This study note is heavily based on this EMNLP 2018 tutorial. It covers the math behind VAEs.

# **Bridging Latent Varaible Models and Deep Learning**

## **Deep Learning**

- Broadly construed, deep learning is a toolbox for learning rich representations of data through numercial optimization.
- Deep learning makes it possible to parameterize conditional likelihoods with powerful function approximations.

#### Latent Variable Models

- LVMs make it easy to explicitly specify model constraints trough conditional independence properties.
- LVMs objectives often complicate backpropagation by introducing points of nondifferentiability.

## Targeted Issue and Main Focuses

How to combine the complementary strengths of the both worlds, and address the issues? **Variational inference** a key technique for performing approximate posterior inference

The main focus of the <u>tutorial</u> is on training an inference network (deep inference) to output (*latent variable inference*) the parameters of an approximate posterior distribution given the set of variables to be conditioned upon. Also, it focuses on **learning LVMs whose joint distribution can be expressed as a directed graphical model** (DGM), which is done through variational inference.

# Learning and Inference

We are interested in two things after the model is defined:

- lacktriangle Learning model parameter heta
- Performing *inference* after learning  $\theta$  (computing the posterior distribution  $p(z|x;\theta)$ , or approximated, over the latent variables, given some data x)

These two tasks are intimately connecte because learning often uses inference as a subroutine. Learning often involves alternatively inferring likely z values, and optimizing the model assuming these inferred z's. The dominanting approach to train a latent variable model is through maximizing likelihood.

#### Tractable case

Assuming tractable log marginal likelihood, i.e.

$$\log p(x; heta) = \log \sum_z p(x,z; heta) = \log \sum_z p(z|x; heta) p(x; heta)$$

is tractable to evaluate (which is equivalent to assuming posterior inference to be tractable).

- Categorical LVMs where K is not too big
- HMMs wehre dynamic programs allow us to efficiently sum over all the z assignmens

Using maximum likelihood training, learning  $\theta$  then corresponds to solving the following problem:

$$argmax_{ heta} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log p(x^{(n)}; heta)$$

where we have assumed N examples in our training set.

## Directly Optimizing with Gradient Descent

$$L( heta) = \log p(x^{(1:N)}; heta) = \sum_{n=1}^N \log p(x^{(n)}; heta) = \sum_{n=1}^N \log \sum_z p(x^{(n)}, z; heta)$$

where the gradient is

$$abla_{ heta}L( heta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbb{E}_{p(z|x^{(n)}; heta)}[
abla_{ heta}p(x^{(n)},z; heta)]$$

which is the same form of the M-step in EM algorithm (to be confirmed). Note that the gradient expression involves an expectation over the posterior  $p(z|x^{(n)};\theta)$ , and is an example of how inference is used as a subroutine in learning. By gradient descent

$$heta^{(i+1)} = heta^{(i)} + \eta 
abla_{ heta} L( heta^{(i)}).$$

## **Expectation Maximization (EM) Algorithm**

EM is an iterative method for learning LVMs with tractable posterior inference. It maximizes a lower bound on the log marginal likelihood at each iteration. Given randomly-initialized starting parameters  $\theta^{(0)}$ , the algorithm updates the parameters via the followign alternating procedure:

1. E-step: Derive the posterior under current paramters  $\theta^{(i)}$ , i.e.,

$$p(z|x^{(n)}; heta^{(i)}) = rac{p(x^{(n)},z; heta^{(i)})}{p(x^{(n)})}$$

for all  $n = 1, \dots, N$ .

2. M-step: Define the expected complete data likelihood as

$$Q( heta, heta^{(i)}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbb{E}_{p(z|x^{(n)}; heta^{(i)})}[\log p(x^{(n)}, z; heta)]$$

Maximize this w.r.t.  $\theta$  while holding  $\theta^{(i)}$  fixed

$$heta^{(i+1)} = argmax_{ heta}Q( heta, heta^{(i)})$$

It can be shown that EM improves the log marginal likelihood at each iteration, i.e.

$$\sum_{n=1}^N \log p(x^{(n)}; heta^{(i+1)}) \geq \sum_{n=1}^N \log p(x^{(n)}; heta^{(i)})$$

In some cases, there is an exact solution to M-step (e.g., GMMs); otherwise, one can use gradient descent and the expression is the same as directly optimizing the log likelihood. This variant of EM (no exact M-step solution) is referred to as *generalized EM*.

