CS 480/680 Introduction to Machine Learning

Lecture 18 Variational Autoencoders and Normalizing Flows Deep Generative Models Part I

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Two significant and distinct goals in machine learning

Discriminative Model:

Learn a predictor given the observations.

Examples:

Perceptron, Support Vector Machines Decision Trees, MLPs, CNNs

$$y = f(x)$$

Generative Model:

Describe the process that generated the data.

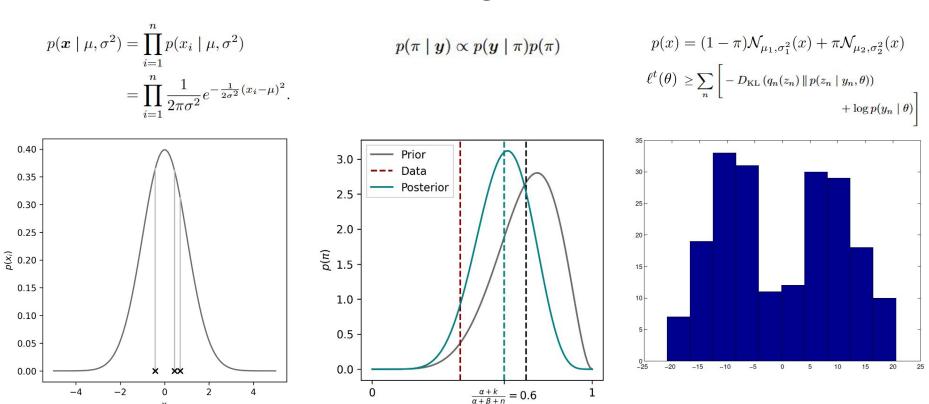
Examples:

KDE, GMMs

$$x \sim p(x)$$

Given $X_1, ..., X_n \sim D$, can we generate $X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}, ...$?

We have encountered a few generative models



Left: Lecture 3; Middle: Lecture 9; Right: Lecture 12

Fitting a probability distribution to real-world data is hard

MNIST

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Fashion MNIST



Probabilistic modeling is nevertheless essential

Conditional generative model:

p(x|c)

Examples:

c = image, x = text

c = initial prompt, x = continuation

c = text prompt, x = image

c = image, x = image



(a) Teddy bears swimming at the Olympics 400m Butterfly event.



(b) A cute corgi lives in a house made out of sushi.



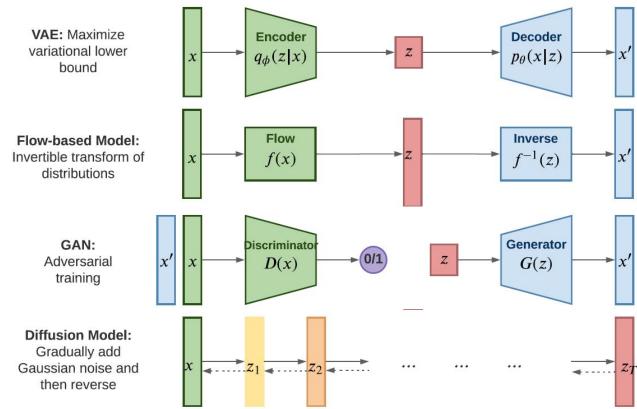
(c) A cute sloth holding a small treasure chest. A bright golden glow is coming from the chest.





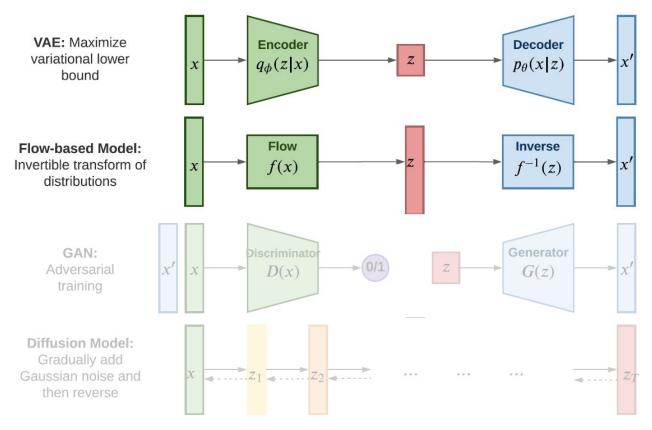


Deep generative models use neural networks to learn a parametrized representation of the distribution

