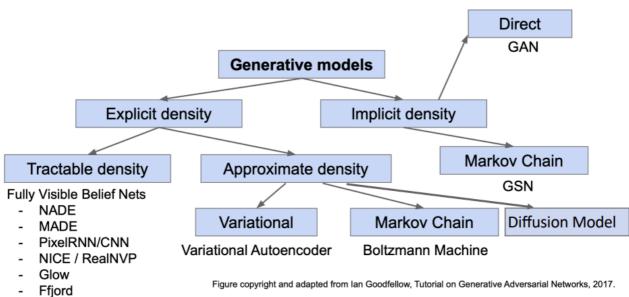
Generative Model

formulated as density estimation problems:

- explicit density estimation: explicitly define and solve for $p_{model}(x)$, which means I can exactly know the probability of an input to be in the data distribution.
- implicit density estimation: learn model that can sample from $p_{model}(x)$ without explicitly defining it.

Taxonomy of Generative Model



Explicit Density -- tractable density

use chain rule to decompose likelihood of an image x into product of 1-d distributions:

$$p(x) = \prod_{i=1}^D p(x_i|x_{< i})$$

Then maximize likelihood of training data.

several models for explicit density estimation: PixelRNN, PixelCNN Pros:

- can explicitly compute likelihood p(x)
- · easy to optimize
- · good samples

Cons:

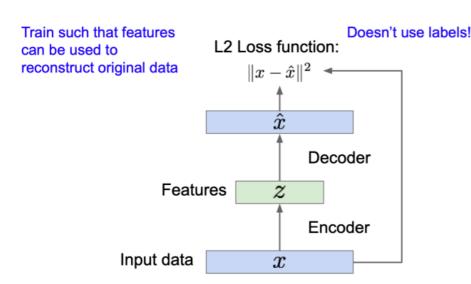
· sequential generation -> slow

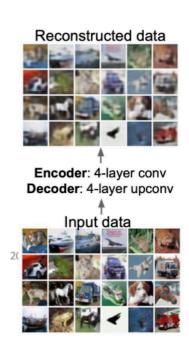
10

Explicity Density -- approximate density -- Variational Autoencoders (VAE)

Autoencoder

Recap of Autoencoder





NOTE:

- 1. autoencoders can reconstruct data, and learn features to initialize a supervised model.
- 2. the features learned by an autoencoder captures factors of variation in training data.

Variational Autoencoder (VAE)

if we can sample from the feature space learned by autoencoder, we can generate random and valid images by simply decoding the latent variable. But the truth is don't know how to sample from the feature space.

Inorder to sample from the feature space, VAE made several assumptions:

- 1. the latent variable conforms to a standard normal distribution.
- 2. the decoder p(x'|z) is a Gaussian, which predicts $\mu_{x'|z}$ and $\sigma_{x'|z}$
- 3. the encoder p(z|x) is also a Guassian, which predicts $\mu_{z|x}$ and $\sigma_{z|x}$

Training of VAE:

First, the original target for decoder is to maximize the likelihood of true data, which is

$$\int p(z)p_{ heta}(x|z)dz$$

Then we can use Monte Carlo sampling to approximate the integral. But the problem is the variance of Monte Carlo is pretty high(which mean the training process will be unstable)!

So let's try another way:

$$p_{ heta}(x) = rac{1}{p_{ heta}(z|x)} p(z) p_{ heta}(x|z)$$

now the problem becomes what is $p_{\theta}(z|x)$? We don't know this distribution, but it looks exactly the same as the encoder p(z|x) in autoencoder, we can learn another network to approximate this distribution. Still, we let the encoder learns a Gaussian.

Variational Autoencoders

$$\log p_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) = \mathbf{E}_{z \sim q_{\phi}(z|x^{(i)})} \left[\log p_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) \right] \qquad (p_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) \text{ Does not depend on } z)$$

$$= \mathbf{E}_z \left[\log \frac{p_{\theta}(x^{(i)} \mid z) p \left(z \right)}{p_{\theta}(z \mid x^{(i)})} \right] \qquad (\text{Bayes' Rule})$$
We want to maximize the data
$$= \mathbf{E}_z \left[\log \frac{p_{\theta}(x^{(i)} \mid z) p \left(z \right)}{p_{\theta}(z \mid x^{(i)})} \frac{q_{\phi}(z \mid x^{(i)})}{q_{\phi}(z \mid x^{(i)})} \right] \qquad (\text{Multiply by constant})$$

