Variational Autoencoder

Deep Learning (ENGG*6600*01)

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• Consider a dataset $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$. Assume that every data point $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is generated from a latent variable $z_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$. This latent variable has a prior distribution $\mathbb{P}(z_i)$. According to Bayes' rule, we have:

$$\mathbb{P}(z_i \mid x_i) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(x_i \mid z_i) \mathbb{P}(z_i)}{\mathbb{P}(x_i)}.$$
 (1)

• Let $\mathbb{P}(z_i)$ be an arbitrary distribution denoted by $q(z_i)$. Suppose the parameter of conditional distribution of z_i on x_i is denoted by θ ; hence, $\mathbb{P}(z_i | x_i) = \mathbb{P}(z_i | x_i, \theta)$. Therefore, we can say:

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_i \mid \mathbf{z}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \, \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_i \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})}.$$
 (2)

 Consider the Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence [1] between the prior probability of the latent variable and the posterior of the latent variable:

$$\begin{aligned} &\mathsf{KL}\big(q(z_i) \, \| \, \mathbb{P}(z_i \, | \, x_i, \theta)\big) \overset{(a)}{=} \int q(z_i) \log \big(\frac{q(z_i)}{\mathbb{P}(z_i \, | \, x_i, \theta)}\big) dz_i \\ &= \int q(z_i) \big(\log(q(z_i)) - \log(\mathbb{P}(z_i \, | \, x_i, \theta))\big) dz_i \\ &\overset{(2)}{=} \int q(z_i) \big(\log(q(z_i)) - \log(\mathbb{P}(x_i \, | \, z_i, \theta)) - \log(\mathbb{P}(z_i \, | \, \theta)) + \log(\mathbb{P}(x_i \, | \, \theta))\big) dz_i \\ &\overset{(b)}{=} \log(\mathbb{P}(x_i \, | \, \theta)) + \int q(z_i) \big(\log(q(z_i)) - \log(\mathbb{P}(x_i \, | \, z_i, \theta)) - \log(\mathbb{P}(z_i \, | \, \theta))\big) dz_i \\ &= \log(\mathbb{P}(x_i \, | \, \theta)) + \int q(z_i) \log \big(\frac{q(z_i)}{\mathbb{P}(x_i \, | \, z_i, \theta)\mathbb{P}(z_i \, | \, \theta)}\big) dz_i \\ &= \log(\mathbb{P}(x_i \, | \, \theta)) + \int q(z_i) \log \big(\frac{q(z_i)}{\mathbb{P}(x_i, z_i \, | \, \theta)}\big) dz_i \\ &= \log(\mathbb{P}(x_i \, | \, \theta)) + \mathsf{KL}\big(q(z_i) \, \| \, \mathbb{P}(x_i, z_i \, | \, \theta)\big), \end{aligned}$$

where (a) is for definition of KL divergence and (b) is because $\log(\mathbb{P}(x_i \mid \theta))$ is independent of z_i and comes out of integral and $\int dz_i = 1$.

Hence:

$$\log(\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_i \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})) = \mathsf{KL}(q(\mathbf{z}_i) \parallel \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta})) - \mathsf{KL}(q(\mathbf{z}_i) \parallel \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{z}_i \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})). \tag{3}$$

We found:

$$\log(\mathbb{P}(x_i \mid \theta)) = \mathsf{KL}(q(z_i) \parallel \mathbb{P}(z_i \mid x_i, \theta)) - \mathsf{KL}(q(z_i) \parallel \mathbb{P}(x_i, z_i \mid \theta)).$$

We define the Evidence Lower Bound (ELBO) as:

$$\mathcal{L}(q,\theta) := -\mathsf{KL}(q(z_i) \| \mathbb{P}(x_i, z_i | \theta)). \tag{4}$$

So:

$$\log(\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_i \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})) = \mathsf{KL}(q(\mathbf{z}_i) \parallel \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta})) + \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

Therefore:

$$\mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \log(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_i \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})) - \underbrace{\mathsf{KL}(q(\boldsymbol{z}_i) \parallel \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_i \mid \boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}))}_{>0}.$$
 (5)

 As the second term is negative with its minus, the ELBO is a lower bound on the log likelihood of data:

$$\mathcal{L}(q,\theta) \le \log(\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_i \mid \theta)). \tag{6}$$

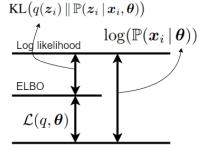
The likelihood $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_i | \boldsymbol{\theta})$ is also referred to as the **evidence**.

