

Inverse problem regularization with hierarchical variational autoencoders

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Abstract

In this paper, we propose to regularize ill-posed inverse problems using a deep hierarchical variational autoencoder (HVAE) as an image prior. The proposed method synthesizes the advantages of i) denoiser-based Plug & Play approaches and ii) generative model based approaches to inverse problems. First, we exploit VAE properties to design an efficient algorithm that benefits from convergence guarantees of Plug-and-Play (PnP) methods. Second, our approach is not restricted to specialized datasets and the proposed PnP-HVAE model is able to solve image restoration problems on natural images of any size. Our experiments show that the proposed PnP-HVAE method is competitive with both SOTA denoiser-based PnP approaches, and other SOTA restoration methods based on generative models. The code for this project is available at <https://github.com/jprost76/PnP-HVAE>.

1. Introduction

In this work, we study linear inverse problems

$$\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x} + \epsilon \quad (1)$$

in which $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is the degraded observation, $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ the original signal we wish to retrieve, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$ is an observation matrix and $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 I)$ is an additive Gaussian noise. Many image restoration tasks can be formulated as (1), including deblurring, super-resolution or inpainting.

With the development of deep learning in computer vision, image restoration have known significant progress. The most straight-forward way to exploit deep learning for solving image inverse problems is to train a neural network to map degraded images to their clean version in a supervised fashion. However, this type of approach requires a

large amount of training data, and it lacks flexibility, as one network is needed for each different inverse problem.

An alternate approach is to use deep latent variable generative models such as GANs or VAEs and to compute the Maximum-a-Posterior (MAP) estimator in the latent space:

$$\hat{\mathbf{z}} = \arg \max_{\mathbf{z}} \log p(\mathbf{y}|G(\mathbf{z})) + \log p(\mathbf{z}), \quad (2)$$

where \mathbf{z} is the latent variable and G is the generative network [4, 34]. In (2) the likelihood $p(\mathbf{y}|G(\mathbf{z}))$ is related to the forward model (1), and $p(\mathbf{z})$ corresponds to the prior distribution over the latent space. After solving (2), the solution of the inverse problem is defined as $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = G(\hat{\mathbf{z}})$. The latent optimization methods (2) provide high-quality solutions that are guaranteed to be in the range of a generative network. However, this implies highly non-convex problems (2) due to the complexity of the generator and the obtained solutions may lack of consistency with the degraded observation [47]. Although the convergence of latent optimization algorithms has been studied in the literature, existing convergence guarantees are either restricted to specific settings, or rely on assumptions that are hard to verify.

In this work, we propose an algorithm that exploits the strong prior of a deep generative model while providing realistic convergence guarantees. We consider a specific type of deep generative model, the hierarchical variational autoencoder (HVAE). HVAE gives state-of-the-art results on image generation benchmarks [53, 6, 15, 31], and provides an encoder that will be key in the design of our proposed method.

As the HVAE model differs significantly from the architecture of concurrent models, it is necessary to design algorithms adapted to their specific structure. The latent space dimension of HVAE is significantly higher than the image dimension. Hence, constraining the solution to lie in the image of the generator is not sufficient enough to regularize

inverse problems. Indeed, it has been observed that HVAEs can perfectly reconstruct out-of-domain images [14]. Consequently, we propose to constrain the latent variable of the solution to lie in the high probability area of the HVAE prior distribution. This can be done efficiently by controlling the variance of the prior over the latent variables.

The common practice of optimizing the latent variables of the generative model with backpropagation is impractical due to the high dimensionality of the hierarchical latent space. Instead, we exploit the HVAE encoder to define an alternating algorithm [11] to optimize the joint distribution over the image and its latent variable

To derive convergence guarantees for our algorithm, we show that it can be reformulated as a Plug-and-Play (PnP) method [54], which alternates between an application of the proximal operator of the data-fidelity term, and a reconstruction by the HVAE. Under this perspective, we give sufficient conditions to ensure the convergence of our method, and we provide an explicit characterization of the fixed-point of the iterations. Motivated by the parallel with PnP methods, we name our method PnP-HVAE.

1.1. Contributions and outline

In this work, we introduce PnP-HVAE, a method for regularizing image restoration problems with a hierarchical variational autoencoder. Our approach exploits the expressiveness of a deep HVAE generative model and its capacity to provide a strong prior on specialized datasets, as well as convergence guarantees of Plug-and-Play methods and their ability to deal with natural images of any size. After a review of related works (section 2) and of the background on HVAEs (section 3), our contributions are the following.

- In section 4, we introduce PnP-HVAE, an algorithm to solve inverse problems with a HVAE prior. PnP-HVAE optimizes a joint posterior on image and latent variables without backpropagation through the generative network. It can be viewed as a generalization of JPMAP [11] to hierarchical VAEs, with additional control of the regularization.
- In section 5, we demonstrate the convergence of PnP-HVAE under hypotheses on the autoencoder reconstruction. Numerical experiments illustrate that the technical hypotheses are empirically met on noisy images with our proposed architecture. We also exhibit the better convergence properties of our alternate algorithm with respect to the use of Adam for optimizing the joint posterior objective.
- In section 6, we demonstrate the effectiveness of PnP-HVAE through image restoration experiments and comparisons on (i) faces images using the pre-trained VDVAE model from [6]; and (ii) natural images using the proposed PatchVDVAE architecture trained on natural image patches.

2. Related works

CNN methods for regularizing inverse problems can be classified in two categories: regularization with denoisers (Plug-and-Play) and regularization with generative models.

2.1. Plug-and-Play methods

Plug-and-Play (PnP) and RED methods [54, 43] make use of a (deep) denoising method as a proxy to encode the local information over the prior distribution. The denoiser is plugged in an optimization algorithm such as Half-Quadratic Splitting or ADMM in order to solve the inverse problem. PnP algorithms come with theoretical convergence guarantees by imposing certain conditions on the denoiser network [45, 37, 19]. These approaches provide state-of-the-art results on a wide variety of image modality thanks to the excellent performance of the currently available deep denoiser architectures [55]. However, PnP methods are only implicitly related to a probabilistic model, and they provide limited performance for challenging structured problems such as the inpainting of large occlusions.