$$= \mathbf{E}_z \left[\log p_{\theta}(x^{(i)} \mid z) \right] - \mathbf{E}_z \left[\log \frac{q_{\phi}(z \mid x^{(i)})}{p_{\theta}(z)} \right] + \mathbf{E}_z \left[\log \frac{q_{\phi}(z \mid x^{(i)})}{p_{\theta}(z \mid x^{(i)})} \right] \qquad (\text{Logarithms})$$

$$= \mathbf{E}_z \left[\log p_{\theta}(x^{(i)} \mid z) \right] - D_{KL}(q_{\phi}(z \mid x^{(i)}) \mid\mid p(z)) + D_{KL}(q_{\phi}(z \mid x^{(i)}) \mid\mid p_{\theta}(z \mid x^{(i)})) \right]$$
Decoder network gives $\mathbf{p}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x} \mid z) - D_{KL}(q_{\phi}(z \mid x^{(i)}) \mid\mid p(z)) + D_{KL}(q_{\phi}(z \mid x^{(i)}) \mid\mid p_{\theta}(z \mid x^{(i)}))$

$$\uparrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

ELBO

$$\log p_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) = \mathbf{E}_{z \sim q_{\phi}(z|x^{(i)})} \left[\log p_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) \right] \quad (p_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) \text{ Does not depend on } z)$$

$$= \mathbf{E}_z \left[\log \frac{p_{\theta}(x^{(i)} \mid z) \mathbf{p}(z)}{p_{\theta}(z \mid x^{(i)})} \right] \quad (\text{Bayes' Rule})$$

$$= \mathbf{E}_z \left[\log \frac{p_{\theta}(x^{(i)} \mid z) \mathbf{p}(z)}{p_{\theta}(z \mid x^{(i)})} \frac{q_{\phi}(z \mid x^{(i)})}{q_{\phi}(z \mid x^{(i)})} \right] \quad (\text{Multiply by constant})$$

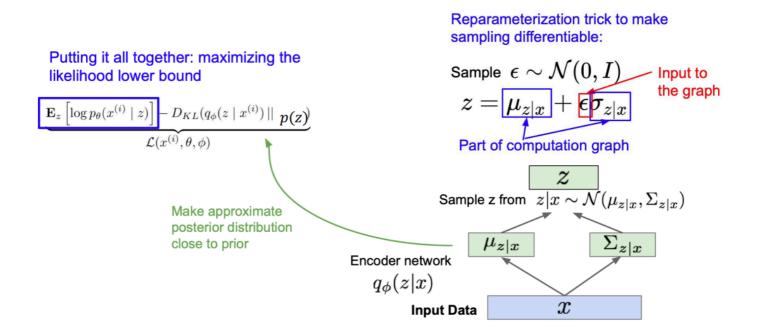
$$= \mathbf{E}_z \left[\log p_{\theta}(x^{(i)} \mid z) \right] - \mathbf{E}_z \left[\log \frac{q_{\phi}(z \mid x^{(i)})}{p_{\theta}(z)} \right] + \mathbf{E}_z \left[\log \frac{q_{\phi}(z \mid x^{(i)})}{p_{\theta}(z \mid x^{(i)})} \right] \quad (\text{Logarithms})$$

$$= \underbrace{\mathbf{E}_z \left[\log p_{\theta}(x^{(i)} \mid z) \right] - D_{KL}(q_{\phi}(z \mid x^{(i)}) \mid\mid \mathbf{p}(z))}_{\mathcal{L}(x^{(i)}, \theta, \phi)} + \underbrace{D_{KL}(q_{\phi}(z \mid x^{(i)}) \mid\mid p_{\theta}(z \mid x^{(i)}))}_{\geq 0} \right]}_{\mathbf{Tractable lower bound which we can take}}$$
gradient of and optimize! $(\mathbf{p}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{z}))$ differentiable, KL term differentiable)

This lower bound is widely referred as Evidence Lower BOund (ELBO).

So the last target we get is to maximize the ELBO. If we look at the fragments of ELBO, the first term is about reconstruct the input data as confident as possible, the second term is about make approximate posterior distribution close to prior(standard normal distribution). The first term still includes the expectation, so sampling is still needed, but the variance will be smaller because the distribution of z is estimated for this input image. The sampling process is reparametrized to be differentiable:

Variational Autoencoders



However, one huge problem of VAE's target is that the two terms are actually conficting. The first term need the feature to be expressive enough to reconstruct the input data, but the second term expect that for any input, the output feature distribution of all be the same: standard normal distribution. So VAE is problematic. Also, because the decoder predicts a Guassian, the output is usually blurred.