Note that this lower bound gets tight when:

$$\mathcal{L}(q,\theta) \approx \log(\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_i \mid \theta)) \implies 0 \le \mathsf{KL}(q(\mathbf{z}_i) \parallel \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \theta)) \stackrel{\text{set}}{=} 0$$
$$\implies q(\mathbf{z}_i) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \theta). \tag{7}$$

We found:

$$\log(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_i \,|\, \boldsymbol{\theta})) = \mathsf{KL}\big(q(\boldsymbol{z}_i) \,\|\, \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_i \,|\, \boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta})\big) + \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}).$$



• According to MLE, we want to maximize the log-likelihood of data. According to Eq. (6):

$$\mathcal{L}(q, \theta) < \log(\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_i | \theta)),$$

maximizing the ELBO will also maximize the log-likelihood.

- The Eq. (6) holds for any prior distribution q. We want to find the best distribution to maximize the lower bound.
- Hence, EM for variational inference is performed iteratively as:

E-step:
$$q^{(t)} := \arg\max_{q} \quad \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)}),$$
 (8)

$$\mathsf{M}\text{-step:} \hspace{0.5cm} \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)} := \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \hspace{0.5cm} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{q}^{(t)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}), \hspace{0.5cm} (9)$$

where t denotes the iteration index.

• E-step in EM for Variational Inference: The E-step is:

$$\begin{aligned} & \max_{q} \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)}) \stackrel{\text{(5)}}{=} \max_{q} \log(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_i \,|\, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)})) + \max_{q} \left(- \mathsf{KL}\big(q(\boldsymbol{z}_i) \,\|\, \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_i \,|\, \boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)}) \big) \right) \\ & = \max_{q} \log(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_i \,|\, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)})) + \min_{q} \mathsf{KL}\big(q(\boldsymbol{z}_i) \,\|\, \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_i \,|\, \boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)}) \big). \end{aligned}$$

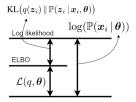
• The second term is always non-negative; hence, its minimum is zero:

$$\mathsf{KL}(q(z_i) \, \| \, \mathbb{P}(z_i \, | \, \boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)})) \stackrel{\mathsf{set}}{=} 0 \implies q(z_i) = \mathbb{P}(z_i \, | \, \boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)}),$$

which was already found in Eq. (7). Thus, the E-step assigns:

$$q^{(t)}(\mathbf{z}_i) \leftarrow \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)}). \tag{10}$$

 In other words, in the figure, it pushes the middle line toward the above line by maximizing the ELBO.



• M-step in EM for Variational Inference: The M-step is:

$$\begin{split} & \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{q}^{(t)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \overset{(4)}{=} \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \left(- \mathsf{KL}\big(\boldsymbol{q}^{(t)}(\boldsymbol{z}_i) \, \| \, \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{z}_i \, | \, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \big) \right) \\ & \overset{(a)}{=} \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \left[\, - \int \boldsymbol{q}^{(t)}(\boldsymbol{z}_i) \log(\frac{\boldsymbol{q}^{(t)}(\boldsymbol{z}_i)}{\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{z}_i \, | \, \boldsymbol{\theta})}) \, d\boldsymbol{z}_i \right] \\ & = \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \int \boldsymbol{q}^{(t)}(\boldsymbol{z}_i) \log(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{z}_i \, | \, \boldsymbol{\theta})) \, d\boldsymbol{z}_i - \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \int \boldsymbol{q}^{(t)}(\boldsymbol{z}_i) \log(\boldsymbol{q}^{(t)}(\boldsymbol{z}_i)) \, d\boldsymbol{z}_i, \end{split}$$

where (a) is for definition of KL divergence.