2.2. Deep generative models for inverse problems

Generative models represent an explicit image prior that can be used to regularize ill-posed inverse problems [4, 26, 34, 8, 35, 36, 51]. They are latent variable models parametrized by neural networks, optimized to fit a training data distribution [25, 12, 10, 16].

Convergence issues. Regularization with generative models (2) involves highly non-convex optimization over latent variables [4, 34, 35]. The convergence guarantees of existing methods remain to be established [48, 40, 17].

Convergent methods have only been proposed for restricted uses cases. In compressed sensing problems with Gaussian measurement matrices, one can show that the objective function has a few critical points and design an algorithm to find the global optimum [13, 18]. With a prior given by a VAE, and under technical hypothesis on the encoder and the VAE architecture, the Joint Posterior Maximization with Autoencoding Prior (JPMAP) framework of [11] converges toward a minimizer of the joint posterior $p(x, z|y)$ of the image x and latent z given the observation y . JPMAP is nevertheless only designed for VAEs of limited expressiveness, with a simple fixed Gaussian prior distribution over the latent space. This makes it impossible to use this approach for anything other than toy examples.

Genericity issues. When a highly structured dataset with fixed image size is available (e.g. face images [20]), deep generative models produce image restorations of impressive quality for severely ill-posed problems, such as super-resolution with huge upscaling factors.

For natural images, deep priors have been improved by normalizing flows [41, 10], GANs [12], score-based [52]

and diffusion models [16, 47, 46]. Note that the use of diffusion models in PnP is still based on approximations [50, 7], assumptions [22, 33] or empirical algorithms [30].

While GAN models were considered SOTA, modern hierarchical VAE (HVAE) architectures were shown to display quality on par with GANs [6, 53], while being able to perfectly reconstruct out-of-domain images [14].

Integrating HVAE in a convergent scheme for natural image restoration of any size raises several theoretical and methodological challenges, as the image model of HVAE is the push-forward of a *causal cascade of latent distributions*.

3. Background on variational autoencoders

This work exploits the capacity of HVAEs to model complex image distributions [6, 53]. We review the properties of the loss function used to train a VAE (section 3.1), then we detail the generalization of VAE to hierarchical VAE (section 3.2), and present the temperature scaling approach to monitor the quality of generated images (section 3.3).

3.1. VAE training

Variational autoencoders (VAE) have been introduced in [25] to model complex data distributions. VAEs are trained to fit a parametric probability distribution in the form of a latent variable model:

$$p_\theta(\mathbf{x}) = \int p_\theta(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})p_\theta(\mathbf{z})d\mathbf{z}, \quad (3)$$

where $p_\theta(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})$ is a probabilistic decoder, and $p_\theta(\mathbf{z})$ corresponds to the prior distribution over the model latent variable \mathbf{z} . A VAE is also composed of a probabilistic encoder $q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$, whose role is to approximate the posterior of the latent model $p_\theta(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$, which is usually intractable.

The generative model parameters $\theta \in \Theta$ and the approximate posterior parameters $\phi \in \Phi$ of a VAE are jointly trained by maximizing the evidence lower bound (ELBO) [25, 42] on a training data distribution $p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})$.

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}; \theta, \phi) = \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})}[\log p_\theta(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})] - \text{KL}(q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})||p_\theta(\mathbf{z})). \quad (4)$$

The ELBO expectation on $p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})$ is upper-bounded by the negative entropy of the data distribution, and, when the upper-bound is reached we have that [56]:

$$\text{KL}(p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})||p_\theta(\mathbf{x})p_\theta(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})) = 0. \quad (5)$$

3.2. Hierarchical variational autoencoders

The ability of hierarchical VAEs to model complex distributions is due to their hierarchical structure imposed in the latent space. The latent variable of HVAE is partitioned into L subgroups $\mathbf{z} = (\mathbf{z}_0, \mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_{L-1})$, and the prior

and the encoder are respectively defined as:

$$p_\theta(\mathbf{z}) = \prod_{l=1}^{L-1} p_\theta(\mathbf{z}_l|\mathbf{z}_{<l})p_\theta(\mathbf{z}_0) \quad (6)$$

$$q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{l=1}^{L-1} q_\phi(\mathbf{z}_l|\mathbf{z}_{<l}, \mathbf{x})q_\phi(\mathbf{z}_0|\mathbf{x}), \quad (7)$$

We consider a specific class of HVAEs with Gaussian conditional distributions for the encoder and the decoder

$$\begin{cases} p_\theta(\mathbf{z}_l|\mathbf{z}_{<l}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}_l; \mu_{\theta,l}(\mathbf{z}_{<l}), \Sigma_{\theta,l}(\mathbf{z}_{<l})) \\ q_\phi(\mathbf{z}_l|\mathbf{z}_{<l}, \mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}_l; \mu_{\phi,l}(\mathbf{z}_{<l}, \mathbf{x}), \Sigma_{\phi,l}(\mathbf{z}_{<l}, \mathbf{x})), \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

where $\mu_{\theta,0}$ and $\Sigma_{\theta,0}$ can either be trainable or non-trainable constants, and the remaining mean vectors ($\mu_{\theta,l}$, and $\mu_{\phi,l}$, for $l > 0$) and covariance matrices ($\Sigma_{\theta,l}$ and $\Sigma_{\phi,l}$, for $l > 0$) are parametrized by neural networks.¹ In this work, we consider models with a Gaussian decoder:

$$p_\theta(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \mu_\theta(\mathbf{z}), \gamma^2 I). \quad (9)$$