After VAE is trained, the encoder is no longer used in inference. We simply sample z N(0,1) and the decoder will predict the $\mu_{x|z}$ and $\Sigma_{x|z}$. Then we can sample new image as $x|z \sim N(\mu_{x|z}, \Sigma_{x|z})$.

To sum up:

Pros:

- · Principled approach to generative models
- Interpretable latent space
- Allows inference of q(z|x), can be useful representation for other tasks

Cons:

- · Maximizes lower bound of likelihood(ELBO): okay, but not as good evaluation as PixelRNN/PixelCNN
- Samples blurrier and lower quality compared to GAN

Implicit Density -- Generative Adversarial Networks (GAN)

In GAN, we don't want the ability to model the density, we just want the ability to sample. But it's really hard to sample from the images' space (HxWxCx3, dimension is too high!) So the idea is to sample from a simple distribution, eg. random noise, and learn a transformation to map it to the image space. And instead of modeling a Guassian traget(network predict μ and σ for each pixel), we prefer a deterministic target, which is usually of higher quality(less blurry).

Now the question is how should we evaluate the quality of the generation network? We don't model the density, so we cannot use maximal likelihood of real images. So we instead use a discriminator network to evaluate the quality of the generated images, which seperates the real images from the fake images.

Training GANs: Two-Player Games

Discriminator network: try to distinguish between real and fake images **Generator network**: try to fool the discriminator by generating real-looking images

Train jointly in minimax game

Discriminator outputs likelihood in (0,1) of real image

Minimax objective function:

$$\min_{\theta_g} \max_{\theta_d} \left[\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}} \log D_{\theta_d}(x) + \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)} \log (1 - D_{\theta_d}(G_{\theta_g}(z))) \right]$$
Discriminator output for generated fake data G(z)

- Discriminator (θ_d) wants to **maximize objective** such that D(x) is close to 1 (real) and D(G(z)) is close to 0 (fake)
- Generator (θ_{α}) wants to **minimize objective** such that D(G(z)) is close to 1 (discriminator is fooled into thinking generated G(z) is real)

Training GANs: Two-Player Games

Minimax objective function:

$$\min_{\theta_g} \max_{\theta_d} \left[\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}} \log D_{\theta_d}(x) + \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)} \log (1 - D_{\theta_d}(G_{\theta_g}(z))) \right]$$

Alternate between:

1. Gradient ascent on discriminator

$$\max_{\theta_d} \left[\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}} \log D_{\theta_d}(x) + \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)} \log (1 - D_{\theta_d}(G_{\theta_g}(z))) \right] \\ \text{Gradient signal dominated by region where sample is already good} \\ \text{2. Gradient descent on generator} \\ \min_{\theta_g} \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)} \log (1 - D_{\theta_d}(G_{\theta_g}(z))) \\ \text{fake, want to learn from it to improve generator} \\ \text{In practice, optimizing this generator objective} \\ \text{In practice, optimizing this generator objective} \\ \text{Gradient signal dominated by region where sample is already good} \\ \text{When sample is likely it to improve generator} \\ \text{(move to the right on X axis)} \\$$

region is relatively flat!

In practice, optimizing this generator objective

But gradient in this

Training GANs: Two-Player Games

Minimax objective function:

$$\min_{\theta_g} \max_{\theta_d} \left[\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}} \log D_{\theta_d}(x) + \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)} \log(1 - D_{\theta_d}(G_{\theta_g}(z))) \right]$$

Alternate between:

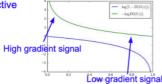
1. Gradient ascent on discriminator

$$\max_{a} \left[\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}} \log D_{\theta_d}(x) + \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)} \log(1 - D_{\theta_d}(G_{\theta_g}(z))) \right]$$

2. Instead: Gradient ascent on generator, different objective

$$\max_{q} \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)} \log(D_{\theta_d}(G_{\theta_g}(z)))$$

Instead of minimizing likelihood of discriminator being correct, now maximize likelihood of discriminator being wrong. Same objective of fooling discriminator, but now higher gradient signal for bad samples => works much better! Standard in practice



