

TODO

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1 Critical analysis

1.1 Introduction

TODO Titsias and Ruiz [19] introduce Unbiased Implicit Variational Inference (UIVI) as a variational inference method that allows for a flexible variational family and that addresses the issues of the methods that it is built on. In this analysis, we summarize the work of Titsias and Ruiz [19] in the context of the literature and critically examine the strengths and limitations of UIVI. This analysis is organized as follows: Section 1.2 introduces the problem context and previous work; Section 1.3 describes how UIVI works, how it addresses the limitations of previous methods, and its own limitations; and Section 1.4 highlights related work in the recent literature and discusses the general direction that the literature is moving towards.

1.2 Context and previous work

Variational inference (VI) [5] is a Bayesian inference method that formulates the problem of finding the posterior distribution $p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$ of latent variables \mathbf{z} given data \mathbf{x} as an optimization problem. VI posits a variational family $\mathcal{Q} = \{q_\theta\}$ of distributions indexed by variational parameters θ and aims to approximate the posterior distribution by some simpler variational distribution $q_\theta(\mathbf{z}) \in \mathcal{Q}$. In standard VI, the selected distribution q_θ is the one that minimizes the Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence of q_θ and $p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$ or equivalently, the one that maximizes the evidence lower bound (ELBO) denoted as

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{q_\theta(\mathbf{z})} [\log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) - \log q_\theta(\mathbf{z})] .$$

To maximize the ELBO, standard VI places strong restrictions on the choice of the model and the variational family in order to allow the use of a coordinate ascent algorithm. These restrictions include (1) a mean-field assumption where the latent variables \mathbf{z} are marginally independent and the variational distribution factorizes as $q_\theta(\mathbf{z}) = \prod_{i=1}^d q_{\theta_i}(\mathbf{z}_i)$ and (2) the model has conjugate conditionals where $p(\mathbf{z}_i)$ and $p(\mathbf{z}_i|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}_{-i})$ are from the same distribution family.

A major development from standard VI was black box VI (BBVI) [13] which relaxed the restrictive assumptions by optimizing the ELBO using a different approach. By rewriting the ELBO gradient in terms of an expectation, the gradient could be estimated via Monte Carlo approaches. Exchanging the above assumptions for the different assumption that one can sample from the variational distribution $q_\theta(\mathbf{z})$ expanded the possibilities for the choice of the variational family. One such proposed family was the hierarchical variational model (HVM) [14] containing distributions of the form $q_\theta(\mathbf{z}) = \int q_\theta(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})q_\theta(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$. An advantage of these hierarchical distributions over other variational distributions is the ease in being able to model marginal dependencies between latent variables (which the mean-field family could not) through the mixing distribution $q_\theta(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$.

Further pushing the assumption that one only needs to be able to sample from the variational distribution, one development in the hierarchical variational model literature was the incorporation of implicit distributions [9] in various forms. Without needing to evaluate the density of the implicit distribution, flexible models such as normalizing flows [16] and deep neural networks could be leveraged to expand the modeling capacity of the variational family. Using implicit distributions came at a cost of making the log density ratio in the ELBO intractable. Density ratio estimation is one approach for tackling this problem [e.g., 4, 9], but it is known to struggle in high-dimensional regimes [18].

The method that predates UIVI and that was proposed to address the challenges of using implicit distributions in hierarchical variational models is semi-implicit VI (SIVI) [20]. SIVI requires the variational conditional $q_\theta(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = q(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$ to be reparameterizable [6] and explicit and requires the mixing distribution $q_\theta(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$ also to be reparameterizable but possibly implicit. SIVI then avoids the density ratio estimation problem by instead optimizing a lower bound for the ELBO that is only exact as the number of samples in each iteration goes to infinity [10, 20].

1.3 Current work

Titsias and Ruiz [19] propose UIVI as an alternative to SIVI that directly maximizes the ELBO as an objective rather than a surrogate lower bound. The idea is that doing so leads to a tighter ELBO bound and therefore ideally faster convergence to the solution.

