# Variational Autoencoder Mathematics

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### Introduction

The Variational Autoencoder (aka VAE) is a generative model. This means that it is a model which produces new unseen data. Unlike the normal Autoencoder, VAE focuses on understanding the distribution of a smaller representation of the data. This lower-dimensional representation of the data is known as "latent vector z".

The dimension of the latent vector z is a hyperparameter which we choose along with the architecture of the Network. Keep in mind that we don't want z to be too large. It should be a relatively small vector, so that an information bottleneck is created. One other reason for z being small, is that we want to be able to sample easily new vectors, without having to take into consideration many features.

With that said, the question arises: How can we pick the values of z which will make sense, that is, which will generate a new data point from the distribution of our original data?

Here is the beauty of the **Variational Autoencoder**: We will learn the distribution of **z**. That is, for every component of **z**, we will learn a mean and a standard deviation.

Suppose  $\mathbf{z}$  has k components:

$$z = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_k \end{bmatrix}$$

Then, the mean and standard deviation vectors are defined as:

$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mu_k \end{bmatrix}, \quad \sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ \sigma_2 \\ \vdots \\ \sigma_k \end{bmatrix}$$

Our goal is to learn the  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  vectors in order to be able to sample **z** as follows

$$z = \mu + \epsilon \odot \sigma$$

where  $\epsilon \sim N(0,1)$  is a gaussian with mean 0 and standard deviation 1.

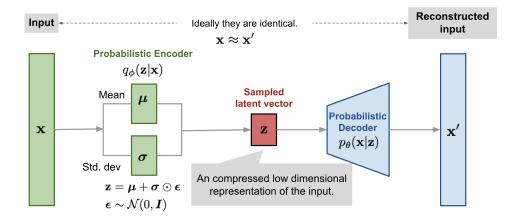


Figure 1: This picture demonstrates the architecture of a Variational Autoencoder. The input  $\mathbf{x}$  gets fed in a Probabilistic Encoder  $q_{\phi}(z|x)$ , which in turns connects with the  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  layers. Note that usually there is a encoder Network before the mean and std layers, but here in the figure it is ommitted. Then, they sample  $\mathbf{z}$  which in turn is fed to the Probabilistic Decoder  $p_{\theta}(x|z)$ . The result is then fed to an output layer which represents the reconstructed input data. The original picture can be found here.

### Brief Explanation of architecture

The architecture of a **VAE** is briefly portrayed in Figure 1. Let's take a closer look in each part:

- 1. The encoder part consists of a Probabilistic Encoder  $q_{\phi}(z|x)$ . Given some parameters  $\phi$  (which are parameters of the model),  $q_{\phi}(z|x)$  models the probability of obtaining the latent vector  $\mathbf{z}$  given input data  $\mathbf{x}$ . Afterwards, it connects to the  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  layers, as there might a whole encoder network before those.
- 2. The latent vector **z**.
- 3. The decoder part which consists of a Probabilistic Decoder  $p_{\theta}(x|z)$ . As with the probabilistic encoder, given some parameters  $\theta$  which are parameters of the model, we want to learn the probability of obtaining a data point  $\mathbf{x}$  given a latent vector  $\mathbf{z}$ .
- 4. The reconstructed input  $\hat{x}$ .

## Loss function

The loss function of the VAE is:

$$L(\theta, \phi, x) = -E_{z \sim Q_{\phi}(z|x)} [\log(P(x|z))] + D_{KL} [Q_{\phi}(z|x) || P(z)]$$

It may seem daunting at first, but if we break it down into pieces then it gets much simpler.

### KL-Divergence and multivariate Normal Distribution

Let's start by explaining what the second term of the loss function is. The Kullback Leiber Divergence, also known as Relative Entropy, is a measure of similarity between two probability distributions. It is denoted by  $D_{KL}(\cdot || \cdot)$ , its unit of measure it called **nat** and it can computed by the formula (for discrete probability distributions):

$$D_{KL}(P \parallel Q) = \sum_{x} P(x) \log \left( \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} \right)$$
 (1)

Of course, this implies that  $D_{KL}(P || Q) \neq D_{KL}(Q || P)$ .