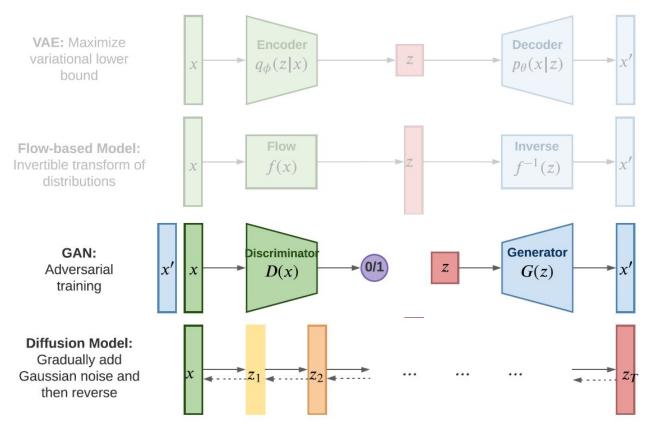


Probabilistic Machine Learning: Section 20.2

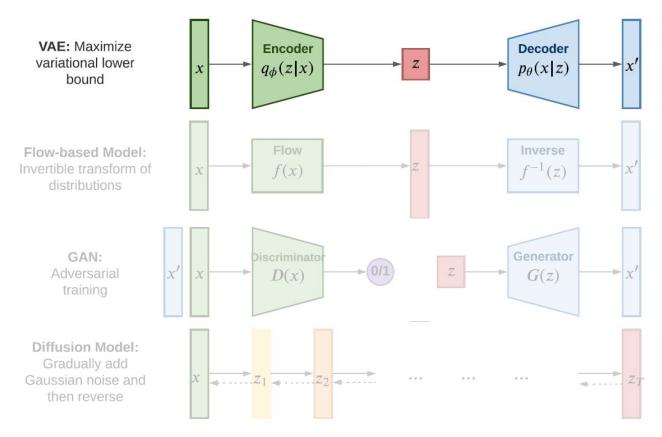
Deep Generative Models: Part I



Deep Generative Models: Part II

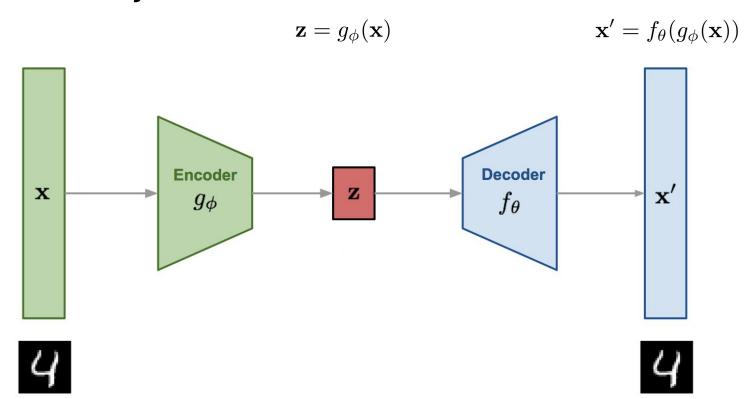


Variational Autoencoders



Probabilistic Machine Learning: Section 20.2

An autoencoder is a feedforward neural network trained to learn the identity function



Autoencoders minimize reconstruction loss

Linear:

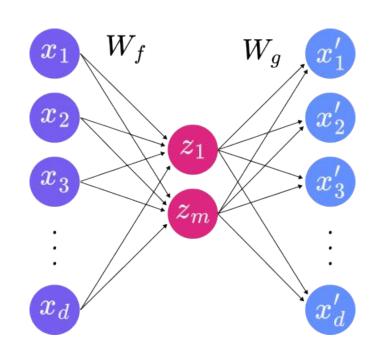
$$W_f, W_g = \operatorname{argmin} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n ||W_g W_f x_i - x_i||_2^2$$

Nonlinear:

$$W_f, W_g = \operatorname{argmin} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2} ||g(f(x_i)) - x_i||_2^2$$

Sparse:

