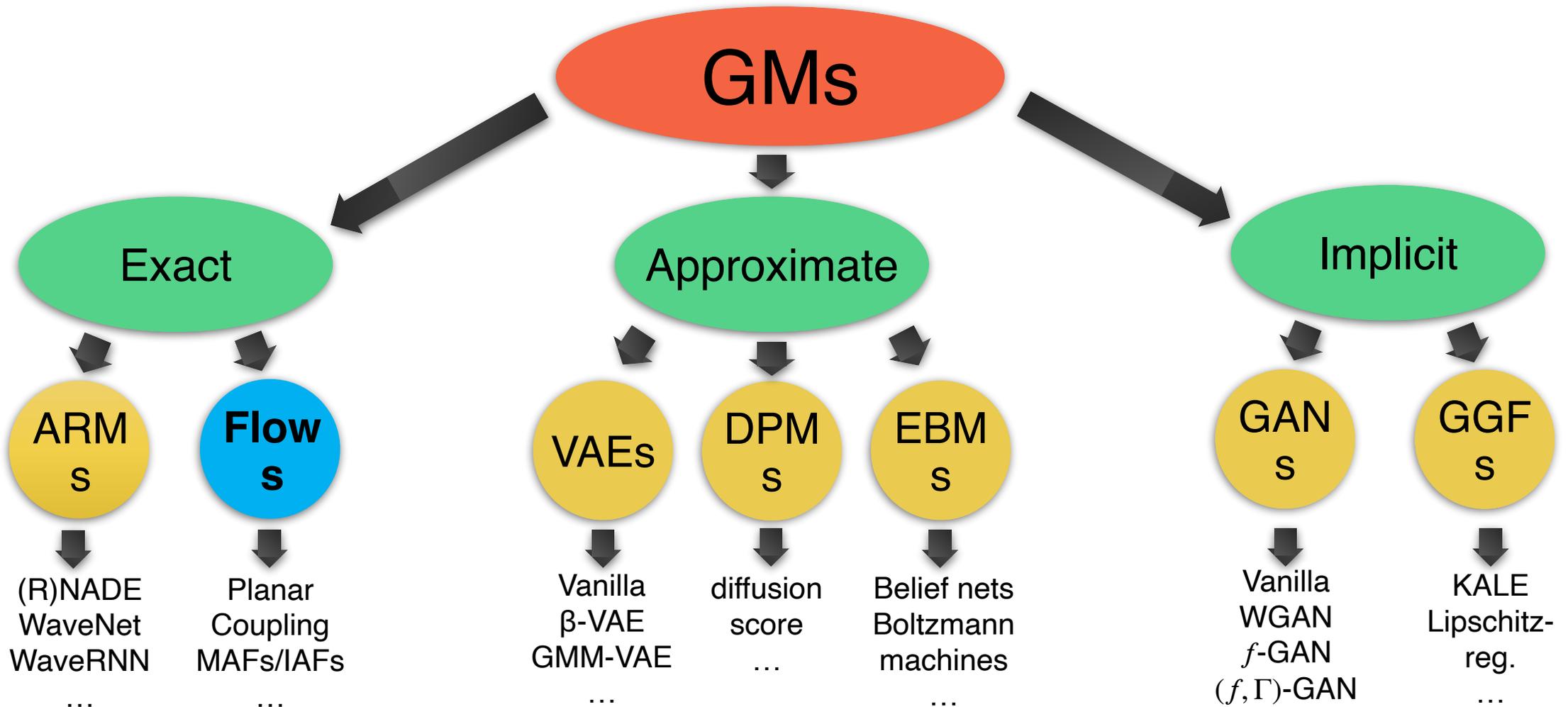


Introduction to Deep Generative Modeling

Lecture #8

HY-673 – Computer Science Dep., University of Crete
Professors: Yannis Pantazis, Yannis Stylianou
Teaching Assistant: Michail Raptakis

Taxonomy of GMs

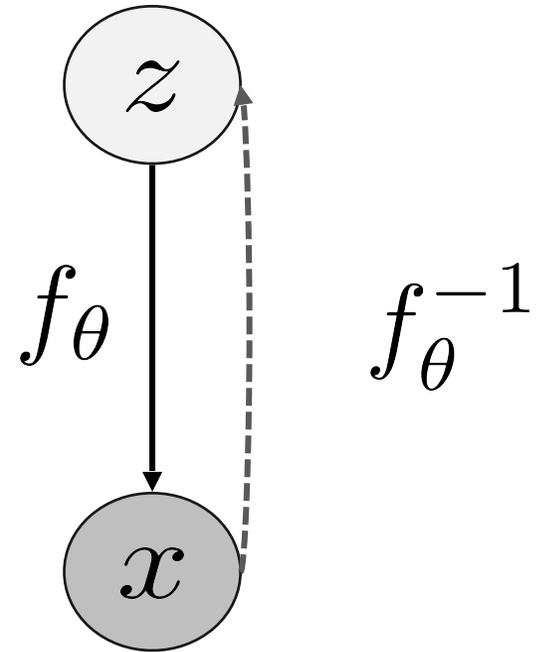


- **Efficient sampling** from $p_\theta(x)$:

$$z \longrightarrow \boxed{f_\theta} \longrightarrow x \sim p_\theta(x) \approx p_d(x)$$

- $\hookrightarrow z$ should have simple (base/prior) distribution (e.g., isotropic Gaussian).
 - \hookrightarrow Great advantage over previous sampling approaches (typically based on Markov Chain Monte Carlo - MCMC methods).
- For exact MLE-based GMs, **easy to compute** $p_\theta(x)$.
 - \hookrightarrow Again, z should have simple (prior) distribution.
 - $\hookrightarrow f_\theta(z)$ should have some structure that will result in tractable $p_\theta(x)$.

