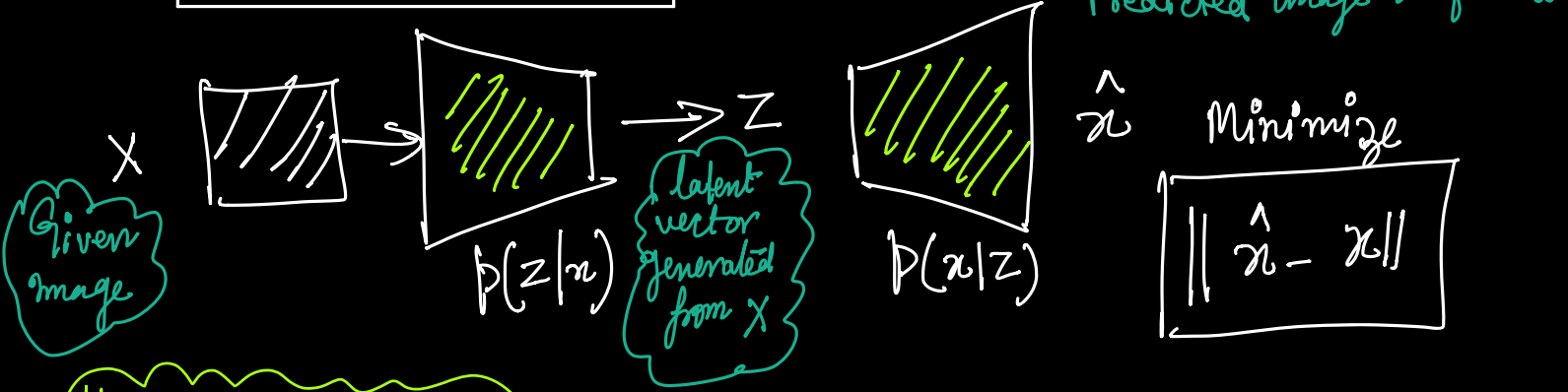


Probability of  $(Z)$  given  $(x)$

$$p(z|x) = \frac{p(x|z) \cdot p(z)}{p(x)}$$

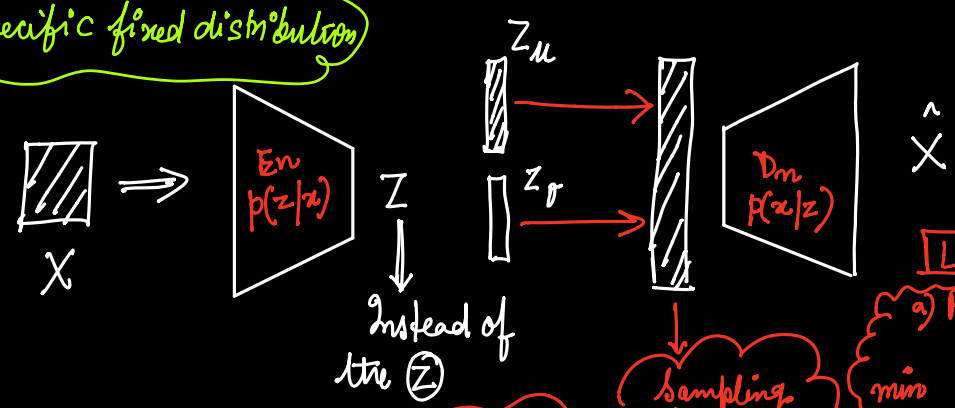
$(x)$  can be converted into  $(z)$  [Bottleneck]

# Ⓐ Basic Auto encoder



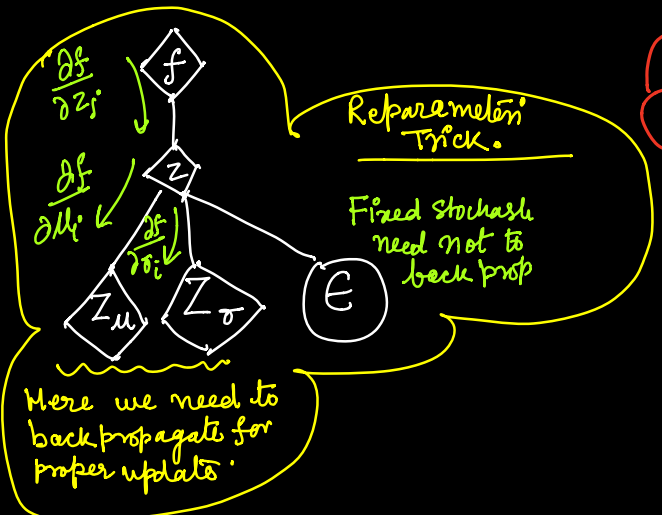
Here our main question is Ⓐ How to make sampling backpropagable using reparameterization technique  
 Ⓑ Why we want to train encoder so as to produce  $z$ 's that follow a specific fixed distribution