1.3.1 Unbiased implicit variational inference

Like SIVI, UIVI starts with a hierarchical variational model setup where the variational distribution is

$$q_\theta(\mathbf{z}) = \int q_\theta(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})q(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}.$$

UIVI requires the variational conditional $q_\theta(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$ to be reparameterizable, i.e., that any sample $\mathbf{z} \sim q_\theta(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$ can be rewritten as

$$\mathbf{z} = h_\theta(\mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) := h_{\psi=g_\theta(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})}(\mathbf{u})$$

where h_ψ is some deterministic function with parameters ψ that are the output of some function g_θ that depends on variational parameters θ and input $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$. To sample from $q_\theta(\mathbf{z})$, noise variables $\mathbf{u} \sim q(\mathbf{u})$ and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \sim q(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$ are first sampled from fixed auxiliary distributions and then fed through h_θ . UIVI also requires that $q_\theta(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$ and its log-gradient $\nabla_{\mathbf{z}} \log q_\theta(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$ can be evaluated, which holds for common reparameterizable distributions such as Gaussian.

Under these assumptions, the ELBO can be rewritten as an expectation with respect to the noise distributions $q(\mathbf{u})$ and $q(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$, and its gradient can be decomposed into two terms given by

$$\nabla_\theta \mathcal{L}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})q(\mathbf{u})} \left[\nabla_{\mathbf{z}} \log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \Big|_{\mathbf{z}=h_\theta(\mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{\varepsilon})} \nabla_\theta h_\theta(\mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) \right] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})q(\mathbf{u})} \left[\nabla_{\mathbf{z}} \log q(\mathbf{z}) \Big|_{\mathbf{z}=h_\theta(\mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{\varepsilon})} \nabla_\theta h_\theta(\mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) \right].$$

The first expectation can be estimated using samples from $q(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$ and $q(\mathbf{u})$ while the second expectation is more difficult as $\nabla_{\mathbf{z}} \log q(\mathbf{z})$ may not be computable if $q(\mathbf{z})$ is implicit. The first key trick in UIVI is to rewrite the gradient in the second term as an expectation given by

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{z}} \log q(\mathbf{z}) = \mathbb{E}_{q_\theta(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}|\mathbf{z})} [\nabla_{\mathbf{z}} \log q_\theta(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})]$$

which then allows for Monte Carlo estimation using samples from $q_\theta(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}|\mathbf{z}) \propto q_\theta(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})q(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$. A Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampler is used to sample from $q_\theta(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}|\mathbf{z})$, and the second key trick in UIVI is to reuse the sample $(\mathbf{z}_i, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i)$ used to estimate the outer expectation as an initial point in the MCMC sampler. As the initial point is a sample from the same joint distribution $q_\theta(\mathbf{z}, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$, no burn-in is necessary and the only purpose of the MCMC is to break the dependence between samples used to estimate the inner and outer expectations. Thus, the gradient of the ELBO is estimated by

$$\widehat{\nabla}_\theta \mathcal{L}(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\nabla_{\mathbf{z}} \log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \Big|_{\mathbf{z}=h_\theta(\mathbf{u}_i; \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i)} - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m \nabla_{\mathbf{z}} \log q_\theta(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'_j) \Big|_{\mathbf{z}=h_\theta(\mathbf{u}_i; \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i)} \right) \nabla_\theta h_\theta(\mathbf{u}_i; \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i)$$

where $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i \sim q(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$, $\mathbf{u}_i \sim q(\mathbf{u})$, $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'_j \sim q_\theta(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}|\mathbf{z})$ and with $n = 1$, $m = 5$ said to be used in practice.

1.3.2 Other contributions

Aside from the UIVI algorithm, other contributions of the paper by Titsias and Ruiz [19] include the empirical evaluations of UIVI on synthetic and benchmark datasets. Using a Gaussian conditional with a neural network for the mean parameter, Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (HMC) for the MCMC estimation of the ELBO gradient, and otherwise a fairly standard setup, UIVI is shown to be able to visually approximate various synthetic 2D distributions. Under a similar setup, UIVI is shown to be able to achieve better predictive performance than SIVI on the MNIST and HAPT [15] datasets while being comparable in terms of time per iteration. Finally, Titsias and Ruiz [19] show that using a semi-implicit variational distribution in a variational autoencoder (VAE) [6], UIVI achieves a greater marginal log-likelihood on the test set compared to standard VAE and SIVI on the MNIST and Fashion-MNIST datasets.

