Implementing VAEs

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Overview of today's lecture

What are DLVMs and VAEs again?

Approximate maximum likelihood for DLVMs

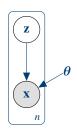
The reparametrisation trick

Recap: Deep latent variable models (DLVMs)

Kingma and Welling (ICLR 2014), Rezende, Mohamed & Wierstra (ICML 2014), Goodfellow et al. (NeurIPS 2014)

Assume that $(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{z}_i)_{i \leq n}$ are i.i.d. random variables driven by the model:

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{z} \sim p(\mathbf{z}) & \text{(prior)} \\ \mathbf{x} \sim p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{z}) & \text{(observation model)} \end{cases}$$



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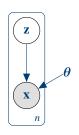
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$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{z} \sim p(\mathbf{z}) & \text{(prior)} \\ \mathbf{x} \sim p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{z}) = \Phi(\mathbf{x} \mid f_{\theta}(\mathbf{z})) & \text{(observation model)} \end{cases}$$



where

- $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the **latent** variable,
- $x \in \mathcal{X}$ is the **observed** variable,
- the function $f_{\theta}: \mathbb{R}^d \to H$ is a (deep) neural network called the decoder
- $(\Phi(\cdot \mid \eta))_{\eta \in H}$ is a parametric family called the **observation model**, usually **very simple**: unimodal and fully factorised (e.g. multivariate Gaussians or products of multinomials)

Training data $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$ binary MNIST



Generative model for $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and $\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^{28 \times 28}$

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{z} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\right) \\ x^{j,k} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p = f^{j,k}(\mathbf{z})) \end{cases}$$

Decoder network

$$f(\mathbf{z}) = \text{Sigmoid}(\mathbf{V} \tanh(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{z} + \mathbf{b}) + \boldsymbol{\beta})$$

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\mathbf{z} \\
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- $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z} \mid \mathbf{x})$ is intractable rendering EM intractable
- stochastic EM is not scalable to large n and moderate d.

The solution: amortised variational inference

A general and scalable framework to tackle these issues was proposed by Kingma & Welling (2014), Rezende et al. (2014), leading to the **variational autoencoder (VAE)**.

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The main idea is to use **Monte Carlo techniques** to approximate the intractable integrals

$$p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_i \mid \mathbf{z}) p(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z}.$$

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Simple Monte Carlo estimate: We sample $x_1,...,.x_K \sim p$ and approximate

$$I \approx \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} f(x_k) = \hat{I}_K.$$

A few properties:

$$\hat{I}_K \stackrel{a.s.}{\to} I$$
, $\mathbb{E}[\hat{I}_K] = I$, $\mathbb{V}[\hat{I}_K] = \frac{1}{K} \mathbb{V}[f(x_1)]$,

which sounds nice, but the variance may be very large.

Importance sampling tries to improve this estimate by **sampling** $x_1, ..., x_K$ **from another density** q **rather than** p**.** The trick is the following:

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However, this still means that importance sampling with a good q will work much better than simple MC.

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Exercise: What would be the optimal, zero-variance choices for $q_1, ..., q_n$?

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This neural net is called the **inference network** or **encoder**.

All of this leads to the following approximation of the likelihood

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}_{i1},...,\mathbf{z}_{iK} \sim q_{\gamma}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}_{i})} \left[\log \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_{i}|\mathbf{z}_{ik})p(\mathbf{z}_{ik})}{q_{\gamma}(\mathbf{z}_{ik}|\mathbf{x}_{i})} \right] = \mathcal{L}_{K}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}).$$

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It does make sense! For several reasons:

- $\mathcal{L}_K(\theta, \gamma)$ is a **lower bound of** $\ell(\theta)$ (exercise !). Which means that we know that the likelihood is at least as big as $\mathcal{L}_K(\theta, \gamma)$.
- The bounds get tighter and tighter!

$$\mathcal{L}_1(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}) \leq \mathcal{L}_2(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}) \leq \ldots \leq \mathcal{L}_K(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}) \xrightarrow[K \to \infty]{} \ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

 $\mathcal{L}_K(\theta, \gamma)$ is called the **importance weighted autoencoder (IWAE)** bound, and was introduced by Burda et al. (2016).

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$$\mathcal{L}_1(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}) = \ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}) - \mathsf{KL}\left(\prod_{i=1}^n q_{\boldsymbol{\gamma}}(\mathbf{z}_i|\mathbf{x}_i) \middle| \middle| \prod_{i=1}^n p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{z}_i|\mathbf{x}_i)\right).$$

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Concrete consequence: after training, we may interpret the $q_{\gamma}(\mathbf{z}_i|\mathbf{x}_i)$ as an (approachable) approximation of the (intractable) $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}_i|\mathbf{x}_i)$.