- $f_\theta(x)$: sampling or “coloring” phase
— the *decoder* or the *generator*.
- $f_\theta^{-1}(x)$: inference or “normalizing” phase
— the *encoder* or the *normalizer*.
- The *encoder* transforms the distribution into independent factors.

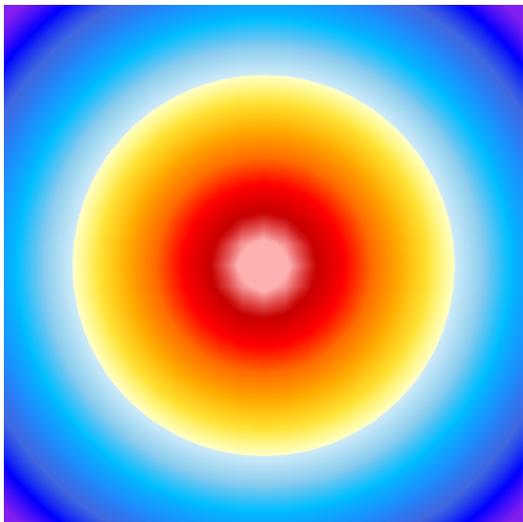


Simple Prior to Complex Data Distributions

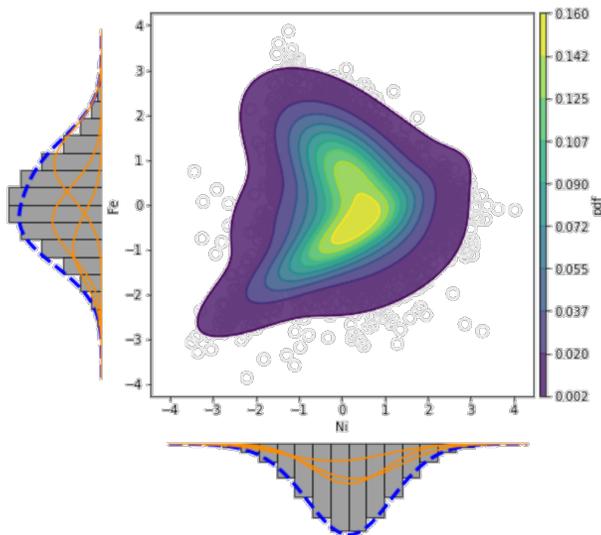


- Desirable properties of any model distribution $p_{\theta}(x)$:
 1. **For Training:** Easy to evaluate, closed form density.
 2. **For Generation:** Easy to sample from.
- Many distributions satisfy these two, e.g., Gaussian, uniform, et al.