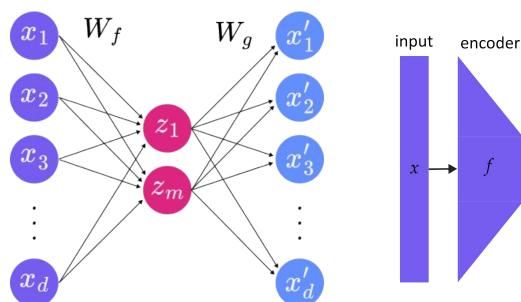
$$W_f, W_g = \operatorname{argmin} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2} \|g(f(x_i)) - x_i\|_2^2 + \lambda \|f(x_i)\|_1$$

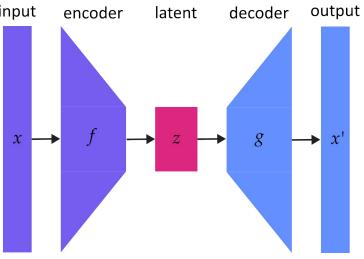


Denoising:

$$W_f, W_g = \operatorname{argmin} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2} \|g(f(\tilde{x}_i)) - x_i\|_2^2$$

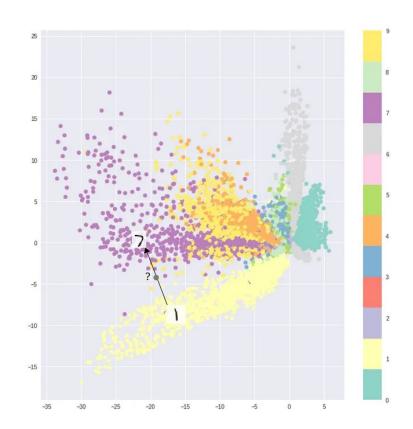






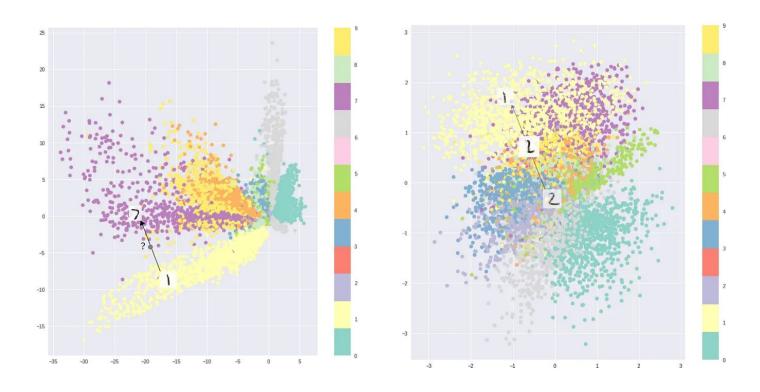
The autoencoder has discontinuities in its latent space





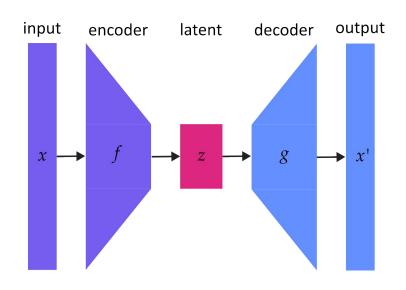
https://www.jeremyjordan.me/variational-autoencoders/

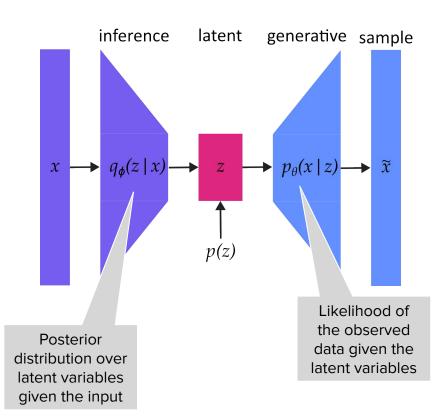
Variational autoencoders encourage continuity in the latent space



https://www.jeremyjordan.me/variational-autoencoders/

VAEs map an input to a distribution





The high-level architecture of a VAE

A VAE defines a generative model of the form

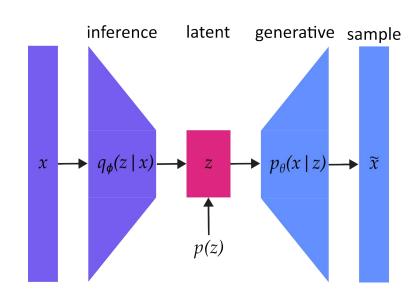
$$p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{x}) = p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}) p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})$$

Where: $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z})$: is the prior distribution over the latent variable $z \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$, usually a Gaussian, and $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})$: is the density of the decoder network's outputs, conditioned on latent vector.

