# **Generative Models II: Explicit Density Models**

Al602: Recent Advances in Deep Learning
Lecture 5

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#### 1. Introduction

Implicit vs explicit density models

# Variational Autoencoders (VAE)

- Variational autoencoders
- Tighter bounds for variational inference
- Techniques to mitigate posterior collapse
- Large-scale generation via hierarchical structures
- Diffusion probabilistic models

# 3. Energy-based Models (EBM)

- Energy-based models
- Score matching generative models

# 4. Autoregressive and Flow-based Models

- Autoregressive models
- Flow-based models

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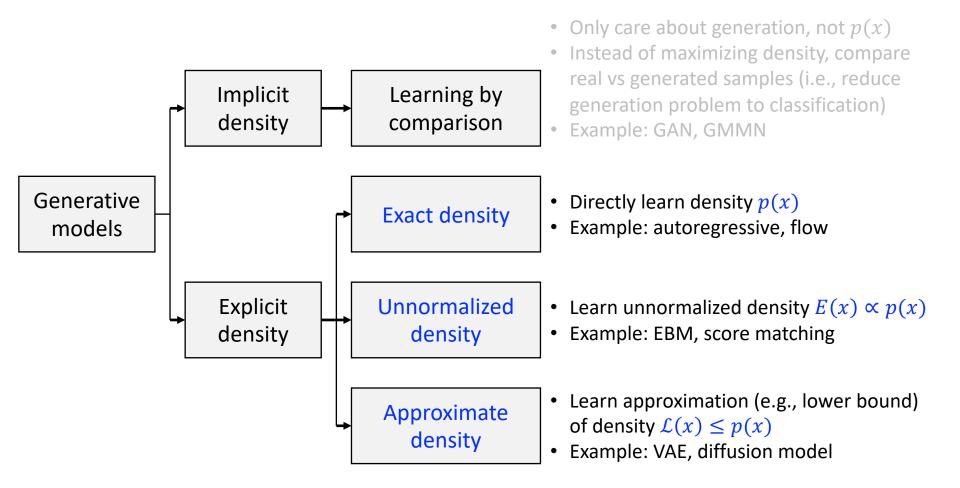
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- Score matching generative models

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- Autoregressive models
- Flow-based models

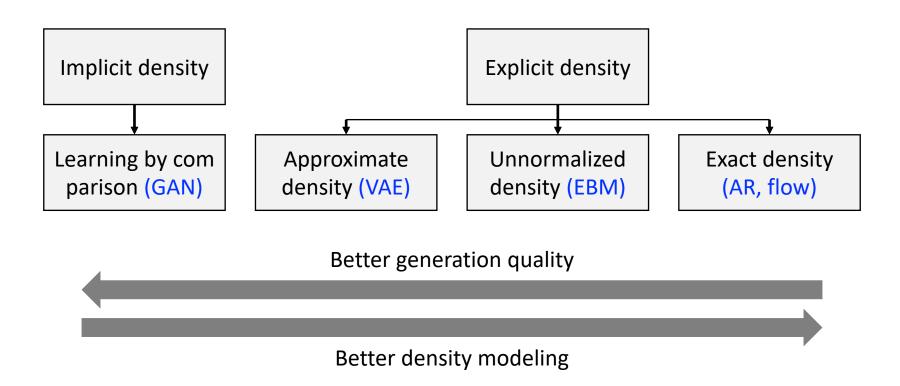
## **Implicit vs Explicit Density Models**

From now on, we study generative models with explicit density estimation:



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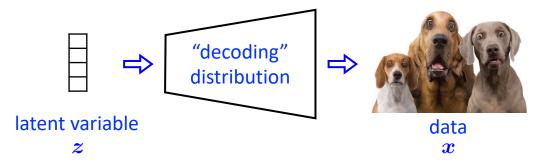
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Consider the following generative model:



- Fixed prior on random latent variable
  - e.g., standard Normal distribution

$$p(\boldsymbol{z}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{z}; \boldsymbol{0}, \mathbb{I})$$

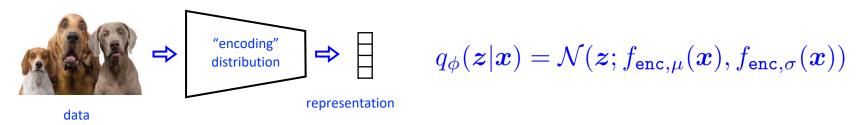
- Parameterized likelihood (decoder) for generation:
  - e.g., Normal distribution parameterized by neural network

$$p_{ heta}(oldsymbol{x}|oldsymbol{z}) = \mathcal{N}(oldsymbol{x}; f_{ ext{dec}}(oldsymbol{z}), \mathbb{I})$$

Resulting generative distribution (to optimize):

$$\log p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \log \int_{\boldsymbol{z}} p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{z}) p(\boldsymbol{z}) d\boldsymbol{z} = \log \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{z} \sim p(\boldsymbol{z})} [p(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{z})]$$

Variational autoencoder (VAE) introduce an auxiliary distribution (encoder)
[Kingma et al., 2013]



• Each  $\log p_{ heta}(oldsymbol{x})$  term is replaced by its lower bound:

$$\log p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}) \geq \log p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}) - \min_{\phi} \text{KL}(q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})||p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x}))$$

$$= \log p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}) + \max_{\phi} \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{z} \sim q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})} [\log p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x}) - \log q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})]$$

$$= \max_{\phi} \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{z} \sim q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})} [\log p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}) + \log p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x}) - \log q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})]$$

$$= \max_{\phi} \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{z} \sim q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})} [\log p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{z})] - \text{KL}(q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})||p(\boldsymbol{z}))$$

• Bound becomes equality when  $q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x}) pprox p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})$ 

The training objective becomes:

tractable between two Gaussian distributions

$$\max_{\theta} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)}) \ge \max_{\theta} \max_{\phi} \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{z} \sim q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})} [\log p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{z})] - \text{KL}(q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})||p(\boldsymbol{z}))$$

$$\approx \max_{\theta} \max_{\phi} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \log p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)}|\boldsymbol{z}^{(n,k)}) - \text{KL}(q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)})||p(\boldsymbol{z}))$$

where latent variables are sampled by  $m{z}^{(n,k)} \sim q_{\phi}(m{z}|m{x}^{(n)})$ 

However, non-trivial to train with back propagation due to sampling procedure:

$$\nabla_{\phi} \mathcal{L} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} - \nabla_{\phi} \log p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)}|\boldsymbol{z}^{(n,k)}) + \nabla_{\phi} \text{KL}(q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)})||p(\boldsymbol{z}))$$

Since  $z^{(n,k)}$  is fixed after being sampled,  $\nabla_{\phi} \log p(x^{(n)}|z^{(n,k)}) = 0$ ?

Reparameterization trick is based on the change-of-variables formula:

• Latent variable  $z^{(n,k)}$  can be similarly parameterized by encoder network:

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Total loss of variational autoencoder:

$$\nabla_{\phi} \mathcal{L} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} - \underbrace{\nabla_{\phi} \log p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)} | \boldsymbol{z}^{(n,k)})}_{\nabla_{\phi} \mathcal{L}_{1}} + \underbrace{\nabla_{\phi} \mathrm{KL}(q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z} | \boldsymbol{x}^{(n)}) | | p(\boldsymbol{z}))}_{\nabla_{\phi} \mathcal{L}_{2}}$$

- Recall that  $f_{ t dec}, f_{ t enc,\mu}, f_{ t enc,\sigma}$  are parameterized by  $\phi$
- Derivative of first part:

Total loss of variational autoencoder:

$$\nabla_{\phi} \mathcal{L} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} - \underbrace{\nabla_{\phi} \log p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)} | \boldsymbol{z}^{(n,k)})}_{\nabla_{\phi} \mathcal{L}_{1}} + \underbrace{\nabla_{\phi} \text{KL}(q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z} | \boldsymbol{x}^{(n)}) | | p(\boldsymbol{z}))}_{\nabla_{\phi} \mathcal{L}_{2}}$$

- Recall that  $f_{ t dec}, f_{ t enc,\mu}, f_{ t enc,\sigma}$  are parameterized by  $\phi$
- Derivative of second part:

$$\bigtriangledown_{\phi} \mathcal{L}_{1} = \bigtriangledown_{\phi} \mathrm{KL}(\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{z}; f_{\mathrm{enc},\mu}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)}), f_{\mathrm{enc},\sigma}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)})) || \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{z}; \boldsymbol{0}, \boldsymbol{1}))$$

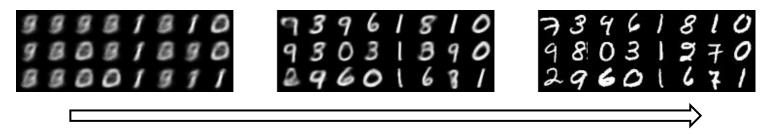
$$= \sum_{K} \nabla_{\phi} \mathrm{KL}(\mathcal{N}(z_{k}; f_{\mathrm{enc},\mu,k}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)}), f_{\mathrm{enc},\sigma,k}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)})) || \mathcal{N}(z_{k}; 0, 1))$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{K} \nabla_{\phi} \mathrm{KL}(\mathcal{N}(z_{k}; f_{\mathrm{enc},\mu,k}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)}), f_{\mathrm{enc},\sigma,k}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)})) || \mathcal{N}(z_{k}; 0, 1))$$

$$\downarrow \mathsf{L} \text{ divergence between normal distributions}$$

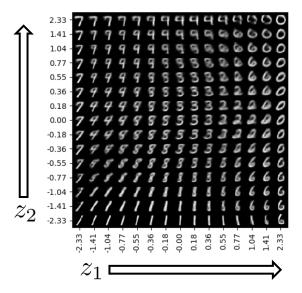
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{K} \nabla_{\phi} - \log f_{\mathrm{enc},\sigma,k}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)}) + \frac{1}{2} f_{\mathrm{enc},\sigma,k}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)})^{2} + \frac{1}{2} f_{\mathrm{enc},\sigma,k}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)})^{2}$$