#### Intractable case

What if calculation of posterior inference or log marginal likelihood is intractable? Variational inference is a technique for approximating an intractable posterior distribution  $p(z|x;\theta)$  with a tractable surrogate. In the context of learning the parameters of LVMs, VI can be used in optimizing a lower bound on the log marginal likelihood that involves only an approximate posterior over latent variables, rather than the exact posteriors.

$$egin{aligned} \log p(x; heta) &= \int q(z;\lambda) \log p(x; heta) dz \ &= \int q(z;\lambda) \log rac{p(x,z; heta)}{p(z|x; heta)} dz \ &= \int q(z;\lambda) \log rac{p(x,z; heta)q(z;\lambda)}{q(z;\lambda)p(z|x;\lambda)} \ &= \int q(z;\lambda) \log rac{p(x,z; heta)}{q(z;\lambda)} dz + \int q(z;\lambda) \log rac{q(z;\lambda)}{p(z|x;\lambda)} dz \ &= \mathbb{E}_{q(z;\lambda)} \log rac{p(x,z; heta)}{q(z;\lambda)} + \mathrm{KL}[q(z;\lambda)||p(z|x;\lambda)] \ &= \mathrm{ELBO}( heta,\lambda;x) + \mathrm{KL}[q(z;\lambda)||p(z|x;\lambda)] \ &> \mathrm{ELBO}( heta,\lambda;x) \end{aligned}$$

Given N data, the ELBO over the entire dataset is given by the sum of individual ELBOs ( $x^{(n)}$  are assumed to be drawn i.i.d),

$$ext{ELBO}( heta,\lambda;x^{(1:N)}) = \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbb{E}_{q(z;\lambda^{(n)})}[\lograc{p(x^{(n)},z; heta)}{q(z;\lambda^{(n)})}] \leq \log p(x^{(1:N)}; heta)$$

Note that  $\lambda = [\lambda^{(1)}, \dots, \lambda^{(n)}]$  (i.e., we have  $\lambda^{(n)}$  for each data point  $x^{(n)}$ ), which will be further approximated in the context of variational autoencoders (VAEs) with amortized variational inference. It is this aggregate ELBO that we wish to maximize w.r.t.  $\theta$  and  $\lambda$  to train our model.

### Maximizing the aggregate ELBO

#### coordinate ascent (variational EM)

1. Variational E-step: Maximize the ELBO for each  $x^{(n)}$  holding  $\theta^{(i)}$  fixed

$$egin{aligned} \lambda^{(n)} &= argmax_{\lambda} \mathrm{ELBO}( heta^{(i)}, \lambda; x^{(n)}) \ &= argmax_{\lambda} \mathbb{E}_{\mathrm{q}(z;\lambda)} [\log rac{p(z|x^{(n)}; heta) p(x^{(n)}; heta)}{q(z;\lambda)}] \ &= argmin_{\lambda} \mathbb{E}_{q(z;\lambda)} [\log rac{q(z;\lambda)}{p(z|x^{(n)}; heta)}] \ &= argmin_{\lambda} \mathrm{KL}[q(z;\lambda) || p(z|x^{(n)}; heta)], \end{aligned}$$

where the third equality holds since  $logp(x; \theta^{(i)})$  is a constant w.r.t.  $\lambda^{(n)}$ 's.

2. Variational M-step: Maximize the aggregated ELBO w.r.t.  $\theta$  holding the  $\lambda^{(n)}$ 's fixed

$$egin{aligned} heta^{(i+1)} = argmax_{ heta} \sum_{n=1}^{N} ext{ELBO}( heta, \lambda^{(n)}; x^{(n)}) = argmax_{ heta} \sum_{q(z; \lambda^{(n)})} \mathbb{E}_{q(z; \lambda)}[\log p(x^{(n)}, z; heta)], \end{aligned}$$

where the second equality holds since the term  $\mathbb{E}_{q(z;\lambda)}[-\log q(z;\lambda^{(n)})]$  is constant w.r.t.  $\theta$ .

This is known as **variational expectation maximization**, because the E-step is replaced with variational inference which finds the best variational approximation to the true posterior. The M-step maximizes the expected complete data likelihood where the expectation is taken w.r.t. the variational posterior.