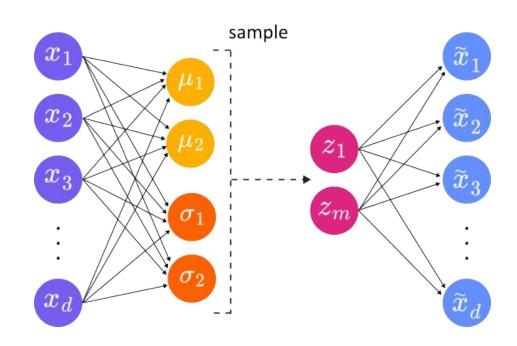
A VAE approximate the posterior by fitting a "recognition" model:

$$q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) = q(\mathbf{z}|e_{\phi}(\mathbf{x}))$$

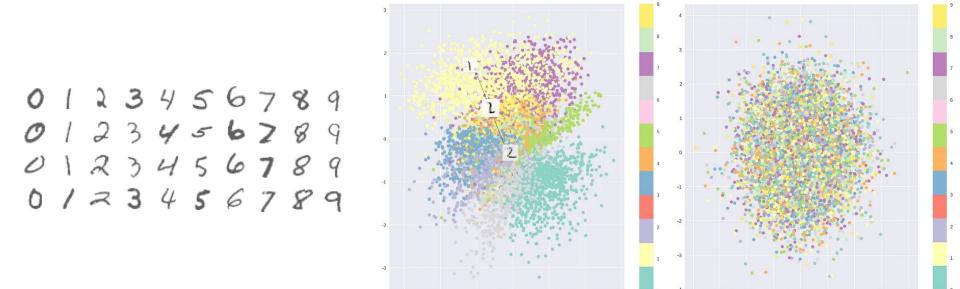
 $\approx p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$



VAEs have both a probabilistic encoder and a probabilistic decoder



The VAE objective balances regularization and reconstruction



The VAE objective balances regularization and reconstruction

Encourage the input distribution to correspond to the latent distribution (regularization):

$$\min \operatorname{KL} (q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) || p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}))$$

$$\Longrightarrow \min \operatorname{KL} (q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) || \mathcal{N}(0, I))$$

Encourage accurate decoding (reconstruction):

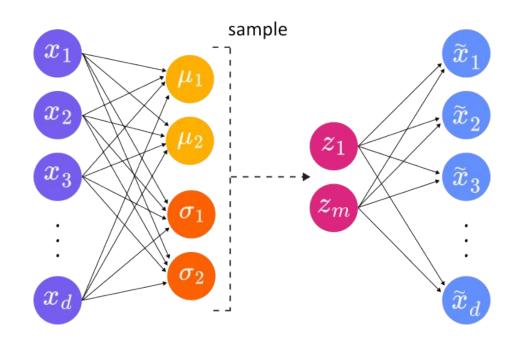
$$\max \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z} \sim q_{\phi}(\cdot|\mathbf{x})} [\log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})]$$

It can be shown that these two quantities define the lower bound on the evidence $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$:

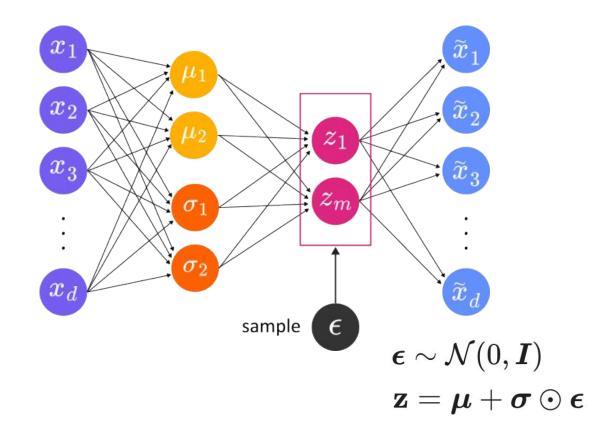
$$\log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \ge \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z} \sim q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})} \left[\log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})\right] - KL\left(q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) \| N(0, I)\right)$$

Derivation: Probabilistic Machine Learning: Advanced Topics Section 21.2

How to compute gradients across random operations?



