Lecture 15 Introduction to Deep Unsupervised Learning II CMSC 35246: Deep Learning

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May 17, 2017





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Recap: Unsupervised Deep Learning



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- The bases are orthogonal. Coefficient vectors are dense

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• Encoding: $\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{h} = W\mathbf{x}$. Decoding: $\mathbf{h} \to \tilde{\mathbf{x}} = V\mathbf{h}$



Encoding: x → h = Wx. Decoding: h → x̃ = Vh
Objective: min_{W,V} ||x - VWx||₂²

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Recap: Simple Non-Linear Autoencoder



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- The forms for encoding and decoding can be different than those specified
- We get non-linear projections or *representations* of the data
- Can be seen as a form of non-linear PCA

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Objective: Given a set of input vectors x₁, x₂,..., x_N, learn a dictionary of bases h₁, h₂,..., h_p such that:

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- In PCA, the bases h's were orthogonal and the codes for the x i.e. a's were dense.
- Here, the bases need not be orthogonal, but the codes are sparse

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• Optimization Problem: Given $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N \in \mathbb{R}^d$, learn dictionary $\mathbf{h}_1, \mathbf{h}_2, \dots, \mathbf{h}_p \in \mathbb{R}^d$ (arranged as $H = [\mathbf{h}_1, \mathbf{h}_2, \dots, \mathbf{h}_p] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times p}$) such that:

$$\min_{\mathbf{a}_1,...,\mathbf{a}_N,H} \sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathbf{x}_i - H\mathbf{a}_i\|_2^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathbf{a}_i\|_1$$

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- Reconstruction term: $\|\mathbf{x}_i H\mathbf{a}_i\|_2^2$
- Sparsity term: $\|\mathbf{a}_i\|_1$

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Sparse Coding



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• Given a new patch $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and learned dictionary $H = [\mathbf{h}_1 \dots, \mathbf{h}_p]$, we find the code $\tilde{\mathbf{a}}$ as:

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- $\bullet~\tilde{\mathbf{a}}$ will be a sparse representation for $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$
- Again, $\tilde{\mathbf{a}}$ is our representation or *code* for $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ that we can use as features for classification

Image Classification

Evaluated on Caltech101 object category dataset.



Lee, Battle, Raina, Ng, 2006

Slide Credit: Honglak Lee

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Features for Faces



Figure: Charles Cadieu



• Encoding: Implicit encoding, non-linear (in x)

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- Bases is overcomplete
- In PCA, plain autoencoders (i.e. Non-Linear PCA) overcomplete representations don't make much sense (can just copy input!)
• Like before, as in the case of PCA, let us try to write sparse coding as a neural network

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- Will lead to another kind of auto-encoder

Implicit Bottleneck



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Implicit Bottleneck



- Encoding: $\mathbf{h} = \tanh(W\mathbf{x})$. Decoding: $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = V\mathbf{h}$
- PS: Modified model than the sparse coding model we saw (but to emphasize nonlinearity in encoding, and linear decoding)

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Stacked Autoencoders



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Pre-Training



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Deep Autoencoders (2006)



Fig. 1. Pretraining consists of learning a stack of restricted Boltzmann machines (RBMs), each having only one layer of feature detectors. The learned feature activations of one RBM are used as the "data" for training the next RBM in the stack. After the pretraining, the RBMs are "unrolled" to create a deep autoencoder, which is then fine-tuned using backpropagation of error derivatives.

G. E. Hinton, R. R. Salakhutdinov, Reducing the dimensionality of data with neural networks, Science, 2006

It was hard to train deep feedforward networks from scratch in 2006!

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Effect of Unsupervised Pre-training





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Why does Unsupervised Pre-training work?

• Regularization. Feature representations that are good for $P(\boldsymbol{x})$ are good for $P(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x})$

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- Regularization. Feature representations that are good for $P(\boldsymbol{x})$ are good for $P(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x})$
- Optimization: Unsupervised pre-training leads to better regions of the space i.e. better than random initialization

More Autoencoders

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- De-noising Autoencoders: Input is corrupted by noise, but we attempt to reconstruct the uncorrupted image
- Contractive Autoencoders: The regularization term penalizes for the derivative:

$$\Omega(\mathbf{h}, \mathbf{x}) = \lambda \sum_{i} \|\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{h}_{i}\|_{2}^{2}$$

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De-Noising Autoencoder: Intuition



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• Canonical example: Cocktail party problem





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Task: Only X is observed, A is unknown, recover H
Here the bases are *independent* of each other

• In PCA X = AH with $H^T H = I$ i.e. bases are orthogonal

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- PCA does compression, ICA doesn't do any compression (p = d)
- Some PCs are more important than others, not in the case with ICA

Filters







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Short Digression: Distributed Representations

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• All the models that we have seen so far today have something in common: They are distributed representations

- PCA is a dense distributed representation unlike sparse coding
- One of the reasons of the power of Deep Networks are distributed representations (which unlike these toy cases are highly non-linear)
- What are distributed representations?

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• This is a *localist* representation: Every concept gets a code that has local structure

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- This is a *localist* representation: Every concept gets a code that has local structure
- Very easy to code, and easy to learn (mixture models build representations like this)

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• This is a *distributed* representation:





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• Each concept is represented by multiple neurons







• This is a *distributed* representation:

- Each concept is represented by multiple neurons
- Given an exponential advantage in representational efficiency

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Representations



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Figure: Yoshua Bengio (FTML Volume)



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$$1 + m + \binom{m}{2} + \dots + \binom{m}{d}$$

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- The representations are non-linear, hierarchical amongst other things
- Note: This is not specific to just unsupervised deep learning

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- The encoder and decoders have no stochasticity
- We don't construct a probabilistic model of the data
- Can't sample from the data

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Representations







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• To motivate Deep Neural Generative models, like before, let's seek inspiration from simple linear models first

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- Simplest decoding model: Get x after a linear transformation of x with some noise
- Formally: Suppose we sample the latent factors from a distribution $\mathbf{h} \sim P(\mathbf{h})$
- Then: $\mathbf{x} = W\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{b} + \epsilon$

• $P(\mathbf{h})$ is a factorial distribution



 $\mathbf{x} = W\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{b} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$

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- How do learn in such a model?
- Let's look at a simple example

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- Standard PCA: In the limit as $\sigma \rightarrow 0$
- Gives a simple generative model for the data; can draw samples!
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$$\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; b, WW^T + \sigma^2 I)$$

- Or $\mathbf{x} = W\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{b} +$ noise
- Approaches PCA as $\sigma \to 0$

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- Estimation and inference can get complicated!
- Let's look at an approach to write these problems in a general form

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• Energies are in the log-probability domain:

$$\mathsf{Energy}(\mathbf{x}) = \log \frac{1}{(ZP(\mathbf{x}))}$$

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Lecture 15 Introduction to Deep Unsupervised Learning II

$$P(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\exp^{-(\mathsf{Energy}(\mathbf{x}))}}{Z}$$

• Z is a normalizing factor called the Partition Function

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• How do we specify the energy function?



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$$\mathsf{Energy}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i f_i(\mathbf{x})$$

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• We have the product of experts:

$$P(\mathbf{x}) \propto \prod_{i} P_i(\mathbf{x}) \propto \prod_{i} \exp^{(-f_i(\mathbf{x}))}$$

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- Contrast this with mixture models

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• Free Energy is just a marginalization of energies in the log-domain:

$$\mathsf{FreeEnergy}(\mathbf{x}) = -\log \sum_{\mathbf{h}} \exp^{-(\mathsf{Energy}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{h}))}$$

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