3.3. Temperature scaling

As demonstrated in [53, 6], sampling the latent variables \mathbf{z}_l from a prior with reduced temperature improves the visual quality of the generated images from the VAE. In practice, this is done by multiplying the covariance matrix of the Gaussian distribution $p_\theta(\mathbf{z}_l|\mathbf{z}_{<l})$ by a factor $\tau_l < 1$. This factor τ_l is called temperature because of its link to statistical physics. Reducing the temperature of the priors amounts to defining the auxiliary model:

$$p_{\theta,\tau}(\mathbf{z}_0, \dots, \mathbf{z}_{L-1}, \mathbf{x}) = \prod_{l=0}^{L-1} \frac{p_\theta(\mathbf{z}_l|\mathbf{z}_{<l})^{\frac{1}{\tau_l}}}{\tau_l^{\frac{d_l}{2}}} p_\theta(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}_{<L}), \quad (10)$$

where $\tau := (\tau_0, \dots, \tau_{L-1})$ gives the temperature for each level of the hierarchy, and d_l is the dimension of the latent variable \mathbf{z}_l . In the following, we use this temperature-scaled model to balance the regularization of our inverse problem.

4. Regularization with HVAE Prior

In this section we introduce our Plug-and-Play method using a Hierarchical VAE prior (PnP-HVAE) to solve generic image inverse problems. Building on top of the JPMAP framework [11], we propose a joint model over the image and its latent variable that we optimize in an alternate way. By doing so, we take advantage of the HVAE encoder to avoid backpropagation through the generative network. Although our motivation is similar to JPMAP, PnP-HVAE

¹Note that for the special case $l = 0$, $\mathbf{z}_{<l}$ is empty, meaning that $\Sigma_{\theta,0}(\mathbf{z}_{<0}) = \Sigma_{\theta,0}$ is actually a constant, $q_\phi(\mathbf{z}_0|\mathbf{z}_{<0}, \mathbf{x}) = q_\phi(\mathbf{z}_0|\mathbf{x})$ is only conditioned on \mathbf{x} , etc.

overcomes two of its limitations, that are the lack of control, and the limitation to simple and non-hierarchical VAEs. We show in section 4.1 that the strength of the regularization of the tackled inverse problem can be monitored by tuning the temperature of the prior in the latent space. In section 4.2, we propose an approximation of the joint posterior distribution using the hierarchical VAE encoder. In section 4.3, we present our final algorithm that includes a new greedy scheme to optimize the latent variable of the HVAE.

4.1. Tempered hierarchical joint posterior

The linear image degradation model (1) yields

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) \propto e^{-f(\mathbf{x})}, \quad f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2. \quad (11)$$

Solving the underlying image inverse problem in a bayesian framework requires an a priori distribution $p(\mathbf{x})$ over clean images and studying the posterior distribution of \mathbf{x} knowing its degraded observation \mathbf{y} . In this work, the image prior is given by a hierarchical VAE and we exploit the joint posterior model $p(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y})$. From the HVAE latent variable model with reduced temperature $p_{\theta, \tau}(z_0, \dots, z_{L-1}, \mathbf{x})$ as defined in (10), we define the associated tempered joint model as:

$$p(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) := p_{\theta, \tau}(z_0, \dots, z_{L-1}, \mathbf{x}) p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}). \quad (12)$$

Following the JPMAP idea from [11], we aim at finding the couple (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) that maximizes the joint posterior $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\mathbf{y})$:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}} -\log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\mathbf{y}). \quad (13)$$

Although we are only interested in finding the image \mathbf{x} , the joint Maximum A Posteriori (MAP) criterion (13) makes it possible to derive an optimization scheme that only relies on forward calls of the HVAE. Using Bayes' rule and the definition of the tempered HVAE joint model (12) and (10), the logarithm of the joint posterior rewrites:

$$\begin{aligned} & \log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\mathbf{y}) \log p(\mathbf{y}) \\ &= \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{l=0}^{L-1} \log \frac{p_{\theta}(z_l|z_{<l})^{\frac{1}{\tau_l^2}}}{\tau_l^{\frac{d_l}{2}}} + \log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}|z_{<L}). \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

Since $p(\mathbf{y})$ is constant, finding the joint MAP estimate (13) amounts to minimizing the following criterion:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}} J_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) := & - \sum_{l=1}^{L-1} \frac{1}{\tau_l^2} \log p_{\theta}(z_l|z_{<l}) \\ & + f(\mathbf{x}) - \log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}|z_{<L}). \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

Notice that the temperature of the prior over the latent space τ_l controls the weight of the regularization over the latent variable z_l . Optimizing (15) w.r.t. \mathbf{x} is tractable, whereas the minimization w.r.t. \mathbf{z} requires a backpropagation through the decoder $\log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}|z_{<L})$ that is impractical due to the high dimensionality and the hierarchical structure of the HVAE latent space.

4.2. Encoder approximation of the joint posterior

Using the encoder q_{ϕ} , we can reformulate the joint MAP problem (15) in a form that is more convenient to optimize with respect to \mathbf{z} . Indeed, assuming that the encoder perfectly matches the true posterior, we have that:

$$p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}) = \frac{q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})}{p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z})}. \quad (16)$$

This assumption can be met if the variational family $\{q_{\phi}(\cdot|\mathbf{x}); \phi \in \Phi\}$ contains the true posterior $p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$ and is trained to optimality, following equation (5). If this assumption appears unrealistic for vanilla (non-hierarchical) VAE [11], our experiments suggest that HVAE is sufficiently expressive to match the posterior to a reasonably good accuracy.