# Ⓑ Variational Autoencoders



Instead of the  $(z)$  we want our encoder to get  $\mu, \sigma$   
 $z_\mu, z_\sigma$

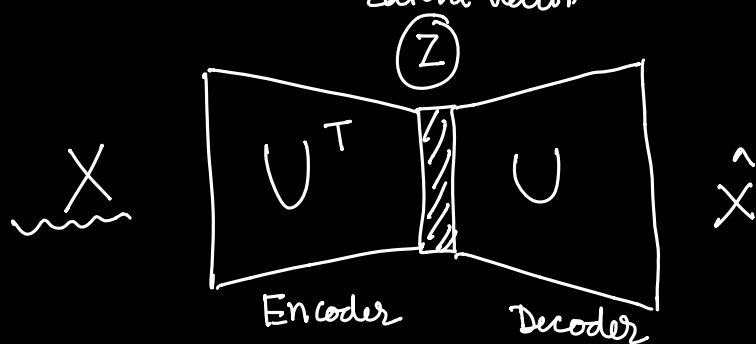
**Losses**  
 a) Reconstruction loss  
 $\min ||x - \hat{x}||$   
 b) KL-Div( $G(z_\mu, z_\sigma), N(0,1)$ )  
 $(n \times 1) (n \times n) \Rightarrow$  take only diagonal (variance)



$$KL-Div(G(z_\mu, z_\sigma), N(0,1)) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mu_i^2 + \sigma_i^2 - \log(1e-8 + \sigma_i^2)) - 1$$

Here we need to backpropagate for proper updates.

In basic autoencoder data goes into the bottleneck and reconstructed (2)



$$\text{Loss} = \min \|x - \hat{x}\|$$

(reconstruction error)

This does not ensure that such A.E and PCA both learn the identical basis but may span the similar space

\* If there is no non-linearity (i.e. w/o any activation fn) and there is only one hidden layer then this is very similar to PCA analysis.

### Encoder (E)

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \underbrace{Z}_{p \times 1} = \underbrace{U^T}_{p \times d} \underbrace{X}_{d \times 1}$$

$$X \in \mathbb{R}^d \text{ (d-dim vector)}$$

$$Z \in \mathbb{R}^p \text{ (p-dim vector)}$$

Encoder is learning some transformations that can convert  $\underbrace{X}_{i/p}$  to  $\underbrace{Z}_{\text{latent vector}}$

### Decoder (D)

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \underbrace{\hat{X}}_{d \times 1} = \underbrace{U}_{d \times p} \underbrace{Z}_{p \times 1}$$

applying  $\textcircled{1}$   $\hat{X} = U U^T X$

Hence our loss fn has to be  $\min \|x - \hat{x}\|$

$$\therefore \min \|X - U U^T X\|$$

main difference b/w PCA and A.E can be that in PCA

$$U U^T = I \quad [U \text{ is orthonormal by construction}]$$

In A.E  $U$  may not be learned as orthonormal.

One can train deep autoencoders with non-linearity in order to learn better representation.

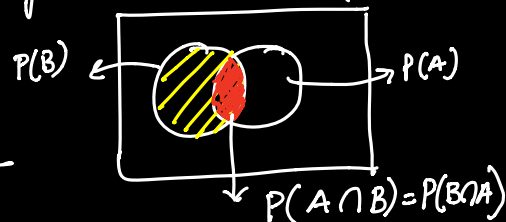
# Important Concepts

(3)

Conditional probability  $\div$  events are  $A \& B$

(A) Bayes Theorem:  $\therefore P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(B \cap A)}{P(A)}$$



$$\Rightarrow P(A|B) \cdot P(B) = P(B|A) \cdot P(A)$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A) \cdot P(A)}{P(B)}}$$

Assuming 1 student in the class of 20 has flu.