 Based on the proposed scheme, variational autoencoder successfully generates images:



Training on MNIST

Interpolation of latent variables induce transitions in generated images:



## **Improving VAEs**

- Although VAE has many advantages (e.g., fast sampling, full mode covering, latent embedding), there are issues that lead to poor generation quality
- Tighter objective bound
  - Reduce approximation (model) error: Importance-weighted AE (IWAE)
  - Reduce amortization (sample-wise) error: Semi-amortized VAE (SA-VAE)
- Posterior collapse (latents are ignored when paired with powerful decoder)
  - Careful optimization: various techniques for continuous latent-space VAEs
  - Use discrete latent space: Vector-quantized VAE (VQ-VAE)
- Improve model expressivity
  - Use expressive prior distribution: Gaussian mixtures, normalizing flow
  - Use hierarchical architectures: Hierarchical VAE, Diffusion Models

## **Improving VAEs**

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Observe that ELBO can also be proved by the Jensen's inequality:

$$\log p(\boldsymbol{x}) = \log \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{z} \sim q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})} \left[ \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z})}{q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})} \right] \geq \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{z} \sim q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})} \left[ \log \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z})}{q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})} \right]$$

- Based on convexity, interchange order of logarithm and summation
- Importance weighted AE (IWAE) relax the inequality [Burda et al., 2018]:

$$\log p(\boldsymbol{x}) = \log \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{z}^{(1)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{z}^{(K)} \sim q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})} \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}^{(k)})}{q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}^{(k)}|\boldsymbol{x})} \right]$$

$$\geq \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{z}^{(1)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{z}^{(K)} \sim q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})} \left[ \log \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}^{(k)})}{q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}^{(k)}|\boldsymbol{x})} \right]$$

also called importance weights

• Becomes original ELBO when K=1 and becomes exact bound when  $K=\infty$ 

$$\mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{z}^{(1)},\cdots,\boldsymbol{z}^{(K)}\sim q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})}\bigg[\frac{1}{K}\sum_{k=1}^{K}\frac{p(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{z}^{(k)})}{q_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{z}^{(k)}|\boldsymbol{x})}\bigg]\approx p(\boldsymbol{x})$$

## Semi-amortized VAE (SA-VAE)

- Inference gap of VAE can be decomposed to approximation gap (model error) and amortization gap (single neural network amortizes all posteriors)
- Semi-amortized VAE: In addition to the global inference network, update the posterior of each local instance for a few steps [Kim et al., 2018]
  - Resembles MAML (see future lecture)

- 1. Sample  $\mathbf{x} \sim p_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})$
- 2. Set  $\lambda_0 = \text{enc}(\mathbf{x}; \phi)$   $\rightarrow$  shared to all samples
- 3. For  $k=0,\ldots,K-1$ , set  $\lambda_{k+1}=\lambda_k+\alpha\nabla_\lambda\operatorname{ELBO}(\lambda_k,\theta,\mathbf{x})$   $\rightarrow$  specific to each sample x
- Semi-amortized VAE can further reduce ELBO, applied on top of any VAEs

MODEL	ORACLE GEN	Learned Gen
VAE SVI SA-VAE	$ \leq 21.77 \\ \leq 22.33 \\ \leq 20.13 $	$ \leq 27.06 \\ \leq 25.82 \\ \leq 25.21 $
TRUE NLL (EST)	19.63	_

<sup>\*</sup> SVI: Instance-specific posterior only, without amortization

#### **Improving VAEs**

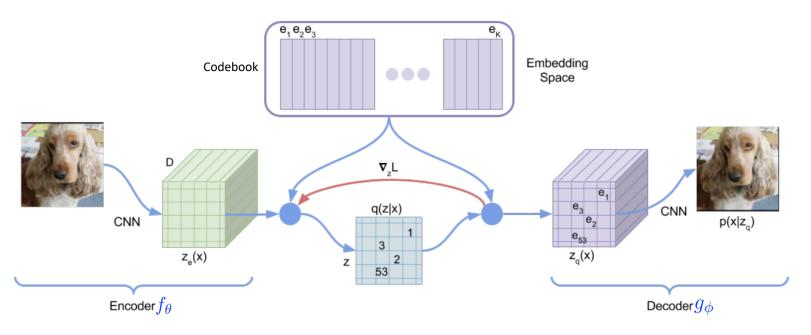
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## **Mitigating Posterior Collapse for Continuous Latent-space VAEs**

- Posterior collapse [Bowman et al., 2016]:
  - When paired with powerful decoder, VAEs often ignore the posterior  $q_{\phi}(z|x)$  and generates generic samples (i.e., reconstruction loss does not decrease well)
- To mitigate posterior collapse, prior works attempt
  - 1. Weaken the KL regularization term [Bowman et al., 2016, Razavi et al., 2019a]
    - Recall: KL regularization term minimizes  $\mathrm{KL}(p_{\phi}(z|x),p(z))$
    - Anneal the weight during training, or constraint  $\geq \delta$
  - 2. Match aggregated posterior instead of individuals [Tolstikhin et al., 2018]
    - Instead of matching  $p_{\phi}(z|x) \approx p(z)$  for all x, match the aggregated posterior  $\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x)} p_{\phi}(z|x) \approx p(z)$  (each  $p_{\phi}(z|x)$  is now a deterministic, single point)
    - Need implicit distribution matching techniques (e.g., GAN)
  - 3. Improve optimization procedure [He et al., 2019]
    - Strengthen the encoder: update encoder until converge, and decoder once

## **Vector-quantized VAE (VQ-VAE)**

- VQ-VAE [Oord et al., 2017]
  - Each data is embedded into combination of 'discrete' latent vectors:  $\{e_1, \cdots, e_K\}$
  - i.e.) each encoder output is quantized to the nearest vector among K codebook vectors



- Restriction of latent space achieves high generation quality including:
  - Images, videos, audios, etc.

## **Vector-quantized VAE (VQ-VAE)**

- VQ-VAE [Oord et al., 2017]
  - The objective of VQ-VAE composed of three terms:
    - Reconstruction loss (1)
    - VQ loss (2):
      - Optimization of codebook vectors
    - Commitment loss (3):
      - Regularization to get encoder outputs and codebook close

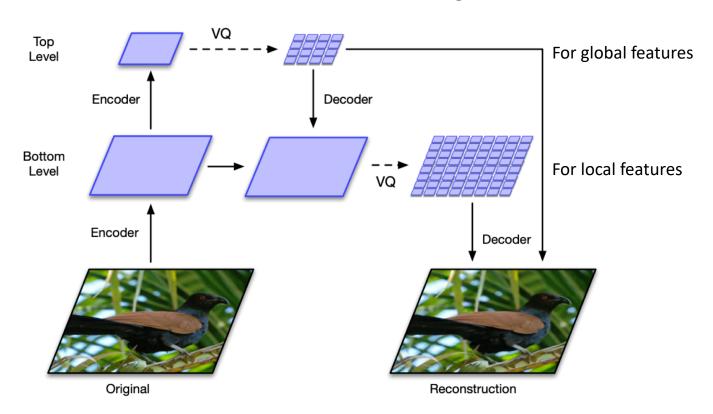
$$\mathcal{L} = ||g_{\phi}(e) - x||_{2}^{2} + ||\operatorname{sg}(f_{\theta}(x)) - e||_{2}^{2} + \beta||f_{\theta}(x) - \operatorname{sg}(e)||_{2}^{2}$$
(1)
(2)
(3)

- VQ-VAE like methods (i.e. discrete prior) recently shows remarkable success on:
  - DALL-E (text-image generative model) image is encoded via VQ-VAE
  - Many audio self-supervised learning method

## **Vector-quantized VAE + Hierarchical Architecture (VQ-VAE-2)**

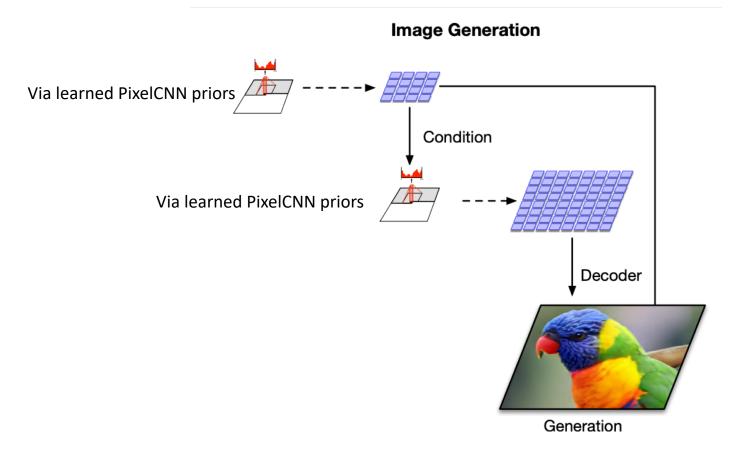
- VQ-VAE-2 [Razavi et al., 2019b]
  - Different from VQ-VAE, vector quantization occurs twice (top, bottom level)
  - For both consideration of local/global features for high-fidelity image

#### **VQ-VAE Encoder and Decoder Training**



## **Vector-quantized VAE + Hierarchical Architecture (VQ-VAE-2)**

- VQ-VAE-2 [Razavi et al., 2019b]
  - After VQ-VAE-2 training, train two pixelCNN priors for new image generation
  - They autoregressively fill out each quantized latent vector space