• The second term is constant w.r.t. θ . Hence:

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathcal{L}(q^{(t)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \int q^{(t)}(\boldsymbol{z}_i) \log(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{z}_i \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})) \, d\boldsymbol{z}_i \\ &\stackrel{(a)}{=} \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathbb{E}_{\sim q^{(t)}(\boldsymbol{z}_i)} \big[\log \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{z}_i \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) \big], \end{aligned}$$

where (a) is because of definition of expectation. Thus, the M-step assigns:

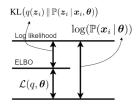
$$\theta^{(t)} \leftarrow \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathbb{E}_{\sim q^{(t)}(\boldsymbol{z}_i)} \left[\log \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{z}_i \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) \right].$$
 (11)

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We found:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)} \leftarrow \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \; \mathbb{E}_{\sim q^{(t)}(\boldsymbol{z}_i)} \big[\log \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{z}_i \,|\, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \big].$$

• In other words, in the figure, it pushes the above line higher.



- The E-step and M-step together somehow play a game where the E-step tries to reach the middle line (or the ELBO) to the log-likelihood and the M-step tries to increase the above line (or the log-likelihood). This procedure is done repeatedly so the two steps help each other improve to higher values.
- To summarize, the EM in variational inference is:

$$q^{(t)}(\mathbf{z}_i) \leftarrow \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)}), \tag{12}$$

$$\theta^{(t)} \leftarrow \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \ \mathbb{E}_{\sim q^{(t)}(\boldsymbol{z}_i)} \big[\log \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{z}_i \,|\, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \big].$$
 (13)

Variational Autoencoder

- It is noteworthy that, in variational inference, sometimes, the parameter θ is absorbed into the latent variable z_i .
- According to the chain rule, we have:

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{z}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_i \mid \mathbf{z}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \, \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) \, \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

• Considering the term $\mathbb{P}(z_i | \theta) \mathbb{P}(\theta)$ as one probability term, we have:

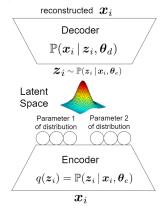
$$\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{z}_i) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_i | \mathbf{z}_i) \, \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i),$$

where the parameter heta disappears because of absorption.

Variational Autoencoder

Variational Autoencoder

- Variational Autoencoder (VAE) (2014) [2] applies variational inference, i.e., maximizes the ELBO, but in an autoencoder setup and makes it differentiable for the backpropagation training [3].
- As this figure shows, VAE includes an encoder and a decoder, each of which can have several network layers. A latent space is learned between the encoder and decoder. The latent variable z_i is sampled from the latent space. The input of encoder in VAE is the data point x_i and the output of decoder in VAE is its reconstruction x_i.



Encoder of Variational Autoencoder

- The encoder of VAE models the distribution $q(z_i) = \mathbb{P}(z_i | x_i, \theta_e)$ where the parameters of distribution θ_e are the weights of encoder layers in VAE.
- The input and output of encoder are $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $z_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$, respectively.
- As the figure depicts, the output neurons of encoder are supposed to determine the parameters of the conditional distribution $\mathbb{P}(z_i \mid x_i, \theta_e)$. If this conditional distribution has m number of parameters, we have m sets of output neurons from the encoder, denoted by $\{e_j\}_{j=1}^m$. The dimensionality of these sets may differ depending on the size of the parameters.
- For example, let the latent space be p-dimensional, i.e., $\mathbf{z}_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$. If the distribution $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_e)$ is a **multivariate Gaussian distribution**, we have two sets of output neurons for encoder where one set has p neurons for the **mean** of this distribution $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{e}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^p$ and the other set has $(p \times p)$ neurons for the **covariance** of this distribution $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}} = \text{matrix}$ form of $\mathbf{e}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$. If the covariance matrix is **diagonal**, the second set has p neurons rather than $(p \times p)$ neurons. In this case, we have $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{diag}(\mathbf{e}_2) \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$.
- Any distribution with any number of parameters can be chosen for $\mathbb{P}(z_i | x_i, \theta_e)$ but the multivariate Gaussian with diagonal covariance is very well-used:

$$q(\mathbf{z}_i) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_e) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathbf{z}|x}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathbf{z}|x}). \tag{14}$$