The VAE bound of Kingma & Welling (2014) and Rezende et al. (2014) is actually $\mathcal{L}_1(\theta, \gamma)$, which is the loosest bound!

The VAE bound can be interestingly rewritten

$$\mathcal{L}_1(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}) = \ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}) - \mathsf{KL}\left(\prod_{i=1}^n q_{\boldsymbol{\gamma}}(\mathbf{z}_i|\mathbf{x}_i) \middle| \middle| \prod_{i=1}^n p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{z}_i|\mathbf{x}_i)\right).$$

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Is it still true when K>1? **Kind of, but it gets more complicated.** Domke & Sheldon (2019) showed that, when $K\to\infty$, the the "closeness" is no longer in KL sense but in the sense of the χ divergence.

Playing with the VAE bound

The VAE bound can be also rewritten

$$\mathcal{L}_1(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}_i \sim q_{\boldsymbol{\gamma}}(\mathbf{z}_i | \mathbf{x}_i)}[p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_i | \mathbf{z}_i)] - \mathsf{KL}\left(\prod_{i=1}^n q_{\boldsymbol{\gamma}}(\mathbf{z}_i | \mathbf{x}_i) \Big| \Big| \prod_{i=1}^n p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{z}_i)\right).$$

- $\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{z}_i \sim q_{\gamma}(\mathbf{z}_i|\mathbf{x}_i)}[p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_i|\mathbf{z}_i)]$ can be interpreted as (the opposite of) a reconstruction error.
- the KL between the approximate posterior and the prior can be interpreted as a regulariser. If $q_{\gamma}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$ is Gaussian, then this can be computed in **closed-form**.

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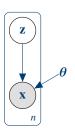
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This version of the bound resembles the opposite of the loss of a **KL-regularised autoencoder**, hence the name **variational autoencoder** (VAE), coined by Kingma and Welling (ICLR 2014).

Let's summarise

DLVMs are flexible latent variable models that **transform** low-dimensional codes z into parameters of a simple observation model.

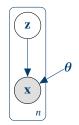
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Training is performed by **maximising a lower bound** $\mathcal{L}_K(\theta,q_{\gamma})$ **of the likelihood** using stochastic gradient descent (SGD). This utilises a variational approximation $q_{\gamma}(\mathbf{z} \mid \mathbf{x})$ of the posterior distribution $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z} \mid \mathbf{x})$ of the codes. This approximation is based on a second neural network called the **inference network or encoder**.

Overview of today's lecture

What are DLVMs and VAEs again?

Approximate maximum likelihood for DLVMs

The reparametrisation trick

Our objective function to maximise is:

$$\mathcal{L}_{K}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}_{i1}, \dots, \mathbf{z}_{iK} \sim q_{\boldsymbol{\gamma}}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}_{i})} \left[\log \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_{i} | \mathbf{z}_{ik}) p(\mathbf{z}_{ik})}{q_{\boldsymbol{\gamma}}(\mathbf{z}_{ik} | \mathbf{x}_{i})} \right]$$

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Actually, we do not even know how to compute the objective function (because of the expectation). But that's not that big of a deal. Why?

Because SGD only needs unbiased estimates of the gradient of the objective and not exact gradients.

The reparametrisation trick is a general recipe to compute expressions of the form

$$\nabla_{\phi} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z} \sim q_{\phi}}[f(\mathbf{z})].$$

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Key idea: It is equivalent to sample $\mathbf{z} \sim N(\mathbf{m}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$ and

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$$\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I}), \ \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{m} + \boldsymbol{\sigma} \odot \varepsilon.$$

Therefore,

$$\nabla_{\phi} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z} \sim q_{\phi}}[f(\mathbf{z})] = \nabla_{\phi} \mathbb{E}_{\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})}[f(\mathbf{m} + \boldsymbol{\sigma} \odot \varepsilon)]$$

This leads to

$$\nabla_{\phi} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z} \sim q_{\phi}}[f(\mathbf{z})] = \mathbb{E}_{\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})}[\nabla_{\phi} f(\mathbf{m} + \boldsymbol{\sigma} \odot \varepsilon)],$$

so we can have **unbiased estimates of the gradient** by sampling $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$, and then computing $\nabla_{\phi} f(\mathbf{m} + \boldsymbol{\sigma} \odot \varepsilon)$.

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so we can have **unbiased estimates of the gradient** by sampling $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$, and then computing $\nabla_{d} f(\mathbf{m} + \boldsymbol{\sigma} \odot \varepsilon)$.

This can be used for many more distributions! An easy-to-read source is provided in S. Mohamed's blog post¹.

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