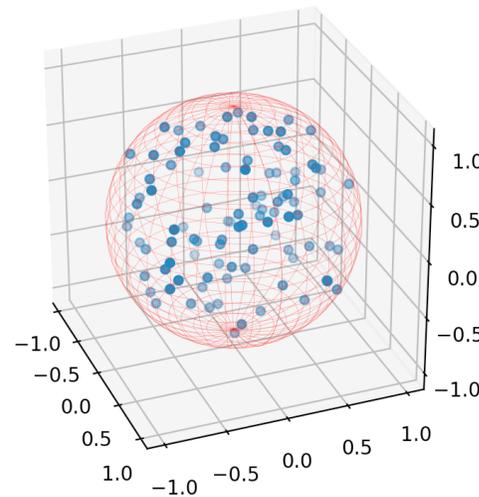
Unit Gaussian



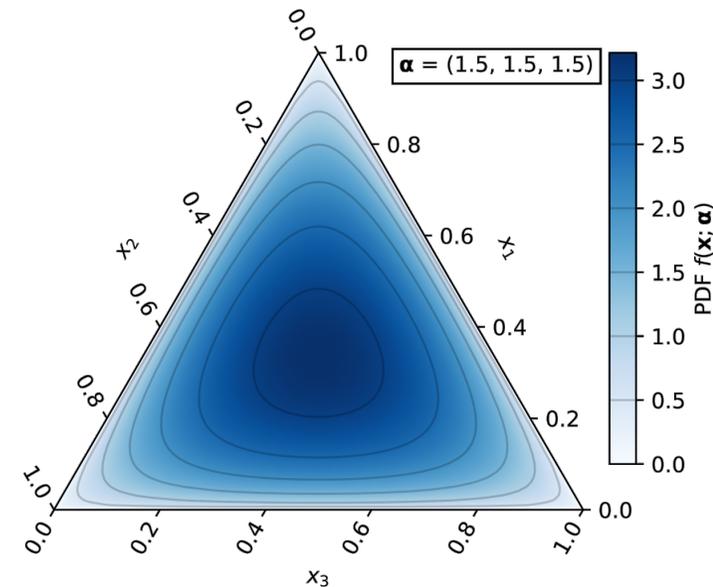
Mixture of Gaussians



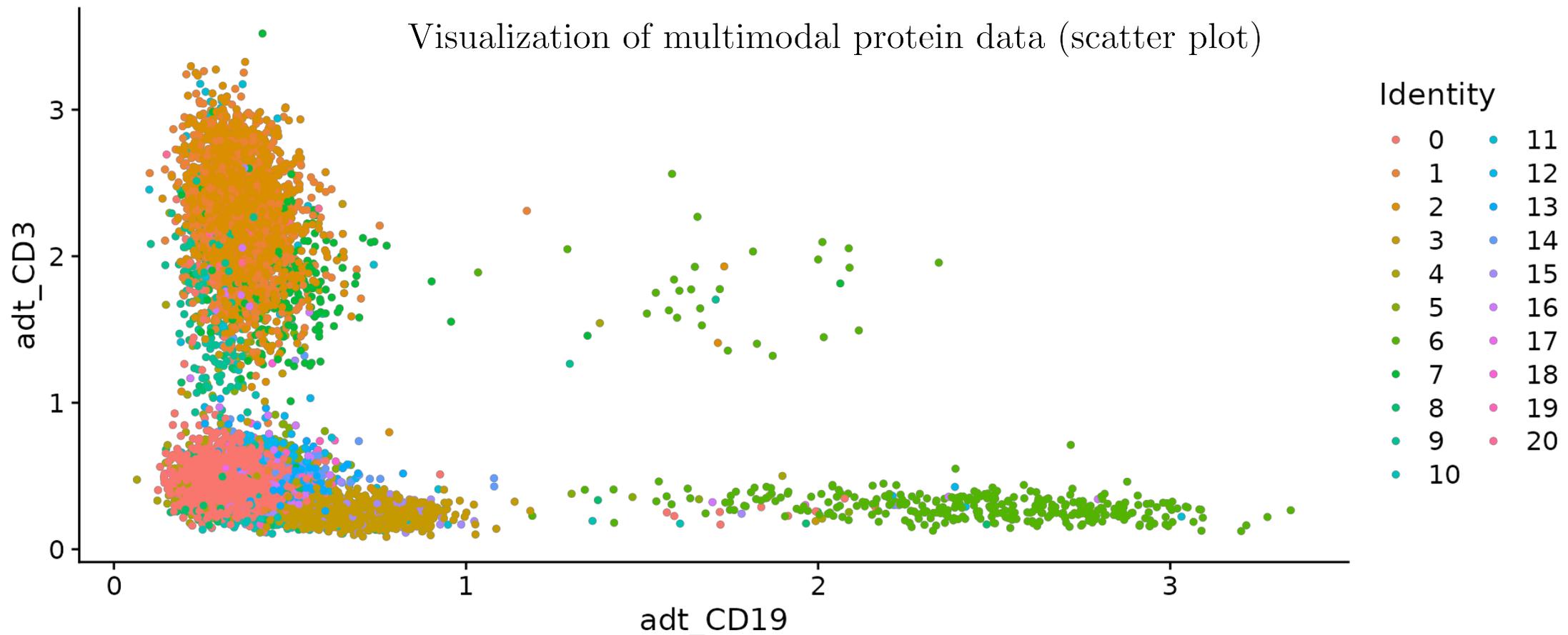
Uniform in Sphere



Dirichlet

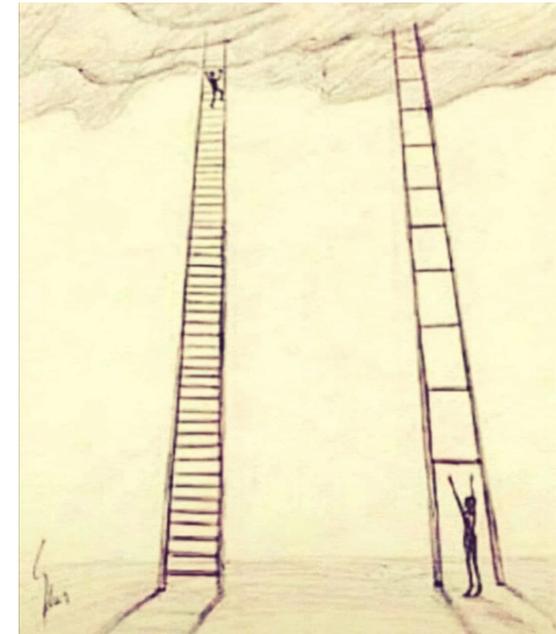
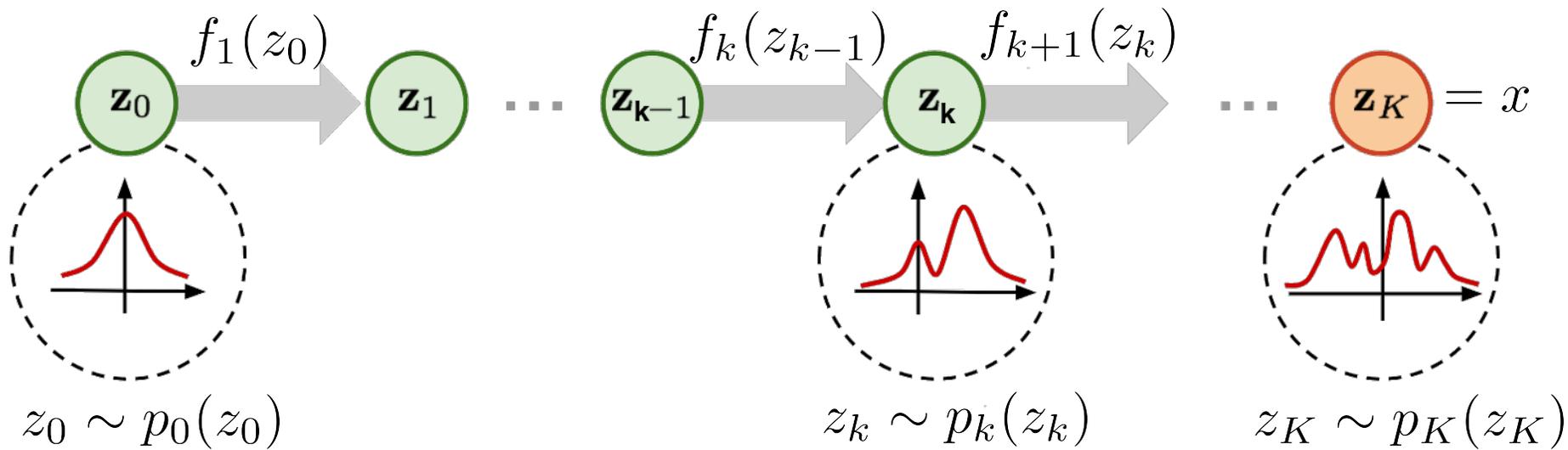


