

Introduction to Deep Generative Modeling

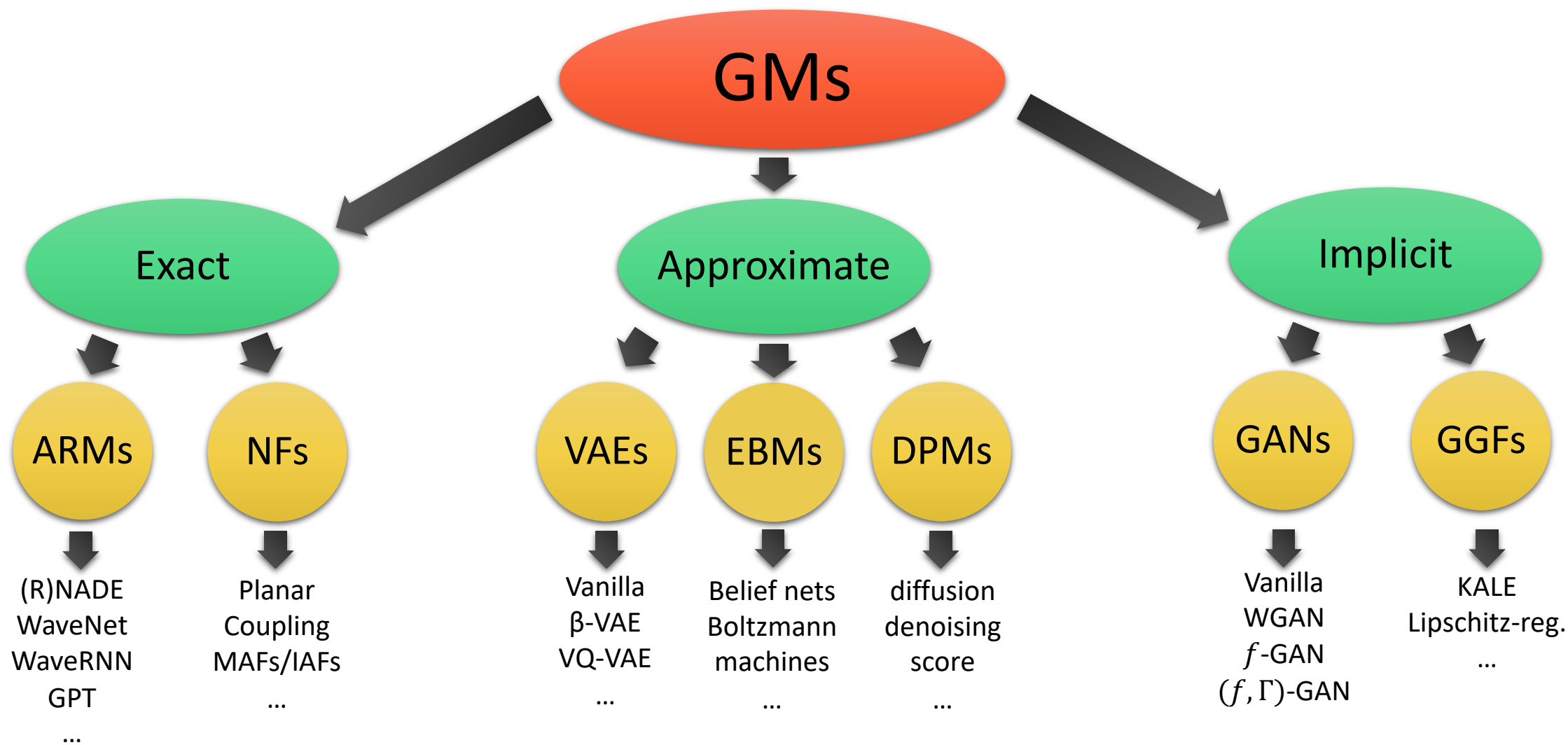
Lecture #3

HY-673 – Computer Science Dep., University of Crete

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Taxonomy of Deep Generative Models According to the Likelihood Function