Generated images are comparable to state-of-the-art GAN model (e.g. BigGAN)

#### **Improving VAEs**

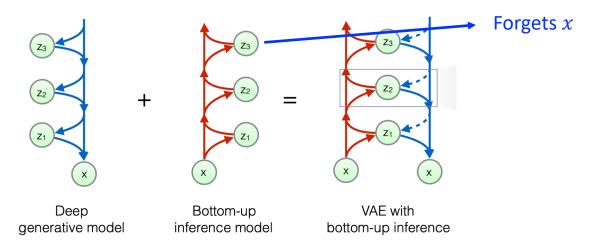
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#### Nouveau VAE (NVAE)

- NVAE [Vahdat et al., 2020]
  - Hierarchical VAEs use the factorized latent space  $p_{\theta}(z) = \prod_{l} p_{\theta}(z_{l}|z_{< l})$
  - Here, the ELBO objective is given by

$$\mathcal{L}_{ ext{VAE}}(oldsymbol{x}) := \mathbb{E}_{q(oldsymbol{z}|oldsymbol{x})} \left[ \log p(oldsymbol{x}|oldsymbol{z}) 
ight] - ext{KL}(q(oldsymbol{z}_1|oldsymbol{x})||p(oldsymbol{z}_1)) - \sum_{l=2}^L \mathbb{E}_{q(oldsymbol{z}_{< l}|oldsymbol{x})} \left[ ext{KL}(q(oldsymbol{z}_l|oldsymbol{x}, oldsymbol{z}_{< l})||p(oldsymbol{z}_l|oldsymbol{z}_{< l})) 
ight],$$

- However, prior attempts on hierarchical VAE were not so successful due to:
  - 1. Long-range correlation: upper latents often forget the data information

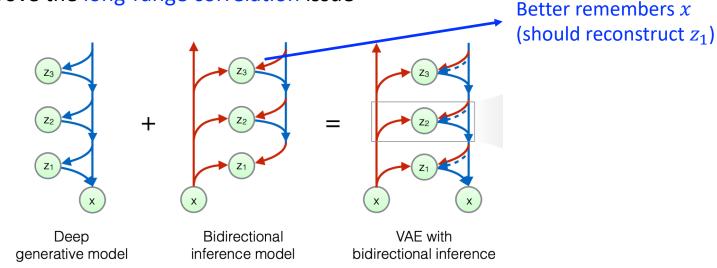


2. Unstable (unbounded) KL term: even more severe for hierarchical VAEs since they **jointly learn** the prior distribution  $p_{\theta}(z)$ Both  $q_{\phi}(z|x)$  and  $p_{\theta}(z)$  are moving during training

#### Nouveau VAE (NVAE)

- NVAE [Vahdat et al., 2020]
  - Idea 1. Bidirectional encoder (originally from [Kingma et al., 2016])
    - Enforce upper latents (e.g.,  $z_3$ ) to predict the lower latents (e.g.,  $z_1$ )

→ Improve the long-range correlation issue



- Training: posterior  $q_{\phi}(z|x)$  is inferred by both encoder and decoder (aggregate them) and prior  $p_{\theta}(z)$  is jointly inferred by decoder
  - Recall that the KL term is a function of  $q_{\phi}(z|x)$  and  $p_{\theta}(z)$
- Inference: Sample prior  $p_{\theta}(z)$  from decoder and generate sample x

#### Nouveau VAE (NVAE)

- NVAE [Vahdat et al., 2020]
  - Idea 2. Taming the unstable KL term

#### Residual normal distribution

For each factorized prior distribution

$$p(z_l^i|\boldsymbol{z}_{< l}) := \mathcal{N}(\mu_i(\boldsymbol{z}_{< l}), \sigma_i(\boldsymbol{z}_{< l})),$$

define approximate posterior as (instead of directly predict  $\mu_i$ ,  $\sigma_i$ )

$$q(z_l^i|\boldsymbol{z}_{< l}, \boldsymbol{x}) := \mathcal{N}(\mu_i(\boldsymbol{z}_{< l}) + \Delta \mu_i(\boldsymbol{z}_{< l}, \boldsymbol{x}), \sigma_i(\boldsymbol{z}_{< l}) \cdot \Delta \sigma_i(\boldsymbol{z}_{< l}, \boldsymbol{x})),$$

Then, the KL term of ELBO is given by

$$\mathrm{KL}(q(z^i|\boldsymbol{x})||p(z^i)) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\Delta \mu_i^2}{\sigma_i^2} + \Delta \sigma_i^2 - \log \Delta \sigma_i^2 - 1 \right)$$

#### 2. Spectral regularization

- Enforce Lipschitz smoothness of encoder to bound KL divergence
- Regularize the largest singular value of convolutional layers (estimated by power iteration [Yoshida & Miyato, 2017])

- NVAE [Vahdat et al., 2020]
  - Results:
    - Generate high-resolution (256x256) images







• SOTA test negative log-likelihood (NLL) on non-autoregressive models

Method	MNIST 28×28	CIFAR-10 32×32	ImageNet 32×32	CelebA 64×64	CelebA HQ 256×256	<b>FFHQ</b> 256×256	
NVAE w/o flow NVAE w/ flow	<b>78.01</b> 78.19	2.93 <b>2.91</b>	3.92	2.04 <b>2.03</b>	0.70	0.71 <b>0.69</b>	
VAE Models with an Unconditional Decoder							
BIVA [36]	78.41	3.08	3.96	2.48	-	-	
IAF-VAE [4]	79.10	3.11	-	-	-	-	
DVAE++ [20]	78.49	3.38	-	-	-	-	
Conv Draw [42]	-	3.58	4.40	-	-	-	
Flow Models without any Autoregressive Components in the Generative Model							
VFlow [59]	-	2.98	-	-	-	-	
ANF [60]	-	3.05	3.92	-	0.72	-	
Flow++ [61]	-	3.08	3.86	-	-	-	
Residual flow [50]	-	3.28	4.01	-	0.99	-	
GLOW [62]	-	3.35	4.09	-	1.03	-	
Real NVP [63]	-	3.49	4.28	3.02	-	-	

## **Denoising Diffusion Probabilistic Models (DDPM)**

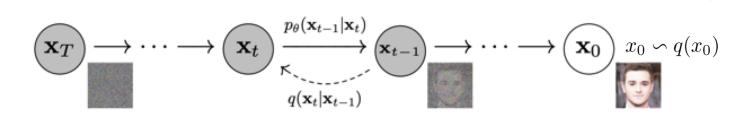
- Diffusion probabilistic models [Sohl-Dickstein et al., 2015]
  - Diffusion (forward) process: Markov chain that gradually add noise (of same dimension of data) to data until original the signal is destroyed

$$q(x_t|x_{t-1}) := \mathcal{N}(x_t; \sqrt{1-\beta_t}x_{t-1}, \beta_t I)$$

• Sampling (backward) process: Markov chain with learned Gaussian denoising transition, starting from standard Gaussian noise  $p(x_T) = \mathcal{N}(x_T; 0, I)$ 

$$p_{\theta}(x_{t-1}|x_t) := \mathcal{N}(x_{t-1}; \mu_{\theta}(x_t, t), \Sigma_{\theta}(x_t, t))$$

## Denoising/sampling (reverse)



Diffusion process (forward)

## **Denoising Diffusion Probabilistic Models (DDPM)**

- Diffusion probabilistic models [Sohl-Dickstein et al., 2015]
  - Here, the forward distribution  $q(x_{t-1}|x_t,x_0)$  can be expressed as a closed form (composition of Gaussians)
  - ELBO objective is given by the sum of local KL divergences (between Gaussians)
    - Remark that both  $q(x_{t-1}|x_t,x_0)$  and  $p_{\theta}(x_{t-1}|x_t)$  are Gaussians

$$E_q[D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q(x_T|x_0)||p(x_T)) + \sum_{t>1} D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q(x_{t-1}|x_t,x_0)||p_{\theta}(x_{t-1}|x_t)) - \log p_{\theta}(x_0|x_1)]$$

• DDPM [Ho et al., 2020] reparametrizes the model  $\mu_{\theta}$  as

$$\mu_{\theta}(x_t, t) := \alpha_t x_t + \gamma_t \epsilon_{\theta}(x_t, t)$$

- Then, the training/sampling scheme resembles denoising score matching (will be discussed later in this lecture)
- Intuitively, the reverse process adds the (learned) noise  $\epsilon_{\theta}$  for each step (resembles stochastic Langevin dynamics)

## **Denoising Diffusion Probabilistic Models (DDPM)**

- Diffusion probabilistic models [Sohl-Dickstein et al., 2015]
  - DDPM achieved the SOTA FID score (3.17) on CIFAR-10 generation



DDPM also generates high-resolution (256x256) images



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## **Energy-based Models (EBM)**

- EBM [LeCun et al., 2006, Du & Mordatch, 2019]
  - Instead of directly modeling the density p(x), learn the unnormalized density (i.e., energy) E(x) such that

$$p_{\theta}(x) = \frac{\exp(-E_{\theta}(x))}{Z_{\theta}}, \quad Z_{\theta} = \int_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \exp(-E_{\theta}(x))$$

- Here, we don't care about the **exact density** (which needs to compute the partition function  $Z_{\theta}$ ), but only interested in the **relative order** of densities
- **Training:** The gradient of negative log-likelihood (NLL) is decomposed to:

$$\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{\text{data}}(x)}[-\nabla_{\theta} \log p_{\theta}(x)] = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{\text{data}}(x)}[\nabla_{\theta} E_{\theta}(x)] + \nabla_{\theta} \log Z_{\theta}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{\text{data}}(x)}[\nabla_{\theta} E_{\theta}(x)] - \mathbb{E}_{x' \sim p_{\theta}(x)}[\nabla_{\theta} E_{\theta}(x')]$$

$$= \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{\text{data}}(x)}[\nabla_{\theta} E_{\theta}(x)]}_{\text{data gradient}} - \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{x' \sim p_{\theta}(x)}[\nabla_{\theta} E_{\theta}(x')]}_{\text{model gradient}}$$

