Semi Amortized Variational Autoencoders

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Paper Link

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- Variational inference (VI) is a framework for approximating an intractable distribution by optimizing over a family of tractable surrogates
- Traditional VI algorithms iterate over the observed data and update the variational parameters with closed-form coordinate ascent updates that exploit conditional conjugacy
- This style of optimization is challenging to extend to large datasets and non-conjugate models

- the variational parameters for each data point are randomly initialized and then optimized to maximize the evidence lower bound (ELBO) with, for example, gradient ascent
- These updates are based on a subset of the data, making it possible to scale the approach.
- amortized variational inference, the local variational parameters are instead predicted by an inference (or recognition) network
- which is shared (i.e. amortized) across the dataset.
- VAEs utilize AVI for inference and jointly train the generative model alongside the inference network.

- (+) SVI gives good local (i.e. instance-specific) distributions within the variational family
- (-) but requires performing optimization for each data point
- AVI has fast inference,
- (-) but having the variational parameters be a parametric function of the input may be too strict of a restriction
- (-) hence, its parameters may be updated based on suboptimal variational parameters
- amortization gap (the gap between the log-likelihood and the ELBO due to amortization) can be significant for VAEs, especially on complex datasets

- $f: R^m \to R$ scalar valued function
- partitioned inputs: $[u_1, \ldots, u_m]$
- $\sum_{i=1}^{m} dim(u_i) = n$

- $z \sim p(z)$
- $x \sim p(x|z, \theta)$
- $\mathsf{ELBO}(\lambda, \theta, x)$: $logp(x; \theta) \ge E_{q(z;\lambda)}[logp(x|z)] KL[q(z; \lambda)||p(z)]$
- given a dataset x_1, \ldots, x_N and need to find variational parameters $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_N$ and generative model parameters that jointly maximize ELBO

- Sample $x \sim p_D(x)$
- Randomly initialize λ_0
- For k = 0, ..., K 1
- $\lambda k + 1 = \lambda_k + \alpha \nabla_{lambda} ELBO(\lambda_k; \theta; x)$
- 4. Update θ based on $\nabla_{\theta} ELBO(\lambda_k; \theta; x)$
- because of this block coordinate ascent approach the variational parameters, λ are optimized separately from θ , potentially making it difficult for θ to adapt to local optima.

- Sample $x \sim p_D(x)$
- 2. Set $\lambda_0 = enc(x; \phi)$
- 3. Update θ based on ∇_θELBO(λ_k; θ; x) (which in this case is equal to the total derivative)
- 4. Update ϕ based on $\frac{d(ELBO(\lambda, \theta, x))}{d\phi} = \frac{d\lambda}{d\phi} \nabla_{\phi} ELBO(\lambda, \theta, x)$
- The inference network is learned jointly alongside the generative model with the same loss function, allowing the pair to coadapt.
- requiring the variational parameters to be a parametric function of the input may be too strict of a restriction and can lead to an amortization gap. This gap can propagate forward to hinder the learning of the generative model if θ is updated based on suboptimal λ. While we describe the various algorithms for a specific data point, in practice we use mini-batches.

- utilize an inference network over the input to give the initial variational parameters
- subsequently run SVI to refine them.

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$$\frac{d\mathcal{L}}{d\lambda_0} = \frac{d\lambda_1}{d\lambda_0} \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{d\lambda_1} = (\mathbf{I} + \alpha H_{\lambda,\lambda} \operatorname{ELBO}(\lambda_0, \theta, \mathbf{x})) \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{d\lambda_1} \\ = \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{d\lambda_1} + \alpha H_{\lambda,\lambda} \operatorname{ELBO}(\lambda_0, \theta, \mathbf{x}) \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{d\lambda_1}$$

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SVAE Algorithm

Algorithm 1 Semi-Amortized Variational Autoencoders

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Input: inference network \phi, generative model \theta,
                   inference steps K, learning rate \alpha, momentum \gamma,
                   loss function f(\lambda, \theta, \mathbf{x}) = - \text{ELBO}(\lambda, \theta, \mathbf{x})
Sample \mathbf{x} \sim p_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})
\lambda_0 \leftarrow \operatorname{enc}(\mathbf{x}; \phi)
v_0 \leftarrow 0
for k = 0 to K - 1 do
      v_{k+1} \leftarrow \gamma v_k - \nabla_\lambda f(\lambda_k, \theta, \mathbf{x})
     \lambda_{k+1} \leftarrow \lambda_k + \alpha v_{k+1}
end for
\mathcal{L} \leftarrow f(\lambda_K, \theta, \mathbf{x})
\overline{\lambda}_{K} \leftarrow \nabla_{\lambda} f(\lambda_{K}, \theta, \mathbf{x})
\overline{\theta} \leftarrow \nabla_{\theta} f(\lambda_{K}, \theta, \mathbf{x})
\overline{v}_{\kappa} \leftarrow 0
for k = K - 1 to 0 do
      \overline{v}_{k+1} \leftarrow \overline{v}_{k+1} + \alpha \overline{\lambda}_{k+1}
      \overline{\lambda}_{k} \leftarrow \overline{\lambda}_{k+1} - H_{\lambda,\lambda} f(\lambda_{k}, \theta, \mathbf{x}) \overline{v}_{k+1}
     \overline{\theta} \leftarrow \overline{\theta} - \mathrm{H}_{\theta \lambda} f(\lambda_k, \theta, \mathbf{x}) \overline{v}_{k+1}
      \overline{v}_k \leftarrow \gamma \overline{v}_{k+1}
                                                                                                                                                      < ∃ →
 and for
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Results