- Unfortunately, real data distributions are usually more complex (multimodal).



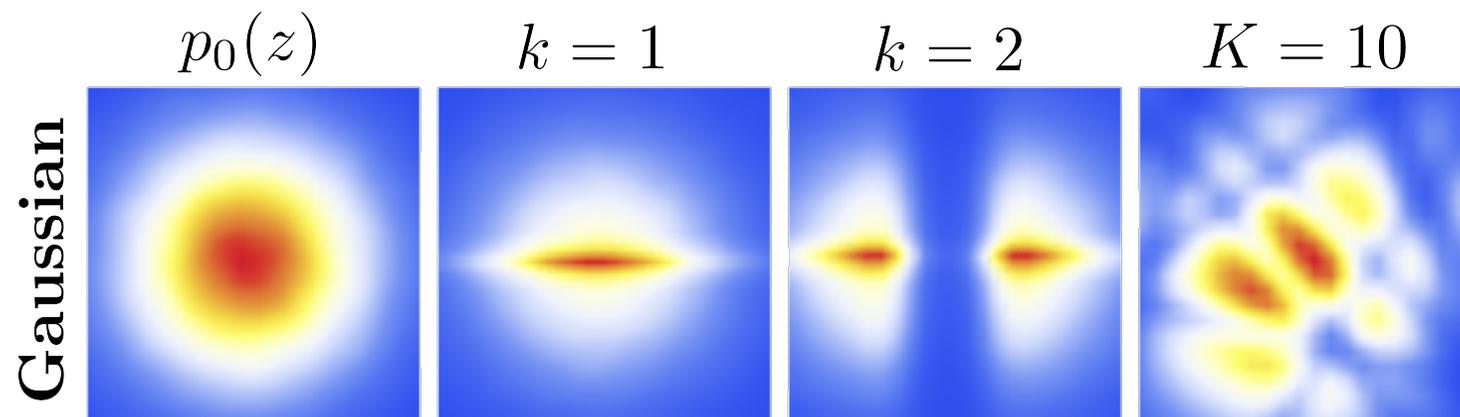
What is a Flow Model?

- **Key idea behind flow models:** Map simple distributions (i.e., easy to sample and evaluate densities) to complex distributions through a **series of invertible and differentiable transformations**.

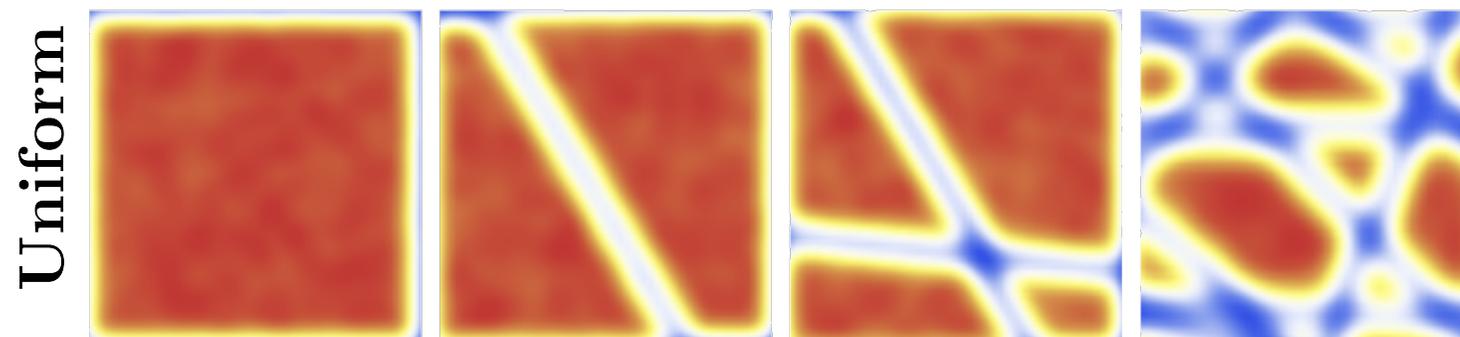


Many small steps adds up to big results.

- Base distribution: Gaussian



- Base distribution: Uniform



10 planar transformations
can transform a simple
distribution into a far
more complex one.