Event A: Student is ABC  $\Rightarrow [P(A) = 1/20]$

Prior Probability  
 $\Rightarrow$  (w/o any knowledge)

Evidence B: 5 Girls & 15 Boys

Now given this new evidence what is the probability that ABC has flu.

$P(A|B) = \frac{1}{5}$  (goes up) if girl  $\Rightarrow 0$  (if student is a Boy)

New evidences are going to influence the Hypothesis

(B) Information (I): How one can estimate the amount of information in a sentence/expression

$\Rightarrow$  (An event) (X)

Here we can have 3 things:

X Event

$P(X)$  Probability

$-\log(P(X))$  Information  
Since  $P(X) \in (0,1)$  hence  $(-\log)$

① Virat scored a century.

$\uparrow$  (highly probable event)

$\downarrow$  (less information)

② Kenya wins Cricket world cup

$\downarrow$  (rare event)

$\uparrow$  (high information)

③ Tomorrow it rain or don't

1 (certain event)

0 [no information]

So basically rare events carry more information

## ③ Average of Information is Entropy (H):

④

The expected value of information wrt any event  $(x)$  averaged over all values  $(x)$  can attain is Entropy  $(H)$ .

This is the expected value of  $[\log p(x)]$  wrt  $p(x)$ .

$$H = - \sum p(x) \log p(x)$$

Summation over all  $x$ 's

Probability of that  $(x)$  to happen

Information Content in any  $(x)$

④ KL-Divergence (KL-Div): In order to compute the similarity between two distributions say  $(p)$  and  $(q)$  KL-Div  $(p || q)$  can be used defined as the KL-Div of  $(q)$  distribution wrt  $(p)$ .

(i) Entropy of  $(q)$  - Entropy of  $(p)$

Amount of information in  $(q)$  distribution

Amount of information in  $(p)$  distribution

$$-\sum q(x) \log q(x) + \sum p(x) \log p(x)$$

This expectation wrt  $q(x)$

This expectation is wrt  $p(x)$

KL-Div is almost this except that the expectation is always computed wrt  $p(x)$  as KL-Div is wrt  $p(x)$



$$(ii) \quad -\sum p(x) \log q(x) + \sum p(x) \log p(x)$$

(5)

↓  
This is the Cross entropy  
between  $(p)$  and  $(q)$   
distributions.

↓  
This is (the)  
entropy of  
 $(p)$  distribution

Now both  
expectations are  
wrt  $p(x)$

Hence,

KL-Div  $(p(x)|q(x))$  can be formally defined as the difference  
between average information of  $q(x)$  wrt  $p(x)$  and that  
of  $p(x)$  wrt  $p(x)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{KL-Div}(p(x)|q(x)) &= -\sum p(x) \log q(x) + \sum p(x) \log p(x) \\ &= \sum p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \\ &= -\sum p(x) \log \frac{q(x)}{p(x)} \end{aligned}$$

⊛ KL-Div is not Symmetric as  $\text{KL-Div}(p|q) \neq \text{KL-Div}(q|p)$

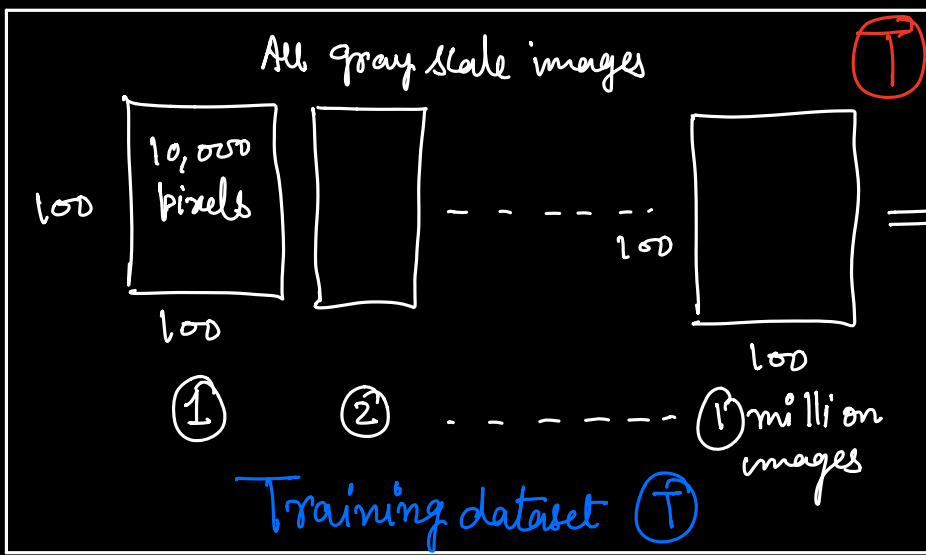
⊛  $\text{KL-Div} \geq 0$  it is always +ve  
and b/w (0 & 1)

↳ Hence it is  
a distance measure  
b/w a divergence.

$$\therefore \text{KL-Div}(q(z)||p(z|x)) = -\sum q(z) \log \frac{p(z|x)}{q(z)}$$

(we will Come back  
to this.)

