Variational Autoencoders and Nonlinear ICA: A Unifying Framework

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Gatsby Research Talk

tl;dr

We will learn about:

- ♦ Deep latent variable models and identifiability.
- ♦ Variational autoencoders (VAEs).
- ♦ Nonlinear ICA.
- ♦ How to use VAEs to solve nonlinear ICA.
- \diamond How to use nonlinear ICA to guarantee identifiability of VAEs.

Outline

Introduction

Deep latent Variable models, VAEs and identifiability

Nonlinear ICA

Proposed model

Conclusion

Unsupervised learning

- ♦ Unsupervised learning is a fundamental challenge in machine learning.
- ♦ Important because of the the amount of unlabelled data that exists (labels are expensive!).
- ♦ Deep latent variable models are very popular.

Goals of unsupervised learning

- (i) Learn an accurate model of the data distribution.
 - \rightarrow Variational autoencoders (VAEs), ...
- (ii) Generate new samples from the data distribution.
 - \rightarrow Generative adversarial networks (GANs), VAEs, ...
- (iii) Extract useful features to use for other purposes (e.g.: supervised learning).
 - \rightarrow VAEs, GANs, ICA, and many other methods ...
- (iv) Identify the true latent quantities.
 - \rightarrow ICA.

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 - \rightarrow ICA.

 \Longrightarrow No method seems to achieve all 4 goals, but we can see that VAEs and ICA achieve complementary goals!

Can they be combined in one unifying framework?

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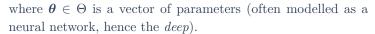
Conclusion

Deep latent variable models

Consider an observed r.v. $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, and a latent r.v. $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

A deep latent variable model (DLVM) commonly has the structure:

$$p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z})$$



The model then gives rise to the observed distribution of the data as:

$$p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}) = \int p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z}$$



Deep latent Variable models

In practice, we assume that we have a dataset of observations of \mathbf{x} :

$$\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(N)}\} \text{ where } \mathbf{z}^{*(i)} \sim p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}^*}(\mathbf{z})$$
$$\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \sim p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}^*}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}^{*(i)})$$

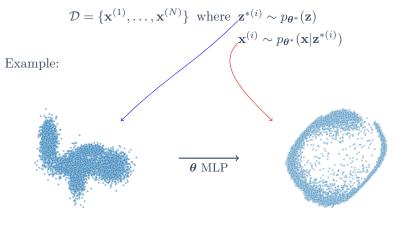
where θ^* are true but unknown parameters of the model. Note that the original values $\mathbf{z}^{*(i)}$ of the latent variables \mathbf{z} are by definition not observed and unknown.

Goal 1: Find a good approximation $\hat{\theta}$ of the true parameter θ^* , based on the observations \mathcal{D} alone.

Goal 2: Recover the latent values $\mathbf{z}^{*(i)}$.

Deep latent Variable models

In practice, we assume that we have a dataset of observations of \mathbf{x} :



mixture of Gaussians

observations

Variational autoencoders

Variational autoencoders [Kingma and Welling, 2013] are a framework that combines a DLVM and an estimation method that simultaneously learns:

- \diamond an estimate $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ of the true parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta}^*$ s.t. $p_{\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}}(\mathbf{x}) \approx p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}^*}(\mathbf{x})$.
- \diamond a variational approximation $q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$ of the posterior $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$.

This is done by maximizing a variational lower bound of the data log-likelihood:

$$\mathbb{E}_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}[\log p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})] \geq \mathbb{E}_{q_{\mathcal{D}}}\left[\mathbb{E}_{q_{\boldsymbol{\phi}}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})}[\log p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) - q_{\boldsymbol{\phi}}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})]\right] := \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\phi})$$

Terminology: $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})$ is called the *decoder*, and $q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$ the *encoder*.

 $\underline{\wedge}$ In general, after training, we learn $(\hat{\theta}, \hat{\phi})$ s.t. the only guarantees are $p_{\hat{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}) \approx p_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{x})$ and $q_{\hat{\phi}}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) \approx p_{\hat{\theta}}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$.

A desired property for a deep latent variable model is *identifiability*, which can be formulated as follows:

$$\forall (\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}', \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) : p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}) = p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}'}(\mathbf{x}) \implies p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}'}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$$

This means that if $p_{\hat{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}) = p_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{x})$, then:

- \diamond the joint densities also match $p_{\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}^*}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$.
- \diamond we learned the correct prior $p_{\hat{\theta}}(\mathbf{z}) = p_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{z})$.
- \diamond we learned the correct posterior $p_{\hat{\theta}}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) = p_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$
- \diamond in the case of VAEs, we can use $q_{\hat{\phi}}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$ to perform inference over the sources \mathbf{z}^* from which the data originates.