• Let the network weights for the output sets of encoder, $\{e_j\}_{j=1}^m$, be denoted by $\{\theta_{e,j}\}_{j=1}^m$. As the input of encoder is x_i , the j-th output set of encoder can be written as $e_j(x_i,\theta_{e,j})$. In the case of multivariate Gaussian distribution for the latent space, the parameters are $\mu_{z|x} = e_1(x_i,\theta_{e,1})$ and $\Sigma_{z|x} = \operatorname{diag}(e_2(x_i,\theta_{e,2}))$.

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Sampling the Latent Variable

- When the data point x_i is fed as input to the encoder, the parameters of the conditional distribution $q(z_i)$ are obtained; hence, the distribution of latent space, which is $q(z_i)$, is determined corresponding to the data point x_i .
- Now, in the latent space, we sample the corresponding latent variable from the distribution of latent space:

$$\mathbf{z}_i \sim q(\mathbf{z}_i) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_e).$$
 (15)

This latent variable is fed as input to the decoder which is explained in the following.

Decoder of Variational Autoencoder

- As the figure shows, the decoder of VAE models the conditional distribution $\mathbb{P}(x_i \mid z_i, \theta_d)$ where θ_d are the weights of decoder layers in VAE.
- The input and output of decoder are $z_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$ and $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$, respectively. The output neurons of decoder are supposed to either generate the reconstructed data point or determine the parameters of the conditional distribution $\mathbb{P}(x_i | z_i, \theta_d)$.
- The former is more common.
- In the latter case, if this conditional distribution has I number of parameters, we have I sets of output neurons from the decoder, denoted by $\left\{d_{j}\right\}_{j=1}^{I}$. The dimensionality of these sets may differ depending the size of every parameters. The example of multivariate Gaussian distribution also can be mentioned for the decoder.
- Let the network weights for the output sets of decoder, $\{d_j\}_{j=1}^l$, be denoted by $\{\theta_{d,j}\}_{j=1}^l$. As the input of decoder is z_i , the j-th output set of decoder can be written as $d_j(z_i,\theta_{d,j})$.

Training Variational Autoencoder with Expectation Maximization

• We use EM for training the VAE. Recall Eqs. (8) and (9) for EM in variational inference:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{E-step:} & q^{(t)} := \arg\max_{q} & \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)}), \\ \\ \text{M-step:} & \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)} := \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} & \mathcal{L}(q^{(t)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}). \end{array}$$

• Inspired by that, VAE uses EM for training where the ELBO is a function of encoder weights θ_e , decoder weights θ_d , and data point x_i :

E-step:
$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}^{(t)} := \arg\max_{q} \quad \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d}^{(t-1)}, \boldsymbol{x}_{i}),$$
 (16)

$$\mathsf{M}\text{-step:} \quad \boldsymbol{\theta}_d^{(t)} := \arg\max_{q} \quad \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_e^{(t)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_d, \boldsymbol{x}_i). \tag{17}$$

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Training Variational Autoencoder with Expectation Maximization

We had:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathsf{E}\text{-step:} & \boldsymbol{\theta}_e^{(t)} := \arg\max_{q} & \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_e, \boldsymbol{\theta}_d^{(t-1)}, \boldsymbol{x}_i), \\ \\ \mathsf{M}\text{-step:} & \boldsymbol{\theta}_d^{(t)} := \arg\max_{q} & \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_e^{(t)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_d, \boldsymbol{x}_i). \end{array}$$