- The decoder/generator is given by:

$$f_{\theta} := f_K \circ \dots \circ f_k \circ \dots \circ f_1.$$

- The encoder/normalizer is given by:

$$f_{\theta}^{-1} := f_1^{-1} \circ \dots \circ f_k^{-1} \circ \dots \circ f_K^{-1}.$$

- What about f_k 's?

↪ They have to be invertible. $\Rightarrow \dim(z) = \dim(x) = d$.

↪ The output has to have tractable and fast-to-compute probability density function.

↪ The change of variables formula for random variables implies that f_k 's need to have easy-to-compute Jacobian and easy-to-compute determinant.

- How expressive/powerful is a flow model?

Answer: They are universal approximators of the density.

Example: $f_k := f_{\theta_k}$,
with $\theta := \{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_K\}$.

- Bijection: An invertible transformation.
- Diffeomorphism: A bijection that is differentiable.
- Flow: A family of diffeomorphisms f_t indexed by a real number t such that $t = 0$ indexes the identity function and $t_1 + t_2$ indexes the composition $f_{t_1} \circ f_{t_2}$.
- $p_\theta(x)$: pushforward of the base distribution (notation: $p_\theta = f_* p_0$).

Change of Variables Formula

- Let Z be a uniform random variable $\mathcal{U}[0, 2]$ with density $p_Z(z)$. What is $p_Z(1)$?

Answer: $\frac{1}{2}$, sanity check: $\int_0^2 \frac{1}{2} dx = 1$.

- Let $X = 4Z$, and let $p_X(x)$ be its density. What is $p_X(4)$?

Answer: $p_X(4) = P(X = 4) = P(4Z = 4) = P(Z = 1) = p_Z(1) = 1/2$. **Wrong!**

Answer: Clearly, X is uniform in $[0, 8]$, so $p_X(4) = 1/8$.

!!! To get the correct result, we need to use the **change of variables formula**.

- **Change of Variables (1D case):** If $X = f(Z)$ and $f(\cdot)$ is monotone with inverse $Z = f^{-1}(X) = h(X)$, then:

$$p_X(x) = p_Z(h(x)) \times \left| \frac{d}{dx} h(x) \right|.$$

- More interesting example: If $X = f(Z) = \exp(Z)$ and $Z \sim \mathcal{U}[0, 2]$, what is $p_X(x)$?

Answer: Note that $Z = h(X) = \log(X)$, thus,

$$p_X(x) = p_Z(\log(x)) \times |h'(x)| = \frac{1}{2x}, \text{ for } x \in [\exp(0), \exp(2)].$$

– Note that the “shape” of $p_X(x)$ is different (and, essentially, more complex) from that of the base distribution $p_Z(z)$.

Change of Variables Formula

- **Change of Variables (1D case):** If $X = f(Z)$ and $f(\cdot)$ is monotone with inverse $Z = f^{-1}(X) = h(X)$, then:

$$p_X(x) = p_Z(h(x)) \times \left| \frac{d}{dx} h(x) \right|.$$

- Proof sketch: Assuming $f(\cdot)$ is monotonic:

$$F_X(z) = P(X \leq x) = P(f(Z) \leq x) = P(Z \leq h(x)) = F_Z(h(x)).$$

Differentiating both sides:

$$p_X(x) = \frac{dF_X(x)}{dx} = \frac{dF_Z(h(x))}{dx} = p_Z(h(x)) \frac{dh(x)}{dx}.$$

Change of Variables Formula

- **Change of Variables (1D case):** If $X = f(Z)$ and $f(\cdot)$ is monotone with inverse $Z = f^{-1}(X) = h(X)$, then:

$$p_X(x) = p_Z(h(x)) \times \left| \frac{d}{dx} h(x) \right|.$$

- Recall from basic calculus that $h'(x) = [f^{-1}]'(x) = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(x))}$.

So, letting $z = h(x) = f^{-1}(x)$, we can also write:

$$p_X(x) = p_Z(z) \times \left| \frac{1}{f'(z)} \right|.$$

Recall:
 $\frac{d}{dx} f(x) \equiv f'(x).$

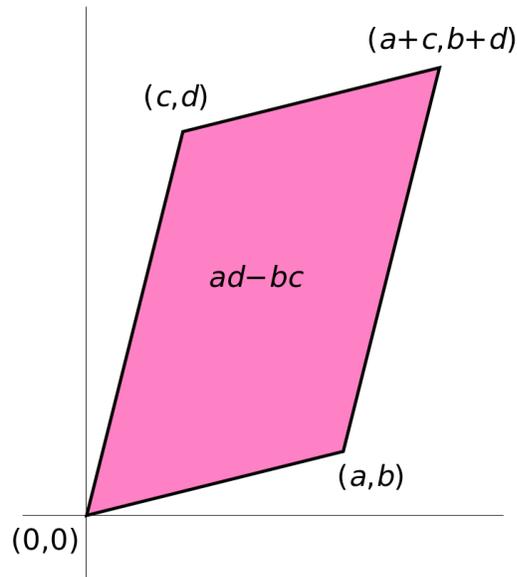
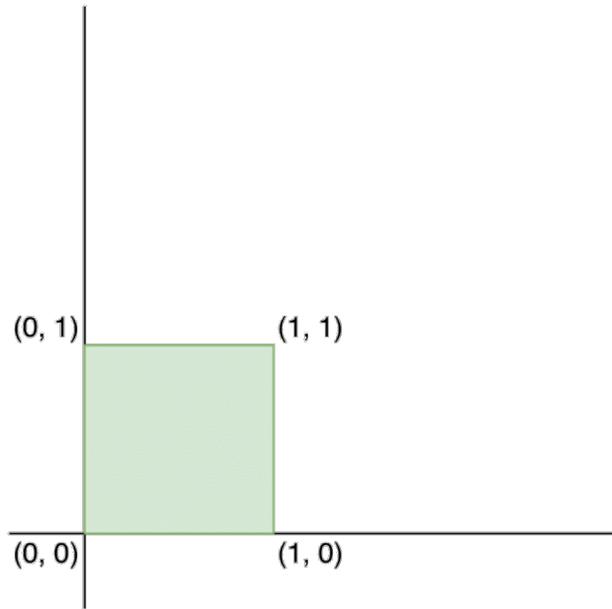
Geometry: Determinants & Volumes