- Note that this contrastive objective resembles (Wasserstein) GAN, but EBM uses an implicit MCMC generating procedure and no gradient through sampling
  - One can modify the discriminator of GAN to be an EBM [Zhao et al., 2017]

## **Energy-based Models (EBM)**

- EBM [LeCun et al., 2006, Du & Mordatch, 2019]
  - Instead of directly modeling the density p(x), learn the unnormalized density (i.e., energy) E(x) such that

$$p_{\theta}(x) = \frac{\exp(-E_{\theta}(x))}{Z_{\theta}}, \quad Z_{\theta} = \int_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \exp(-E_{\theta}(x))$$

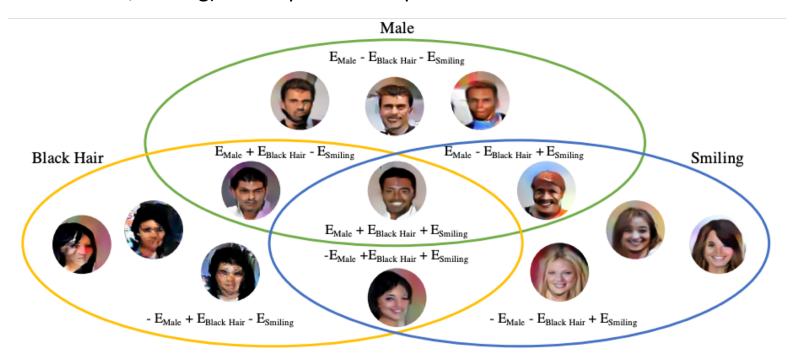
- Sampling: Run Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) to draw a sample from  $p_{\theta}(x)$ 
  - For high-dimensional data (e.g., image generation), stochastic gradient Langevin dynamics (SGLD) [Welling & Teh, 2011] is popularly used:
    - Given an initial sample  $x^0$ , iteratively update  $x^{k+1}$  (k = 0, ..., K-1)

$$x^{k+1} \leftarrow x^k + \frac{\alpha}{2} \underbrace{\nabla_x \log p_{\theta}(x^k)}_{-\nabla_x E_{\theta}(x)} + \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \alpha)$$

• Due to the Gaussian noise, it does not collapse to the MAP solution but converges to  $p_{\theta}(x)$  as  $\alpha \to 0$  and  $K \to \infty$ 

## Advantages of EBMs

 Compositionality: One can add or subtract <u>multiple energy functions</u> (e.g., male, black hair, smiling) to sample the composite distribution



- 2. No generator network: Unlike GAN/VAEs, EBMs do not need a specialized generator architecture (one can reuse the <u>standard classifier</u> architectures)
- 3. Adaptive computation time: Since the sampling is given by iterative SGLD, the user can choose from the fast coarse samples to slow fine samples

- EBM [LeCun et al., 2006, Du & Mordatch, 2019]
  - The gradient of partition function can be reformulated as follow:

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log Z_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \int \exp(-E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})) d\mathbf{x}$$

$$\stackrel{(i)}{=} \left( \int \exp(-E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})) d\mathbf{x} \right)^{-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \int \exp(-E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})) d\mathbf{x}$$

$$= \left( \int \exp(-E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})) d\mathbf{x} \right)^{-1} \int \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \exp(-E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})) d\mathbf{x}$$

$$\stackrel{(ii)}{=} \left( \int \exp(-E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})) d\mathbf{x} \right)^{-1} \int \exp(-E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})) (-\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})) d\mathbf{x}$$

$$= \int \left( \int \exp(-E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})) d\mathbf{x} \right)^{-1} \exp(-E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})) (-\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})) d\mathbf{x}$$

$$\stackrel{(iii)}{=} \int \frac{\exp(-E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}))}{Z_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}} (-\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})) d\mathbf{x}$$

$$\stackrel{(iv)}{=} \int p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}) (-\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})) d\mathbf{x}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})} \left[ -\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}) \right],$$

### Joint Energy-based Models (JEM)

- JEM [Grathwohl et al., 2020]
  - Use standard classifier architectures for joint distribution EBMs
  - Recall that the classifier  $p_{\theta}(y|x)$  is expressed by the logits  $f_{\theta}(x)$

$$p_{ heta}(y|x) = rac{\exp(f_{ heta}(x)[y])}{\sum_{y'} \exp(f_{ heta}(x)[y'])}$$

Here, one can re-interpret the logits to define an energy-based model

$$p_{\theta}(x,y) = rac{\exp(f_{\theta}(x)[y])}{Z_{\theta}}, \quad p_{\theta}(x) = rac{\sum_{y} \exp(f_{\theta}(x)[y])}{Z_{\theta}}$$

- Note that shifting the logits does not affect  $p_{\theta}(y|x)$  but  $p_{\theta}(x)$ ; hence, EBM gives an extra degree of freedom
- The objective of JEM is a sum of density and conditional models, where the density model is trained by contrastive objective of EBM

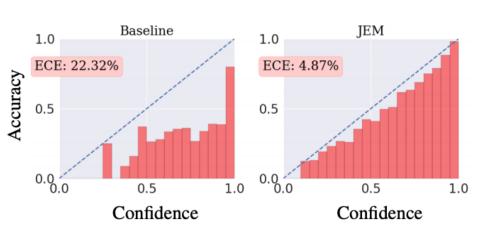
$$\log p_{\theta}(x, y) = \log p_{\theta}(x) + \log p_{\theta}(y|x)$$

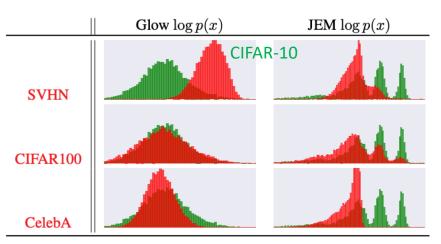
### Joint Energy-based Models (JEM)

- JEM [Grathwohl et al., 2020]
  - JEM achieves a competitive performance as both classifier and generative model

Class	Model	Accuracy% ↑	IS↑	FID↓
	Residual Flow	70.3	3.6	46.4
	Glow	67.6	3.92	48.9
Hybrid	IGEBM	49.1	8.3	<b>37</b> .9
-	JEM $p(\mathbf{x} y)$ factored	30.1	6.36	61.8
	JEM (Ours)	92.9	8.76	38.4
Disc.	Wide-Resnet	95.8	N/A	N/A
Gen.	SNGAN	N/A	8.59	25.5
	NCSN	N/A	8.91	25.32

- Also, JEM (generative classifier) improves uncertainty and robustness
  - (a) calibration, (b) out-of-distribution detection, (c) adversarial robustness





#### **Score Matching**

- Score matching [Hyvärinen, 2005]
  - Score = gradient of the log-likelihood  $s(x) := \nabla_x \log p(x)$
  - Score matching = Match the scores of data and model distribution
    - However, we don't know the scores of data distribution
    - Instead, one can use the equivalent form (proof by integration of parts)

$$\frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{\text{data}}(x)}[\|s_{\theta}(x) - s_{\text{data}}(x)\|_{2}^{2}] = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{\text{data}}(x)}\left[\text{tr}(\nabla_{x}s_{\theta}(x)) + \frac{1}{2}\|s_{\theta}(x)\|_{2}^{2}\right] + \text{const.}$$

- Recent works mostly consider denoising score matching [Vincent, 2011]
  - Match the score of **perturbed distribution**  $q_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}) \coloneqq \int q_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}|x) \; p_{\text{data}}(x)$  where  $q_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}|x) = \mathcal{N}(x,\sigma)$
  - Then, the score matching objective is equivalent to

$$\frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{x} \sim q_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}|x)p_{\text{data}}(x)} [\|s_{\theta}(\tilde{x}) - \nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log q_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}|x)\|_{2}^{2}]$$

- It is tractable since the gradient  $\nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log q_{\sigma}(\tilde{x}|x) = \nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log \mathcal{N}(\tilde{x}|x,\sigma) = \nabla_{\tilde{x}} \log \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\frac{\tilde{x}-x}{\sigma})^2)$  can be **analytically computed**
- The objective can learn the scores of data distribution if  $\sigma \approx 0$

#### **Score Matching - Appendix**

- Score matching [Hyvärinen, 2005]
  - The score matching objective can be reformulated as follow:

$$\frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{\text{data}}(x)}[\|s_{\theta}(x) - s_{\text{data}}(x)\|_{2}^{2}] = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{\text{data}}(x)}\left[\text{tr}(\nabla_{x}s_{\theta}(x)) + \frac{1}{2}\|s_{\theta}(x)\|_{2}^{2}\right] + \text{const.}$$

It is sufficient to show that

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}_{p_{\mathtt{data}}(x)}[-s_{\mathtt{data}}(x)s_{\theta}(x)] &= \sum_{i} \int -p_{\mathtt{data}}(x) \frac{\partial \log p_{\mathtt{data}}(x)}{dx_{i}} s_{\theta,i}(x) dx \\ &= \sum_{i} \int -\frac{\partial p_{\mathtt{data}}(x)}{dx_{i}} s_{\theta,i}(x) dx \\ &= \sum_{i} \int p_{\mathtt{data}}(x) \frac{\partial s_{\theta,i}(x)}{dx_{i}} dx + \mathrm{const.} \end{split}$$