Now, let's suppose that both P, Q are multivariate normal distributions with means  $\mu_1, \mu_2$  and covariance matrices  $\Sigma_1, \Sigma_2$ :

$$P(x) = N(x; \mu_1, \Sigma_1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^k |\Sigma_1|}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_1)^T \Sigma_1^{-1}(x-\mu_1)}$$

$$Q(x) = N(x; \mu_2, \Sigma_2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^k |\Sigma_2|}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_2)^T \Sigma_2^{-1}(x-\mu_2)}$$

where k is the magnitude (length) of vector x. Hence

$$\log(P(x)) = \log\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^k |\Sigma_1|}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_1)^T \Sigma_1^{-1}(x-\mu_1)}\right)$$

$$= \log\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^k |\Sigma_1|}}\right) + \log\left(e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_1)^T \Sigma_1^{-1}(x-\mu_1)}\right)$$

$$= -\frac{k}{2}\log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2}\log(|\Sigma_1|) - \frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_1)^T \Sigma_1^{-1}(x-\mu_1)$$

Following the exact same steps, we also get that

$$\log(Q(x)) = -\frac{k}{2}\log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2}\log(|\Sigma_2|) - \frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_2)^T \Sigma_2^{-1}(x - \mu_2)$$

With the help of the above equalities, expanding (1) yields:

$$D_{KL}(P \| Q) = \sum_{x} P(x) \left[ \log(P(x)) - \log(Q(x)) \right]$$

$$= \sum_{x} P(x) \left[ \frac{1}{2} \log \left( \frac{|\Sigma_{2}|}{|\Sigma_{1}|} \right) - \frac{1}{2} (x - \mu_{1})^{T} \Sigma_{1}^{-1} (x - \mu_{1}) + \frac{1}{2} (x - \mu_{2})^{T} \Sigma_{2}^{-1} (x - \mu_{2}) \right]$$

We can rewrite the above term an an Expectation over P:

$$D_{KL}(P \parallel Q) = E_P \left[ \frac{1}{2} \log \left( \frac{|\Sigma_2|}{|\Sigma_1|} \right) - \frac{1}{2} (x - \mu_1)^T \Sigma_1^{-1} (x - \mu_1) + \frac{1}{2} (x - \mu_2)^T \Sigma_2^{-1} (x - \mu_2) \right]$$

Since the logarithmic term is independent of x, we can move it outside the expectation. This leaves us with

$$D_{KL}(P \| Q) = \frac{1}{2} \log \left( \frac{|\Sigma_2|}{|\Sigma_1|} \right) - \frac{1}{2} E_P \left[ (x - \mu_1)^T \Sigma_1^{-1} (x - \mu_1) \right] + \frac{1}{2} E_P \left[ (x - \mu_2)^T \Sigma_2^{-1} (x - \mu_2) \right]$$
(2)

Let's now try to simplify the 2nd and 3rd terms of the above expression.

First, we have to recall the trace function and some of its properties. The trace of a square matrix A, denoted as tr(A), is the sum of the elements along the main diagonal of A. The properties of the trace function which we will need are:

- 1. Trace of scalar: Considering the scalar as a  $1 \times 1$  matrix, gives: x = tr(x)
- 2. Trace of Expectation: From 1:  $E[x] = E[tr(x)] \Rightarrow tr(E[x]) = E[tr(x)]$
- 3. Cyclic Property: tr(ABC) = tr(CAB)

Having these properties in mind, we are now ready to simplify the expectation terms computed before during the simplification of the KL Divergence.

• Term 2. Note that the matrix multiplications inside the expectation reduces to a scalar value.

$$E_{P}\left[(x-\mu_{1})^{T}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}(x-\mu_{1})\right] \stackrel{\text{(1)}}{=} E_{P}\left[tr\left((x-\mu_{1})^{T}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}(x-\mu_{1})\right)\right]$$

$$\stackrel{\text{(3)}}{=} E_{P}\left[tr\left((x-\mu_{1})(x-\mu_{1})^{T}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}\right)\right]$$

$$\stackrel{\text{(2)}}{=} tr\left(E_{P}\left[(x-\mu_{1})(x-\mu_{1})^{T}\Sigma_{1}^{-1}\right]\right)$$

 $\Sigma_1^{-1}$  is independent from the expectation over P, so it can be moved outside, giving:

$$E_P[(x-\mu_1)^T \Sigma_1^{-1} (x-\mu_1)] = tr(E_P[(x-\mu_1)(x-\mu_1)^T] \Sigma_1^{-1})$$