Thus, by introducing the decoder expression (16) in the full model (12), we have:

$$p(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \prod_{l=0}^{L-1} \frac{1}{\tau_l^{\frac{d_l}{2}}} \frac{q_{\phi}(z_l|z_{<l}, \mathbf{x})}{p_{\theta}(z_l|z_{<l})^{1-\tau_l^{-2}}} p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}).$$

Denoting $\lambda_l = \frac{1}{\tau_l^2} - 1$, we reformulate the joint MAP problem (13) as a joint MAP problem over the encoder model:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}} J_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) := & - \sum_{l=0}^{L-1} (\log q_{\phi}(z_l|\mathbf{x}, z_{<l}) + \lambda_l \log p_{\theta}(z_l|z_{<l})) \\ & + f(\mathbf{x}) - \log p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}). \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

4.3. Alternate optimization with PnP-HVAE

We introduce an alternate scheme to minimize (13) that sequentially optimizes with respect to \mathbf{x} and to \mathbf{z} . For a linear degradation model and a Gaussian decoder (1), the criterion $J_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$ in (15) is convex in \mathbf{x} and its global minimum is $\mathbf{x} = \left(A^t A + \frac{\sigma^2}{\gamma^2} \text{Id}\right)^{-1} \left(A^t \mathbf{y} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\gamma^2} \mu_{\theta}(\mathbf{z})\right)$. Next we propose to compute an approximate solution of the problem $\min_{\mathbf{z}} J_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$ with the greedy algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1 Hierarchical encoding with latent regularization to minimize (17) w.r.t. \mathbf{z} for a fixed \mathbf{x}

Require: image \mathbf{x} ; HVAE (ϕ, θ) ; temperature τ_l ; $\lambda_l = \frac{1}{\tau_l^2} - 1$

for $0 \leq l < L$ **do**

$S_q \leftarrow \Sigma_{\phi, l}^{-1}(\mathbf{z}_{<l}, \mathbf{x}); m_q \leftarrow \mu_{\phi, l}(\mathbf{z}_{<l}, \mathbf{x})$ ▷ Encoder

$S_p \leftarrow \Sigma_{\theta, l}^{-1}(\mathbf{z}_{<l}); m_p \leftarrow \mu_{\theta, l}(\mathbf{z}_{<l})$ ▷ Prior

$z_l \leftarrow (S_q + \lambda_l S_p)^{-1} (S_q m_q + \lambda_l S_p m_p)$

end for

return $E_{\tau}(\mathbf{x}) = (\hat{z}_0, \hat{z}_1, \dots, \hat{z}_{L-1})$

In algorithm 1, the latent variables z_l are determined in a hierarchical fashion starting from the coarsest to the

finest one. As defined in relations (8), the conditionals $q_\phi(z_l|\mathbf{x}, z_{<l})$ and $p_\theta(z_l|z_{<l})$ are Gaussian. Therefore, the minimization at each step can be viewed as an interpolation between the mean of the encoder $q_\phi(z_l|\mathbf{x}, z_{<l})$ and the prior $p_\theta(z_l|z_{<l})$, given some weights conditioned by the covariance matrices and the temperature τ_l . The solution of each minimization problem in z_l is given by:

$$\hat{z}_l = \left(\Sigma_{\phi,l}^{-1}(\hat{z}_{<l}, \mathbf{x}) + \lambda_l \Sigma_{\theta,l}^{-1}(\hat{z}_{<l}) \right)^{-1} \left(\Sigma_{\phi,l}^{-1}(\hat{z}_{<l}, \mathbf{x}) \mu_{\phi,l}(\hat{z}_{<l}, \mathbf{x}) + \lambda_l \Sigma_{\theta,l}^{-1}(\hat{z}_{<l}) \mu_{\theta,l}(\hat{z}_{<l}) \right) \quad (18)$$

where $\lambda_l = 1/\tau_l^2 - 1$. In the following, we denote as $\hat{z} := E_\tau(\mathbf{x})$ the output of the hierarchical encoding of Algorithm 1. In appendix 8.1 we show that this algorithm finds the global optimum of $J_2(\mathbf{x}, \cdot)$ under mild assumptions.

The final PnP-HVAE procedure to solve an inverse problem with the HVAE prior is presented in Algorithm 2.

Algorithm 2 PnP-HVAE - Restoration by solving (15)

```

k ← 0; res ← +∞; initialize  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ 
while res > tol do
  %  $\min_z J_2(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}, z) \triangleright$  Optimize (17) w.r.t.  $z$  using Alg. 1
   $\mathbf{z}^{(k+1)} = E_\tau(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$ 
  %  $\min_x J_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}^{(k+1)}) \triangleright$  Optimize (15) w.r.t.  $\mathbf{x}$ 
   $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \left( A^t A + \frac{\sigma^2}{\gamma^2} \text{Id} \right)^{-1} \left( A^t \mathbf{y} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\gamma^2} \mu_\theta(\mathbf{z}^{(k+1)}) \right)$ 
  res ←  $\|\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)}\|$ ; k ← k + 1
end while
return  $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ 

```

5. Convergence analysis

We now analyse the convergence of Algorithm 2. Following the work of [3], the alternate optimization scheme converges if $q_\phi(z|x) = p_\theta(z|x)$ and the greedy optimization scheme in Algorithm 1 actually solves $\min_z J_2(\mathbf{x}, z)$. In practice, it is difficult to verify if these hypotheses hold. We propose to theoretically study algorithm 2, and next verify empirically that the assumptions are met.

In section 5.1, we reformulate Algorithm 2 as a Plug-and-Play algorithm, where the HVAE reconstruction takes the role of the denoiser. Then we study in section 5.2 the fixed-point convergence of the algorithm. Finally, section 5.3 contains numerical experiments with the patch HVAE architecture proposed in section 6.2. We empirically show that the patch architecture satisfies the aforementioned technical assumptions and then illustrate the numerical convergence and the stability of our alternate algorithm.

5.1. Plug-and-Play HVAE

In this section we make the assumption that the HVAE decoder is Gaussian with a constant variance on its diagonal (9). We rely on the proximal operator of a convex

function f that is defined as $\text{prox}_f(\mathbf{x}) = \arg \min_{\mathbf{u}} f(\mathbf{u}) + \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{u}\|^2$.