The problem is that the identifiability equation doesn't hold for general deep latent variable models!

In general:
$$p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = p_{\theta'}(\mathbf{x}) \implies p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = p_{\theta'}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \ \forall (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$$

Let's illustrate this with a simple example:

$$p(\mathbf{z}) = \mathcal{N}(0, I)$$
 and $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}) = \mathcal{N}(\theta(\mathbf{z}), I)$

Let $\mathbf{z}' = U\mathbf{z}$ for some orthogonal matrix U. Then \mathbf{z} and \mathbf{z}' have the same distribution.

Define
$$\theta'(\mathbf{z}') = \theta(U^T\mathbf{z}')$$
 and $p_{\theta'}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}') = p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}|U^T\mathbf{z}')p(\mathbf{z}')$. Then

$$p_{\theta'}(\mathbf{x}) = \int p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}|\underbrace{U^T \mathbf{z'}}_{=\mathbf{z}}) \underbrace{p(\mathbf{z'}) d\mathbf{z'}}_{=p(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z}} = \int p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}) p(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z} = p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$$

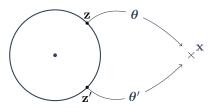
but the posteriors are different, and thus the joint distributions as well.

In general:
$$p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = p_{\theta'}(\mathbf{x}) \implies p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = p_{\theta'}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \ \forall (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$$

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Let $\mathbf{z}' = U\mathbf{z}$ for some orthogonal matrix U. Then \mathbf{z} and \mathbf{z}' have the same distribution.



What about the general case?

Theorem [Hyvärinen and Pajunen, 1999]

Let \mathbf{z} be an n-dimensional random vector of any distribution. Then there exists an invertible transformation $\mathbf{g} : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ such that the distribution of $\mathbf{z}' := \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{z})$ is a standard Gaussian distribution.

- $\diamond \mbox{ We transform any latent variable } \mathbf{z} \mbox{ into a standard Gaussian} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{z}).$
- \diamond We apply an orthogonal transformation U to $\tilde{\mathbf{z}}$.
- \diamond We invert the initial transformation to get $\mathbf{z}' = \mathbf{g}^{-1}(U\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{z}))$ which has the same distribution as \mathbf{z} .

By defining
$$p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}'}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}') = p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{g}^{-1}(U^T\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{z}')))p(\mathbf{z}')$$
, then
$$p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}'}(\mathbf{x}) = \int p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{g}^{-1}(U^T\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{z}')))p(\mathbf{z}')d\mathbf{z}' = \int p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})p(\mathbf{z})d\mathbf{z} = p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})$$

Back to the example: VAEs

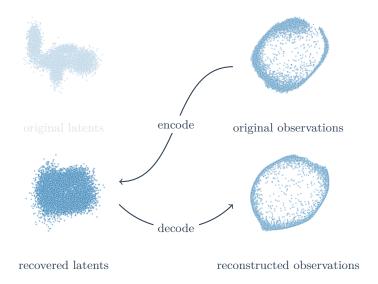






original observations

Back to the example: VAEs



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Nonlinear ICA

In ICA, the independent components of the latent variables $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ are mixed into an observation $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$:

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{z})$$
 and $p(\mathbf{z}) = \prod_{i=1}^{d} p(z_i)$

This is essentially a deterministic deep generative model with degenrate posteriors.

Goal: Recover the original componenets $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{f}^{-1}(\mathbf{x})$ by inverting \mathbf{f} .

The goal of ICA has always been identifiability!

 \wedge This model is also unidentifiable when **f** is nonlinear!

⇒ To solve nonlinear ICA, we have to introduce additional constraints on the latent variables or the model in general.

An identifiable nonlinear ICA model

[Hyvarinen et al., 2019] proposes using an auxiliary variable $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ that controls the independence of the sources: $p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u}) = \prod_i p(z_i|\mathbf{u})$. They prove that the model is identifiable, and use a self-supervised heuristic scheme to recover the latent variables.

Limitations of this approach:

- $\diamond \dim(\mathbf{z}) = \dim(\mathbf{x})$
- \diamond **f** is deterministic, and thus the posteriors are degenerate.
- hard to cross validate.
- no analysis on its statistical efficiency (compared to MLE for example).
- \diamond only recovers the backward model \mathbf{f}^{-1} .

VAEs and nonlinear ICA have complimentary strengths!

