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 μ and σ 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.

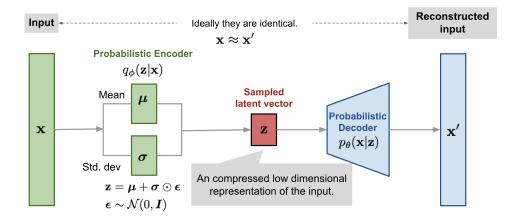


Figure 1: This picture demonstrates the architecture of a Variational Autoencoder. The input \mathbf{x} gets fed in a Probabilistic Encoder $q_{\phi}(z|x)$, which in turns connects with the μ and σ layers. Note that usually there is a encoder Network before the mean and std layers, but here in the figure 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 ϕ (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 μ and σ 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 θ 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:

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

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 continuous probability distributions P, Q):

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

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 μ_1, μ_2 and covariance matrices Σ_1, Σ_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:

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

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

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

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

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 1×1 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 reduce to a scalar value.

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

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

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

 Σ_1^{-1} is independent from the expectation over P, so it can be moved outside, thus 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 Σ_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 μ_1 :

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

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

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

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

Taking the expectation over each term individually:

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

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

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

$$E_{P}[(\mu_{1}-\mu_{2})^{T}\Sigma_{2}^{-1}(\mu_{1}-\mu_{2})]$$

 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 and third sub-terms are 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:

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

$$= 0_{k}\Sigma_{2}^{-1}(\mu_{1}-\mu_{2}) = 0$$

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

$$= \Sigma_{2}^{-1}(\mu_{1}-\mu_{2}) 0_{k} = 0$$

 The fourth 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:

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

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