

# Unsupervised Representation Learning: Autoencoders and Factorization

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We have talked about

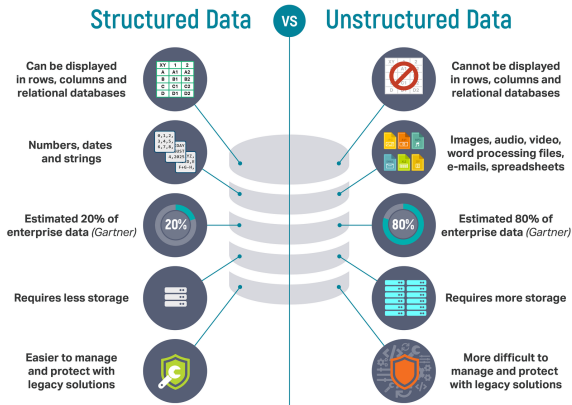
- Basic DNNs (multi-layer feedforward)
- Universal approximation theorems
- Basics of numerical optimization
- Training DNNs: basic methods and tricks

## **Models and Applications**

- Unsupervised representation learning: autoencoders and variants
- DNNs for grid data: CNNs
- DNNs for sequential data: RNNs
- DNNs for graph data: GNNs
- Generative models: GAN, VAE, normalization flow, diffusion models
- Interactive models: reinforcement learning
- Self-supervised learning (if time permits)

involve modification and composition of the basic DNNs

# Structured vs. unstructured data

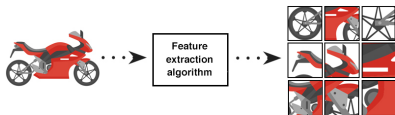


Credit: <https://lawtomed.com/>

[structured-data-vs-unstructured-data-what-are-they-and-why-care/](#)

- structured data also called **tabular data**
- structured data often directly fed into classical ML tools
- the success of DL mostly lies at **learning useful features/patterns from unstructured data**, i.e., **representation learning**

# Feature engineering for unstructured data: old and new



**Feature engineering:** derive features for **efficient** learning

Credit: [Elgendy, 2020]

## Traditional learning pipeline



- feature extraction is “independent” of the learning models and tasks
- features are handcrafted and/or learned

## Modern learning pipeline



- end-to-end DNN learning

# Unsupervised representation learning

Learning feature/representation **without task information** (e.g., labels)  
(ICLR — International Conference on Learning Representation)

Why not jump into the end-to-end learning?

- **Historical:** Unsupervised representation learning key to the revival of deep learning (i.e., layerwise pretraining, [[Hinton et al., 2006](#), [Hinton, 2006](#)])

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G. E. Hinton\*, R. R. Salakhutdinov  
+ See all authors and affiliations

Science 28 Jul 2006;  
Vol. 313, Issue 5786, pp. 504-507  
DOI: 10.1126/science.1127647

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Home | Neural Computation | List of Issues | Volume 18, No. 7 | A Fast Learning Algorithm for Deep Belief Nets

**NEURAL COMPUTATION**

**A Fast Learning Algorithm for Deep Belief Nets**

Geoffrey E. Hinton, Simon Osindero and Yee-Whye Teh

Printed Online May 07, 2006  
Epub Online 07/02/06  
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Neural Computation  
Volume 18 | Issue 7 | July 2006  
p1507-1554

Monthly  
288pp per issue

Abstract Authors

Who chose how to use "complementary neurons" to eliminate the overabundance...

- **Practical:** Numerous advanced models built on top of the ideas in unsupervised representation learning (e.g., encoder-decoder networks)

PCA for linear data

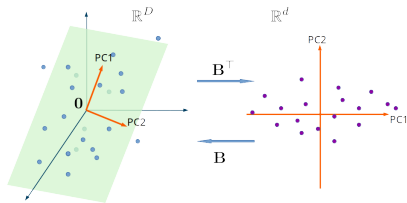
Extensions of PCA for nonlinear data

Application examples

# PCA: the geometric picture

## Principal component analysis (PCA)

- $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^D$  zero-centered and write  $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m]^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times D}$
- Compact SVD  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{S}\mathbf{V}^\top$ , where  $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times r}$  spans the row space of  $\mathbf{X}$
- Take top right singular vectors  $\mathbf{B}$  from  $\mathbf{V}$ , and obtain  $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B}$