Introduction to Estimator Theory

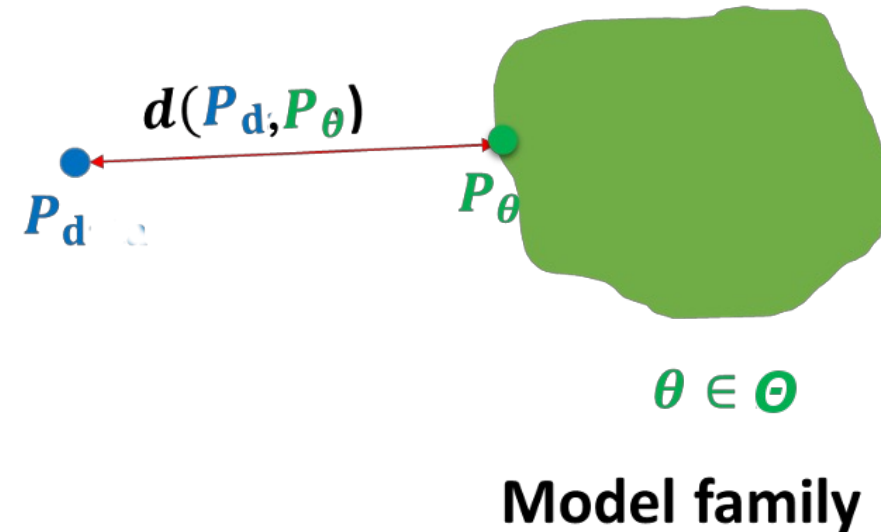
- What is an estimator?

Let $\mathcal{D} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be a set of data drawn from $p_d(x)$, and $p_\theta(x)$ be a family of models with $\theta \in \Theta$. A point estimator $\hat{\theta} = \hat{\theta}(\mathcal{D})$ is a random variable for which we want:

$$p_{\hat{\theta}}(x) \approx p_d(x)$$



$$x_i \sim P_d, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$



- How to construct an estimator?
 - Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)
 - Maximum A Posteriory (MAP) Estimation
 - Based on a Probability Distance or a Divergence (implicit)
 - Bayesian Inference (learns a distribution for the estimator's parameters)

- Maximum Likelihood Estimator:

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}}(\mathcal{D}) = \arg \max_{\theta} p_{\theta}(\mathcal{D}) := p_{\theta}(x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

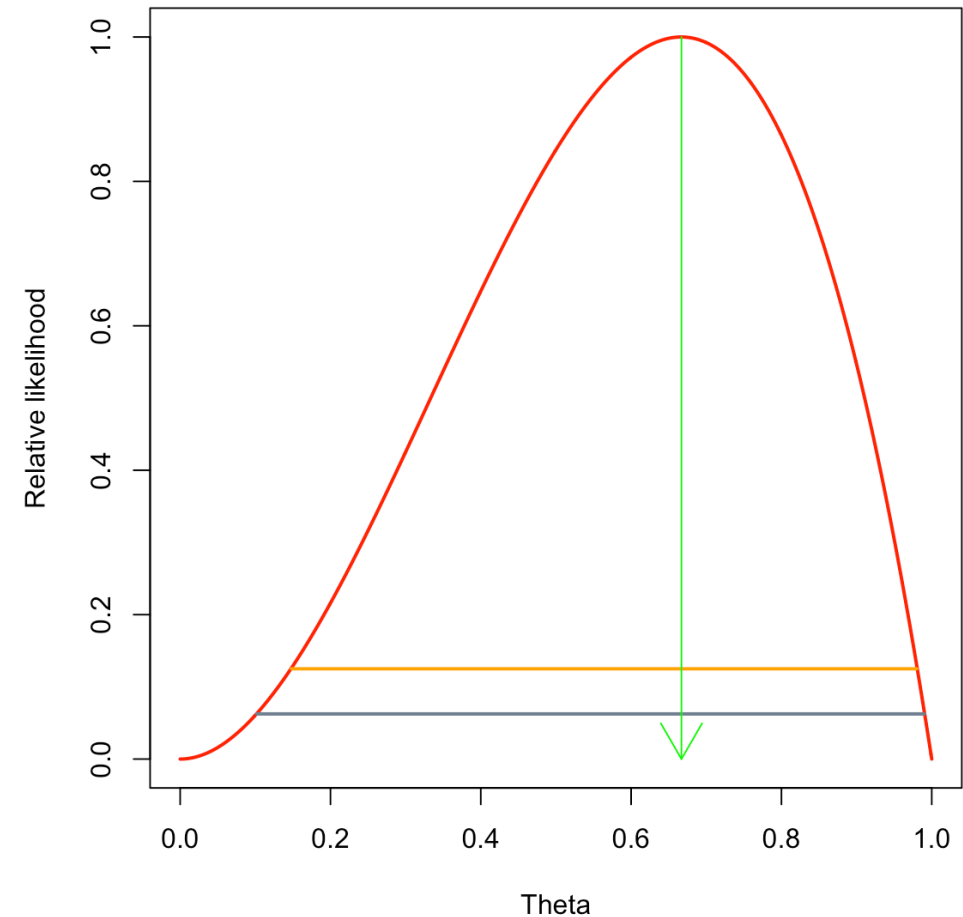
- Equivalently, under the i.i.d. assumption:

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}}(\mathcal{D}) = \arg \max_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^n \log p_{\theta}(x_i) =: L(\theta; \mathcal{D}) \quad (\equiv L_n(\theta)).$$

- MLE interpretation:

- $L_n(\hat{\theta}_1) > L_n(\hat{\theta}_2)$ implies that $\hat{\theta}_1$ is more likely to have generated the observed samples x_1, \dots, x_n .

- Thus, it provides a ranking of model's fitness/accuracy/matching to the data.



MLE Example #1

- 1d Gaussian, unknown mean $\theta = \mu$, known variance σ^2 :

Dataset: $\mathcal{D} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$,

Model family: $p_\theta(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\theta)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$.

$$L(\theta, \mathcal{D}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x_i - \theta)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \right) = -\frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) - \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (x_i - \theta)^2.$$

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} L(\theta; \mathcal{D}) = -\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \theta)$$

Thus, $\frac{d}{d\theta} L(\hat{\theta}; \mathcal{D}) = 0 \implies \hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i.$

- Exponential distribution:

$$p_{\theta}(x) = \begin{cases} \theta e^{-\theta x}, & x \geq 0 \\ 0, & x < 0. \end{cases}$$

$$L(\theta, \mathcal{D}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (\log \theta - \theta x_i)$$

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} L(\theta; \mathcal{D}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{\theta} - x_i \right)$$

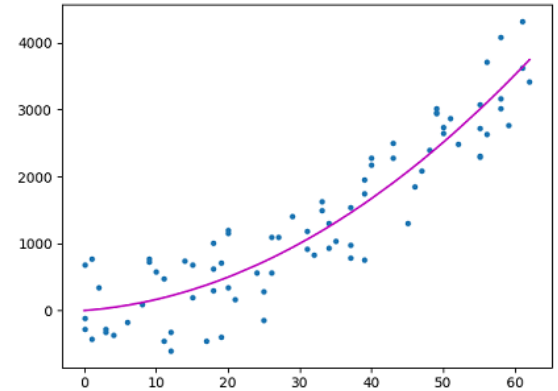
Thus, $\frac{d}{d\theta} L(\hat{\theta}; \mathcal{D}) = 0 \implies \hat{\theta} = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}.$

MLE Example #3

- Linear model with Gaussian error:

Dataset: $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$ with $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$,

Model family: $y_i = \theta^T x_i + e_i$ with $e_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ and $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$.



$$L(\theta, \mathcal{D}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(y_i - \theta^T x_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \right) = -\frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta^T x_i)^2.$$

Partial derivative
or gradient vector: $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} L(\theta; \mathcal{D}) = -\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta^T x_i) x_i^T.$

Thus, $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} L(\hat{\theta}; \mathcal{D}) = 0 \implies \hat{\theta} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i x_i^T \right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \right).$

MLE Example #3

- In matrix form:

$$y = X\theta + e \text{ with } y = [y_1, \dots, y_n]^T \in \mathbb{R}^n, X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^T \\ \vdots \\ x_n^T \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d},$$

$$e = [e_1, \dots, e_n]^T \in \mathbb{R}^n \text{ and } e \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 I_n).$$

$$L(\theta, \mathcal{D}) = C - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (y - X\theta)^T (y - X\theta).$$

← Maximizing $L(\theta)$ is equivalent to minimizing the Sum of Squares (Least Squares)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} L(\theta; \mathcal{D}) = -\frac{1}{\sigma^2} X^T (y - X\theta)$$

Exactly the same solution as LS!

$$\text{Thus, } \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} L(\hat{\theta}; \mathcal{D}) = 0 \implies \hat{\theta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y.$$

- Logistic regression with sigmoids a.k.a. binary classification.