Training GANs: Two-Player Games

Putting it together: GAN training algorithm

for number of training iterations do for k steps do

- ullet Sample minibatch of m noise samples $\{oldsymbol{z}^{(1)},\dots,oldsymbol{z}^{(m)}\}$ from noise prior $p_g(oldsymbol{z})$.
- Sample minibatch of m examples $\{x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(m)}\}$ from data generating distribution $p_{\text{data}}(x)$.
- Update the discriminator by ascending its stochastic gradient:

$$\nabla_{\theta_d} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left[\log D_{\theta_d}(x^{(i)}) + \log(1 - D_{\theta_d}(G_{\theta_g}(z^{(i)}))) \right]$$

Followup work (e.g. Wasserstein GAN, BEGAN) alleviates this problem, better stability!

Some find k=1

others use k > 1,

more stable.

no best rule.

end for

- Sample minibatch of m noise samples $\{z^{(1)}, \dots, z^{(m)}\}$ from noise prior $p_g(z)$.
- Update the generator by ascending its stochastic gradient (improved objective):

$$\nabla_{\theta_g} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \log(D_{\theta_d}(G_{\theta_g}(z^{(i)})))$$

end for

Arjovsky et al. "Wasserstein gan." arXiv preprint arXiv:1701.07875 (2017)
Berthelot, et al. "Began: Boundary equilibrium generative adversarial networks." arXiv preprint arXiv:1703.10717 (2017)

Special Case: Convolutional GAN

GAN: Convolutional Architectures

Generator is an upsampling network with fractionally-strided convolutions Discriminator is a convolutional network

Architecture guidelines for stable Deep Convolutional GANs

- Replace any pooling layers with strided convolutions (discriminator) and fractional-strided convolutions (generator).
- Use batchnorm in both the generator and the discriminator.
- Remove fully connected hidden layers for deeper architectures.
- Use ReLU activation in generator for all layers except for the output, which uses Tanh.
- Use LeakyReLU activation in the discriminator for all layers.

Radford et al, "Unsupervised Representation Learning with Deep Convolutional Generative Adversarial Networks", ICLR 2016

Evaluation of GAN:

- 1. Nearest neighbors: to detect overfitting, generated samples are shown next to their nearest neighbors in the training set
- 2. User study: in these experiments, participants are asked to distinguish generated samples from real images in a short presenta1on 1me (e.g. 100 ms), i.e. real v.s fake; or,participants are asked to rank models in terms of the fidelity of their generated images
- 3. Mode drop and mode collapse: mode collapse means that the generator only generate a small set of pictures with high fidelity, and it obviously cannot cover the space of real data; while mode drop is kind of overfitting, it means the generator lacks imagination and can only generate samples it didn't see. Over datasets with known modes (e.g. a GMM or a labeled dataset), modes are computed as by measuring the distances of generated data to mode centers.
- 4. Fréchet Incep1on Distance (FID)
 - FID embeds a set of generated samples into a feature space given by a specific layer of Inception Net (or any CNN).

- Viewing the embedding layer as a continuous multivariate Gaussian, the mean and covariance are estimated for both the generated data and the real data.
- The Fréchet distance between these two Gaussians (a.k.a Wasserstein-2 distance) is then used to quantify the quality of generated samples. Lower FID means smaller distances between synthetic and real data distributions.

$$FID(r,g) = ||\mu_r - \mu_g||^2 + Tr(\Sigma_r + \Sigma_g - 2(\Sigma_r \Sigma_g)^{1/2})$$

Special Attributes: the vanilla GAN(random noise -> image) has interpretable vector math, the input magically conforms to a linear attributes: glass man - no glass man + no glass women = glass women.

Sum up:

Pros:

• generate stat-of-the-art samples

Cons:

- Tricker / More unstable to train
- ullet Can't solve inference queries such as p(x), p(z|x) because we don't model the density

VAE vs. GAN:

VAE

- Blurry
- · Full coverage of the data
- Support approximate inference

GAN

- · More realistic
- Only penalize fake and therefore can suffer from mode collapse
- · Can't infer probability