6



Let us assume that we have a very complex and huge training dataset  $T$  of 1 million images of size  $100 \times 100 = 10,000$  pixels per image.

Each image can be seen as 10K pixels each being sampled independently from  $\{0-255\}$ . Hence there can be  $(256)^{10,000}$  possible such images. Very big.

But any  $100 \times 100$  image is not just any random 2D matrix and all gray values are not equiprobable at each location. In an image pixel's have dependence, specific gray level co-occurrences patterns.

We are assuming this pixel by pixel image sampling (i.e gray value selection) experiment as a stochastic process and can be modeled using random variable.

Collection of random variables where each of them uniquely associated with an element in the set

$\therefore P(x) = P(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_{10,000})$  Joint Probability distribution

Depending upon our training dataset  $T$ , we wanted to estimate  $P_\theta(x)$  where  $P_\theta(x) = \text{Probability of } (x \in T)$ , with the distribution parameterized over  $[\theta]$ .

$\theta^* = \arg \max_{\theta} [P(x \in T)]$  minimizing the loss.

But why we are interested to compute  $P_\theta(x)$

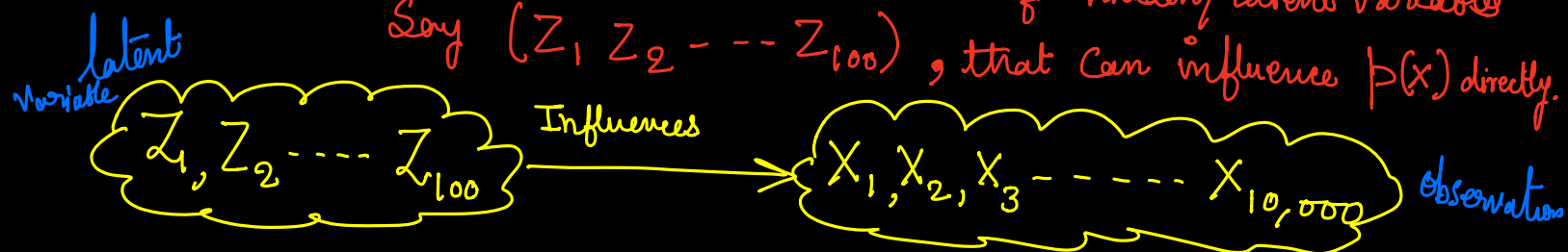
- (a) Classification: Helps us to discriminate b/w images that are coming from (T) or test.
- (b) Generative modeling: It can help us to sample new/unseen  $x_i^s$  from  $P_\theta(x)$  distribution that are not even present. Such as non-trivial views, poses, interpolation b/w 2 views/poses.

For this image sampling experiment  $p(x) = p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{10,000})$  is multivariate probability distribution. If we estimate it we know how to sample a new image (basically 10,000 values) from this joint distribution.

But such probability distribution estimation is intractable and very complex.

$$p(x) = p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{10,000}) = p(x_1) \cdot p(x_2|x_1) \cdot p(x_3|x_1, x_2) \cdot \dots \cdot p(x_n|x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1})$$

- Computation is infeasible.
  - Since  $(x)$  is an image these  $x_i^s$  are not independent
  - There is huge amount of dependency between random variables,  $(x_i^s)$
- we can assume another set of hidden/latent variables  
Say  $(z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{100})$ , that can influence  $p(x)$  directly.



Now our observation  $(x)$  got dependent upon latent variables  $(z)$

Basically, our image ( $x$ ), got influenced by few factors ( $z$ ), such as pose, illumination, noise ---.

external parameters

Since dimensions of ( $z$ ) is far lesser than ( $x$ ) it is easier to get hold of  $p_\theta(x)$  via ( $z$ )

for example our line dataset, length, color, angle, width ---