The last equality comes from the integration of parts

$$\int p'(x)f(x)dx = p(x)f(x)\big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \int p(x)f'(x)dx$$

and assumption  $p_{\text{data}}(x)s_{\theta}(x) \rightarrow 0$  for both side of infinity

#### **Noise-conditional Score Network (NCSN)**

- NCSN [Song et al., 2019]
  - Previous works mostly define the score as a gradient of the **energy function**  $s_{\theta}(x) \coloneqq -\nabla_x E_{\theta}(x)$
  - This work: Directly model the score  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto s_{\theta}(x) \in \mathbb{R}^d$  as an output
  - Noise-conditional Score Network
    - Denoising score matching is stable for large  $\sigma$  but unbiased for small  $\sigma$
    - Idea: Learn multiple noise levels (with a single neural network) and anneal the noise level during sampling  $\sigma_1 > \cdots > \sigma_L$

```
Algorithm 1 Annealed Langevin dynamics.
```

```
Require: \{\sigma_i\}_{i=1}^L, \epsilon, T.

1: Initialize \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_0

2: for i \leftarrow 1 to L do

3: \alpha_i \leftarrow \epsilon \cdot \sigma_i^2/\sigma_L^2 \qquad \triangleright \alpha_i is the step size.

4: for t \leftarrow 1 to T do

5: Draw \mathbf{z}_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)

6: \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_t \leftarrow \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{t-1} + \frac{\alpha_i}{2} \mathbf{s}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{t-1}, \sigma_i) + \sqrt{\alpha_i} \ \mathbf{z}_t

7: end for

8: \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_0 \leftarrow \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_T

9: end for return \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_T
```

- One can extend score matching to **continuous version** (stochastic differential equations, SDEs) [Song et al., 2021]
  - NCSN and DDPM can be viewed as different discretization of some SDEs
  - This view provides a better approach for generation and likelihood estimation

See Appendix for details

#### **Noise-conditional Score Network (NCSN)**

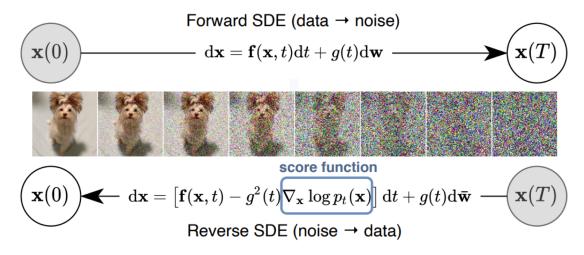
- NCSN [Song et al., 2019]
  - The continuous version of NCSN [Song et al., 2021] is SOTA for both likelihood estimation and sample generation on CIFAR-10

Table 2: NLLs and FIDs (ODE) on CIFAR-10.

Table 3: CIFAR-10 sample quality.

Table 2. NELS and Tibs (ODE) on CITAR-10.			Table 3. CITAR-10 sample quanty.		
Model	NLL Test ↓	FID ↓	Model	FID↓	IS↑
RealNVP (Dinh et al., 2016)	3.49	_	Conditional		
iResNet (Behrmann et al., 2019)	3.45	-	BigGAN (Brock et al., 2018)	14.73	9.22
Glow (Kingma & Dhariwal, 2018)	3.35	-	StyleGAN2-ADA (Karras et al., 2020a)	2.42	10.14
MintNet (Song et al., 2019b)	3.32	-	Unconditional		
Residual Flow (Chen et al., 2019)	3.28	46.37	Unconditional		
FFJORD (Grathwohl et al., 2018)	3.40	-	StyleGAN2-ADA (Karras et al., 2020a)	2.92	9.83
Flow++ (Ho et al., 2019)	3.29	-	NCSN (Song & Ermon, 2019)	25.32	$8.87 \pm .12$
DDPM (L) (Ho et al., 2020)	$\leq 3.70^{*}$	13.51	NCSNv2 (Song & Ermon, 2020)	10.87	$8.40 \pm .07$
DDPM ( $L_{\text{simple}}$ ) (Ho et al., 2020)	≤ 3.75 <sup>*</sup>	3.17	DDPM (Ho et al., 2020)	3.17	$9.46 \pm .11$
DDPM	3.28	3.37	DDPM++	2.78	9.64
DDPM cont. (VP)	3.21	3.69	DDPM++ cont. (VP)	2.55	9.58
DDPM cont. (v1)	3.05	3.56	DDPM++ cont. (sub-VP)	2.61	9.56
DDPM++ cont. (VP)	3.16	3.93	DDPM++ cont. (deep, VP)	2.41	9.68
` ,			DDPM++ cont. (deep, sub-VP)	2.41	9.57
DDPM++ cont. (sub-VP)	3.02	3.16	NCSN++	2.45	9.73
DDPM++ cont. (deep, VP)	3.13	3.08	NCSN++ cont. (VE)	2.38	9.83
DDPM++ cont. (deep, sub-VP)	2.99	2.92	NCSN++ cont. (deep, VE)	2.20	9.89

Score matching through SDE [Song et al., 2021]



Like DDPM, we consider some forward diffusion process (SDE):

$$d\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, t) - g(t)^2 \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \log p_t(\mathbf{x})] dt + g(t) d\bar{\mathbf{w}},$$

• Then, the reverse diffusion process also follows some SDE:

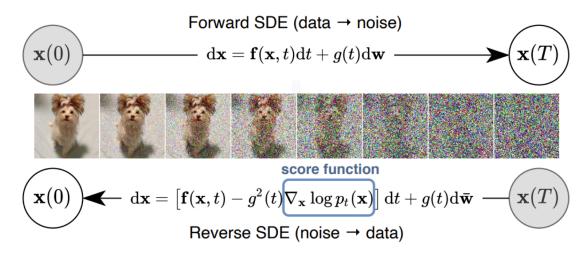
$$d\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, t) - g(t)^{2} \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \log p_{t}(\mathbf{x})] dt + g(t) d\bar{\mathbf{w}},$$

One can learn the score function by score matching

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathbb{E}_t \Big\{ \lambda(t) \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}(0)} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}(t)|\mathbf{x}(0)} \Big[ \left\| \mathbf{s}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}(t), t) - \nabla_{\mathbf{x}(t)} \log p_{0t}(\mathbf{x}(t) \mid \mathbf{x}(0)) \right\|_2^2 \Big] \Big\}.$$

#### Noise-conditional Score Network (NCSN) - Appendix

Score matching through SDE [Song et al., 2021]



Like DDPM, we consider some forward diffusion process (SDE):

$$d\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, t) - g(t)^2 \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \log p_t(\mathbf{x})] dt + g(t) d\bar{\mathbf{w}},$$

 Here, NCSN and DDPM can be viewed as different discretizations some stochastic differential equations (SDEs)

• NCSN: 
$$d\mathbf{x} = \sqrt{\frac{d\left[\sigma^2(t)\right]}{dt}}d\mathbf{w}$$
  $\rightarrow \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{x}_{i-1} + \sqrt{\sigma_i^2 - \sigma_{i-1}^2}\mathbf{z}_i$ 

• DDPM: 
$$d\mathbf{x} = -\frac{1}{2}\beta(t)\mathbf{x} dt + \sqrt{\beta(t)} d\mathbf{w} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_i = \sqrt{1-\beta_i}\mathbf{x}_{i-1} + \sqrt{\beta_i}\mathbf{z}_i$$

### **Noise-conditional Score Network (NCSN) - Appendix**

- Score matching through SDE [Song et al., 2021]
  - The reverse diffusion process can be solved by 3 ways:
  - Run a general-purpose SDE solver (a.k.a. predictor)
  - 2. Utilize the score-based model  $s_{\theta}(x,t) \approx \nabla_x \log p_t(x)$  (a.k.a. corrector)
    - → Combining predictor and corrector gives the **SOTA generation** performance

Algorithm 2 PC sampling (VE SDE)	Algorithm 3 PC sampling (VP SDE)		
1: $\mathbf{x}_N \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{\max}^2 \mathbf{I})$ 2: <b>for</b> $i = N - 1$ <b>to</b> 0 <b>do</b>	1: $\mathbf{x}_N \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$ 2: for $i = N - 1$ to $0$ do		
3: $\mathbf{x}_{i}' \leftarrow \mathbf{x}_{i+1} + (\sigma_{i+1}^{2} - \sigma_{i}^{2}) \mathbf{s}_{\theta} * (\mathbf{x}_{i+1}, \sigma_{i+1})$ 4: $\mathbf{z} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$ 5: $\mathbf{x}_{i} \leftarrow \mathbf{x}_{i}' + \sqrt{\sigma_{i+1}^{2} - \sigma_{i}^{2}} \mathbf{z}$	3: $\mathbf{x}_{i}' \leftarrow (2 - \sqrt{1 - \beta_{i+1}}) \mathbf{x}_{i+1} + \beta_{i+1} \mathbf{s}_{\theta} * (0, \mathbf{I})$ 4: $\mathbf{z} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$ 5: $\mathbf{x}_{i} \leftarrow \mathbf{x}_{i}' + \sqrt{\beta_{i+1}} \mathbf{z}$	$\mathbf{x}_{i+1}, i+1$ redictor	
6: <b>for</b> $j = 1$ <b>to</b> $M$ <b>do</b> 7: $\mathbf{z} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$ 8: $\mathbf{x}_i \leftarrow \mathbf{x}_i + \epsilon_i \mathbf{s}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} * (\mathbf{x}_i, \sigma_i) + \sqrt{2\epsilon_i} \mathbf{z}$	6: for $i - 1$ to $M$ do	orrector	
9: return $\mathbf{x}_0$	9: return x <sub>0</sub>		