Lecture #8

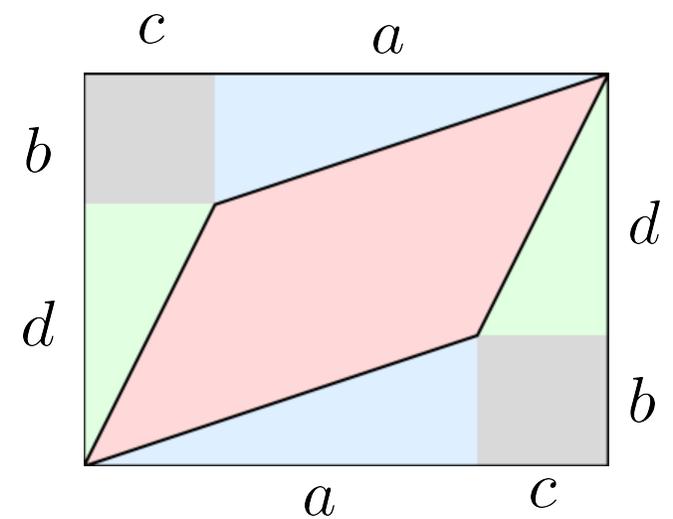
- Let Z be a uniform random vector in $[0, 1]^n$. Let $X = AZ$ for a square invertible matrix A , with inverse $W = A^{-1}$. How is X distributed?

Answer: Geometrically, the matrix A maps the unit hypercube $[0, 1]^n$ to a parallelotope. Hypercube and parallelotope are generalizations of square/cube and parallelogram/parallelepipedes to higher dimensions.

Geometry: Determinants & Volumes



The matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}$ maps a unit square to a parallelogram.



- The volume of the parallelotope is equal to the absolute value of the determinant of the matrix A :

$$\det(A) = \det \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix} = ad - bc.$$

$$(a + c)(b + d) - ab - 2bc - cd = ad - bc.$$

- Let $X = AZ$ for a square invertible matrix A , with inverse $W = A^{-1}$. X is uniformly distributed over the parallelotope of area $|\det(A)|$.

Hence:

$$p_X(x) = p_Z(Wx) / |\det(A)| = p_Z(Wx) |\det(W)|,$$

because if $W = A^{-1}$, then $\det(W) = \frac{1}{\det(A)}$.

– Essentially, an extension of the 1D case formula.

- For linear transformations specified via A , change in volume is given by the determinant of A , and for non-linear transformations $f(\cdot)$, the *linearized* change in volume is given by the **determinant of the Jacobian** of $f(\cdot)$.

Generalized Change of Variables

- **Change of Variables (General case):** The mapping between Z and X , given by $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$, is invertible such that $X = f(Z)$ and $Z = f^{-1}(X)$.

$$p_X(x) = p_Z(f^{-1}(x)) \left| \det \left(\frac{\partial f^{-1}(x)}{\partial x} \right) \right|.$$

1. Generalizes the previous 1D case: $p_X(x) = p_Z(h(x)) |h'(x)|$
2. x and z need to be continuous and have the same dimension.
For example, if $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, then $z \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

3. For any invertible matrix A , $\det(A^{-1}) = \det(A)^{-1} \Rightarrow p_X(x) = p_Z(z) \left| \det \left(\frac{\partial f(z)}{\partial z} \right) \right|^{-1}$.

Two Dimensional Example

- Let Z_1 and Z_2 be continuous random variables with joint density p_{Z_1, Z_2} . Let $f = (f_1, f_2)$ be a transformation, and $h = (h_1, h_2)$ be the inverse transformation. Let $X_1 = f_1(Z_1, Z_2)$ and $X_2 = f_2(Z_1, Z_2)$. Then, $Z_1 = h_1(X_1, X_2)$ and $Z_2 = h_2(X_1, X_2)$. It follows that:

$$\begin{aligned} & p_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2) \\ &= p_{Z_1, Z_2}(h_1(x_1, x_2), h_2(x_1, x_2)) \left| \det \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial h_1(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial h_1(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial h_2(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial h_2(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2} \end{pmatrix} \right| \quad \text{(inverse)} \\ &= p_{Z_1, Z_2}(z_1, z_2) \left| \det \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1(z_1, z_2)}{\partial z_1} & \frac{\partial f_1(z_1, z_2)}{\partial z_2} \\ \frac{\partial f_2(z_1, z_2)}{\partial z_1} & \frac{\partial f_2(z_1, z_2)}{\partial z_2} \end{pmatrix} \right|^{-1} \cdot \quad \text{(forward)} \end{aligned}$$