PCA is effectively to identify the best-fit subspace to  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m$

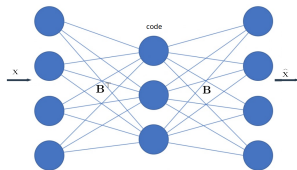
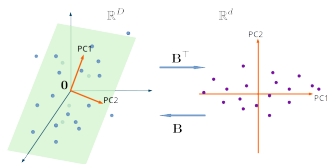
- $\mathbf{B}$  has orthonormal columns, i.e.,  $\mathbf{B}^\top \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{I}$  ( $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^\top \neq \mathbf{I}$  when  $D \neq d$ )
- sample to representation:  
 $\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{x}' \doteq \mathbf{B}^\top \mathbf{x}$  ( $\mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  
dimension reduction)
- representation to sample:  
 $\mathbf{x}' \mapsto \hat{\mathbf{x}} \doteq \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}'$  ( $\mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^D$ )
- $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^\top \mathbf{x} \approx \mathbf{x}$

# Autoencoders

story in digital communications ...



**autoencoder:** [Bourlard and Kamp, 1988, Hinton and Zemel, 1994]



To find the basis  $B$ , solve ( $d \leq D$ )

$$\min_{B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}} \sum_{i=1}^m \|x_i - BB^\top x_i\|_2^2$$

or:

$$\min_{B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}} \|X^\top - BB^\top X^\top\|_F^2$$

– **Encoding:**

$$x \mapsto x' = B^\top x$$

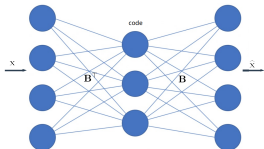
– **Decoding:**

$$x' \mapsto BB^\top x = \hat{x}$$



# Autoencoders

autoencoder:



To find the basis  $B$ , solve

$$\min_{B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}} \sum_{i=1}^m \|x_i - BB^T x_i\|_2^2$$

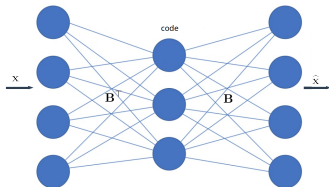
So the autoencoder is performing PCA!

One can even relax the weight tying:

$$\min_{B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}, A \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}} \sum_{i=1}^m \|x_i - BA^T x_i\|_2^2,$$

which finds a basis (not necessarily orthonormal)  $B$  that spans the top singular space also [Baldi and Hornik, 1989], [Kawaguchi, 2016], [Lu and Kawaguchi, 2017].

# Factorization



To perform PCA,

$$\min_{B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}} \sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{x}_i - BB^T \mathbf{x}_i\|_2^2$$
$$\min_{B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}, A \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}} \sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{x}_i - BA^T \mathbf{x}_i\|_2^2,$$

But: the basis  $B$  and the representations/codes  $\mathbf{z}_i$ 's are all we care about

**Factorization:** (or autoencoder without encoder)

$$\min_{B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}, \mathbf{z}'_i \in \mathbb{R}^d} \sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{x}_i - B\mathbf{z}'_i\|_2^2.$$

All three formulations will find three **different**  $B$ 's that span the **same** principal subspace [Tan and Mayrovouniotis, 1995, Li et al., 2020b, Li et al., 2020a, Valavi et al., 2020]. They're all doing PCA!

# Sparse coding

**Factorization:** (or autoencoder without encoder)

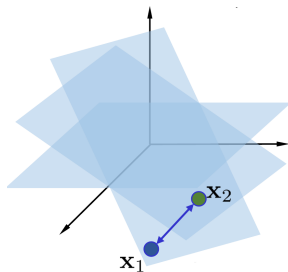
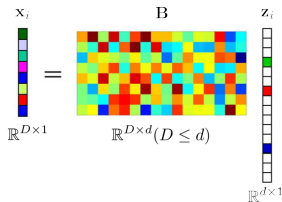
$$\min_{B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}, z'_i \in \mathbb{R}^d} \sum_{i=1}^m \|x_i - Bz_i\|_2^2.$$

What happens when we allow  $d \geq D$ ? Underdetermined even if  $B$  is known.