• We can simplify this iterative optimization algorithm by alternating optimization [4] where we take a step of gradient ascent optimization in every iteration. We consider mini-batch stochastic gradient ascent and take training data in batches where b denotes the mini-batch size. Hence, the optimization is:

E-step:
$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}^{(t)} := \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}^{(t-1)} + \eta_{e} \frac{\partial \sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d}^{(t-1)}, \mathbf{x}_{i})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}},$$
 (18)

M-step:
$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_d^{(t)} := \boldsymbol{\theta}_d^{(t-1)} + \eta_d \frac{\partial \sum_{i=1}^b \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_e^{(t)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_d, \boldsymbol{x}_i)}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_d},$$
 (19)

where η_e and η_d are the learning rates for θ_e and θ_d , respectively.

Training Variational Autoencoder with Expectation Maximization

• Eqs. (4) and (12) were:

$$\mathcal{L}(q, \theta) := -\mathsf{KL}(q(z_i) \| \mathbb{P}(x_i, z_i | \theta)),$$

 $q^{(t)}(z_i) \leftarrow \mathbb{P}(z_i | x_i, \theta^{(t-1)}).$

The ELBO is simplified as:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \stackrel{(4)}{=} - \sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathsf{KL}(q(\boldsymbol{z}_{i}) \parallel \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{z}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d}))$$

$$\stackrel{(12)}{=} - \sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathsf{KL}(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}) \parallel \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{z}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d})). \tag{20}$$

- Note that the parameter of $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{z}_i | \boldsymbol{\theta}_d)$ is $\boldsymbol{\theta}_d$ because \mathbf{z}_i is generated after the encoder and before the decoder.
- There are different ways for approximating the KL divergence in Eq. (20) [5, 6]. We can simplify the ELBO in at least two different ways which are explained in the following.

Variational Autoencoder

• We continue the simplification of ELBO:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathsf{KL} \left(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}) \parallel \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{z}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d}) \right)$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathbb{E}_{\sim q^{(t-1)}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i})} \left[\log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e})}{\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{z}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d})} \right) \right]$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathbb{E}_{\sim \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e})} \left[\log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e})}{\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{z}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d})} \right) \right]. \tag{21}$$

This expectation can be approximated using Monte Carlo approximation [7] where we draw ℓ samples $\{\mathbf{z}_{i,j}\}_{i=1}^{\ell}$, corresponding to the *i*-th data point, from the conditional distribution distribution as:

$$\mathbf{z}_{i,j} \sim \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_e), \quad \forall j \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}.$$
 (22)

Monte Carlo approximation [7], in general, approximates expectation as:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\sim \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_e)}[f(\mathbf{z}_i)] \approx \frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} f(\mathbf{z}_{i,j}), \tag{23}$$

where $f(z_i)$ is a function of z_i .

We had:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathcal{L}(q, \theta) = -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathbb{E}_{\sim \mathbb{P}(z_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \theta_e)} \Big[\log \big(\frac{\mathbb{P}(z_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \theta_e)}{\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_i, z_i \mid \theta_d)} \big) \Big].$$

Here, the approximation is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx \sum_{i=1}^{b} \widetilde{\mathcal{L}}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i,j} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e})}{\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{z}_{i,j} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d})} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{b} \frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \left[\log \left(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{z}_{i,j} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d}) \right) - \log \left(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i,j} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}) \right) \right]. \tag{24}$$

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• We can simplify the ELBO using another approach:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathcal{L}(q,\theta) = -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathsf{KL}(\mathbb{P}(z_{i} \mid \mathbf{x}_{i}, \theta_{e}) \parallel \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{z}_{i} \mid \theta_{d}))$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \int \mathbb{P}(z_{i} \mid \mathbf{x}_{i}, \theta_{e}) \log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(z_{i} \mid \mathbf{x}_{i}, \theta_{e})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{z}_{i} \mid \theta_{d})}\right) dz_{i}$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \int \mathbb{P}(z_{i} \mid \mathbf{x}_{i}, \theta_{e}) \log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(z_{i} \mid \mathbf{x}_{i}, \theta_{e})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_{i} \mid \mathbf{z}_{i}, \theta_{d})} \mathbb{P}(z_{i})\right) dz_{i}$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \int \mathbb{P}(z_{i} \mid \mathbf{x}_{i}, \theta_{e}) \log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(z_{i} \mid \mathbf{x}_{i}, \theta_{e})}{\mathbb{P}(z_{i})}\right) dz_{i}$$