But the term  $E_P[(x-\mu_1)(x-\mu_1)^T]$  is equal to the Covariance Matrix  $\Sigma_1$ , thus yielding

$$E_P[(x-\mu_1)^T \Sigma_1^{-1}(x-\mu_1)] = tr(\Sigma_1 \Sigma_1^{-1}) = tr(I_k) = k$$
 (3)

• Term 3. Again, the term inside the expectation reduces to a scalar.

$$E_P[(x-\mu_2)^T\Sigma_2^{-1}(x-\mu_2)]$$

Add and subtract  $\mu_1$ :

$$= E_{P} \left[ \left[ (x - \mu_{1}) + (\mu_{1} - \mu_{2}) \right]^{T} \Sigma_{2}^{-1} \left[ (x - \mu_{1}) + (\mu_{1} - \mu_{2}) \right] \right]$$

$$= E_{P} \left[ \left[ (x - \mu_{1})^{T} + (\mu_{1} - \mu_{2})^{T} \right] \Sigma_{2}^{-1} \left[ (x - \mu_{1}) + (\mu_{1} - \mu_{2}) \right] \right]$$

$$(A^{T} + B^{T}) C (A + B) = A^{T} C A + A^{T} C B + B^{T} C A + B^{T} B :$$

$$= E_{P} \left[ (x - \mu_{1})^{T} \Sigma_{2}^{-1} (x - \mu_{1}) + (x - \mu_{1})^{T} \Sigma_{2}^{-1} (\mu_{1} - \mu_{2}) + (\mu_{1} - \mu_{2})^{T} \Sigma_{2}^{-1} (x - \mu_{1}) + (\mu_{1} - \mu_{2})^{T} \Sigma_{2}^{-1} (\mu_{1} - \mu_{2}) \right]$$

$$A^{T} C B = B^{T} C A :$$

$$= E_{P} \left[ (x - \mu_{1})^{T} \Sigma_{2}^{-1} (x - \mu_{1}) + 2(x - \mu_{1})^{T} \Sigma_{2}^{-1} (\mu_{1} - \mu_{2}) + (\mu_{1} - \mu_{2})^{T} \Sigma_{2}^{-1} (\mu_{1} - \mu_{2}) \right]$$

Taking the expectation over each term individually:

$$E_P [(x - \mu_2)^T \Sigma_2^{-1} (x - \mu_2)] = E_P [(x - \mu_1)^T \Sigma_2^{-1} (x - \mu_1)] +$$

$$E_P [2(x - \mu_1)^T \Sigma_2^{-1} (\mu_1 - \mu_2)] +$$

$$E_P [(\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T \Sigma_2^{-1} (\mu_1 - \mu_2)]$$

 The first sub-term has the same derivation as the first term from before:

$$E_P[(x-\mu_1)^T \Sigma_2^{-1} (x-\mu_1)] = tr(\Sigma_1 \Sigma_2^{-1})$$

– The second sub-term is equal to 0 due to the expectation over  $(x - \mu_1)^T$ . Specifically, the factor  $\Sigma_2^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_2)$  can be moved out of the expectation as it is a constant:

$$E_P \left[ 2(x - \mu_1)^T \Sigma_2^{-1} (\mu_1 - \mu_2) \right] = 2E_P \left[ (x - \mu_1)^T \right] \Sigma_2^{-1} (\mu_1 - \mu_2)$$
$$= 0_k \Sigma_2^{-1} (\mu_1 - \mu_2)$$
$$= 0$$

 The third sub-term is the expectation of a constant, so it is equal to the constant itself:

$$E_P[(\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T \Sigma_2^{-1} (\mu_1 - \mu_2)] = (\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T \Sigma_2^{-1} (\mu_1 - \mu_2)$$

These simplifications leave us with:

$$E_P[(x-\mu_2)^T \Sigma_2^{-1} (x-\mu_2)] = tr(\Sigma_1 \Sigma_2^{-1}) + (\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T \Sigma_2^{-1} (\mu_1 - \mu_2)$$
(4)

Finally, formula (2) for the KL-Divergence can be ultimately simplified using equations (3), (4) to:

$$D_{KL}(P \| Q) = \frac{1}{2} \log \left( \frac{|\Sigma_2|}{|\Sigma_1|} \right) + k + tr(\Sigma_1 \Sigma_2^{-1}) + (\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T \Sigma_2^{-1} (\mu_1 - \mu_2)$$
(5)