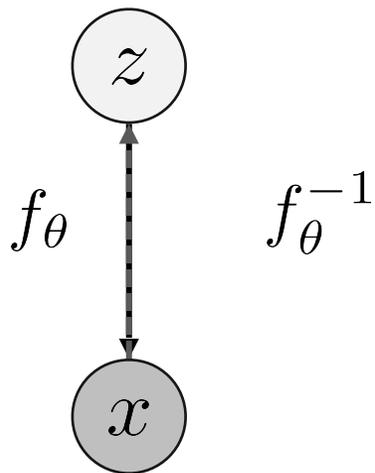
Normalizing Flow Models

- Consider a directed, latent-variable model over observed variables X and latent variables Z . In a **normalizing flow model**, the mapping between Z and X , given by $f_\theta : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$, is *deterministic, invertible and differentiable*, such that $X = f_\theta(Z)$ and $Z = f_\theta^{-1}(X)$.

Using change of variables, the marginal likelihood $p_\theta(x)$ is given by:

$$p_\theta(x) = p_Z \left(f_\theta^{-1}(x) \right) \left| \det \left(\frac{\partial f_\theta^{-1}(x)}{\partial x} \right) \right|.$$

Note: x and z need to be continuous and have the same dimension.



- **Normalizing:** Change of variables gives a normalized density after applying an invertible transformation.
- **Flow:** Invertible transformations can be composed with each other:

$$z_K = f_{\theta}^K \circ \dots \circ f_{\theta}^1(z_0) = f_{\theta}^K(f_{\theta}^{K-1}(\dots f_{\theta}^1(z_0)\dots)) =: f_{\theta}(z_0),$$

with $x = z_k$ and $z = z_0$.

A Flow of Transformations

1. Start with a simple distribution for z_0 (e.g., isotropic Gaussian).
2. Apply a sequence of K invertible transformations to finally obtain $x = z_K$.
3. By change of variables:

$$p_{\theta}(x) = p_Z (f_{\theta}^{-1}(x)) \prod_{k=1}^K \left| \det \left(\frac{\partial (f_{\theta}^k)^{-1}(z_k)}{\partial z_k} \right) \right|.$$

(Note: The determinant of a matrix product equals the product of the matrix determinants.)

1. Learning via **maximum likelihood** over dataset \mathcal{D} :

$$\max_{\theta} \log(p_{\theta}(\mathcal{D})) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{D}} \left[\log p_Z(f_{\theta}^{-1}(x)) + \log \left| \det \left(\frac{\partial f_{\theta}^{-1}(x)}{\partial x} \right) \right| \right].$$

2. **Exact likelihood evaluation:** via inverse transformation $x \rightarrow z$ and change of variables formula.

3. Sampling via forward transformation $z \rightarrow x$.

$$z \sim p_Z(z), \quad x = f_{\theta}(z).$$

4. **Latent representations** inferred via inverse transformation (no extra inference model is required!).

$$z = f_{\theta}^{-1}(x).$$

1. Simple prior $p_Z(z)$ that allows for efficient sampling and tractable likelihood evaluation, e.g., isotropic Gaussian.
2. Invertible transformations with tractable evaluation:
 - Likelihood evaluation requires efficient evaluation of $x \rightarrow z$ mapping.
 - Sampling requires efficient evaluation of $z \rightarrow x$ mapping.

3. Computing likelihoods also requires the evaluation of determinants of $d \times d$ Jacobian matrices, where d is the data dimensionality:
 - Computing the determinant for an $d \times d$ matrix is $O(d^3)$: prohibitively expensive within a learning loop!
 - **Key idea:** Choose transformations so that the resulting Jacobian matrix has special structure. For example, the determinant of a triangular matrix is the product of the diagonal entries, i.e., an $O(d)$ operation.

Triangular Jacobian

The Jacobian matrix of $x = [x_1, \dots, x_d]^T = f(z) = [f_1(z), \dots, f_d(z)]^T$ is given by:

$$J \equiv \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} := \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial z_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial z_d} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \frac{\partial f_d}{\partial z_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_d}{\partial z_d} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Suppose $x_k = f_k(z)$ only depends on $z_{\leq k}$. Then, its Jacobian is given by:

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial z_1} & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \frac{\partial f_d}{\partial z_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_d}{\partial z_d} \end{pmatrix},$$

which has lower triangular structure, thus, its determinant can be computed in **linear time**.

- Planar flow: Invertible (residual) transformation:

$$z_k = f_{\theta_k}(z_{k-1}) = z_{k-1} + u_k h(w_k^T z_{k-1} + b_k),$$

parametrized by $\theta_k = (w_k, u_k, b_k)$ where $h(\cdot)$ is a non-linearity.

- Absolute value of the determinant of the Jacobian is given by:

$$\left| \det \frac{\partial f_{\theta_k}(z)}{\partial z} \right| = \left| \det(I + h'(w_k^T z + b_k) u_k w_k^T) \right| = \left| 1 + h'(w^T z + b) u_k^T w_k \right|.$$

(via matrix determinant lemma: $\det(A + uv^T) = (1 + v^T A^{-1}u)\det(A)$)

- Planar flow: Maximum log-likelihood:

$$\max_{\theta} \log(p_{\theta}(x|\mathcal{D})) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{D}} \left[\log p_Z(z_0) - \sum_{k=1}^K \log |1 + h'(w^T z_k + b) u_k^T w_k| \right],$$

where $z_k = f_{\theta_k}^{-1}(z_{k+1})$ starting from $z_{K-1} = f_{\theta_K}^{-1}(x)$.