Continuous ver. of NCSN

Continuous ver. of DDPM

### Noise-conditional Score Network (NCSN) - Appendix

- Score matching through SDE [Song et al., 2021]
  - The reverse diffusion process can be solved by 3 ways:
  - 1. Run a general-purpose SDE solver (a.k.a. predictor)
  - 2. Utilize the score-based model  $s_{\theta}(x,t) \approx \nabla_x \log p_t(x)$  (a.k.a. corrector)
  - Convert to deterministic ODE
    - Every SDE (Ito process) has a corresponding deterministic ODE

$$d\mathbf{x} = \left[\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, t) - \frac{1}{2}g(t)^2 \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \log p_t(\mathbf{x})\right] dt,$$

whose trajectories include the same evolution of densities

- Deterministic ODE defines an invertible model (a.k.a. normalizing flow)
   [Chen et al., 2018]
- Using this formulation, one can
  - a) Compute exact likelihood
  - b) Manipulate latents with encoder (model is invertible)

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Implicit vs explicit density models

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- Variational autoencoders
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- Techniques to mitigate posterior collapse
- Large-scale generation via hierarchical structures
- Diffusion probabilistic models

# 3. Energy-based Models (EBM)

- Energy-based models
- Score matching generative models

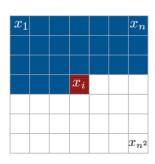
# 4. Autoregressive and Flow-based Models

- Autoregressive models
- Flow-based models

#### **Autoregressive models**

Autoregressive generation (e.g., pixel-by-pixel for images) :

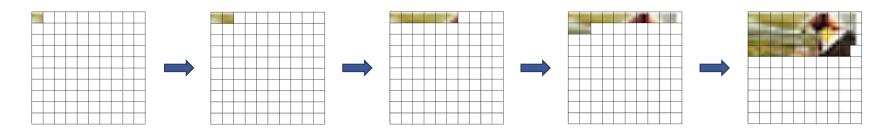
$$p(\boldsymbol{x}) = \prod_{k=1}^{K^2} p(x_k | x_1, \dots, x_{k-1})$$
$$= \prod_{k=1}^{K^2} p(x_k | \boldsymbol{x}_{< k})$$



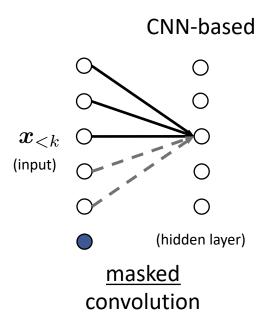
• For example, each RBG pixel is generated autoregressively:

$$p(x_k|\mathbf{x}_{\leq k}) = p(x_{k,R}, x_{k,B}, x_{k,G}|\mathbf{x}_{\leq k})$$
$$= p(x_{k,R}|\mathbf{x}_{\leq k})p(x_{k,B}|\mathbf{x}_{\leq k}, x_{k,R})p(x_{k,G}|\mathbf{x}_{\leq k}, x_{k,R}, x_{k,B})$$

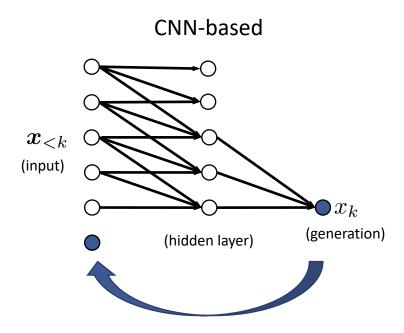
Each pixel is treated as discrete variables, sampled from softmax distributions:



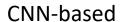
- Using CNN and RNN for modeling  $p(x_k|m{x}_{< k})$  [Oord et al., 2016]
  - Simply treating  $x_{< k}$  as one-dimensional (instead of two-dimensional) vector:

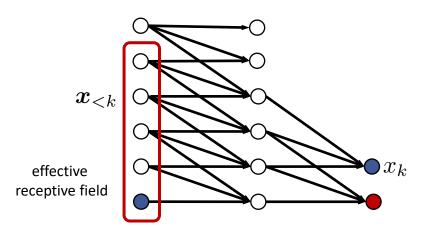


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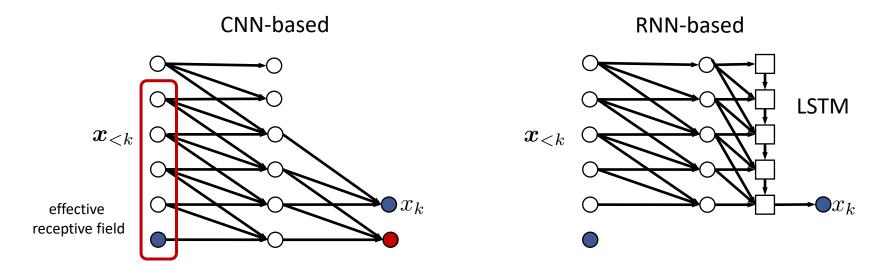


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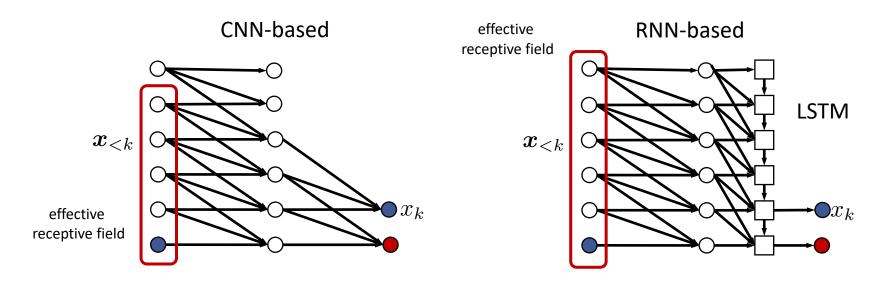




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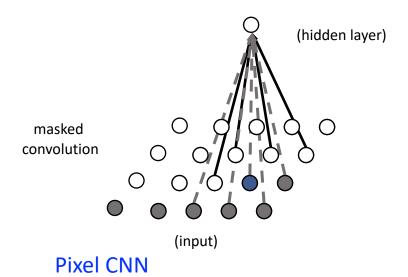
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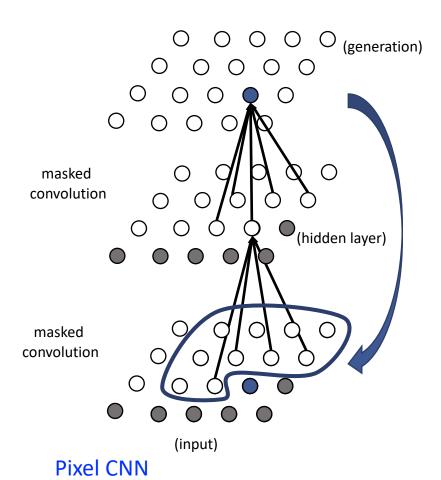
- Inference requires iterative forward procedure (slow)
- Training requires single forward pass for CNN, but multiple pass for RNN (slow)
- Effective receptive field (context of pixel generation) is unbounded for RNN, but bounded for CNN (constrained)

Next, extending to two-dimensional data

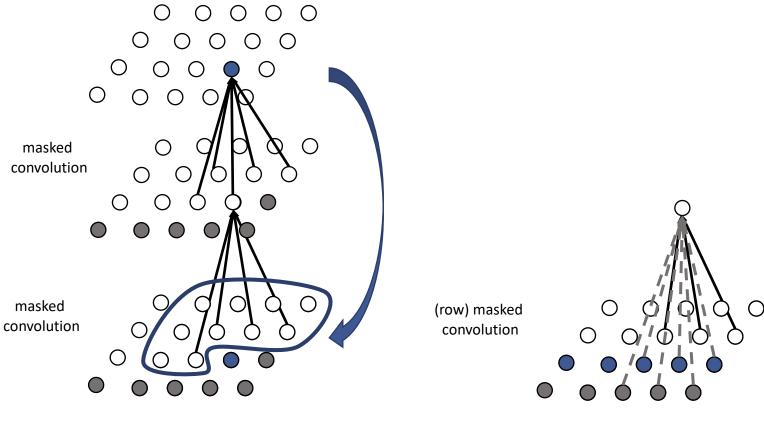
- Using CNN and RNN for modeling  $p(x_k|x_{\leq k})$  [Oord et al., 2016]
  - Pixel CNN use masked convolutional layer (for  $oldsymbol{x}_{>k}$ )



- Using CNN and RNN for modeling  $p(x_k|m{x}_{< k})$  [Oord et al., 2016]
  - Pixel CNN use masked convolutional layer (for  $oldsymbol{x}_{>k}$ )

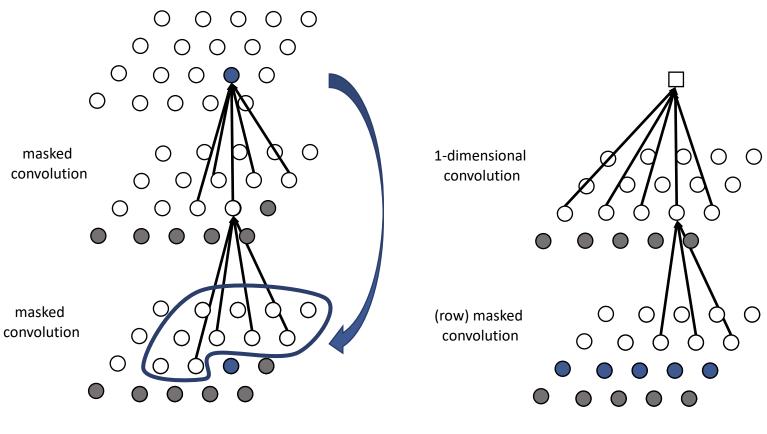


- Using CNN and RNN for modeling  $p(x_k|m{x}_{< k})$  [Oord et al., 2016]
  - Pixel CNN use masked convolutional layer (for  $oldsymbol{x}_{>k}$ )
  - Row LSTM use LSTMs, generating image <u>row-by-row</u> (not pixel-by-pixel)