The "Reparametrization Trick"

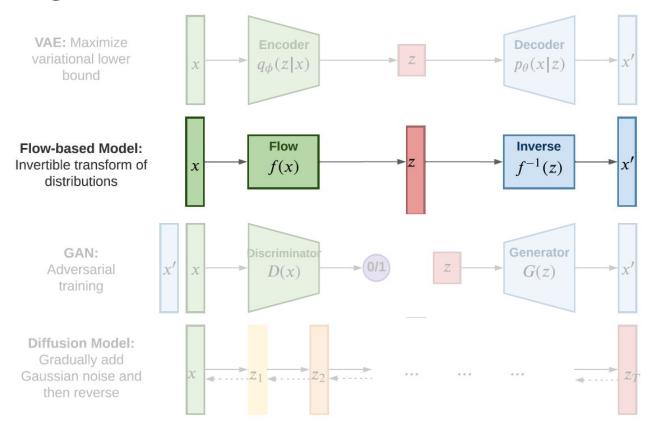


Interpolation with VAEs

AE and VAE on an unconditioned generation task

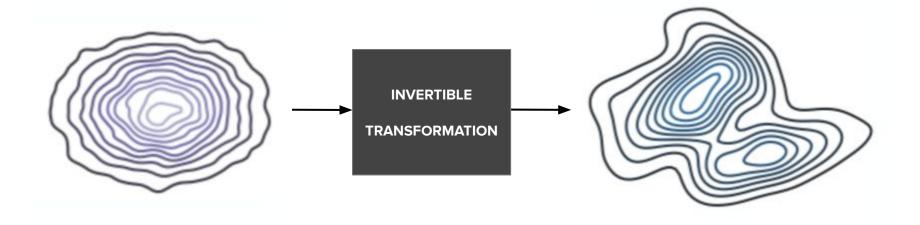


Normalizing Flows



Probabilistic Machine Learning: Section 20.2

Normalizing Flows



Transformations of random variables must preserve probability mass

Uniform random variable:

$$X \sim \text{Uniform}(0,1)$$

Transformation of X:

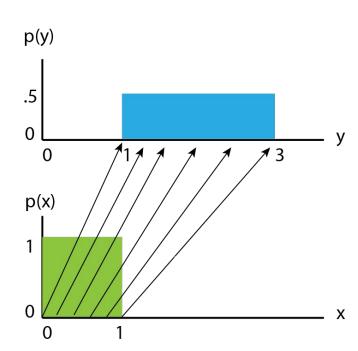
$$Y = f(X) = 2X + 1$$

Differentials:

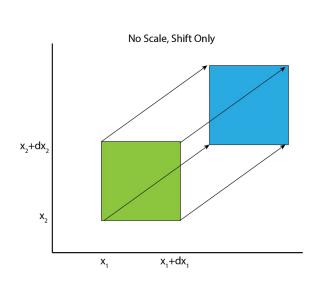
$$(x, x + dx) \rightarrow (y, y + dy).$$

Relationship between probability densities:

$$p(x)dx = p(y)dy$$
$$p(y) = p(x) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right|$$



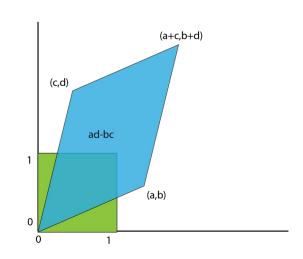
Linear transformations of multivariate distributions must be scaled by the determinant of the projection matrix



$$m{X} = egin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \ 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 \ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad T = egin{bmatrix} a & b \ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

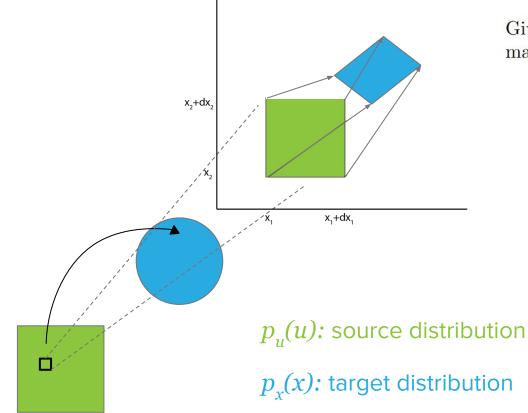
$$\mathbf{Y} = T\mathbf{X}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ a & b \\ c & d \\ a+c & b+d \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\int p(y)dy = ad - bc$$
$$= |\det(T)|$$