Dataset: $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$ with $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $y_i \in \{0, 1\}$,

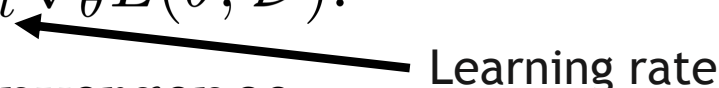
Model family: $p_\theta(y_i = 1|x_i) = \sigma(\theta^T x_i)$, $p_\theta(y_i = 0|x_i) = 1 - p_\theta(y_i = 1|x_i)$, $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-z}}$ be the sigmoid function.

Compact form: $p_\theta(y_i|x_i) = p_\theta(y_i = 1|x_i)^{y_i} p_\theta(y_i = 0|x_i)^{1-y_i}$.

$$L(\theta, \mathcal{D}) = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \log \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^T x_i}} + (1 - y_i) \log \frac{e^{-\theta^T x_i}}{1 + e^{-\theta^T x_i}}$$

Unfortunately, $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} L(\hat{\theta}; \mathcal{D}) = 0$ is a non-linear system of equations.

MLE Example #4

- Solution: Iteratively solve for the root of the system of equations.
- Gradient ascent.
 1. Randomly initialize $\theta^0 = (\theta_1^0, \dots, \theta_d^0)$.
 2. Compute $\nabla_{\theta} L(\theta; \mathcal{D})$.
 3. Update $\theta^{t+1} = \theta^t + \alpha_t \nabla_{\theta} L(\theta; \mathcal{D})$.
 4. Repeat 2 & 3 until convergence. 
- Caution: MLE results in a non-convex optimization problem
 \Rightarrow stack to a local maximum.

- We could obtain a histogram (i.e., empirical or sampling distribution) for the estimator as

$$\{\hat{\theta}(\mathcal{D}') : \mathcal{D}' \sim p_d(x)\}$$

↪ The variance of the sampling distribution is a measure of uncertainty about $\hat{\theta}(\mathcal{D})$.

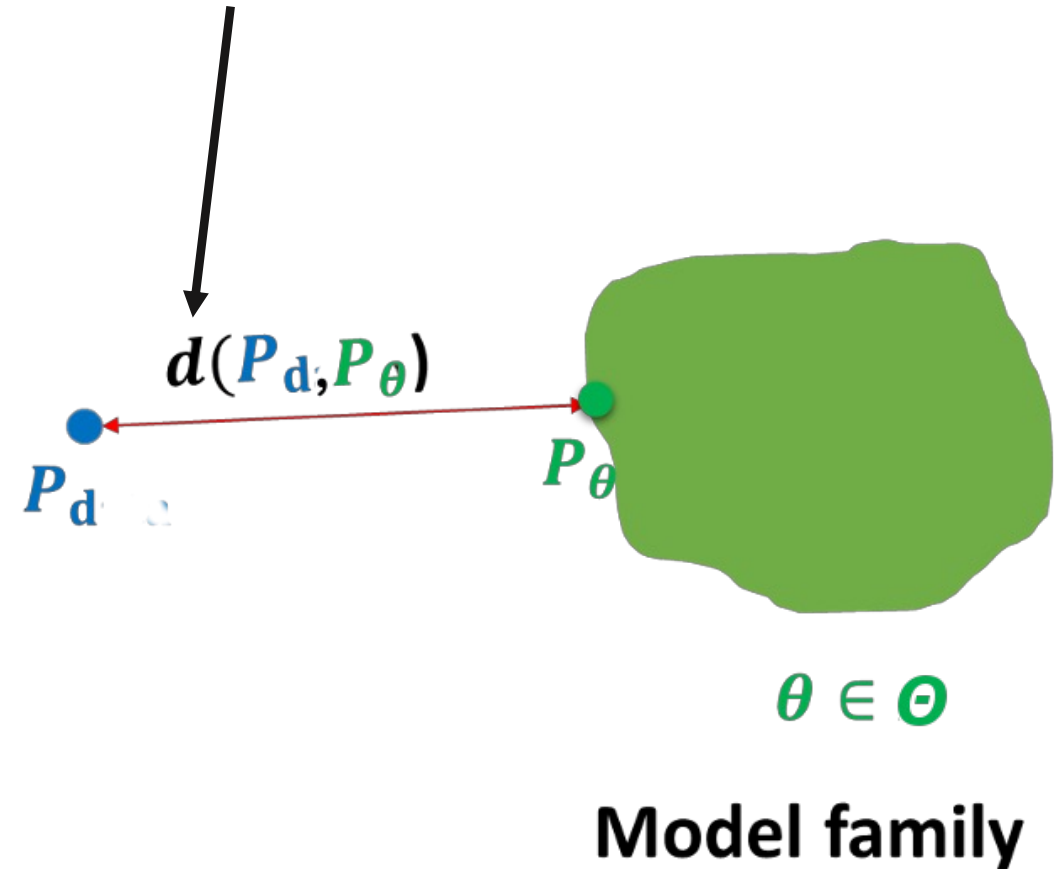
↪ One standard approach to approximate the sampling distribution is the bootstrap algorithm.