Indeterminacies of nonlinear ICA

Nonlinear ICA has indeterminacies that can't be resolved:

- ♦ permutation of the components (similar to linear ICA).
- ⋄ component-wise nonlinear transformations (equivalent to scaling in linear ICA).

These indeterminacies are due to a fundamental ambiguity in the setup of nonlinear ICA and do not represent a limitation of nonlinear ICA algorithms.

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Definition of proposed model 1

Let $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ be two observed r.v., and $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ $(n \leq d)$ a latent variable. Let $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{T}, \boldsymbol{\lambda})$ be the parameters of the following model:

$$p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u}) = p_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})p_{\mathbf{T}, \lambda}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u})$$

where

$$p_{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}) = p_{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{z})), \ \varepsilon \sim p_{\varepsilon} \text{ is a noise r.v., } \varepsilon \perp \{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}\}$$

$$\mathbf{f} \text{ is bijective}$$

This also includes:

- \diamond non-noisy observations when ε is Gaussian and $\mathbb{V}(\varepsilon) \to 0$.
- \diamond discrete observations as a limit of concrete distributions, $\it cf.$ [Maddison et al., 2016].



Definition of proposed model 2

The prior on the latent variables $p_{\mathbf{T},\lambda}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u})$ is a conditionally factorial exponential family:

$$p_{\mathbf{T},\lambda}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p_i(z_i|\mathbf{u}) = \prod_{i} \frac{Q_i(z_i)}{Z_i(\mathbf{u})} \exp \left[\sum_{j=1}^{k} T_{i,j}(z_i) \lambda_{i,j}(\mathbf{u}) \right]$$

where:

- $\diamond Q_i$ is the base measure and $T_{i,j}$ are the components of the sufficient statistic.
- $\diamond Z_i(\mathbf{u})$ is the normalizing constant and $\lambda_{i,j}(\mathbf{u})$ the corresponding parameters, crucially depending on \mathbf{u} .
- \diamond k, the number of components within each exponential family, is fixed (not estimated).

N.b. Exponential families have universal approximation capabilities, so this assumption is not very restrictive [Sriperumbudur et al., 2017].

Estimation by VAEs

Consider we have a dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{ (\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \mathbf{u}^{(1)}), \dots, (\mathbf{x}^{(N)}, \mathbf{u}^{(N)}) \}$ of observations generated according to the generative model above with parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}^* = (\mathbf{f}^*, \mathbf{T}^*, \boldsymbol{\lambda}^*)$.

We use a VAE to learn approximations of θ^* and the intractable posterior $p_{\theta^*}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})$ by maximizing $\mathcal{L}(\theta, \phi)$, a lower bound on the data log-likelihood defined by:

$$\mathbb{E}_{q_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})} \left[\log p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{u}) \right] \ge$$

$$\mathbb{E}_{q_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})} \left[\mathbb{E}_{q_{\boldsymbol{\phi}}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})} \left[\log p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} | \mathbf{u}) - \log q_{\boldsymbol{\phi}}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) \right] \right] := \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\phi})$$

Is the introduced model identifiable? And can it be estimated using VAEs?

We call this model iVAE (identifiable/ica VAE)

Identifiability result

Theorem 1 (simplified: n = 2, k = 1, noiseless)

Assume there exist 3 distinct points $\mathbf{u}^0, \mathbf{u}^1, \mathbf{u}^2$ such that the matrix

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1^*(\mathbf{u}^1) - \lambda_1^*(\mathbf{u}^0) & \lambda_1^*(\mathbf{u}^2) - \lambda_1^*(\mathbf{u}^0) \\ \lambda_2^*(\mathbf{u}^1) - \lambda_2^*(\mathbf{u}^0) & \lambda_2^*(\mathbf{u}^2) - \lambda_2^*(\mathbf{u}^0) \end{pmatrix}$$

is invertible. Then:

$$p_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{T},\boldsymbol{\lambda}}(\mathbf{x}) = p_{\mathbf{f}^*,\mathbf{T}^*,\boldsymbol{\lambda}^*}(\mathbf{x}) \implies \exists A \text{ invertible matrix s.t.}$$
$$(T_1(z_1),T_2(z_2))^T = A(T_1^*(z_1^*),T_2^*(z_2^*))^T$$

The matrix A can be removed by applying linear ICA.

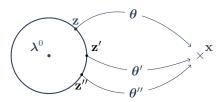
Notation: $\lambda^l = (\lambda_1^*(\mathbf{u}^l), \lambda_2^*(\mathbf{u}^l))^T$. The invertibility of L is equivalent to saying that $\lambda^1 - \lambda^0$ and $\lambda^2 - \lambda^0$ are linearly independent.