Smooth nonlinear transformations are locally linear



Given a mapping $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^m$, the Jacobian matrix, defines all first-order partial derivatives:

$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_d} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_d} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x = f(u), u = f^{-1}(x)$$

$$\int_{\mathcal{X}} p_x(x) dx = \int_{\mathcal{U}} p_u(u) du = 1$$

$$\implies p_x(x) = p_u(u) |\det \mathbf{J}(f)(u)|^{-1}$$

$$= p_u(f^{-1}(x)) |\det \mathbf{J}(f^{-1})(x)|$$

Density estimation with an invertible transformation

Given a dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} \sim p_x(x)$, where $p_x(x)$ is some unknown distribution, we wish to learn the density $p_x(x)$.

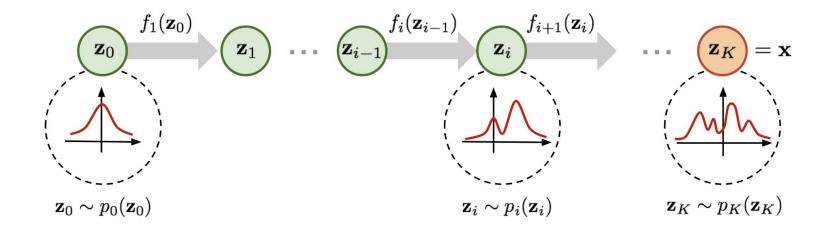
$$\mathcal{L} = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p_x(x_i)$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} p_u(u_i) |\det \mathbf{J}(f)(u_i)|^{-1}$$

$$\implies \hat{f} = \arg \max_{f} \prod_{i=1}^{n} p_u(u_i) |\det \mathbf{J}(f)(u_i)|^{-1}$$

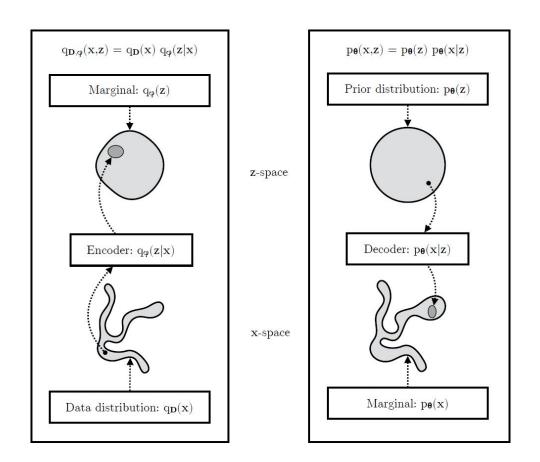
$$\hat{f} = \arg \max_{f} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p_u(u_i) - \log |\det \mathbf{J}(f)(u_i)|$$

A normalizing flow defines a sequence of bijectors



Now that we're at the end of the lecture, you should be able to...

- ★ Distinguish generative from discriminative models, and recall two models that focus on learning an explicit representation of the distribution: VAEs and normalizing flows.
- ★ Differentiate autoencoders and variational autoencoders on the basis of the **stochasticity of their outputs** and the **structure of their latent spaces**, and recommend one or the other for particular use-cases.
- Describe how VAEs generate new samples using the prior distribution in latent space and the decoder.
- ★ Interpret the loss function of a VAE with reference to KL divergence, prior distribution in latent space, evidence lower bound.
- ★ Defend the use of a Gaussian prior in VAE and the reparametrization trick for enabling backpropagation through random operations.
- ★ List limitations of VAEs and recommend approaches to improve performance.
- ★ Use the latent space of a VAE to **interpolate between points in data space**, given the parameters of a small model.
- ★ Differentiate VAEs and normalizing flows on the basis of offering explicit density evaluation.
- ★ Use invertible transformations to compute probability density of a target distribution from a source distribution.



Probabilistic Machine Learning: Advanced Topics Section 21.3