1.3.3 Limitations

The paper by Titsias and Ruiz [19] has a few limitations. The main limitation is the lack of theoretical guarantees for the performance and convergence of UIVI. However, this is a common problem across the VI literature and generally stems from the challenge of analyzing general purpose methods that may include intractable and non-analytic components. **TODO**other limitations?

In terms of UIVI itself, related work published after UIVI reported limitations in scalability to the number of latent parameters [8, 11]. This is likely a consequence of the stochastic optimization of the ELBO as well as the use of MCMC, for both of which the number of samples needed to provide a reasonable estimate of a mean grow quickly with the number of dimensions. Using MCMC may also lead to higher variance in the ELBO gradient estimates [1]. **TODO**other issues with MCMC? non-parallelizable ([17])?

TODOlabel switching issues with mixtures?

1.4 Other related work

While UIVI was proposed as an improved alternative to SIVI, there does not appear to be follow-up work in the literature that directly extends UIVI. As mentioned in the previous section, the inefficiency of MCMC in high-dimensional regimes is often cited as the main problem of UIVI [8, 11]. It appears that rather than trying to address this issue in UIVI, recent work in the literature tend to start with SIVI and propose methods that either improve the quality of approximation or let it scale more efficiently to high dimensions.

Several strategies for improving the SIVI approximation have been proposed in the literature around the time of or after the work by Titsias and Ruiz [19]. Molchanov et al. [10] proposed *doubly* SIVI (DSIVI) that expands the flexibility of standard SIVI by allowing both the posterior and prior to be semi-implicit. Sobolev and Vetrov [17] introduced *importance weighted hierarchical* VI (IWHVI), which optimizes a SIVI-like lower bound that incorporates elements from the bound used in importance weighted autoencoders [2]. SIVI, DSIVI and HVM can be seen as special cases of IWHVI and so the bound in IWHVI has the capacity to result in a tighter lower bound [17].

Recent work in the literature have focused more on improving the scalability of SIVI to high dimensions. Molchanova et al. [11] proposed *structured* SIVI where the high-dimensional semi-implicit distribution is assumed to factorize into low-dimensional semi-implicit distributions. Moens et al. [8] introduced *compositional implicit* VI, which integrates various mechanisms into SIVI including an adaptive solver for addressing the bias in the SIVI objective and sketch-based approximations that keeps the method computationally practical for high-dimensional regimes.

Though the majority of developments in the related literature are methodological, there have been some recent forays on the more theoretical side that attempt to provide statistical guarantees and insights for implicit VI. In particular, Plummer et al. [12] derive posterior contraction results for simple *non-linear latent variable models* by drawing connections to Gaussian convolutions. The NL-LVM has a structure that can be seen as a particular choice of the reparameterization and mixing distributions in UIVI, and so we suspect that this work may provide a reasonable starting point for a theoretical analysis of UIVI.

2 Project report

TODOtitle

Abstract

TODO

2.1 Introduction

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To approximate $p(z|x)$, UIVI posits the variational family \mathcal{Q} of distributions of the form

$$q_\theta(z) = \int q_\theta(z|\epsilon) q(\epsilon) \lambda(d\epsilon) .$$

where the variational conditional $q_\theta(z|\epsilon)$ is reparameterizable and explicit, but the dependency on θ can be arbitrarily complex. UIVI also requires that the log-gradient $\nabla_z \log q_\theta(z|\epsilon)$ can be evaluated.