Proposition 1 Assume the decoder is defined as in (9). Denote $\text{HVAE}(\mathbf{x}, \tau) := \mu_\theta(E_\tau(\mathbf{x}))$. Then the alternate scheme described in Algorithm 2 writes

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \text{prox}_{\gamma^2 f}(\text{HVAE}(\mathbf{x}_k, \tau)). \quad (19)$$

From relation (19), algorithm 2 is a Plug-and-Play Half-Quadratic Splitting method [45] where the role of the denoiser is played by the reconstruction $\text{HVAE}(\mathbf{x}_k, \tau)$. We now derive from relation (19) sufficient conditions to establish the convergence of the iterations.

5.2. Fixed-point convergence

Let us denote T the operator corresponding to one iteration of (19): $T(\mathbf{x}) = \text{prox}_{\gamma^2 f}(\text{HVAE}(\mathbf{x}, \tau))$. The Lipschitz constant of T can then be expressed as a function of f and the HVAE reconstruction operator $\text{HVAE}(\mathbf{x}_k, \tau)$.

Proposition 2 (Proof in supplementary) Assume that the decoder has a constant variance $\Sigma_\theta^{-1}(z) = \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \text{Id}$ for all z ; and the autoencoder with latent regularization is L_τ -Lipschitz, i.e. $\forall \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$: $\|\text{HVAE}(\mathbf{u}, \tau) - \text{HVAE}(\mathbf{v}, \tau)\| \leq L_\tau \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|$. Then, denoting as λ_{\min} the smallest eigenvalue of $A^t A$, we have

$$\|T(\mathbf{u}) - T(\mathbf{v})\| \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{\gamma^2 \lambda_{\min} + \sigma^2} L_\tau \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|. \quad (20)$$

Corollary 1 If $\text{HVAE}(\mathbf{x}_k, \tau)$ is $L_\tau < 1$ -Lipschitz, then iterations (19) converge.

Proof. If $L_\tau < 1$, then $\text{HVAE}(\mathbf{x}_k, \tau)$ is a contraction. Hence T is also a contraction from proposition 2 and consequently, Banach theorem ensures the convergence of the iteration $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = T(\mathbf{x}_k)$ to a fixed point of T . \square

Proposition 3 (Proof in supplementary) \mathbf{x}^* is a fixed point of T if and only if:

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \frac{1}{\gamma^2} (\text{HVAE}(\mathbf{x}^*, \tau) - \mathbf{x}^*) \quad (21)$$

Proposition 3 characterizes the solution of the latent-regularization scheme, in the case where the HVAE reconstruction is a contraction. Under mild assumptions, the fixed point condition can be stated as a critical point condition

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) + \nabla g(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0,$$

of the objective function $f(\mathbf{x}) + g(\mathbf{x}) = -\log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) - \log p_{\theta,\tau}(\mathbf{x})$, where the tempered prior is the marginal $p_{\theta,\tau}(\mathbf{x}) := \int p_{\theta,\tau}(\mathbf{x}, z) dz$ of the joint tempered prior defined in (10). This result, detailed in the supplementary, follows from an interpretation of $\text{HVAE}(\mathbf{x}, \tau)$ as an MMSE denoiser. As a consequence Tweedie's formula provides the link between the right-hand side of equation (21) and ∇g .

5.3. Numerical convergence with PatchVDVAE

We illustrate the numerical convergence of Algorithm 2. We first analyse the Lipschitz constant of the HVAE reconstruction with the PatchVDVAE architecture proposed in section 6.2. Then we study the empirical convergence of the algorithm and show that it outperforms the baseline optimisation of the joint MAP (15) with the Adam optimizer.

Lipschitz constant of the HVAE reconstruction. Corollary 1 establishes the fixed point convergence of our proposed optimization algorithm under the hypothesis that the reconstruction with latent regularization is a contraction, *i.e.* $L_\tau < 1$. We now show thanks to an empirical estimation of the Lipschitz constant L_τ that our PatchVDVAE network empirically satisfies such a property when applied to noisy images. We present in figure 1 the histograms of the ratios $r = \frac{\|HVAE(\mathbf{u}, \tau) - HVAE(\mathbf{v}, \tau)\|}{\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|}$, where \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are natural images extracted from the BSD dataset and corrupted with white Gaussian noise. These ratios give a lower bound for the true Lipschitz constant L_τ . Although it is possible to set different temperature τ_l at each level, we fixed a constant temperature amongst all levels to limit the number of hyperparameters. We realized tests for 3 temperatures $\tau \in \{0.6, 0.8, 0.99\}$, and 3 noise levels $\sigma \in \{0, 25, 50\}$. On clean images ($\sigma = 0$), the distribution of ratios is close to 1. This suggests that the HVAE is well trained and accurately models clean images. In some rare case, a ratio $r \geq 1$ is observed for clean images. This indicates that the reconstruction is not a contraction everywhere, in particular on the manifold of clean images.

On noisy images $\sigma > 0$, the reconstruction behaves as a contraction, as the ratio $r < 1$ is always observed. Moreover, reducing the temperature of the latent regularization τ increases the strength of the contraction. This suggests that with the trained PatchVDVAE architecture, the hypothesis $L_\tau < 1$ in Corollary 1 holds for noisy images.

Convergence of Algorithm 2 We now illustrate the effectiveness of PnP-HVAE through comparisons with the optimization of the objective $J_1(\mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{z}_k)$ in (15) using the Adam algorithm [23] for two learning rates $lr \in \{0.01, 0.001\}$. The left plot in figure 2 shows that Adam is able to estimate a better minimum of J_1 . However, our alternate algorithm requires a smaller number of iterations to converge.

On the other hand, as illustrated by the right plot in figure 2, the use of Adam involves numerical instabilities. Oscillations of the ratio $L_k := \frac{\|T(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) - T(\mathbf{x}_k)\|}{\|\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}_k\|}$ are even increased with larger learning rates, whereas our method provides a stable sequence of iterates.