Explicity Density -- approximate density -- diffusion models

hierarchical VAE

Hierarchical Variational Autoencoders

• VAE with two latent variables, consider joint distribution $p(x, z_1, z_2)$

$$p(x) = \int_{z_1} \int_{z_2} p_{ heta}(x,z_1,z_2) dz_1, dz_2.$$

 Introduce a variational approximation to the true posterior and get the ELBO:

$$egin{align} p(x) &= \iint q_\phi(z_1,z_2|x) rac{p_ heta(x,z_1,z_2)}{q_\phi(z_1,z_2|x)} \ p(x) &= \mathbb{E}_{z_1,z_2 \sim q_\phi(z_1,z_2|x)} \left[rac{p_ heta(x,z_1,z_2)}{q_\phi(z_1,z_2|x)}
ight] \ \log p(x) &\geq \mathbb{E}_{z_1,z_2 \sim q_\phi(z_1,z_2|x)} \left[\log rac{p_ heta(x,z_1,z_2)}{q_\phi(z_1,z_2|x)}
ight] \end{aligned}$$

We are free to factorize the interence and generative models as we see fit

Hierarchical Variational Autoencoders

• Consider following model:

$$p(x,z_1,z_2) = p(x|z_1)p(z_1|z_2)p(z_2) \ q(z_1,z_2|x) = q(z_1|x)q(z_2|z_1)$$

Figure 2 - A Hierarchical VAE $q_{\phi}(z_1|x) \quad q_{\phi}(z_2|z_1)$ $z_1 \quad z_2$ $p_{\theta}(x|z_1) \quad p_{\theta}(z_1|z_2)$

Substituting these factorizations into the ELBO, we get

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta, \phi) = \mathbb{E}_{q(z_1, z_2 | x)} \left[\log p(x | z_1) - \log q(z_1 | x) + \log p(z_1 | z_2) - \log q(z_2 | z_1) + \log p(z_2) \right]$$

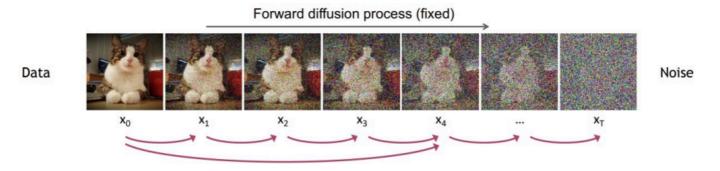
This can be alternatively written as a "reconstruction term", and the KL divergence between each inference layer and its corresponding prior:

$$= \mathbb{E}_{q(z_1 \mid z_2)} \left[\log p(x \mid z_1) \right] - D_{KL} \left(q(z_1 \mid x) \parallel p(z_1 \mid x) \right) - D_{KL} \left(q(z_2 \mid z_1) \parallel p(z_2) \right)$$

diffusion probabilistic models

diffusion model is like a specific realization of a hierarchical VAE. where $q(x_t|x_{t-1}) = N(x_t; \sqrt{1-\beta_t}x_{t-1}+\beta_t I)$ and $q(x_{1:T}|x_0) = \prod_{t=1}^T q(x_t|x_{t-1})$.

Forward Diffusion Process — Diffusion Kernel



Define:
$$\bar{\alpha}_t = \prod_{s=1}^t (1-\beta_s)$$
 we have: $q(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_t; \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t}\mathbf{x}_0, (1-\bar{\alpha}_t)\mathbf{I}))$ (Diffusion Kernel) For sampling: $\mathbf{x}_t = \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t} \; \mathbf{x}_0 + \sqrt{(1-\bar{\alpha}_t)} \; \epsilon$ where $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$

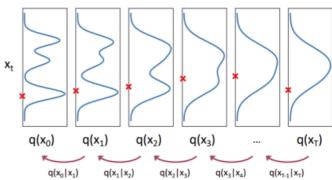
 β_t values schedule (i.e., the noise schedule) is designed such that $\bar{\alpha}_T \to 0$ and $q(\mathbf{x}_T | \mathbf{x}_0) \approx \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_T; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$)

Generative Learning by Denoising

Recall, that the diffusion parameters are designed such that $q(\mathbf{x}_T) \approx \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_T; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$

Generation:

Sample $\mathbf{x}_T \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_T; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$ Iteratively sample $\mathbf{x}_{t-1} \sim \underbrace{q(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t)}_{\text{True Denoising Dist.}}$

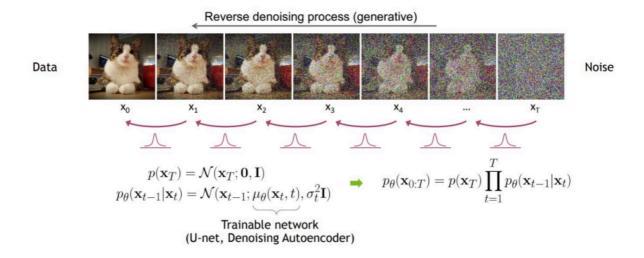


Diffused Data Distributions

Can we approximate $q(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t)$? Yes, we can use a Normal distribution if β_t is small in each forward diffusion step.