Suppose $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u})$ is an isotropic Gaussian with fixed variance, then $\lambda(\mathbf{u})$ is simply the mean.

 \rightarrow In how many ways can we transform **z** without changing any intermediate quantities, thus yielding the same distribution over **x**?

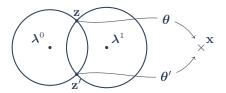
Suppose $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u})$ is an isotropic Gaussian with fixed variance, then $\lambda(\mathbf{u})$ is simply the mean.

- \rightarrow In how many ways can we transform **z** without changing any intermediate quantities, thus yielding the same distribution over **x**?
 - \diamond prior is unconditional (one Gaussian centered around λ^0): radial transformations yield the same observations.



Suppose $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u})$ is an isotropic Gaussian with fixed variance, then $\lambda(\mathbf{u})$ is simply the mean.

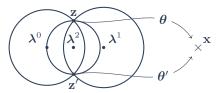
- \rightarrow In how many ways can we transform **z** without changing any intermediate quantities, thus yielding the same distribution over **x**?
 - \diamond prior is a mixture of two Gaussians (centered around λ^0 and λ^1): a transformation that is mixture agnostic will necessarily be on the intersection.



Suppose $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u})$ is an isotropic Gaussian with fixed variance, then $\lambda(\mathbf{u})$ is simply the mean.

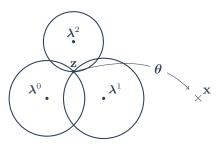
 \rightarrow In how many ways can we transform **z** without changing any intermediate quantities, thus yielding the same distribution over **x**?

⋄ prior is a mixture of three aligned Gaussians: same thing!



Suppose $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u})$ is an isotropic Gaussian with fixed variance, then $\lambda(\mathbf{u})$ is simply the mean.

- \rightarrow In how many ways can we transform **z** without changing any intermediate quantities, thus yielding the same distribution over **x**?
 - prior is a mixture of three unaligned Gaussians: only one intersection!



Estimation by VAEs 2

Theorem 2

Assume the following:

- (i) The family of distributions $q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})$ contains $p_{\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{T}, \lambda}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})$.
- (ii) We maximize $\mathcal{L}(\theta, \phi)$ with respect to both θ and ϕ . then in the limit of infinite data, the VAE learns the true parameters $\theta^* := (\mathbf{f}^*, \mathbf{T}^*, \lambda^*)$ up to the indeterminacies of Theorem 1.

Proof: The loss can be written as:

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\phi}) = \log p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{u}) - KL\left(q_{\boldsymbol{\phi}}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) || p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})\right)$$

By first optimizing the loss over ϕ , the KL term reaches 0 and the loss will be equal to the log-likelihood.

The VAE in this case inherits all the properties of MLE. In particular, it is a consistent estimator of the parameters θ^* *i.e.* in the limit of infinite data.

Back to the example: iVAE

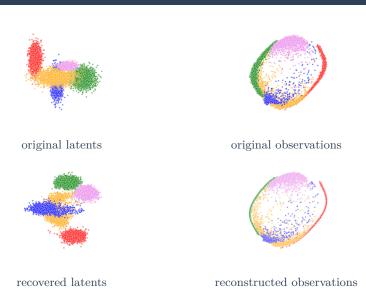


original latents



original observations

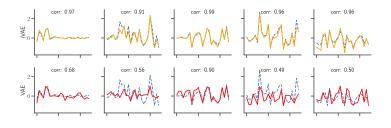
Back to the example: iVAE



Second Example

We sample 5-d latents from a conditional Gaussian distribution where $p(\mathbf{u}) = \text{Unif}(\{1, \dots, 40\})$, and we mix them into 25-d observations.

The dashed blue line is the true source signal, and the recovered latents are in solid coloured lines. We also reported the mean correlation coefficients for every (source, latent) pair.



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Conclusion: contributions

- ♦ Draw attention to the (un)-identifiability of popular deep latent variable models.
- ♦ First identification proof withing the VAE framework.
- ♦ First proof of solvability of nonlinear ICA by MLE.
- Extend the nonlinear ICA framework to noisy and discrete observations, and lower dimensional latent variables.

Conclusion: future work

- \diamond Have a more flexible decoding distribution $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})$.
- \diamond Have a more general form of the prior distribution $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{u})$.
- \diamond Extend to the case $\dim(\mathbf{z}) > \dim(\mathbf{x})$.

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From continuous to discrete

Categorical distributions can be viewed as a infinitesimal-temperature limit of continuous distributions.