NLL	KL	PPL
334.9	_	66.2
≤ 342.1	0.0	≤ 72.5
≤ 339.2	0.0	≤ 69.9
335.4	_	66.6
≤ 333.9	6.7	≤ 65.4
≤ 332.1	10.0	≤ 63.9
329.1	_	61.6
≤ 330.2	0.01	≤ 62.5
≤ 330.5	0.37	≤ 62.7
≤ 334.2	1.44	≤ 65.6
≤ 345.0	5.29	≤ 75.2
≤ 331.4	0.16	≤ 63.4
	0.41	≤ 62.9
	1.01	≤ 62.2
	7.85	≤ 63.3
	7.80	≤ 62.7
	7.95	≤ 62.5
≤ 330.1	7.81	≤ 62.3
≤ 327.6	5.13	≤ 60.5
≤ 327.5	7.19	≤ 60.4
	$\begin{array}{c} 334.9\\ \leq 342.1\\ \leq 339.2\\ 335.4\\ \leq 333.9\\ \leq 332.1\\ \hline 329.1\\ \leq 330.2\\ \leq 330.5\\ \leq 334.2\\ \leq 345.0\\ \leq 330.8\\ \leq 329.8\\ \leq 330.8\\ \leq 330.8\\ \leq 330.3\\ \leq 330.5\\ \leq 330.3\\ \leq 330.5\\ \leq 330.3\\ \leq 330.7\\ $	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

Table 2. Results on text modeling on the Yahoo dataset. Top results are from Yang et al. (2017), while the bottom results are from this work (+ INT means the encoder is initialized with a pretrained language model, while models with + WORD-DROP are trained with word-dropout). NLL/KL numbers are averaged across examples, and PPL refers to perplexity. K refers to the number of inference steps used for training/testing.

Image: A matrix and a matrix

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Results

Model	NLL
IWAE (Burda et al., 2015a)	103.38
LADDER VAE (Sønderby et al., 2016)	102.11
RBM (Burda et al., 2015b)	100.46
DISCRETE VAE (Rolfe, 2017)	97.43
DRAW (Gregor et al., 2015)	≤ 96.50
CONV DRAW (Gregor et al., 2016)	≤ 91.00
VLAE (Chen et al., 2017)	89.83
VAMPPRIOR (Tomczak & Welling, 2018)	89.76
GATED PIXELCNN	90.59
VAE	$\leq 90.43 \ (0.98)$
SVI (K = 10)	$\leq 90.65 \ (0.02)$
SVI (K = 20)	$\leq 90.51 \ (0.06)$
SVI (K = 40)	$\leq 90.44 \ (0.27)$
SVI (K = 80)	$\leq 90.27 \ (1.65)$
VAE + SVI ($K = 10$)	$\leq 90.26 \ (1.69)$
VAE + SVI (K = 20)	$\leq 90.19 \ (2.40)$
VAE + SVI + KL (K = 10)	$\leq 90.24 \ (2.42)$
VAE + SVI + KL (K = 20)	$\leq 90.21 \ (2.83)$
SA-VAE ($K = 10$)	$\leq 90.20 \ (1.83)$
SA-VAE ($K = 20$)	$\leq 90.05 \ (2.78)$

Table 3. Results on image modeling on the OMNIGLOT dataset. Top results are from prior works, while the bottom results are from this work. GATED PIXELCNN is our autoregressive baseline, and K refers to the number of inference steps during training/testing. For the variational models the KL portion of the ELBO is shown in parentheses.

Image: A matrix of the second seco

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Figure 3. (Top) Saliency visualization of some examples from the test set. Here the saliency values are rescaled to be between 0-th within each example for easier visualization. Red indicates higher saliency values, Middle Jongher (For easier visualization) and the first set example from the top (in blue), in addition to two same low-upst generated from the viriational postrior (with their saliency values in red). (Bottom) Same as the middle except we use a made-up example. Bet viewed in color, but viewed in color top of the vi

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