**Sparse coding:** assuming  $z_i$ 's are sparse and  $d \geq D$

$$\min_{B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}, z'_i \in \mathbb{R}^d} \sum_{i=1}^m \|x_i - Bz_i\|_2^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^m \Omega(z_i)$$

where  $\Omega$  promotes sparsity, e.g.,  $\Omega = \|\cdot\|_1$ .



Letter | Published: 13 June 1996

## Emergence of simple-cell receptive field properties by learning a sparse code for natural images

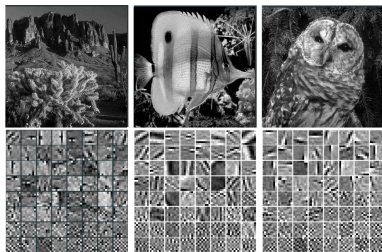
Bruno A. Olshausen & David J. Field

Nature 381, 607–609(1996) | [Cite this article](#)

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### Abstract

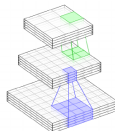
THE receptive fields of simple cells in mammalian primary visual cortex can be characterized as being spatially localized, oriented<sup>1-4</sup> and bandpass (selective to structure at different spatial scales), comparable to



denoising



super resol.



recognition

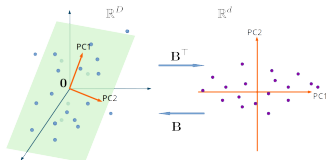
also known as (sparse) dictionary learning [Olshausen and Field, 1996, Mairal, 2014, Sun et al., 2017, Bai et al., 2018, Qu et al., 2019]

PCA for linear data

Extensions of PCA for nonlinear data

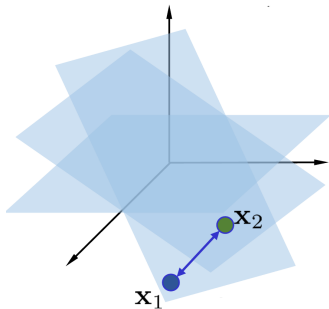
Application examples

# Quick summary of the linear models



PCA is effectively to identify  
the best-fit subspace to

$$\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m$$



–  $B$  from  $V$  of  $X = USV^T$

– autoencoder:

$$\min_{B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}} \sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{x}_i - BB^T \mathbf{x}_i\|_2^2$$

– autoencoder:

$$\min_{B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}, A \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}} \sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{x}_i - BA^T \mathbf{x}_i\|_2^2$$

– factorization:

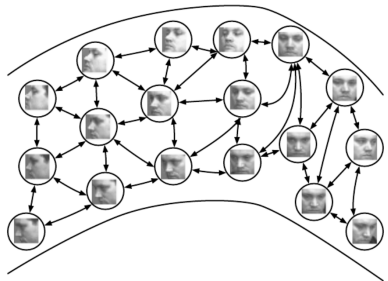
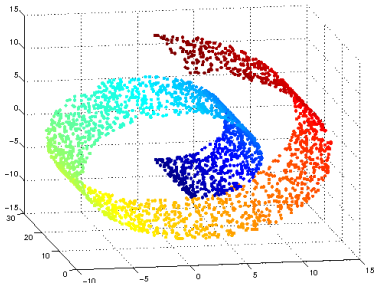
$$\min_{B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}, \mathbf{z}'_i \in \mathbb{R}^d} \sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{x}_i - B\mathbf{z}'_i\|_2^2$$

– when  $d \geq D$ , sparse coding/dictionary learning

$$\min_{B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}, \mathbf{z}'_i \in \mathbb{R}^d} \sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{x}_i - B\mathbf{z}'_i\|_2^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^m \Omega(\mathbf{z}'_i)$$