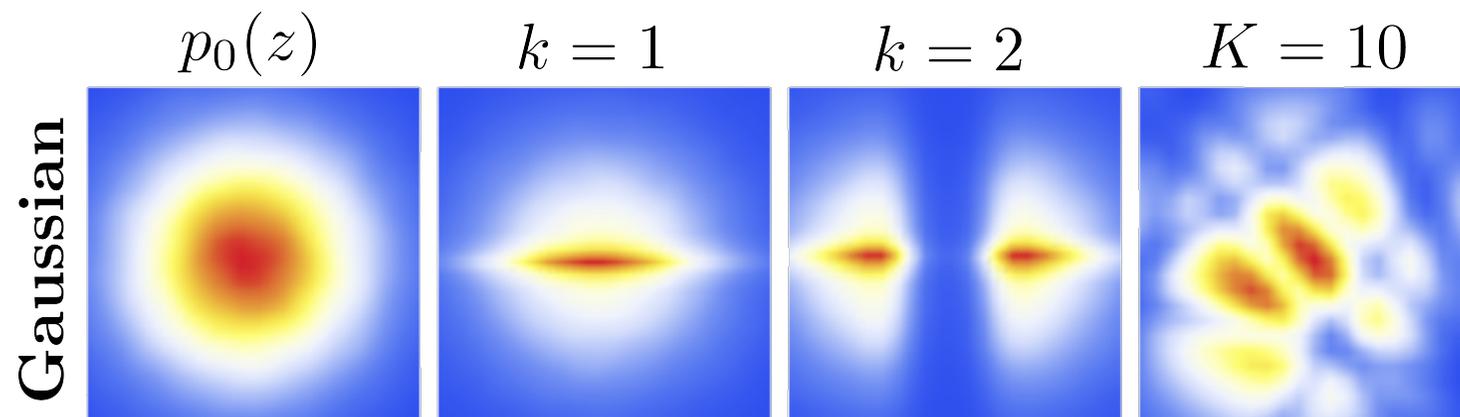
- Need to restrict the parameters and the non-linearity for the mapping to be invertible. For example, $h = \tanh$ and $h'(w_k^T z + b_k) u_k^T w_k > -1, \forall k$.

- In general, there is no analytic expression for the inverse $f_{\theta_k}^{-1}(x)$. However, it can be iteratively approximated via:

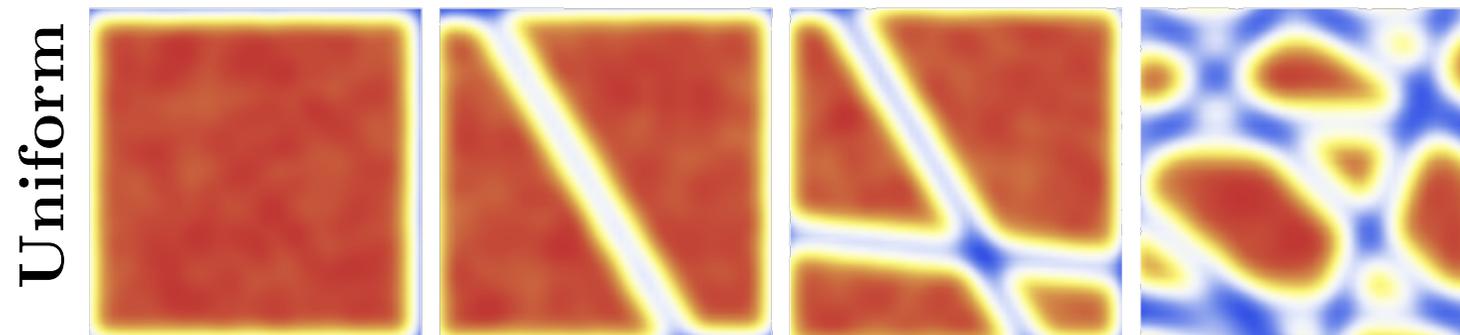
$$z_k^{(l)} = z_{k+1} - u_k h(w_k^T z_k^{(l-1)} + b_k), \quad l = 1, 2, \dots$$

- Banach's fixed point theorem guarantees under the contraction assumption that the sequence $z_k^{(l)}$, $l = 1, 2, \dots$ will converge to $f_{\theta_k}^{-1}(z_{k+1})$ exponentially fast.

- Base distribution: Gaussian



- Base distribution: Uniform



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1. Probabilistic Machine Learning: Advanced Topics (Chapter 22)
Kevin P Murphy, The MIT Press (2023)
2. Normalizing Flows for Probabilistic Modeling and Inference, Papamakarios et al., JMLR, 2021. (A coherent and accessible summary to normalizing flows - Highly recommended read!)
3. Variational Inference with Normalizing Flows, D. Rezende & S. Mohamed, ICML, 2015.
4. <https://github.com/janosh/awesome-normalizing-flows> (list of papers and source code).
5. <https://lilianweng.github.io/posts/2018-10-13-flow-models/>
6. <https://tech.skit.ai/normalizing-flows-part-2/>

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