Kullback-Leibler Divergence (KLD)

- Geometric interpretation:
MLE is equivalent to minimizing the KLD of $p_d(x)$ w.r.t. $p_\theta(x)$.



$$x_i \sim P_d, \\ i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$



- MLE asymptotics:

$$L_n(\theta) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \int \log p_\theta(x) p_d(x) dx = \mathbb{E}_{p_d}[\log p_\theta(x)] =: L(\theta; p_d) \quad (\equiv L(\theta)).$$

- MLE is equivalent to minimizing the cross entropy!

$$\arg \max_{\theta} L(\theta; p_d) = \arg \min_{\theta} H^\times(p_d || p_\theta).$$

where the cross entropy of probability P with PDF $p(x)$ with respect to probability Q with PDF $q(x)$ is defined as

$$H^\times(P || Q) := \int \log \frac{1}{q(x)} p(x) dx = - \int \log q(x) p(x) dx.$$

Kullback-Leibler Divergence

- MLE is also equivalent to minimizing the KLD of $p_d(x)$ w.r.t. $p_\theta(x)$.

$$\arg \max_{\theta} L(\theta; p_d) = \arg \min_{\theta} D_{KL}(p_d || p_\theta)$$

- The Kullback-Leibler divergence (KLD) of P w.r.t. Q is defined as:

$$D_{KL}(P || Q) := \int \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} p(x) dx = \underbrace{\int \log p(x) p(x) dx}_{-H(P)} - \underbrace{\int \log q(x) p(x) dx}_{H^\times(P || Q)}$$

- Thus,

$$D_{KL}(P || Q) = -H(P) + H^\times(P || Q).$$

$-H(P)$

Entropy

$H^\times(P || Q)$

Cross Entropy

- KLD satisfies the divergence property:

$$D_{\text{KL}}(P||Q) \geq 0 \text{ and } D_{\text{KL}}(P||Q) = 0 \iff P = Q.$$

Proof

Jensen's inequality

$$\mathbb{E}_P \left[-\log \frac{q(x)}{p(x)} \right] \geq -\log \left(\mathbb{E}_P \left[\frac{q(x)}{p(x)} \right] \right) = -\log \left(\int \frac{q(x)}{p(x)} p(x) dx \right) = 0$$

- KLD is asymmetric, i.e., $D(P||Q) \neq D(Q||P)$.
- Nevertheless, it offers a notion of a (pseudo-)distance.

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}} = \arg \max_{\theta} p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{D} | \theta) p(\theta)}{p(\mathcal{D})}.$$

1. $p(\mathcal{D} | \theta) = p_{\theta}(\mathcal{D})$: likelihood.
2. $p(\theta)$: prior probability (prior knowledge).
3. $p(\mathcal{D}) = \int p(\theta') p(\mathcal{D} | \theta') d\theta'$: evidence (usually intractable but with tractable approximations).

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}} = \arg \max_{\theta} \{ \log p_{\theta}(\mathcal{D}) + \log p(\theta) \}.$$

- 1d Gaussian: $\mathcal{D} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, $p_{\theta}(x) = \mathcal{N}(x, \sigma^2)$, $p(\theta) = \mathcal{N}(\theta_0, \sigma_0^2)$.

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} L_{\text{MAP}}(\theta) = -\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \theta) - \frac{1}{\sigma_0^2} (\theta - \theta_0) = 0$$

$$\implies \hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i - \rho \theta_0}{n - \rho}, \quad \rho = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma_0^2}.$$

↪ What happens as n increases?

- Often, the prior probability acts as regularization.