2.2 Notation

TODO ϕ_σ density of $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_d)$. Overload distribution and density. λ Lebesgue measure on $[0, 1]$. Borel σ -algebra of \mathbb{R} by \mathcal{B} . $C^\beta(\mathcal{Z})$ β -Hölder. $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ supremum norm

2.3 Quality of approximation

Titsias and Ruiz [19] empirically show that UIVI is seemingly able to match the implicit variational distribution to various synthetic datasets and is able to better approximate several models compared to SIVI. However, they do not provide theoretical guarantees nor quantify the quality of the UIVI approximation. In this section, we show that under certain assumptions and choices of the reparameterization and mixing distribution, UIVI is able to approximate the true posterior arbitrarily closely. We do so using similar arguments that Plummer et al. [12] made for non-linear latent variable models (NL-LVM). Following their work, we assume that z is a continuous, univariate latent variable. We leave other cases for future work due to time constraints on this project.

Consider the UIVI variational family induced by the following choices of the reparameterization and mixing distribution. We take a potentially multivariate mixing distribution of the form $q(\epsilon) = \prod_{i=1}^d q(\epsilon_i)$ where $q(\epsilon_i) = \text{Unif}(0, 1)$ for $i = 1, \dots, d$, $d \geq 1$. Let the variational conditional $q_{\theta, \sigma}(z|\epsilon)$ be univariate Gaussian with mean $\mu_\theta(\epsilon)$ and variance σ^2 where $\mu_\theta : [0, 1]^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is some arbitrarily complex function. Note that we keep the variational parameters θ and σ separate for reasons that will be clear shortly. This distribution is reparameterizable through the form

$$z = h_{\theta, \sigma}(u; \epsilon) = \mu_\theta(\epsilon) + \sigma u$$

where $u \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$. Furthermore, its log-density and its gradient are given by

$$\begin{aligned} \log q_{\theta, \sigma}(z|\epsilon) &= -\frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (z - \mu_\theta(\epsilon))^2 , \\ \nabla_z \log q_{\theta, \sigma}(z|\epsilon) &= -\frac{1}{\sigma^2} (z - \mu_\theta(\epsilon)) . \end{aligned}$$

The above properties suggest that the variational family induced by these choices satisfy the UIVI requirements. Note that the form of $h_{\theta, \sigma}$ also resembles the NL-LVM studied by Plummer et al. [12], which allows

us to apply their results with slight modifications.

To study the approximation capability of this model, the key insight of Plummer et al. [12] is that $q_{\theta,\sigma}(z)$ has the form of a convolution with a Gaussian kernel, that is,

$$\begin{aligned} q_{\theta,\sigma}(z) &= \int_0^1 q_{\theta,\sigma}(z|\varepsilon) q(\varepsilon) \lambda(d\varepsilon) \\ &= \int_0^1 \phi_\sigma(z - \mu_\theta(\varepsilon)) \lambda(d\varepsilon) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \phi_\sigma(z - t) \nu_{\mu_\theta}(dt) \end{aligned}$$

where $\nu_{\mu_\theta}(B) = \lambda(\mu_\theta^{-1}(B))$, $B \in \mathcal{B}$, is the image measure of λ under μ_θ . Using the approximation property of Gaussian convolutions, we characterize the relationship between the true posterior and the variational family through the following proposition.

Proposition 1. *Let \mathcal{Q}_σ denote the variational family described above indexed by the standard deviation σ of $q_{\theta,\sigma}(z|\varepsilon)$. Suppose that $\mu_\theta(t) = F_{z|x}^{-1}(t)$ for all $t \in [0, 1]$. Then $p(z|x) \in \mathcal{Q}_0$.*

Proof. If $\mu_\theta(t) = F_{z|x}^{-1}(t)$ for all $t \in [0, 1]$, then $q_{\theta,\sigma}(z) = \phi_\sigma * p(z|x)$. The result immediately follows using the property of Gaussian convolutions that $\phi_\sigma * p(z|x) \rightarrow p(z|x)$ pointwise as $\sigma \rightarrow 0$. \square

Proposition 1 says that if the inverse CDF $F_{z|x}^{-1}$ is in the set of functions $\{\mu_\theta : \theta \in \Theta\}$ that can be modeled by μ_θ , then the true posterior $p(z|x)$ is a limiting member of the sequence of best approximations by this variational family as the bandwidth σ of the Gaussian kernel shrinks to zero. While this result suggests that the true posterior is not in the variation family for $\sigma > 0$, it does imply that for any measure of error, we can choose σ such that the best approximation will be close to the true posterior within a desired tolerance level. What this result does not address is whether we are able to achieve the best approximation for a given σ in practice. This depends on whether our optimization procedure is able to identify the correct θ such that $\mu_\theta = F_{z|x}^{-1}$. **TODO**future work?

