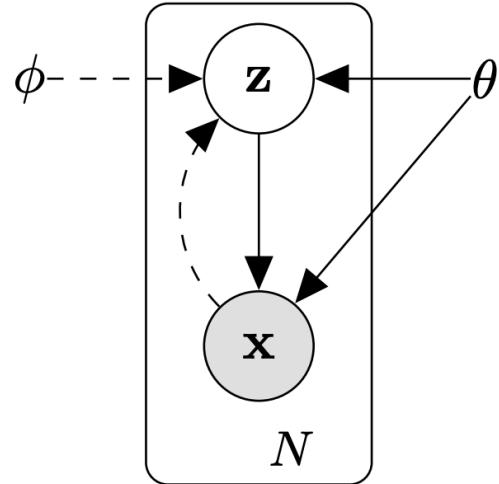
Illustration of VAEs:



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 - Reparameterization Trick

Amortized Variational Inference



Since we typically use continuous latent variable Z , Gaussian distribution is a natural choice for the encoder:

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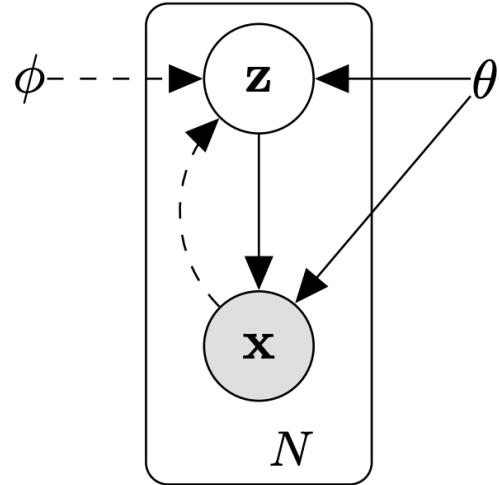
Encoder is **amortized**: every X shares the same set of parameters ϕ

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Amortized Variational Inference



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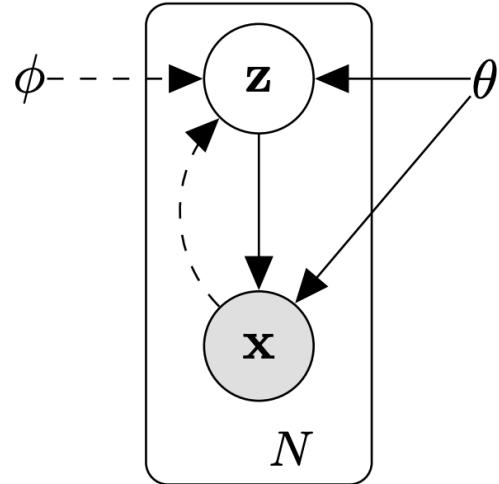
We thus only need to optimize ELBO over one set of parameters ϕ , whereas in traditional variational inference (VI) one needs to find the optimal variational distribution per X

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Amortized Variational Inference



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Different X still have different encoder distributions $q_\phi(Z|X)$

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Reparameterization Trick

$$\text{Negative ELBO: } \mathcal{L}(\phi, \theta) = \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(Z|X)} [-\log(p_\theta(X|Z))]}_{\text{Reconstruction Error/Loss}} + \underbrace{\text{KL}(q_\phi(Z|X) \| p_\theta(Z))}_{\text{Regularizer}}$$

We want to minimize negative ELBO w.r.t. encoder parameters ϕ and decoder parameters θ

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We will use *reparameterization trick* to equivalently rewrite the expectation in reconstruction loss so that the Monte Carlo gradient w.r.t. ϕ has a lower variance.

Reparameterization Trick

For any function f , we have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{N}(Z|\mu, \sigma^2 I)} [f(Z)] &= \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^m} \prod_i \sigma_i} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \left\| \frac{Z - \mu}{\sigma} \right\|^2\right) f(Z) dZ \\ &= \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^m} \prod_i \sigma_i} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \left\| \frac{\mu + \sigma\epsilon - \mu}{\sigma} \right\|^2\right) f(\mu + \sigma\epsilon) d(\mu + \sigma\epsilon) \\ &= \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^m}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \|\epsilon\|^2\right) f(\mu + \sigma\epsilon) d\epsilon \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{N}(\epsilon|0, I)} [f(\mu + \sigma\epsilon)]\end{aligned}$$