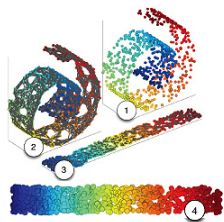
e.g.,  $\Omega = \|\cdot\|_1$

# What about nonlinear data?



- Manifold, but not mathematically (i.e., differential geometry sense) rigorous
- **(No. 1?) Working hypothesis for high-dimensional data:** practical data lie (approximately) on union of **low-dimensional** “manifolds”. Why?
  - \* data generating processes often controlled by very few parameters

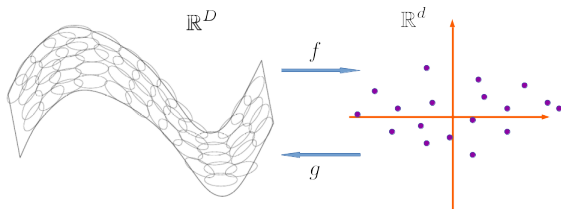
# Manifold learning



Classic methods (mostly for visualization): e.g.,

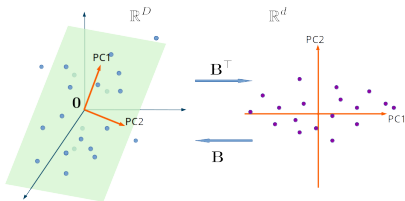
- ISOMAP [Tenenbaum, 2000]
- Locally-linear embedding [Roweis, 2000]
- Laplacian eigenmap [Belkin and Niyogi, 2001]
- t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (t-SNE) [van der Maaten and Hinton, 2008]

Nonlinear dimension reduction and representation learning





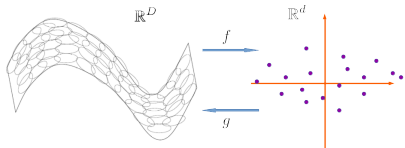
# From autoencoders to deep autoencoders



$$\min_{B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}} \sum_{i=1}^m \|x_i - BB^T x_i\|_2^2$$

$$\min_{B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}, A \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}} \sum_{i=1}^m \|x_i - BA^T x_i\|_2^2$$

nonlinear generalization of the linear mappings:



**deep autoencoders**

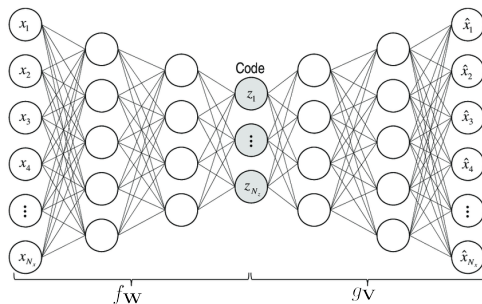
$$\min_{V, W} \sum_{i=1}^m \|x_i - g_V \circ f_W(x_i)\|_2^2$$

simply  $A^T \rightarrow f_W$  and  $B \rightarrow g_V$

A side question: why not calculate “nonlinear basis”?

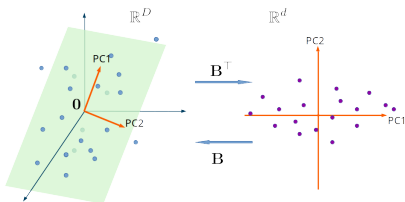
# Deep autoencoders

$$\min_{\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{W}} \sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{x}_i - g\mathbf{V} \circ f\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{x}_i)\|_2^2$$



the landmark paper [Hinton, 2006] ... that introduced **pretraining**

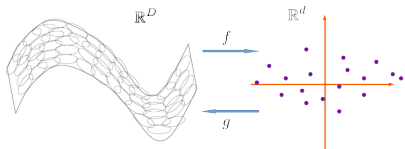
# From factorization to deep factorization



factorization

$$\min_{B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}, \mathbf{z}'_i \in \mathbb{R}^d} \sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{x}_i - B \mathbf{z}'_i\|_2^2$$

nonlinear generalization of the linear mappings:



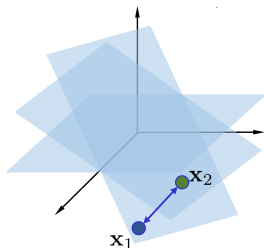
deep factorization

$$\min_{\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{z}'_i \in \mathbb{R}^d} \sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{x}_i - g\mathbf{V}(\mathbf{z}'_i)\|_2^2$$

simply  $B \rightarrow g\mathbf{V}$

[Tan and Mayrovouniotis, 1995, Fan and Cheng, 2018, Bojanowski et al., 2017, Park et al., 2019, Li et al., 2020b], also known as **deep decoder**.