$$+ \sum_{i=1}^{b} \int \mathbb{P}(z_{i} \mid \mathbf{x}_{i}, \theta_{e}) \log \left(\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_{i} \mid \mathbf{z}_{i}, \theta_{d})\right) dz_{i}$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathsf{KL}(\mathbb{P}(z_{i} \mid \mathbf{x}_{i}, \theta_{e}) \parallel \mathbb{P}(z_{i}))$$

$$+ \sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathbb{E}_{\sim \mathbb{P}(z_{i} \mid \mathbf{x}_{i}, \theta_{e})} \left[\log \left(\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_{i} \mid \mathbf{z}_{i}, \theta_{d})\right)\right]. \tag{25}$$

Variational Autoencoder

We found:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathsf{KL}\big(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i} \,|\, \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}) \,\|\, \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i})\big) + \sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathbb{E}_{\sim \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i} \,|\, \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e})} \Big[\log \big(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i} \,|\, \boldsymbol{z}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d})\big)\Big].$$

• The second term in the above equation can be estimated using **Monte Carlo** approximation [7] where we draw ℓ samples $\{z_{i,j}\}_{j=1}^{\ell}$ from $\mathbb{P}(z_i | x_i, \theta_e)$:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathcal{L}(q, \theta) \approx \sum_{i=1}^{b} \widetilde{\mathcal{L}}(q, \theta)$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathsf{KL}(\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_{i} | \mathbf{x}_{i}, \theta_{e}) || \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_{i})) + \sum_{i=1}^{b} \frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \log (\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}_{i} | \mathbf{z}_{i,j}, \theta_{d})). \tag{26}$$

Variational Autoencode

We had:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathsf{KL}\big(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i} \,|\, \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}) \,\|\, \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i})\big) + \sum_{i=1}^{b} \frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \log \big(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i} \,|\, \boldsymbol{z}_{i,j}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d})\big).$$

• The first term in the above equation can be **converted to expectation** and then computed using **Monte Monte Carlo approximation** [7] again, where we draw ℓ samples $\{z_{i,j}\}_{j=1}^{\ell}$ from $\mathbb{P}(z_i \mid x_i, \theta_e)$:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx \sum_{i=1}^{b} \widetilde{\mathcal{L}}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathbb{E}_{\sim \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e})} \left[\log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e})}{\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i})} \right) \right] + \sum_{i=1}^{b} \frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \log \left(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{z}_{i,j}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d}) \right)$$

$$\approx -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \log \left(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i,j} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}) \right) - \log \left(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i,j}) \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{b} \frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \log \left(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{z}_{i,j}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d}) \right).$$
(27)

• In case we have some families of distributions, such as **Gaussian** distributions, for $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_{i,j} | \mathbf{x}_i, \theta_e)$ and $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_{i,j})$, the first term in Eq. (26) can be **computed analytically**. In the following, we simply Eq. (26) further for Gaussian distributions.

Simplification Type 2 for Special Case of Gaussian Distributions

• We can compute the KL divergence in the **first term** of Eq. (26) analytically for **univariate or multivariate Gaussian** distributions. For this, we need two following lemmas (see our tutorial paper [8] for proof).