For example, let:

$$\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{z})$$

$$\mathbf{x} = \operatorname{sigmoid}((\mathbf{m} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon})/T)$$

$$\forall \varepsilon_i \in \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} : \varepsilon_i \sim \operatorname{Logistic}(0, 1)$$

where sigmoid() is the element-wise sigmoid nonlinearity, and $T\in(0,\infty)$ is a temperature variable.

If $T \to 0^+$, then:

$$\mathbf{x} \sim \mathrm{Bernoulli}(\mathbf{p}) \ \mathrm{with} \ \mathbf{p} = \mathrm{sigmoid}(\mathbf{m})$$

For proof that this holds, cf. [Maddison et al., 2016], appendix B.

Identifiability result 1

Definition 1

Let $\overline{\sim}$ be an equivalence relation on Θ . We say that a probabilistic model is identifiable up to $\overline{\sim}$ (or $\overline{\sim}$ -identifiable) if

$$p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}) = p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}'}(\mathbf{x}) \implies \boldsymbol{\theta}' \overline{\sim} \boldsymbol{\theta}$$

Proposition 1

Let \sim be the binary relation on Θ defined as follows:

$$(\mathbf{f},\mathbf{T},\boldsymbol{\lambda})\sim(\mathbf{f}',\mathbf{T}',\boldsymbol{\lambda}')\Leftrightarrow \exists A,c\mid \tilde{\mathbf{T}}(\mathbf{f}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}))=A\tilde{\mathbf{T}}'(\mathbf{f}'^{-1}(\mathbf{x}))+\mathbf{c},\forall \mathbf{x}\in\mathcal{X}$$

where A is an invertible $nk \times nk$ matrix and **c** is a vector of size nk. Then \sim is an equivalence relation on Θ .

Identifiability result 2

Theorem 1

Assume the following holds:

- (i) The set $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X} | \varphi_{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}) = 0\}$ has measure zero, where φ_{ε} is the characteristic function of p_{ε} .
- (ii) The sufficient statistics $T_{i,j}$ are differentiable almost everywhere and $\frac{\partial T_{i,j}}{\partial z}(z) \neq 0$ almost surely for $z \in \mathcal{Z}_i$ and for all (i,j).
- (iii) There exist nk + 1 distinct points $\mathbf{u}^0, \dots, \mathbf{u}^{nk}$ s.t. the matrix

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_{1,1}(\mathbf{u}^1) - \lambda_{1,1}(\mathbf{u}^0) & \dots & \lambda_{1,1}(\mathbf{u}^{nk}) - \lambda_{1,1}(\mathbf{u}^0) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \lambda_{n,k}(\mathbf{u}^1) - \lambda_{n,k}(\mathbf{u}^0) & \dots & \lambda_{n,k}(\mathbf{u}^{nk}) - \lambda_{n,k}(\mathbf{u}^0) \end{pmatrix}$$
(1)

of size $nk \times nk$ is invertible (where the rows correspond to all possible subscripts for λ).

then the parameters $(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{T}, \boldsymbol{\lambda})$ are \sim -identifiable.

Understanding assumption (iii) in Theorem 1

Let \mathbf{u}^0 be an arbitrary point in its support \mathcal{U} , and $h(\mathbf{u}) = (\lambda_{1,1}(\mathbf{u}) - \lambda_{1,1}(\mathbf{u}^0), \dots, \lambda_{n,k}(\mathbf{u}) - \lambda_{n,k}(\mathbf{u}^0))^T \in \mathbb{R}^{nk}$.

Let's suppose for a second that for any choice of points, the vectors $(h(\mathbf{u}^1), \dots, h(\mathbf{u}^{nk}))$ are not linearly independent. This means that $h(\mathcal{U})$ is necessarily included in a subspace of \mathbb{R}^{nk} of dimension at most nk-1. Such a subspace has measure zero in \mathbb{R}^{nk} .

Thus, if $h(\mathcal{U})$ isn't included in a subset of measure zero in \mathbb{R}^{nk} , this can't be true, and there exists a set of points \mathbf{u}^1 to \mathbf{u}^{nk} (all different from \mathbf{u}^0) such that L is invertible.

As long as the $\lambda_{i,j}(\mathbf{u})$ are generated randomly and independently, then almost surely, $h(\mathcal{U})$ won't be included in any such subset with measure zero, and the assumption holds.

Identifiability result 3

Theorem 3

Assume the same as in Theorem 1. Furthermore, assume

- (i) k = 1, and the function $T_{i,1}$ is the same for all i,
- (ii) $T_{i,1}$ has a unique minimum.

Then, the matrix A defining the equivalence class in Theorem 1 is a scaled permutation matrix.