# From sparse coding to deep sparse coding



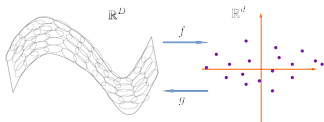
- when  $d \geq D$ , sparse coding/dictionary learning

$$\min_{B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}, \mathbf{z}'_i \in \mathbb{R}^d} \sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{x}_i - B\mathbf{z}'_i\|_2^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^m \Omega(\mathbf{z}'_i)$$

e.g.,  $\Omega = \|\cdot\|_1$

nonlinear generalization of the linear mappings: ( $d \geq D$ )

## deep sparse coding/dictionary learning

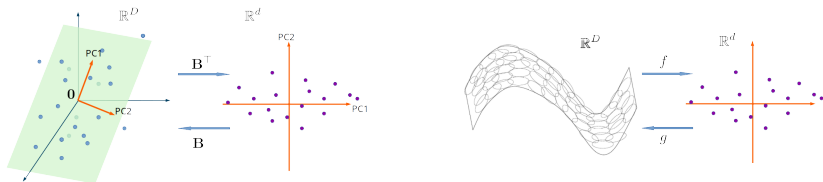


$$\min_{V, \mathbf{z}'_i \in \mathbb{R}^d} \sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{x}_i - gV(\mathbf{z}'_i)\|_2^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^m \Omega(\mathbf{z}'_i)$$

$$\min_{V, W} \sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{x}_i - gV \circ fW(\mathbf{x}_i)\|_2^2 + \sum_{i=1}^m \Omega(fW(\mathbf{x}_i))$$

the 2nd also called **sparse autoencoder** [Ranzato et al., 2006].

# Quick summary of linear vs nonlinear models



	linear models	nonlinear models
autoencoder	$\min_B \sum_{i=1}^m \ell(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{x}_i)$ $\min_{B,A} \sum_{i=1}^m \ell(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{B}\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{x}_i)$	$\min_{V,W} \sum_{i=1}^m \ell(\mathbf{x}_i, g_V \circ f_W(\mathbf{x}_i))$
factorization	$\min_{B,Z} \sum_{i=1}^m \ell(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{B}\mathbf{z}_i)$	$\min_{V,Z} \sum_{i=1}^m \ell(\mathbf{x}_i, g_V(\mathbf{z}_i))$
sparse coding	$\min_{B,Z} \sum_{i=1}^m \ell(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{B}\mathbf{z}_i)$ $+\lambda \sum_{i=1}^m \Omega(\mathbf{z}_i)$	$\min_{V,Z} \sum_{i=1}^m \ell(\mathbf{x}_i, g_V(\mathbf{z}_i))$ $+\lambda \sum_{i=1}^m \Omega(\mathbf{z}_i)$ $\min_{V,W} \sum_{i=1}^m \ell(\mathbf{x}_i, g_V \circ f_W(\mathbf{x}_i))$ $+\lambda \sum_{i=1}^m \Omega(f_W(\mathbf{x}_i))$

$\ell$  can be general loss functions other than  $\|\cdot\|_2$

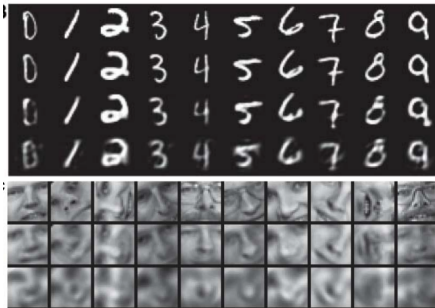
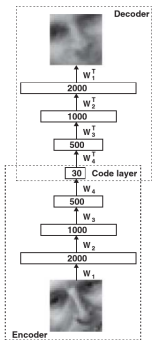
$\Omega$  promotes sparsity, e.g.,  $\Omega = \|\cdot\|_1$