More important, we finally exhibit the better quality of the restorations obtained with our alternate algorithm on inpainting, deblurring and super-resolution of face images. In these experiments, we used the hierarchical VDVAE model [6] trained on the FFHQ dataset [20]. Figure 3 (see 2nd and 4th columns) and table 1 (PSNR, SSIM and LPIPS

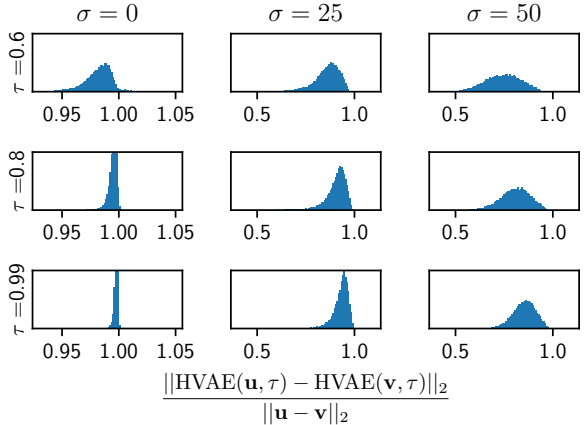


Figure 1: Numerical estimation of the Lipschitz constant of PatchVDVAE reconstruction with different temperatures τ . We present the histogram of ratio values $\frac{\|HVAE(\mathbf{u}, \tau) - HVAE(\mathbf{v}, \tau)\|}{\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|}$, where \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are natural images corrupted with white Gaussian noise of different standard deviations σ . For noisy images ($\sigma > 0$), the observed Lipschitz constant is always less than 1.

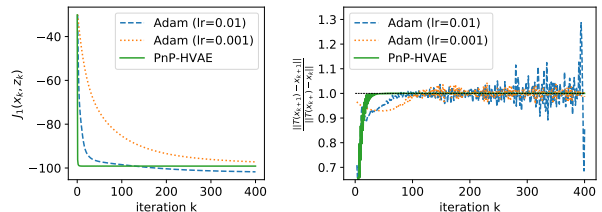


Figure 2: Comparison of the convergence of PnP-HVAE algorithm 2 with respect to the baseline Adam optimizer, on a deblurring problem. Left (Convergence of the function value): PnP-HVAE converges faster to a minimum of the joint posterior $J_1(\mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{z}_k)$ in (15). Right (Convergence of iterates \mathbf{x}_k): PnP-HVAE is more stable than Adam.

scores) illustrate that the quality of the images restored with our alternate optimization algorithm is higher than the ones obtained with Adam. This suggests that for image restoration purposes, our optimization method is able to find a more relevant local minimum of J_1 than Adam.

6. Image restoration results

We present in section 6.1 an application of PnP-HVAE on face images, using a pretrained state-of-the-art hierarchical VAE. Next, we study the application of our framework to natural images. To that end, we introduce in section 6.2 a patch hierarchical VAE architecture, that is able to model natural images of different resolutions. In section 6.3, we provide deblurring, super-resolution and inpainting experiments to demonstrate the relevance of the proposed method.

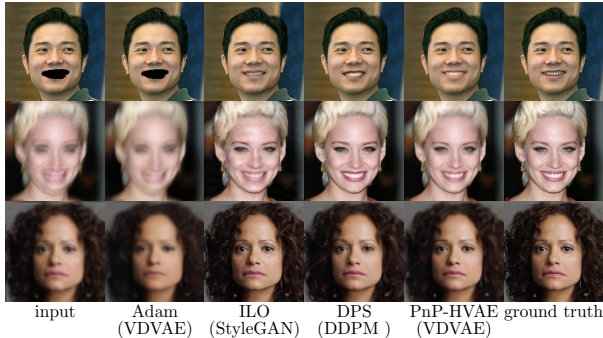


Figure 3: Visual comparison of image restoration methods based on deep generative models. We studied 3 tasks on face images: inpainting (top), deblurring (middle), super-resolution (bottom). Contrary to the optimization of the objective (15) with Adam, our alternate algorithm generates realistic results, on par with ILO [8], while remaining consistent with the observation.

		PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	LPIPS \downarrow	time (s)
SR $\times 4$ $\sigma = 3$	Adam	28.56	0.75	0.38	<u>26</u>
	ILO	<u>28.80</u>	<u>0.78</u>	<u>0.17</u>	34
	PnP-HVAE	29.32	0.82	0.28	15
	DPS	27.53	0.76	0.12	153
Deblurring (motion) $\sigma = 8$	Adam	26.69	0.75	0.27	<u>12</u>
	ILO	<u>29.01</u>	<u>0.80</u>	0.20	34
	PnP-HVAE	30.40	0.84	<u>0.16</u>	10
	DPS	28.70	<u>0.80</u>	0.11	142
Deblurring (Gaussian) $\sigma = 8$	Adam	<u>30.17</u>	<u>0.83</u>	0.21	<u>12</u>
	ILO	29.12	0.79	<u>0.17</u>	34
	PnP-HVAE	30.81	0.86	0.24	10
	DPS	29.14	0.81	0.10	142

Table 1: Quantitative evaluation on face restoration. Best results in **bold**, second best underlined.

6.1. Face Image restoration (FFHQ)

We first demonstrate the effectiveness of PnP-HVAE on highly structured data, by performing face image restoration. Latent variable generative models can accurately model structured images such as face images [20, 53, 6, 24], and then be used to produce high quality restoration of such data. In our experiments, we use the VDVAE model of [6], pre-trained on the FFHQ dataset [20], as our hierarchical VAE prior. VDVAE has $L = 66$ latent variable groups in its hierarchy and generates images at resolution 256×256 .

