

Variational Inference and Variational Auto-Encoder

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Created: March 2018
Last updated: June 27, 2020

For more details, please refer to [1, 2, 3, 4].

1 Variational Inference

Let $X = \{x_i\}_{i=1}^N$ be a set of observed data. In Variational Inference (VI), we want to approximate a complicated and intractable conditional distribution $P(z|X)$ with some simple and tractable distribution $Q(z; v)$ parameterized by v . Here we do not write the dependence of $Q(z; v)$ on X explicitly, since X , the observed data, is fixed. $Q(z; v)$ can be replaced with a conditional distribution when one assumes X is variable and drawn from some distribution.

First one can easily obtain that

$$D_{\text{KL}}(Q(z; v) \parallel P(z|X)) = \sum_z Q(z; v) \log \frac{Q(z; v)}{P(z|X)} = \log P(X) + \sum_z Q(z; v) \log \frac{Q(z; v)}{P(z, X)}. \quad (1)$$

Note that $\log P(X)$ is fixed since X is given. Suppose the desired conditional distribution $P(z|X)$ is not that complicated, and our model $Q(z; v)$ is flexible enough such that $Q(z; v^*) = P(z|X)$ for $v^* = \arg \min_v D_{\text{KL}}(Q(z; v) \parallel P(z|X))$. Thus by taking minimization with respect to v in both sides, we have

$$0 = \min_v D_{\text{KL}}(Q(z; v) \parallel P(z|X)) = \log P(X) + \min_v \sum_z Q(z; v) \log \frac{Q(z; v)}{P(z, X)}. \quad (2)$$

Thus

$$\log P(X) = \max_v - \sum_z Q(z; v) \log \frac{Q(z; v)}{P(z, X)}. \quad (3)$$

The key ingredient in VI is to smartly model the distributions such that the right hand side of Eq. (3) is tractable.

2 Variational Auto-Encoder

For an example of VI, let us elaborate Variational Auto-Encoder (VAE) [3]. Suppose we have observed a dataset $X = \{x_i\}_{i=1}^N$, and we aim to learn its distribution, i.e. we want to maximize the log-likelihood over the observed data,

$$\max_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{x \in X} \log P(x; \theta). \quad (4)$$

Now let us introduce $Q(z|x; v)$ to approximate $P(z|x; \theta)$. By VI (3), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \log P(x; \theta) &= \max_v - \sum_z Q(z|x; v) \log \frac{Q(z|x; v)}{P(z, x; \theta)} \\ &= \max_v \sum_z Q(z|x, v) \log P(x|z; \theta) - D_{\text{KL}}(Q(z|x; v) \parallel P(z; \theta)) \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

Thus the maximum log-likelihood (4) becomes

$$\max_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{x \in X} \log P(x; \theta) = \max_{\theta, v} \mathbb{E}_{x \in X} \sum_z Q(z|x, v) \log P(x|z; \theta) - D_{\text{KL}}(Q(z|x; v) \parallel P(z; \theta)) \quad (6)$$

Let $A = \sum_z Q(z|x, v) \log P(x|z; \theta)$ and $B = D_{\text{KL}}(Q(z|x; v) \parallel P(z; \theta))$. In order to optimization the VAE loss (6), it remains to show how to compute the right hand side of Eq. (6), i.e., A and B .

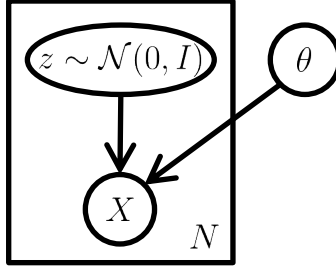


Figure 1: The standard VAE model represented as a graphical model. Note the conspicuous lack of any structure or even an “encoder” pathway: it is possible to sample from the model without any input. Here, the rectangle is “plate notation” meaning that we can sample from z and X N times while the model parameters θ remain fixed.