Lemma

The KL divergence between two univariate Gaussian distributions $p_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$ and $p_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$ is:

$$KL(p_1||p_2) = \log(\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1}) + \frac{\sigma_1^2 + (\mu_1 - \mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2} - \frac{1}{2}.$$
 (28)

Lemma

The KL divergence between two multivariate Gaussian distributions $p_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \Sigma_1)$ and $p_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \Sigma_2)$ with dimensionality p is:

$$KL(p_1 \| p_2) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\log(\frac{|\mathbf{\Sigma}_2|}{|\mathbf{\Sigma}_1|}) - p + \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{\Sigma}_2^{-1}\mathbf{\Sigma}_1) + (\mu_2 - \mu_1)^{\top} \mathbf{\Sigma}_2^{-1} (\mu_2 - \mu_1) \right). \tag{29}$$

Simplification Type 2 for Special Case of Gaussian Distributions

Consider the case in which we have:

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_e) \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{z|x}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{z|x}), \tag{30}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i) \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathbf{z}}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathbf{z}}), \tag{31}$$

where $\mathbf{z}_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$. Note that the parameters $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{z|x}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{z|x}$ are trained in neural network while the parameters $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_{i,j})$ can be set to $\boldsymbol{\mu}_z = \mathbf{0}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_z = \mathbf{I}$ (inspired by the prior distribution of \mathbf{z} in factor analysis).

According to Lemma 2, the approximation of ELBO, i.e. Eq. (26), can be simplified to:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx \sum_{i=1}^{b} \widetilde{\mathcal{L}}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \frac{1}{2} \left(\log \left(\frac{|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{z}|}{|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{z|x}|} \right) - p + \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{z}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{z|x}) + (\boldsymbol{\mu}_{z} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{z|x})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{z}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\mu}_{z} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{z|x}) \right)$$

$$+ \sum_{i=1}^{b} \frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \log \left(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i} | \boldsymbol{z}_{i,j}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d}) \right). \tag{32}$$

Variational Autoencoder

Training Variational Autoencoder with Approximations

 We can train VAE with EM, where Monte Carlo approximations are applied to ELBO. The Eqs. (18) and (19):

$$\begin{split} \text{E-step:} & \quad \boldsymbol{\theta}_e^{(t)} := \boldsymbol{\theta}_e^{(t-1)} + \eta_e \frac{\partial \sum_{i=1}^b \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_e, \boldsymbol{\theta}_d^{(t-1)}, \mathbf{x}_i)}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_e}, \\ \text{M-step:} & \quad \boldsymbol{\theta}_d^{(t)} := \boldsymbol{\theta}_d^{(t-1)} + \eta_d \frac{\partial \sum_{i=1}^b \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_e^{(t)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_d, \mathbf{x}_i)}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_d}, \end{split}$$

are replaced by the following equations:

E-step:
$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}^{(t)} := \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}^{(t-1)} + \eta_{e} \frac{\partial \sum_{i=1}^{b} \widetilde{\mathcal{L}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d}^{(t-1)}, \boldsymbol{x}_{i})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}},$$
 (33)

M-step:
$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{d}^{(t)} := \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d}^{(t-1)} + \eta_{d} \frac{\partial \sum_{i=1}^{b} \widetilde{\mathcal{L}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}^{(t)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d}, \mathbf{x}_{i})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d}},$$
 (34)

where the approximated ELBO was introduced in previous sections.

The Reparameterization Trick

• Sampling the ℓ samples for the latent variables, i.e. Eq. (15):

$$z_i \sim q(z_i) = \mathbb{P}(z_i \mid x_i, \theta_e),$$

blocks the gradient flow because computing the derivatives through $\mathbb{P}(z_i | x_i, \theta_e)$ by chain rule gives a high variance estimate of gradient.

• In order to overcome this problem, we use the **reparameterization technique** (2014) [2, 9, 10]. In this technique, instead of sampling $z_i \sim \mathbb{P}(z_i \mid x_i, \theta_e)$, we assume z_i is a random variable but is a **deterministic function of another random variable** ϵ_i as follows:

$$\mathbf{z}_i = g(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i, \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_e), \tag{35}$$

where ϵ_i is a stochastic variable sampled from a distribution as:

$$\epsilon_i \sim \mathbb{P}(\epsilon).$$
 (36)