We compare PnP-HVAE with two restoration methods based on different class of generative models, namely the intermediate layer optimization algorithm (ILO) [8] and the diffusion posterior sampling method (DPS) [7]. ILO is a GAN inversion method which optimizes the image latent code along with the intermediate layer representation of a StyleGAN2 generative network [21] to generate an image consistent with a degraded observation. DPS use denoising

diffusion probabilistic model [52, 16] as a prior, and produce a sample from the posterior by conditioning each iteration of the sampling process on \mathbf{y} . We use the official implementation of ILO, along with a StyleGAN2 model that was trained for 550k iterations on images of resolution 256×256 from FFHQ [44]. For DPS, we use the official implementation as well. As VDVAE and StyleGAN models are not trained on the same train-test split of FFHQ, we chose to evaluate the methods on a subset of 100 images from the CelebA dataset [29]. For super-resolution, the degradation model corresponds to the application of a Gaussian low-pass filter followed by a $\times 4$ sub-sampling, and the addition of a Gaussian white noise with $\sigma = 3$. For the deblurring, we considered motion blur and Gaussian kernels, both with a noise level $\sigma = 8$.

We provide quantitative comparisons in table 1, along with a visual comparison of the results in figure 3. PnP-HVAE has the best PSNR and SSIM results for all the considered restoration tasks, while ILO provides better results for the perceptual distance. By jointly optimizing the image and its latent variable, PnP-HVAE provides results that are both realistic and consistent with the degraded observation. On the other hand, ILO only optimizes on an extended latent space. This method generates sharp and realistic images with better LPIPS scores, but the results lack of consistency with respect to the observation, which explains the overall lower PSNR performance. DPS produces highly realistic samples, and gives the best perceptual distance. However DPS is limited by its long inference time, as it requires one network function evaluation and one backpropagation operation through the network at each of the 1000 sampling steps required to generate one image.

6.2. PatchVDVAE: a HVAE for natural images

Available generative models in the literature operate on images of fixed resolutions and are either restrained to datasets of limited diversity, or even to registered face images [24, 6, 53, 20], or requiring additional class information [5, 9, 52, 31]. Fitting an unconditional model on natural images appears to be a more difficult task, as their resolution can change, and their content is highly diverse. The complexity of the problem can be reduced by learning a prior model on patches of reduced dimension. For image restoration problems, the patch model can be reused on images of higher dimensions [57, 39, 2]. When the model is a full CNN, the prior on the set of the patches can be computed efficiently by applying the network on the full image [39].

We thus introduce patchVDVAE, a fully convolutional hierarchical VAE. Contrary to existing HVAE models whose resolution is constrained by the constant tensor at the input of the top-down block, patchVDVAE can generate images of different resolutions by controlling the dimension of the input latent. This amounts to defining a prior on patches

whose dimension corresponds to the receptive field of the VAE. A similar model is used for image denoising in [38].

For PatchVDVAE architecture, we use the same bottom-up and top-down blocks as VDVAE [6], and replace the constant trainable input in the first top-down block by a latent variable, to make the model fully convolutional (details on the architecture are given in the supplementary). The training dataset is composed of 128×128 patches extracted from a combination of DIV2K [1] and Flickr2K [28] datasets. We perform data augmentation by extracting patches at 3 resolutions: HR-images and $\times 2$ and $\times 4$ downsampled images. The model is trained for 7.10^5 iterations with a batch size of 64. Following the recommendation of [15], we use Adamax optimizer with an exponential moving average and gradient smoothing of the variance. We set the decoder model to be a Gaussian with diagonal covariance, as in [31]. PatchVDVAE is fully convolutional and can generate images of dimension that are multiples of 64 as illustrated by figure 4.



Figure 4: Left: 64×64 patches samples from our patchVDVAE model trained on patches from natural images. Right: PatchVDVAE is fully convolutional and it can generate images of higher resolution (here: 128×128).

6.3. Natural images restoration

We evaluate PnP-HVAE on natural image restoration. For each task, we report the average value of the PSNR, the SSIM, and the LPIPS metrics on 20 images from the test set of the BSD dataset [32].

Image deblurring. In the experiments, we consider 2 Gaussian kernels and 2 motion blur kernels from [27], with 3 different noise levels $\sigma \in \{2.55, 7.65, 12.75\}$. As a baseline we consider EPLL [57], which learns a prior on image patches with a Gaussian mixture model. We also compare PnP-HVAE with PnP-MMO and GS-PnP, 2 competing convergent Plug-and-Play methods based on CNN denoisers. PnP-MMO [37] restricts the denoiser to be contraction in order to guarantee the convergence of the PnP forward-backward algorithm. GS-PnP [19] considers a gradient step denoiser and reaches state-of-the-art performances of non converging methods [55]. We set the temperature τ in our method as 0.95, 0.8 and 0.6 for noise levels 2.55, 7.65 and 12.75 respectively, and we let it run for a maximum of 50 iterations. For the three compared methods we use the official implementations and pre-trained models provided by the respective authors. Details on the choice of hyperparameters

σ	Method	PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	LPIPS \downarrow
2.55	PnP-HVAE	27.75	0.79	0.31
	GS-PnP [19]	29.59	0.84	0.22
	EPLL [57]	26.49	0.71	0.36
	PnP-MMO [37]	<u>29.50</u>	<u>0.83</u>	<u>0.20</u>
7.65	PnP-HVAE	<u>26.36</u>	<u>0.72</u>	<u>0.40</u>
	GS-PnP [19]	27.33	0.77	0.31
	EPLL [57]	24.04	0.66	0.45
	PnP-MMO [37]	25.34	0.69	0.34
12.75	PnP-HVAE	<u>25.12</u>	0.73	<u>0.47</u>
	GS-PnP [19]	26.32	0.73	0.37
	EPLL [57]	23.28	0.61	0.51
	PnP-MMO [37]	22.42	0.53	0.54