Change of Variable

Reparameterization Trick

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Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}(\phi, \theta) &= \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(Z|X)} [-\log(p_\theta(X|Z))] + \text{KL}(q_\phi(Z|X) \| p_\theta(Z)) \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{N}(\epsilon|0, I)} [-\log(p_\theta(X|\mu_\phi(X) + \sigma_\phi(X)\epsilon))] + \text{KL}(q_\phi(Z|X) \| p_\theta(Z))\end{aligned}$$

Reparameterization Trick

In original VAE,

$$q_\phi(Z|X) = \mathcal{N}(Z|\mu_\phi(X), \sigma_\phi(X)^2 I)$$

$$p_\theta(Z) = \mathcal{N}(Z|0, I)$$

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In original VAE,

$$\begin{aligned} q_\phi(Z|X) &= \mathcal{N}(Z|\mu_\phi(X), \sigma_\phi(X)^2 I) \\ p_\theta(Z) &= \mathcal{N}(Z|0, I) \end{aligned}$$

Using Gaussian integrals, we have

$$\text{KL}(q_\phi(Z|X) \| p_\theta(Z)) = \frac{1}{2} (\mu_\phi(X)^\top \mu_\phi(X) + \sigma_\phi(X)^\top \sigma_\phi(X)) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \log \sigma_i^2 - \frac{m}{2}$$

where

$$\sigma_\phi(X) = [\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_m]^\top$$

Reparameterization Trick

Therefore, in original VAE, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}(\phi, \theta) = & \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{N}(\epsilon|0,I)} [-\log (p_\theta(X|\mu_\phi(X) + \sigma_\phi(X)\epsilon))] \\ & + \frac{1}{2} (\mu_\phi(X)^\top \mu_\phi(X) + \sigma_\phi(X)^\top \sigma_\phi(X)) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \log \sigma_i^2 - \frac{m}{2}\end{aligned}$$

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We only need *reparameterization trick* and *Monte Carlo estimation* in the first term

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}(\phi, \theta) \approx & - \sum_{i=1, \epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\epsilon|0,I)}^N \log (p_\theta(X|\mu_\phi(X) + \sigma_\phi(X)\epsilon_i)) \\ & + \frac{1}{2} (\mu_\phi(X)^\top \mu_\phi(X) + \sigma_\phi(X)^\top \sigma_\phi(X)) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \log \sigma_i^2 - \frac{m}{2}\end{aligned}$$

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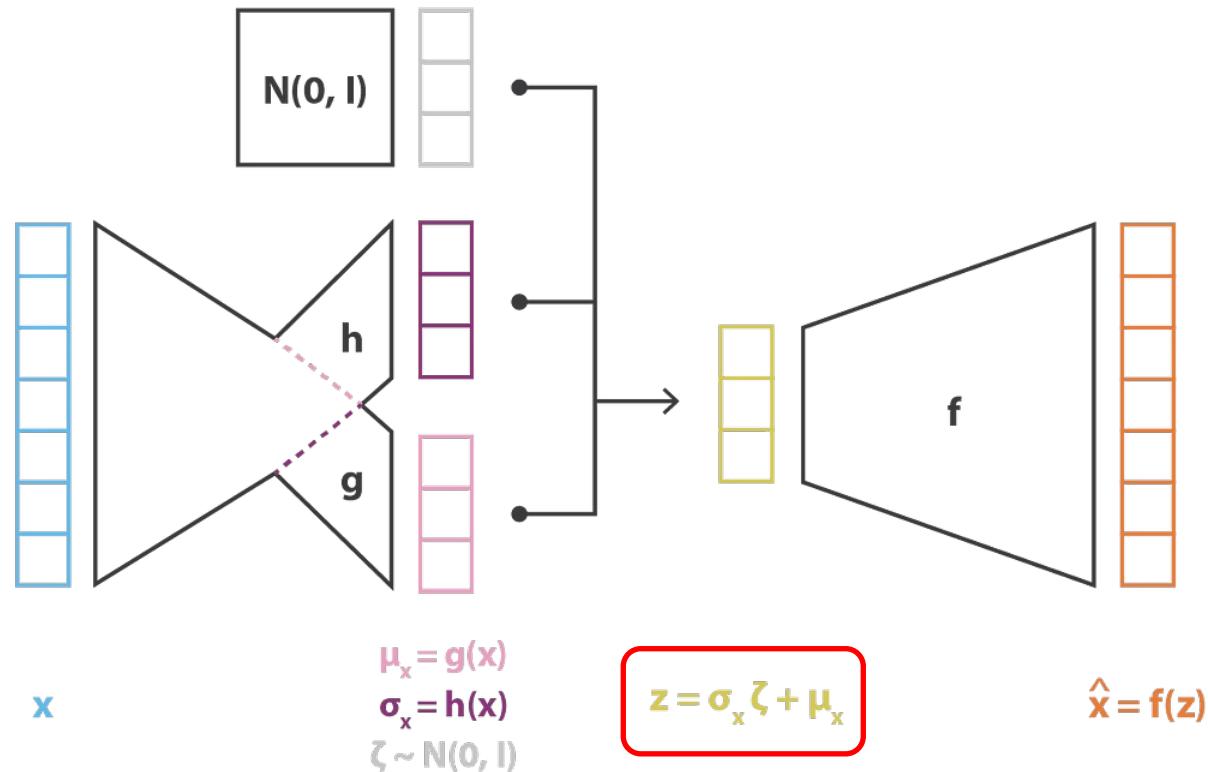
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$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}(\phi, \theta) \approx & - \sum_{i=1, \epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\epsilon|0,I)}^N \log (p_\theta(X|\mu_\phi(X) + \sigma_\phi(X)\epsilon_i)) \\ & + \frac{1}{2} (\mu_\phi(X)^\top \mu_\phi(X) + \sigma_\phi(X)^\top \sigma_\phi(X)) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \log \sigma_i^2 - \frac{m}{2}\end{aligned}$$