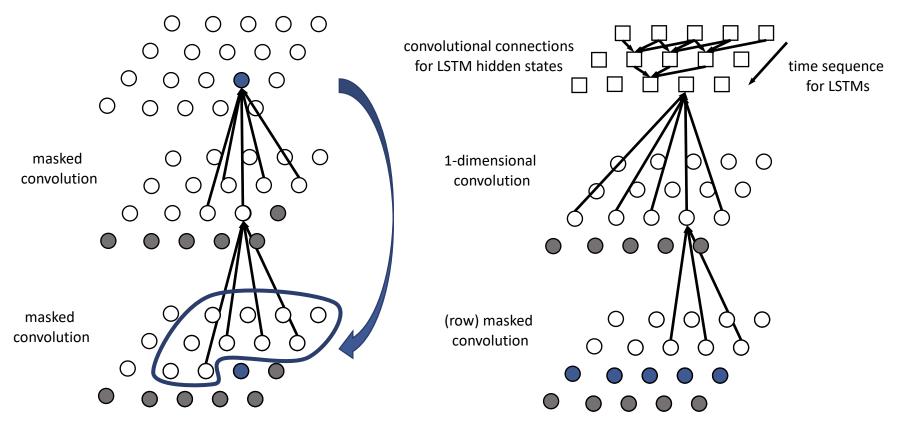
Pixel CNN Row LSTM

- Using CNN and RNN for modeling  $p(x_k|x_{\leq k})$  [Oord et al., 2016]
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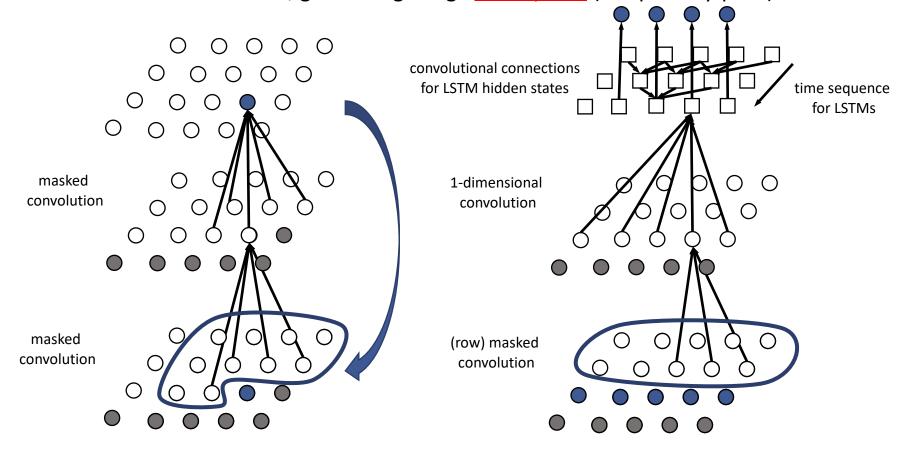
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- Using CNN and RNN for modeling  $p(x_k|x_{\leq k})$  [Oord et al., 2016]
  - Pixel CNN use masked convolutional layer (for  $x_{>k}$ )
  - Row LSTM use LSTMs, generating image <u>row-by-row</u> (not pixel-by-pixel)

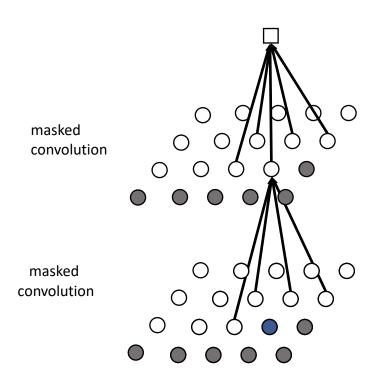


**Pixel CNN** 

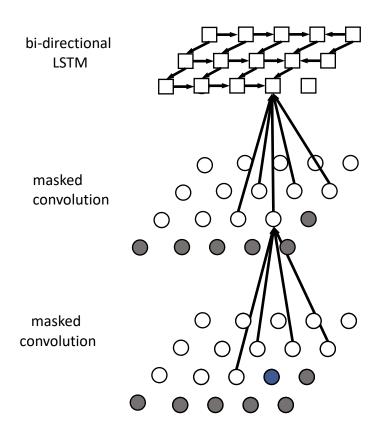
**Row LSTM** 

Next, introducing column-wise dependencies using LSTMs

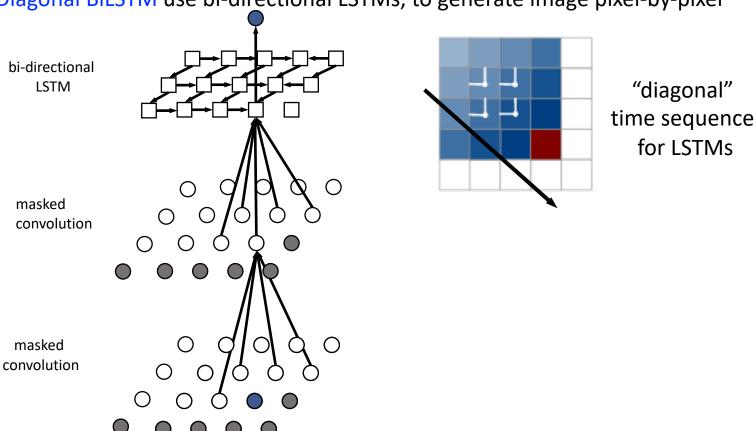
- Using CNN and RNN for modeling  $p(x_k|m{x}_{< k})$  [Oord et al., 2016]
  - Pixel CNN use masked convolutional layer (for  $oldsymbol{x}_{>k}$ )
  - Row LSTM use LSTMs, generating image <u>row-by-row</u> (not pixel-by-pixel)
  - Diagonal BiLSTM use bi-directional LSTMs, to generate image pixel-by-pixel



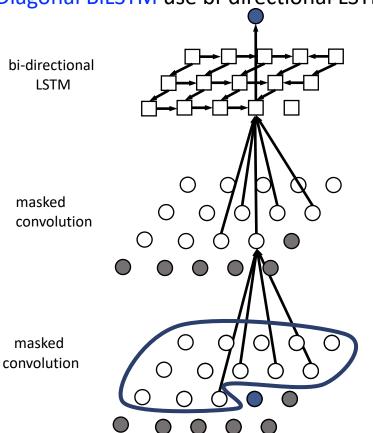
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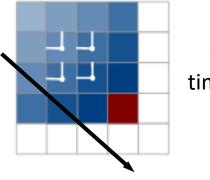


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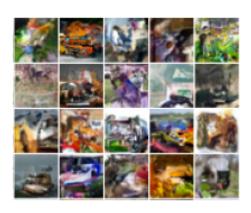


"diagonal" time sequence for LSTMs

 Receptive field now covers every pixels generated previously

Image generation results from CIFAR-10 and ImageNet:

CIFAR-10





ImageNet

Evaluation of negative log-likelihood (NLL) on MNIST and CIFAR-10 dataset:

Only explicit models (not GAN) can compute NLL

Model	NLL Test
PixelCNN:	81.30
Row LSTM:	80.54
Diagonal BiLSTM (1 layer, $h = 32$ ):	80.75
Diagonal BiLSTM (7 layers, $h = 16$ ):	79.20

Model	NLL Test (Train)	
PixelCNN:	3.14 (3.08)	
Row LSTM:	3.07 (3.00)	
Diagonal BiLSTM:	3.00 (2.93)	

MNIST CIFAR-10

PixelCNN is easiest to train and Diagonal BiLSTM performs best

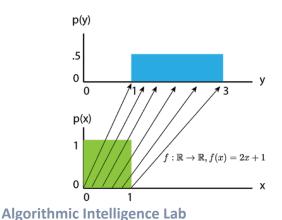
Modifying data distribution by flow (sequence) of invertible transformations:

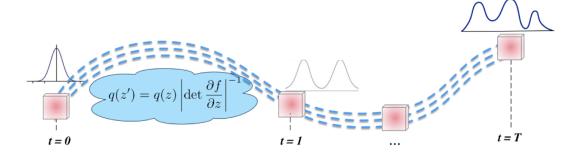
$$oldsymbol{x} = oldsymbol{z}_0 \; extstyle \; oldsymbol{z}_T = f_T \circ f_{T-1} \circ \cdots f_1(oldsymbol{z}_0) \qquad \qquad oldsymbol{z}_t \in \mathbb{R}^K$$

- Final variable follows some specified prior  $p_T(\boldsymbol{z}_T)$
- Data distribution is explicitly modeled by change-of-variables formula:

$$\log p(\boldsymbol{x}) = \log p(\boldsymbol{z}_0) = \log p_T(\boldsymbol{z}_T) + \sum_{t=1}^{T} \log \left| \det \left( \frac{\partial f_t(\boldsymbol{z}_{t-1})}{\partial \boldsymbol{z}_{t-1}} \right) \right|$$

• Log-likelihood  $\log p({m x})$  can be maximized directly





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Modifying data distribution by flow (sequence) of invertible transformations:

$$oldsymbol{x} = oldsymbol{z}_0 \; o \; oldsymbol{z}_T = f_T \circ f_{T-1} \circ \cdots f_1(oldsymbol{z}_0) \qquad \qquad oldsymbol{z}_t \in \mathbb{R}^K$$

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- Log-likelihood  $\log p({m x})$  can be maximized directly
- Naïvely computing  $\log |\det (\partial f_t(z_{t-1})/\partial z_{t-1})|$  requires  $\mathcal{O}(K^3)$  complexity, which is not scalable for large-scale neural networks

How to design flexible yet tractable form of invertible transformations?