Blur and motion kernels

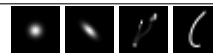
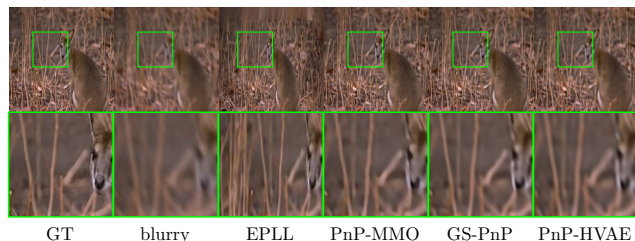
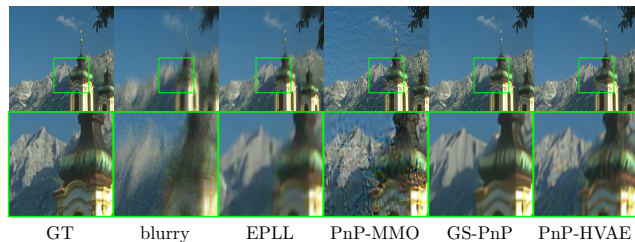


Table 2: Comparison of PnP-HVAE and other restoration methods on deblurring. Results are averaged on 4 kernels.



(a) Gaussian blur, $\sigma = 2.55$



(b) Motion blur, $\sigma = 7.65$

Figure 5: Natural image deblurring

for the concurrent methods are provided in the supplementary material. Figure 5 illustrates that our method provides correct deblurring results. According to table 2, the performance of PnP-HVAE is between those of EPLL and GS-PnP and it outperforms PnP-MMO for large noise levels.

Image inpainting. Next we consider the task of noisy image inpainting. We compose a test-set of 10 images from the validation set of BSD [32] and we create masks by occluding diverse objects of small size in the images. A Gaussian white noise with $\sigma = 3$ is added to the images. As a comparison, we still consider GS-PnP and EPLL. For PnP-HVAE, the temperature is set to $\tau = 0.6$, and the algorithm is run for a maximum of 200 iterations, unless the residual $\|\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}_k\|$ is on a plateau. We provide on Table 3 the distortion metrics with the ground truth, as well as a visual comparison on figure 6. With its hierarchical structure,

	PSNR \uparrow	SSIM \uparrow	LPIPS \downarrow
PnP-HVAE	29.54	0.93	0.06
GS-PnP	28.52	0.93	0.09
EPLL	<u>29.16</u>	0.93	0.06

Table 3: Quantitative evaluation for inpainting on BSD.

PnP-HVAE outperforms the compared methods.

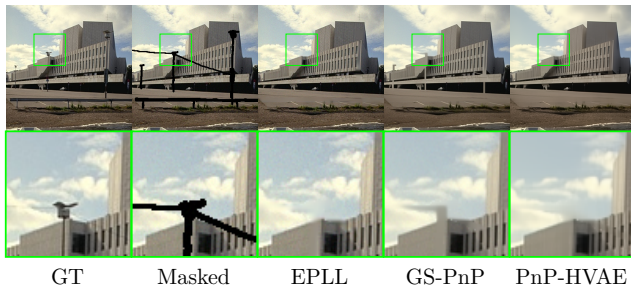


Figure 6: Natural image inpainting

Effect of the temperature. PnP-HVAE gives control on the temperature of the prior over the latent space. In figure 7, we illustrate that reducing the temperature increases the strength of the regularization prior. In this example the tuning $\tau = 0.7$ produces the best performance.

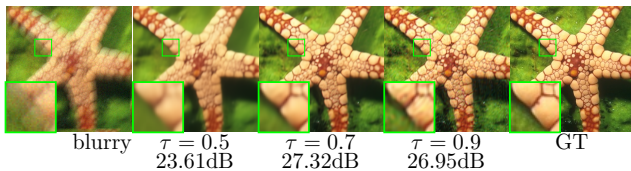


Figure 7: Effect of the temperature in PnP-VAE on a deblurring problem, with $\sigma = 7.65$.

Effect of the number of latent groups We study the effect of the number of latent groups L on the hierarchical model on the restoration performance. It has been observed that HVAEs outperform non-hierarchical VAEs in terms of likelihood score [49], and that increasing the number of latent groups in the hierarchy improves the modelling performance of HVAE for a fixed number of parameters [6]. Therefore we can expect that the gain in modelling performance due to a higher L will translate into a gain in restoration performance using our method. We train different patchVDVAE models, with different number of latent groups L . In order to keep the number of trainable parameters constant, we replace stochastic top-down blocks with deterministic blocks in our network with the higher L value ($L = 36$). We evaluate the different models on image deblurring, using the same experimental settings as the one described in subsection 6.3. The results in table 4 show that increasing the number of stochastic groups (L) has a posi-

Table 4: Effect of the number L of latent groups on the restoration performance, measured in PSNR (dB), for image deblurring. We observed similar trends for the LPIPS and SSIM metrics.

	$L = 6$	$L = 12$	$L = 18$	$L = 36$
$\sigma = 2.55$	27.25	27.87	<u>27.82</u>	27.71
$\sigma = 7.65$	26.10	26.41	26.74	<u>26.51</u>
$\sigma = 12.75$	24.78	25.16	25.57	<u>25.27</u>
ELBO \uparrow (val)	-1.24	-1.14	-1.10	-1.10

tive effect on the validation ELBO, up to $L = 18$, and that a better ELBO correlates with a better restoration performance.

7. Conclusion

We proposed PnP-HVAE, a method using hierarchical variational autoencoders as a prior to solve image inverse problems. Motivated by an alternate optimization scheme, PnP-HVAE exploits the encoder of the HVAE to avoid backpropagating through the generative network. We derived sufficient conditions on the HVAE model to guarantee the convergence of the algorithm. We have verified empirically that PnP-HVAE satisfies those conditions. By jointly optimizing over the image and the latent space, PnP-HVAE produces realistic results that are more consistent with the observation than GAN inversion on a specialized dataset. PnP-HVAE can also restore natural images of any size using our PatchVDVAE model trained on natural images patches.

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