2.1 The reparameterization trick

Notice that $A = \mathbb{E}_{z \sim Q(z|x,v)} \log P(x|z; \theta)$ is an expectation over some hidden random variable z . The optimization of θ can be done with Monte-Carlo estimation and typical gradient descent (or its variants). Generally, however, it is intractable to calculate the gradient on v since a random variable z is not differentiable. The solution to this challenge involves an important trick called *the reparameterization trick*. See Figure 1 for some intuition.

Let us model $Q(z|x, v)$ as a Gaussian distribution:

$$Q(z|x, v) = \mathcal{N}(\mu(x; v), \Sigma(x; v)). \quad (7)$$

Thus z can be reparameterized as

$$z = \mu(x; v) + \Sigma(x; v)^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I). \quad (8)$$

Then we have

$$A = \mathbb{E}_{z \sim Q(z|x,v)} \log P(x|z; \theta) = \mathbb{E}_{\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0,I)} \log P(x|z = \mu(x; v) + \Sigma(x; v)^{1/2} \cdot \epsilon). \quad (9)$$

In this way we can calculate gradient with respect to v as

$$\frac{\partial A}{\partial v} = \mathbb{E}_{\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0,I)} \frac{\partial \log P(x|z; \theta)}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} = \mathbb{E}_{\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0,I)} \frac{\partial \log P(x|z; \theta)}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\partial \mu(x; v)}{\partial v} + \frac{\partial \Sigma(x; v)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\partial v} \epsilon \right), \quad (10)$$

which could be approximated via Monte-Carlo estimation.

2.2 KL divergence between Gaussian distributions

The second term $B = D_{\text{KL}}(Q(z|x; v) \parallel P(z; \theta))$ can be simply handled by assuming the distributions are Gaussian.

Remember that for two k -dimensional Gaussian distributions, their KL divergence can be computed in closed form,

$$D_{\text{KL}}(\mathcal{N}(\mu_0, \Sigma_0) \parallel \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \Sigma_1)) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\text{Tr}(\Sigma_1^{-1} \Sigma_0) + (\mu_1 - \mu_0)^\top \Sigma_1^{-1} (\mu_1 - \mu_0) - k + \log \left(\frac{\det \Sigma_1}{\det \Sigma_0} \right) \right). \quad (11)$$

Thus when we assume $Q(z|x, v), P(z; \theta)$ are Gaussian distributions,

$$Q(z|x, v) = \mathcal{N}(\mu(x; v), \Sigma(x; v)), \quad P(z; \theta) = \mathcal{N}(z|0, I_k), \quad (12)$$

we obtain

$$B = D_{\text{KL}}(Q(z|x, v) \parallel P(z; \theta)) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\text{Tr}(\Sigma(x; v)) + \mu(x; v)^\top \mu(x; v) - k - \log \det(\Sigma(x; v)) \right). \quad (13)$$

For the efficiency of evaluating determinate, we further assume $\Sigma(x; v)$ is diagonal.

2.3 Summary

The key ideas behind VAE are 1) variational inference and 2) the reparameterization trick. Suppose the family $Q(z|x;v)$ and $P(z;\theta)$, e.g., diagonal Gaussian parameterized by neural networks, are flexible enough, VAE indeed has the ability to learn the distribution over X . Nonetheless, in practice, there could be much trouble with such over-simplified modeling, i.e., 1) the Gaussian prior causes blur in generated x , and 2) the diagonal Gaussian fails to model the comprehensive coupling between different features.

All in all, no matter how fancy VAE looks like, it is still an “auto-encoder”. One can view $P(x|z;\theta)$ as the decoder, and $Q(z|x;v)$ as the encoder. Under this interpretation, the term A in Eq. (6) is actually the reconstruction error as in other typical auto-encoders. The difference happens in the term B in Eq. (6), which is a regularizer related to a Gaussian prior for the hidden variable z . It is quite surprising such a simple regularization brings auto-encoder the ability to generate meaningful, at least looks meaningful, new data.

References

- [1] David M Blei, Alp Kucukelbir, and Jon D McAuliffe. Variational inference: A review for statisticians. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 112(518):859–877, 2017.
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