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}} = \arg \max_{\theta} \{ \log p_{\theta}(\mathcal{D}) + \log p(\theta) \}.$$

- Linear model: $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$, $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$, model:
 $y_i = \theta^T x_i + \epsilon_i$, $\epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$
 - $p(\theta) = \mathcal{N}(0, \lambda^{-1} I_d) \Rightarrow$ ridge regression a.k.a. (Tikhonov) regularized Least Squares.
 - $p(\theta) = \text{Laplace}(0, \lambda^{-1}) \Rightarrow$ lasso regression (least absolute shrinkage and selection operator).

- Basic toolkit to assess an estimator:
 1. Unbiasedness.
 2. Consistency.
 3. Bias-Variance Trade-Off.
 4. Efficiency.
 5. Fisher Information.
 6. Cramér-Rao Lower Bound (CRLB).

1. Unbiasedness:

Key assumption: $\exists \theta^*$ s.t. $p_d(x) = p_{\theta^*}(x)$.

- An unbiased estimator is an estimator whose expected values (w.r.t. the data generation distribution) is equal to the parameter:

$$\text{Bias}(\hat{\theta}) = \theta^* - \mathbb{E}_{p_d}[\hat{\theta}].$$

- The sample mean $\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ with $x_i \sim p_{\theta^*}(x) \equiv \mathcal{N}(\theta^*, \sigma^2)$, i.i.d., is an unbiased estimator.

Proof:

$$\mathbb{E}_{p_d}[\hat{\theta}] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}_{p_{\theta^*}}[x_i] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \theta^* = \frac{1}{n} n \theta^* = \theta^*.$$

1. Unbiasedness:

- An asymptotically unbiased estimator is the least requirement for an estimator:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Bias}(\hat{\theta}_n) = 0.$$

– Example: Let $\theta = \mathbb{E}_{p_d}[g(x)]$ and $\hat{\theta}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g(x_i)$ its estimator.

↪ $\hat{\theta}_n$ is unbiased and the basic idea of **Monte Carlo** methods.

– Example: Let $\theta = g(\mathbb{E}_{p_d}[x])$ and $\hat{\theta}_n = g\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i\right)$ its estimator.

↪ $\hat{\theta}_n$ is biased, but asymptotically it is an unbiased estimator.

2. Consistency:

- An unbiased estimator is said to be consistent if the difference between the estimator and the true value becomes smaller as we increase the sample size. Formally:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{p_d}(|\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*| > \epsilon) = 0, \quad \forall \epsilon > 0.$$

- Example (consistent): Sample mean $\hat{\theta}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ with $x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\theta^*, \sigma^2)$, i.i.d.

Chebyshev's inequality

$$\text{Var}_{p_d}(\hat{\theta}_n) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \Rightarrow P_{p_d}(|\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*| > \epsilon) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{n\epsilon^2}.$$

- Example (not consistent): $\hat{\theta}_{10} = \frac{1}{10} \sum_{i=1}^{10} x_i$.

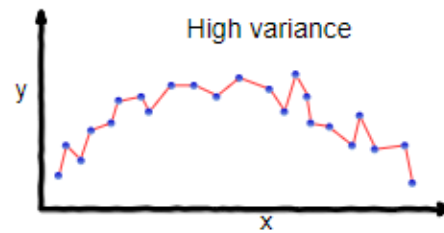
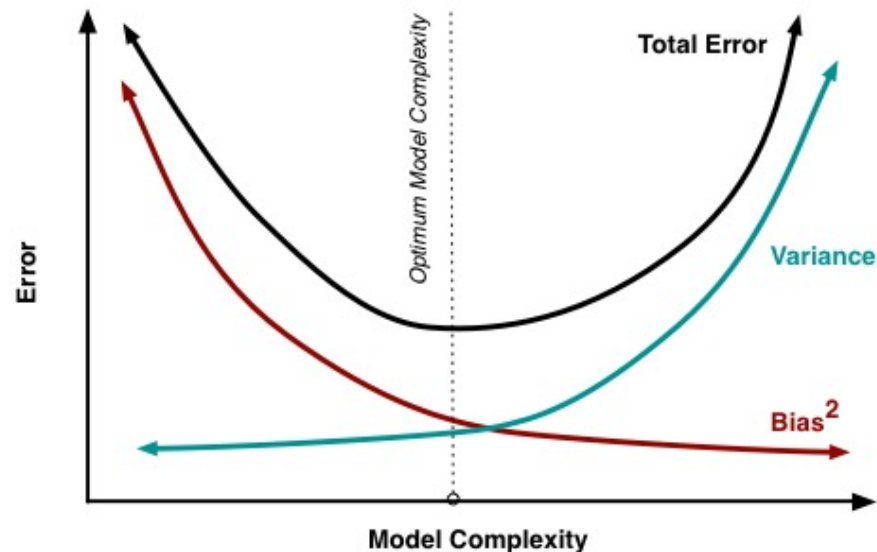
2. Consistency and (asymptotic) unbiasedness:

- Proposition: If $\text{Var}_{p_d}(\hat{\theta}_n)$ is finite, then, consistency implies asymptotic unbiasedness.
- Proposition: If $\text{Var}_{p_d}(\hat{\theta}_n)$ tends to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$, then, asymptotic unbiasedness implies consistency.
- Proposition: If the Mean Squared Error $\text{MSE}(\hat{\theta}_n) := \mathbb{E}_{p_d} \left[(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*)^2 \right]$ tends to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$, then, the estimator $\hat{\theta}_n$ is consistent.

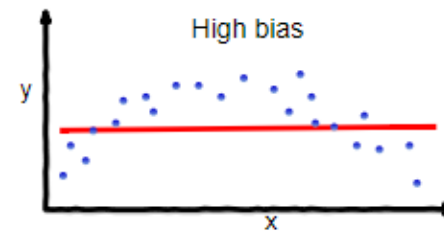
3. Bias-variance trade-off in estimation theory:

$$\text{MSE}(\hat{\theta}) := \mathbb{E}_{p_d} \left[(\hat{\theta} - \theta^*)^2 \right] = \text{Bias}_{p_d}^2(\hat{\theta}) + \text{Var}_{p_d}(\hat{\theta}).$$

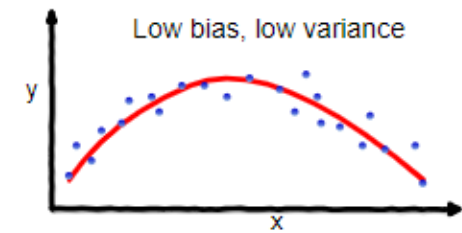
Bias-variance trade-off in machine learning:



overfitting



underfitting



Good balance

4. Efficiency:

- Let $\hat{\theta}_1$ and $\hat{\theta}_2$ be two unbiased estimators of θ^* . $\hat{\theta}_1$ is more efficient than $\hat{\theta}_2$ if and only if $\text{Var}(\hat{\theta}_1) < \text{Var}(\hat{\theta}_2)$.
- An estimator $\hat{\theta}$ is efficient if the variance of the estimator, $\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})$, equals the Cramér-Rao lower bound.

5. Fisher Information:

$$I(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{p_\theta} \left[\left(\frac{d}{d\theta} \log p_\theta(x) \right)^2 \right].$$

$$\hookrightarrow I(\theta) = \text{Var}_{p_\theta} \left(\frac{d}{d\theta} \log p_\theta(x) \right) = -\mathbb{E}_{p_\theta} \left[\frac{d^2}{d\theta^2} \log p_\theta(x) \right],$$

$$\text{since } -\mathbb{E}_{p_\theta} \left[\frac{d}{d\theta} \log p_\theta(x) \right] = 0.$$

–Example: $p_\theta(x) = \text{Bernoulli}(\theta)$, $\theta \in [0, 1]$: success probability.

$$I(\theta) = \dots = \frac{1}{\theta(1-\theta)}.$$

6. Cramér-Rao Lower Bound (CRLB):

- The variance of any unbiased estimator $\hat{\theta}_n$ of θ^* is bounded by the reciprocal of the Fisher information:

$$\text{Var}_{p_{\theta^*}}(\hat{\theta}_n) \geq \frac{1}{I_n(\theta^*)} = \frac{1}{nI(\theta^*)}, \quad n: \# \text{ i.i.d. samples drawn from } p_{\theta^*}(x).$$

- MLE is asymptotically efficient!

1. All of statistics: A Concise Course in Statistical Inference (Chapters 6 & 9)
Larry Wasserman, Springer (2004)
2. Probabilistic Machine Learning: An Introduction (Chapter 4)
Kevin P Murphy, The MIT Press (2022)
3. Matrix Calculus:
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Matrix_calculus
<https://www.math.uwaterloo.ca/~hwolkowi/matrixcookbook.pdf>

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