TODOthe results below seem to be leading towards posterior contraction; proposition 2 isn't a result about $q_{\theta,\sigma}(z)$. Theorem 3.1 may still be relevant?

We can further quantify the quality of the approximation by $q_{\theta,\sigma}(z)$ if we make assumptions about the smoothness of $p(z|x)$ and its support. Following Plummer et al. [12], we make the following assumptions.

Assumption 1. $\log p(z|x) \in C^\beta([0, 1])$. Define $l_j(z_0) = \nabla_z^j \log p(z|x)|_{z=z_0}$ for $j = 1, \dots, r$ with $r = \lfloor \beta \rfloor$. For any $\beta > 0$, there exists a constant $L > 0$ such that for all $z_1 \neq z_2$,

$$|l_r(z_1) - l_r(z_2)| \leq L|z_1 - z_2|^{\beta-r}.$$

Assumption 2. $p(z|x)$ has compact support on $[0, 1]$. There exists some interval $[z_1, z_2] \subset [0, 1]$ such that $p(z|x)$ is non-decreasing on $[0, z_1]$, non-zero on $[z_1, z_2]$, and non-increasing on $[z_2, 1]$.

Assumption 1 says that the derivatives of $\log p(z|x)$ up to order r are β -Hölder continuous, implying that $\log p(z|x)$ is smooth to an extent. The proofs of Kruijer et al. [7] and Plummer et al. [12] rely heavily on the assumed smoothness in order to ensure that the error between the target distribution and an approximating convolution can be bounded. Assumption 2 says that the mass of $p(z|x)$ is concentrated in some compact interval of z and that the tails of $p(z|x)$ outside this interval can be bounded above. This allows the approximation error in the tails to be bounded even as the convolution bandwidth shrinks, and so an analysis of the error only needs to focus on the closed interval in which the mass is concentrated. Plummer et al. [12] appear to specify an interval of $[0, 1]$ for analytical convenience, whereas the intervals in similar assumptions made by Ghosal et al. [3] feature arbitrary finite endpoints.

Under Assumptions 1 and 2, Plummer et al. [12] follow the work of Kruijer et al. [7] and consider a sequence of functions $\{p_j\}_{j \geq 0}$ constructed through an iterative procedure given by

$$\begin{aligned} p_{j+1}(z|x) &= p(z|x) - \Delta_\sigma p_j(z|x), \\ \Delta_\sigma p_j(z|x) &= \phi_\sigma * p_j(z|x) - p_j(z|x) \end{aligned}$$

with $p_0(z|x) = p(z|x)$. The quality of the approximation is then characterized in terms of the error between the convolution **TODO**

Proposition 2. Suppose that $p(z|x)$ satisfies Assumptions 1 and 2 with $\beta \in (2j, 2j + 2]$. Let $F_{z|x}$ be the cumulative distribution function of the posterior $p(z|x)$. **TODO**fix this If $\mu_\theta(t) = F_{z|x}^{-1}(t)$ for all $t \in [0, 1]$, then

$$\|\phi_\sigma * p_\beta(z|x) - p(z|x)\|_\infty = O(\sigma^\beta)$$

with

$$\phi_\sigma * p_\beta(z|x) = p(z|x) \left(1 + O(\sigma^\beta) \left(\sum_{i=1}^r c_i |l_j(z)|^{\frac{\beta}{i}} + c_{r+1} \right) \right)$$

for non-negative constants c_i , $i = 1, \dots, r + 1$ and $z \in [0, 1]$.

Proof. Suppose that $\mu_\theta(\mathbf{t}) = F_{\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}}^{-1}(\mathbf{t})$ and so $q_\theta(\mathbf{z}) = \phi_\sigma * p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$. Then as $\sigma \rightarrow 0$, $q_\theta(\mathbf{z}) \rightarrow p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$. □

2.4 Variance of gradient

2.5 Discussion

References

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