Now we can get the gradient directly!

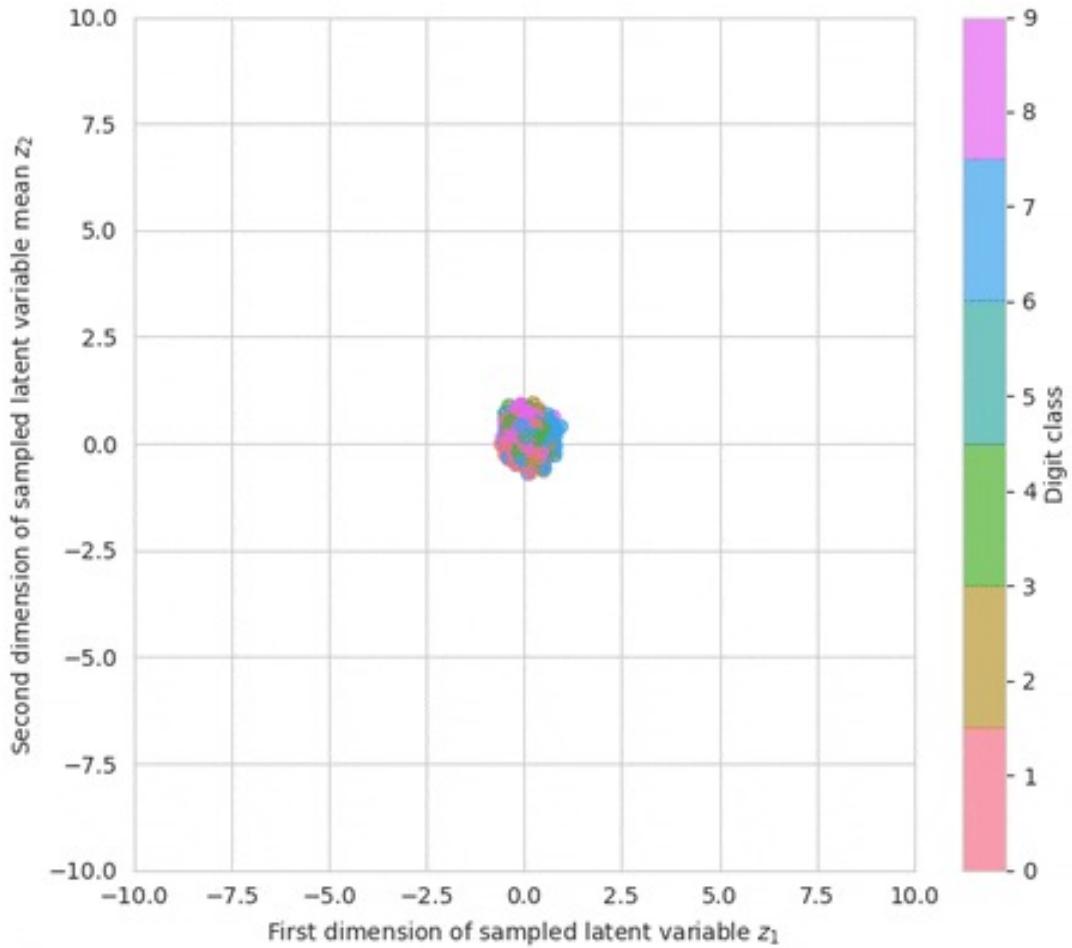
Reparameterization Trick

In the illustration of VAEs, the latent variable is *reparameterized* as below:

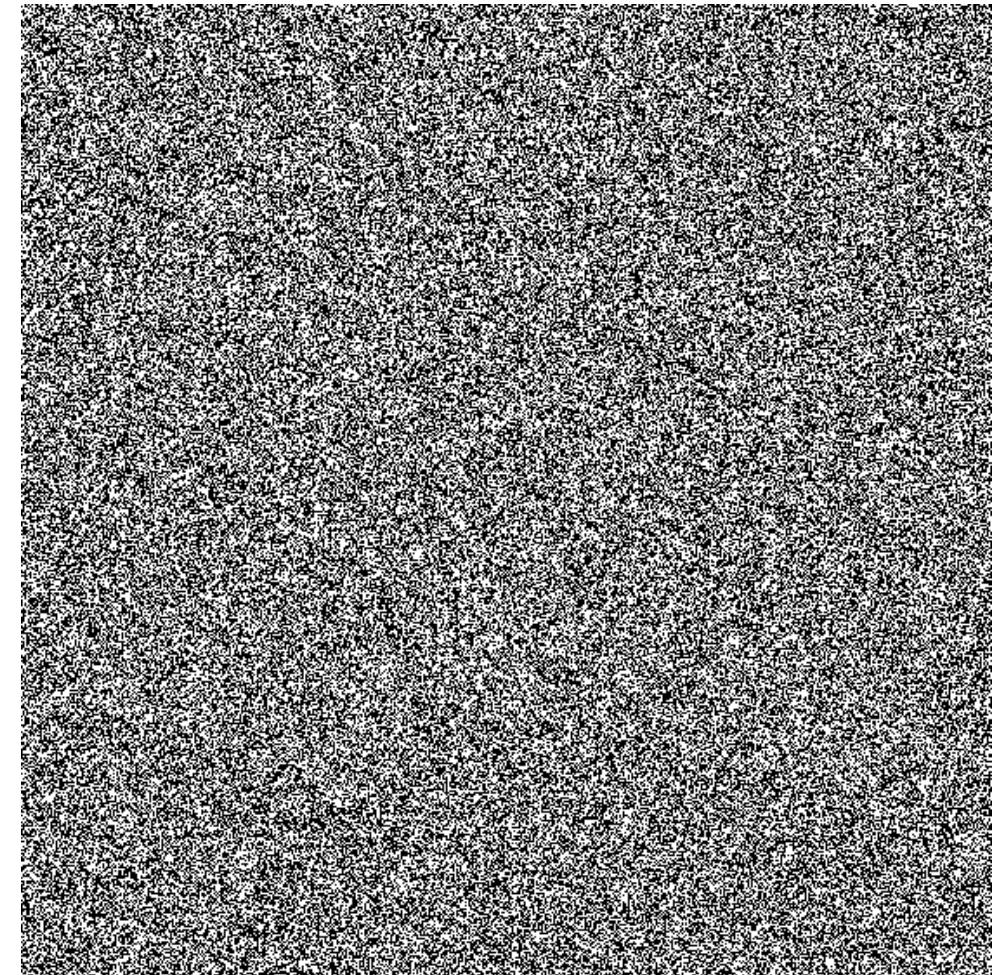


VAEs on MNIST

Visualize $Z \sim q_\phi(Z|X)$ during training:



Visualize $X \sim p_\theta(X|Z)$ during training:



References

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Questions?