PCA for linear data

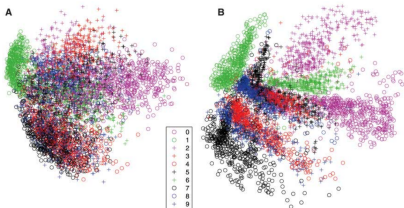
Extensions of PCA for nonlinear data

Application examples

# Nonlinear dimension reduction



autoencoder vs. PCA vs. logistic PCA



[Hinton, 2006]

# Representation learning

## Traditional learning pipeline



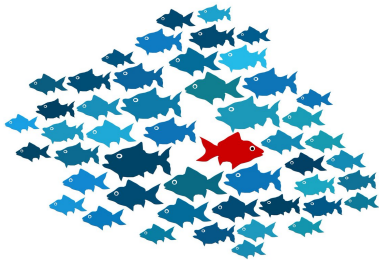
- feature extraction is “independent” of the learning models and tasks
- features are handcrafted and/or learned

## Use the low-dimensional codes as features/representations

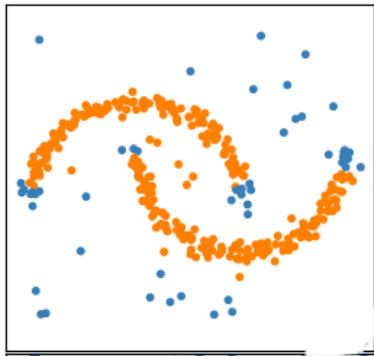
- task agnostic
- less overfitting
- semi-supervised (rich unlabeled data + little labeled data) learning



# Outlier detection

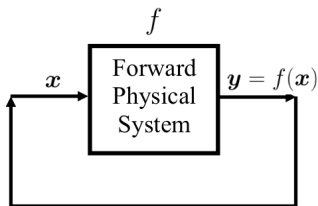


(Credit: towardsdatascience.com)



- idea: outliers don't obey the manifold assumption — the reconstruction error  $\ell(\mathbf{x}_i, g_V \circ f_W(\mathbf{x}_i))$  is large after autoencoder training
- for effective detection, better use  $\ell$  that penalizes large errors less harshly than  $\|\cdot\|_2^2$ , e.g.,  $\ell(\mathbf{x}_i, g_V \circ f_W(\mathbf{x}_i)) = \|\mathbf{x}_i - g_V \circ f_W(\mathbf{x}_i)\|_2$   
[Lai et al., 2019]

# Deep generative prior



Inverse Problem  $f^{-1}$

- **inverse problems**: given  $f$  and  $\mathbf{y} = f(\mathbf{x})$ , estimate  $\mathbf{x}$
- often ill-posed, i.e.,  $\mathbf{y}$  doesn't contain enough info for recovery
- **regularized data-fitting** formulation:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \ell(\mathbf{y}, f(\mathbf{x})) + \lambda \Omega(\mathbf{x})$$

where  $\Omega$  contains extra info about  $\mathbf{x}$

Suppose  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m$  come from the same manifold as  $\mathbf{x}$

- train a deep factorization model on  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m$ :

$$\min_{\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{Z}} \sum_{i=1}^m \ell(\mathbf{x}_i, g_{\mathbf{V}}(\mathbf{z}_i))$$

- $\mathbf{x} \approx g_{\mathbf{V}}(\mathbf{z})$  for a certain  $\mathbf{z}$  so:  $\min_{\mathbf{z}} \ell(\mathbf{y}, f \circ g_{\mathbf{V}}(\mathbf{z}))$ . Some recent work even uses random  $\mathbf{V}$ , i.e., without training

See: [Pan et al., 2020, Ulyanov et al., 2018, Bora et al., 2017,

Wang et al., 2021, Zhuang et al., 2022]

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