If for each data  $x^{(n)}$  there exists  $\lambda^{(n)}$  such that  $q(z;\lambda^{(n)})=p(z|x^{(n)};\theta)$ , we say that the variational family is flexible enough to include the true posterior, and it reduces to the classic EM algorithm. However, we are interested in finding a flexible variational family that allows for tractable optimization since we have assumed the exact posterior inference is intractable.

### gradient ascent (stochastic variational inference)

In practice, performing coordinate ascent on the entire dataset is usually too expensive. Alternatively, gradient-based optimization can be performed over mini-batches. For each  $x^{(n)}$  in the mini-batch (of size B) we initialize  $\lambda_0^{(n)}$  and perform gradient ascent on the ELBO w.r.t.  $\lambda$  for K steps,

$$\lambda_k^{(n)} = \lambda_{k-1}^{(n)} + \eta 
abla_{\lambda} ext{ELBO}( heta, \lambda_k^{(n)}; x^{(n)}),$$

and for M-step, hold fixed the variational parameters  $\lambda_K^{(1)},\dots,\lambda_K^{(B)}$  and update heta:

$$heta^{(i+1)} = heta^{(i)} + \eta 
abla_{ heta} \sum_{n=1}^B \mathbb{E}_{q(z|\lambda_K^{(n)})}[\log p(x^{(n)},z; heta^{(i)})].$$

This is called stochastic variational inference.

## Deep inference and VAEs

So far we have looked into two different ways of performing inference (i.e., calculating posterior distributions):

- 1. calculating the exact posterior distribution  $p(z|x;\theta)$  when it is tractable, and
- 2. approximating posterior distributions by  $q(z; \lambda)$  by updating  $\lambda$ .

A third alternative is to train a neural network to predict variational parameters  $\lambda$ , rather than arriving at  $\lambda^{(n)}$ 's by optimizing the ELBO w.r.t. to them.

The idea is that instead of optimizing for each  $x^{(n)}$  a  $\lambda^{(n)}$ , we make z depend on x and parameterize the variational distribution  $q(z|x;\phi)$  equally across the entire dataset with  $\phi$ . This style of inference is known as *amortized variational inference*. When both  $q(z|x;\phi)$  and  $p(x|z;\theta)$  are parameterized using neural networks, we arrive variational auto encoders (VAEs). The term *autoencoder* is obvious when ELBO is rearranged as follows:

$$egin{aligned} ext{ELBO}( heta,\phi;x) &= \mathbb{E}_{q(z|x;\phi)}[\lograc{p(x|z; heta)p(z; heta)}{q(z|x;\phi)}] \ &= \mathbb{E}_{q(z|x;\phi)}[\log p(x|z; heta)] - ext{KL}[q(z|x;\phi)||p(z; heta)]. \end{aligned}$$

The inference network  $q(z|x;\phi)$  and generative network  $p(z|x;\theta)$  are jointly trained by maximizing the ELBO with gradient ascent:

$$egin{aligned} heta^{(i+1)} &= heta^{(i)} + \eta 
abla_{ heta} \mathrm{ELBO}( heta^{(i)}, \phi^{(i)}; x^{(n)}) \ \phi^{(i+1)} &= \phi^{(i)} + \eta 
abla_{\phi} \mathrm{ELBO}( heta^{(i)}, \phi^{(i)}; x^{(n)}). \end{aligned}$$

Unlike the coordinate ascent-style training,  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  are trained jointly, where

$$egin{aligned} 
abla_{ heta} \mathrm{ELBO}( heta, \phi; x) &= \mathbb{E}_{q(z|x;\phi)} \left[ 
abla_{ heta} \log p(x, z; heta) 
ight] \ &= \mathbb{E}_{q(z|x;\phi)} \left[ 
abla_{ heta} \log p(x|z; heta) 
ight], \end{aligned}$$

can be estimated with Monte Carlo samples with one sample. However, it is not trivial for  $\nabla_{\phi} \mathrm{ELBO}(\theta, \phi; x)$ , but with  $q(z|x; \phi) = \mathcal{N}(z; \mu, diag(\sigma^2))$  and reparameterization trick,

$$egin{aligned} 
abla_{\phi} \mathbb{E}_{q(z|x;\phi)}[\log p(x|z; heta)] &= 
abla_{\phi} \mathbb{E}_{\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0,I)}[\log p(x|\mu + \sigma \epsilon; heta)] \ &= \mathbb{E}_{\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0,I)}[
abla_{\phi} \log p(x|\mu + \sigma \epsilon; heta)], \end{aligned}$$

this again can be estimated with a single sample.