The Reparameterization Trick

• The Eqs. (21) and (25):

$$\begin{split} &\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathbb{E}_{\sim \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e})} \Big[\log \big(\frac{\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e})}{\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{z}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d})} \big) \Big], \\ &\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathsf{KL} \big(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e}) \parallel \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i}) \big) + \sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathbb{E}_{\sim \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{e})} \Big[\log \big(\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{z}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{d}) \big) \Big], \end{split}$$

both contain an expectation of a function $f(z_i)$. Using this technique, this expectation is replaced as:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\sim \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_e)}[f(\mathbf{z}_i)] \to \mathbb{E}_{\sim \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{z}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_e)}[f(g(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i, \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_e))]. \tag{37}$$

- Using the reparameterization technique, the **encoder**, which implemented $\mathbb{P}(z_i \mid x_i, \theta_e)$, is replaced by $g(\epsilon_i, x_i, \theta_e)$ where in the latent space between encoder and decoder, we have $\epsilon_i \sim \mathbb{P}(\epsilon)$ and $z_i = g(\epsilon_i, x_i, \theta_e)$.
- A simple example for the reparameterization technique is when z_i and ϵ_i are univariate Gaussian variables:

$$z_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2),$$

 $\epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1),$
 $z_i = g(\epsilon_i) = \mu + \sigma \epsilon_i.$

• For some more advanced reparameterization techniques, the reader can refer to [11].

Training Variational Autoencoder with Backpropagation

- In practice, VAE is trained by backpropagation [9] where the backpropagation algorithm
 [3] is used for training the weights of network.
- Recall that in training VAE with EM, the encoder and decoder are trained separately using the E-step and the M-step of EM, respectively.
- However, in training VAE with backpropagation, the whole network is trained together and not in separate steps.
- Suppose the whole weights of VAE are denoted by $\theta := \{\theta_e, \theta_d\}$. Backpropagation trains VAE using the mini-batch stochastic gradient descent with the negative ELBO, $\sum_{i=1}^{b} -\widetilde{\mathcal{L}}(\theta, \mathbf{x}_i)$, as the loss function:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)} := \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)} - \eta \frac{\partial \sum_{i=1}^{b} -\widetilde{\mathcal{L}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}_i)}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}}, \tag{38}$$

where η is the learning rate. Note that we are **minimizing** here because neural networks usually minimize the loss function.

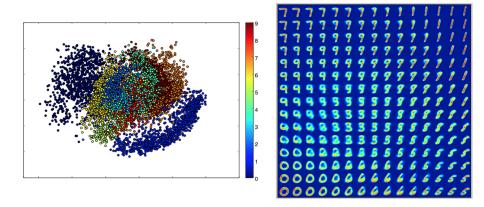
The Test Phase in Variational Autoencoder

- In the test phase, we feed the test data point x_i to the encoder to determine the parameters of the conditional distribution of latent space, i.e., $\mathbb{P}(z_i \mid x_i, \theta_e)$.
- Then, from this distribution, we sample the latent variable z_i from the latent space and generate the corresponding reconstructed data point x_i by the decoder.
- As you see, VAE is a generative model which generates data points [12].

Blurry Images Generated by VAE

- One of the problems of VAE is generating blurry images when data points are images.
 This blurry artifact may be because of several following reasons:
 - sampling for the Monte Carlo approximations
 - ▶ lower bound approximation by ELBO
 - restrictions on the family of distributions where usually simple Gaussian distributions are used.
- Note that generative adversarial networks [13] usually generate clearer images; therefore, some works have combined variational and adversarial inferences [14] for using the advantages of both models.

Simulation on MNIST Digit Dataset



Credit of image: https://blog.keras.io/building-autoencoders-in-keras.html

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- Some slides are based on our tutorial paper: "Factor analysis, probabilistic principal component analysis, variational inference, and variational autoencoder: Tutorial and survey" [8]
- Some slides of this slide deck are inspired by teachings of deep learning course at the Carnegie Mellon University (you can see their YouTube channel).
- Variational autoencoder in Keras:
 - https://blog.keras.io/building-autoencoders-in-keras.html
 - https://keras.io/examples/generative/vae/

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