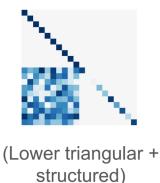
- To reduce complexity of log-det-Jacobian, prior works consider
  - Carefully designed architectures (low rank, coupling, autoregressive)
  - Stochastic estimator of free-form Jacobian

Planar NF Sylvester NF



# 1. Det Identities 2. Coupling Blocks

NICE Real NVP Glow



# 3. Autoregressive

Inverse AF Neural AF Masked AF



(Lower triangular)

# 4. Unbiased **Estimation**

**FFJORD** Residual Flows



(Arbitrary)

### **Design Schemes for Normalizing Flows**

- To reduce complexity of log-det-Jacobian, prior works consider
  - Carefully designed architectures (low rank, coupling, autoregressive)
  - Stochastic estimator of free-form Jacobian

#### 1. Det Identities

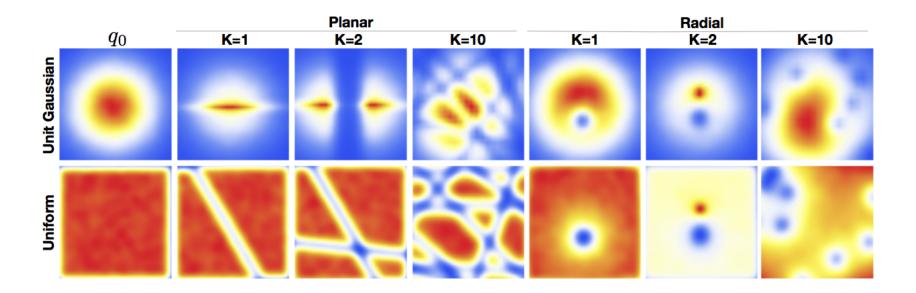
Planar NF Sylvester NF

. . .



#### **Normalizing Flow (NF)**

- Basic layers with linear log-det-Jacobian complexity [Rezende et al., 2015]
- Planar flow:  $f(\mathbf{z}) = \mathbf{z} + \mathbf{u}h(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{z} + b)$ 
  - Determinant of Jacobian is  $\left| \det \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{z}} \right| = |1 + \mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} h'(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{z} + b) \mathbf{w}|$
- Radial flow:  $f(\mathbf{z}) = \mathbf{z} + \beta h(\alpha, r)(\mathbf{z} \mathbf{z}_0)$   $(r = |\mathbf{z} \mathbf{z}_0|, h(\alpha, r) = 1/(\alpha + r))$ 
  - Determinant of Jacobian is  $[1+\beta h(\alpha,r)]^{d-1}[1+\beta h(\alpha,r)+h'(\alpha,r)r]$



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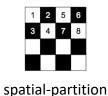
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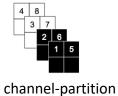


#### Real-valued Non-volume Preserving Flow (Real NVP)

- Coupling layer  $z_t = f_t(z_{t-1})$  for flow with tractable inference [Dinh et al., 2017]:
  - 1. Partition the variable into two parts:

$$z_{t-1} o [z_{t-1,1:d}, z_{t-1,d+1:K}]$$

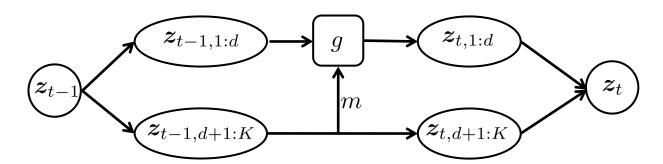




2. Coupling law defines a simple invertible transformation of the first partition given the second partition (g and m are described later)

$$z_{t,d+1:K} = g(z_{t-1,d+1:K}; m(z_{t-1,1:d}))$$

3. Second partition is left invariant (  $oldsymbol{z}_{t,1:d} = oldsymbol{z}_{t-1,1:d}$  )



#### Real-valued Non-volume Preserving Flow (Real NVP)

Affine coupling layer was shown to be effective in practice:

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{z}_{t,d+1:K} &= g(oldsymbol{z}_{t-1,d+1:K}; m(oldsymbol{z}_{t-1,1:d})) \ &= oldsymbol{z}_{t-1,d+1:K} \odot \exp(m_1(oldsymbol{z}_{t-1,1:d})) + m_2(oldsymbol{z}_{t-1,1:d}) \ &= \operatorname{element-wise product} oldsymbol{j} & \operatorname{neural networks} \end{aligned}$$

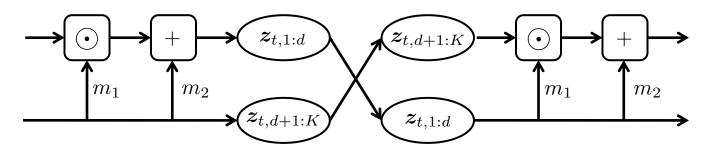
Jacobian of each transformation becomes a lower triangular matrix:

- Inference for such transformations can be done in tractable time
  - Determinant of lower triangular matrix is a product of diagonals

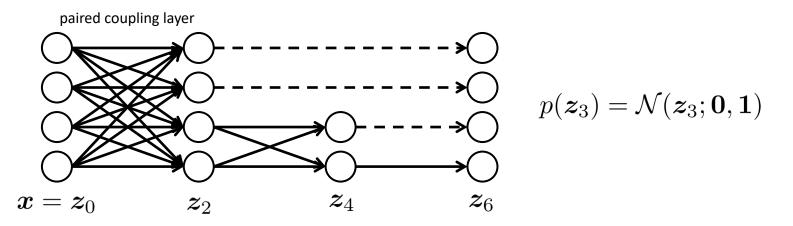
$$\log p(\boldsymbol{x}) = \log p(\boldsymbol{z}_0) = \log p_T(\boldsymbol{z}_T) + \sum_{t=1}^{T} \log \left| \det \left( \frac{\partial f_t(\boldsymbol{z}_{t-1})}{\partial \boldsymbol{z}_{t-1}} \right) \right|$$

#### Real-valued Non-volume Preserving Flow (Real NVP)

- For each coupling layer, there exists asymmetry since the first partition  $z_{t-1,1:d}$  is left invariant
  - Two coupling layers are paired alternatively to overcome this issue



- Multi-scale architectures are used
  - Half variables follow Gaussian distribution at each scale



#### **Design Schemes for Normalizing Flows**

- To reduce complexity of log-det-Jacobian, prior works consider
  - Carefully designed architectures (low rank, coupling, autoregressive)
  - Stochastic estimator of free-form Jacobian

# 3. Autoregressive

Inverse AF Neural AF Masked AF

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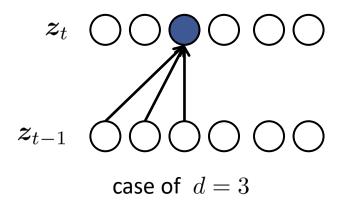


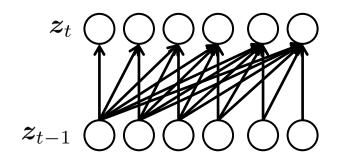
(Lower triangular)

#### **Inverse Autoregressive Flow (IAF)**

- Inverse autoregressive flow (IAF) modifies each dimension of variable in autoregressive manner [Kingma et al., 2016]:
  - Forward pass  $z_0 \rightarrow z_T$  is fast, but backward pass  $z_T \rightarrow z_0$  is slow
    - Used for VAE posterior: Only forward pass is required for approx. posterior

$$m{z}_{t,d} = \mu_{t,d}(m{z}_{t-1,1:d-1}) + \sigma_{t,d}(m{z}_{t-1,1:d-1})m{z}_{t-1,d}$$





updates done in parallel

• Inference for corresponding normalizing flow is efficient:

$$\log q(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x}) = \log q_0(\boldsymbol{z}_0|\boldsymbol{x}) + \sum_{t=1}^{T} \log \left| \det \left( \frac{\partial f_t(\boldsymbol{z}_{t-1})}{\partial \boldsymbol{z}_{t-1}} \right) \right| \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{t,1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \sigma_{t,2} & 0 & \vdots \\ \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ \sigma_{t,K} \end{bmatrix}$$

### **Design Schemes for Normalizing Flows**

- To reduce complexity of log-det-Jacobian, prior works consider
  - Carefully designed architectures (low rank, coupling, autoregressive)
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# 4. Unbiased Estimation

FFJORD Residual Flows



(Arbitrary)

#### **Continuous Normalizing Flow (CNF)**

- Discrete normalizing flows need a carefully designed (less expressive) layers to achieve affordable (not cubic) complexity
  - → Continuous normalizing flow affords an arbitrary network architecture
- Consider a continuous transformation  $\frac{d\mathbf{z}}{dt} = f(\mathbf{z}(t), t)$  (instead of  $\mathbf{z}_1 = f(\mathbf{z}_0)$ ), then the sampling can be done by an **ordinary differential equation (ODE)**:

$$z(t_1) = z(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(z(t), t, \theta) dt$$

Here, the change in log-probability also follows an ODE:

$$\log p(\mathbf{z}(t_1)) = \log p(\mathbf{z}(t_0)) - \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \operatorname{Tr}\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{z}(t)}\right) dt$$

- Remark: We only need a trace (not a determinant) to compute likelihood
- The network  $f(z(t), t, \theta)$  is learned by gradient descent (backpropagation follows another ODE) [Chen et al., 20018; Grathwohl et al., 2019]

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