Reverse Denoising Process

Formal definition of forward and reverse processes in T steps:



Learning Denoising Model — Variational upper bound

For training, we can form variational upper bound that is commonly used for training variational autoencoders:

$$\mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_0)}\left[-\log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_0)\right] \leq \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_0)q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T}|\mathbf{x}_0)}\left[-\log \frac{p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{0:T})}{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T}|\mathbf{x}_0)}\right] =: L$$

Recall that ${f x}_t=\sqrt{arlpha_t}~{f x}_0+\sqrt{(1-arlpha_t)}~\epsilon$. Ho et al. NeurIPS 2020 parameterized the mean of denoising model via:

$$\mu_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t,t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta_t}} \bigg(\mathbf{x}_t - \frac{\beta_t}{\sqrt{1-\bar{\alpha}_t}} \; \epsilon_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t,t) \bigg)$$

Using a few simple arithmetic operations, we can write down the variational objective as:

$$L = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}_0 \sim q(\mathbf{x}_0), t \sim \mathcal{U}\{1, T\}, \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})} \left[\lambda_t ||\epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta}(\sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t} \ \mathbf{x}_0 + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t} \ \epsilon, t)||^2 \right]$$

 $\underline{ ext{Ho et al. NeurIPS 2020}}$ observe that simply setting λ_t to 1 for all t works best in practice.

10, J., Jain, A., & Abbeel, P. (2020). Denoising diffusion probabilistic models. Advances in neural information processing systems, 33, 6840-6851.

Training and Sample Generation

Algorithm 1 Training	Algorithm 2 Sampling
1: repeat 2: $\mathbf{x}_0 \sim q(\mathbf{x}_0)$ 3: $t \sim \text{Uniform}(\{1, \dots, T\})$ 4: $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$ 5: Take gradient descent step on $\nabla_\theta \ \epsilon - \epsilon_\theta (\sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_t} \mathbf{x}_0 + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_t} \epsilon, t) \ ^2$ 6: until converged	1: $\mathbf{x}_{T} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$ 2: $\mathbf{for} \ t = T, \dots, 1 \ \mathbf{do}$ 3: $\mathbf{z} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$ 4: $\mathbf{x}_{t-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_{t}}} \left(\mathbf{x}_{t} - \frac{1-\alpha_{t}}{\sqrt{1-\alpha_{t}}} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{t}, t) \right) + \sigma_{t} \mathbf{z}$ 5: $\mathbf{end} \ \mathbf{for}$ 6: $\mathbf{return} \ \mathbf{x}_{0}$

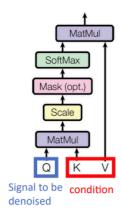
Conditional Diffusion Model

Almost the same as unconditional diffusion!

	Unconditional	Conditional
Forward	$q(x_1,\ldots,x_T x_0) \coloneqq \prod_{t=1} q(x_t x_{t-1})$	$q(x_1,\ldots,x_T x_0,y) \coloneqq \prod_{t=1} q(x_t x_{t-1},y)$
Model	$\epsilon_{\theta}(x_t,t)$	$\epsilon_{\theta}(x_t, y, t)$
Loss	$\mathbb{E}_{t \sim U(0,T), x_t \sim p(x_t)} [\parallel \epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta}(x_t, t) \parallel^2]$	$\mathbb{E}_{x_t, \mathbf{y} \sim p(x_t, \mathbf{y}), t \sim U(0, T)}[\ \epsilon - \epsilon_{\theta}(x_t, \mathbf{y}, t) \ ^2]$

Condition Schemas

1. Cross attention



$$Q = W_Q \cdot \varphi_i(x_t), K = W_K \cdot \tau_\theta(y), \ V = W_V \cdot \tau_\theta(y)$$

- y is the condition signal (e.g. text)
- $au_{ heta}$ is a domain specific encoder (e.g. text encoder)
- $\varphi_i(x_t)$ is the signal to be denoised