

Normalising flows and continuously indexed flows for machine learning

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Outline

- ① Normalising flows overview
- ② Variational inference
- ③ Density estimation
- ④ Practical implementations
- ⑤ Limitations
- ⑥ Continuously-indexed flows

Overview

Motivation

It is often important to parameterise an expressive families of densities

Key tasks:

- **Variational inference**: find $\operatorname{argmin}_\phi \text{KL}(q_\phi \parallel p(\cdot \mid \bar{X}))$
- **Density estimation**: determine p_{data} from $X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} p_{\text{data}}$

Normalising flows use **neural networks** to parameterise families of **diffeomorphisms**, which induce densities via the **change-of-variables formula**

Key idea

Parameterise a family of **diffeomorphisms** f_ψ and choose a fixed **noise distribution** p_Z

Define model p_ψ to be the W marginal of the following **generative process**:

$$Z \sim p_Z \quad W := f_\psi(Z)$$

This gives a procedure for **sampling** from p_ψ

Can also **compute densities** via change-of-variables:

$$p_\psi(w) = p_Z(f_\psi^{-1}(w)) \left| \det Df_\psi^{-1}(w) \right|$$

where $Df_\psi^{-1}(w)$ denotes the Jacobian of f_ψ^{-1} evaluated at w .

Variational inference

Overview

Assume a Bayesian model $p_{\bar{X}, Y}$ with prior p_Y and likelihood $p_{\bar{X}|Y}$, e.g.

$$p_{\bar{X}, Y}(\bar{x}, y) = p_Y(y) \prod_{i=1}^n p_{X|Y}(x_i | y)$$

Observe data $\bar{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$, and seek posterior $p_{Y|\bar{X}}(\cdot | \bar{X})$

Variational inference: (non-amortised)

- ① Posit a family of approximate posteriors q_ϕ on Y -space
- ② Approximate the true posterior via

$$\operatorname{argmin}_\phi \text{KL}(q_\phi \| p_{Y|\bar{X}}(\cdot | \bar{X}))$$

Mean-field approximation

For high-quality inference, expressiveness of q_ϕ is key; otherwise $\min_\phi \text{KL}(q_\phi \| p_{Y|\bar{X}}(\cdot | \bar{X}))$ will be large (for complex posteriors)

One approach is **mean-field**:

$$q_\phi(y) = \prod_{i=1}^{\dim(Y)} q_i(y_i; \phi),$$

where e.g. $\phi = (\bar{\mu}, \bar{\sigma})$ and $q_i(y_i; \phi) = \text{Normal}(y_i; \mu_i, \sigma_i)$

Can rewrite as

$$q_\phi(y) = \text{Normal}(y; \bar{\mu}, \bar{\sigma} I),$$

so unimodal and axis-aligned, i.e. fairly **limited expressiveness**

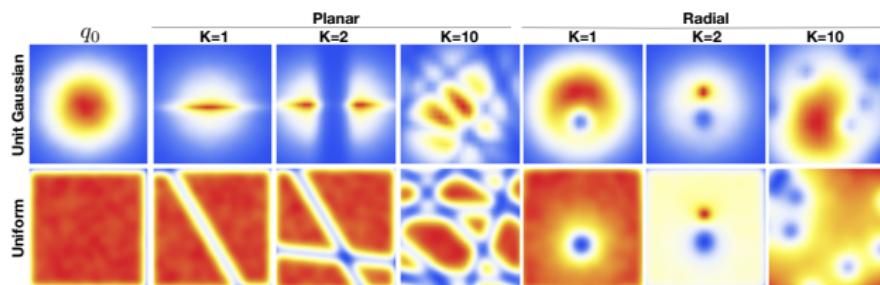
Normalising flows for variational inference

Key idea of Rezende and Mohamed [2015]: use normalising flows to parameterise a more expressive approximate posterior q_ϕ

In particular, take q_ϕ to be distribution of Y , where

$$Z \sim p_Z \quad Y := f_\phi(Z)$$

with f_ϕ a diffeomorphism



The evidence lower bound (ELBO)

Can compute

$$\begin{aligned}\text{KL}(q_\phi \parallel p_{Y|\bar{X}}(\cdot \mid \bar{X})) &= - \int q_\phi(y) \log \frac{p_{Y|\bar{X}}(y \mid \bar{X})}{q_\phi(y)} dy \\ &= - \int q_\phi(y) \left(\log \frac{p_{\bar{X}, Y}(\bar{X}, y)}{q_\phi(y)} - \log p_{\bar{X}}(\bar{X}) \right) dy \\ &= - \int q_\phi(y) \log \frac{p_{\bar{X}, Y}(\bar{X}, y)}{q_\phi(y)} dy + \log p_{\bar{X}}(\bar{X}),\end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\operatorname{argmin}_\phi \text{KL}(q_\phi \parallel p_{Y|\bar{X}}(\cdot \mid \bar{X})) = \operatorname{argmax}_\phi \underbrace{\int q_\phi(y) \log \frac{p_{\bar{X}, Y}(\bar{X}, y)}{q_\phi(y)} dy}_{=: \text{ELBO}(\phi)}$$

Optimising the ELBO

A general strategy for optimising the ELBO is **stochastic gradient ascent**

For normalising flows, since q_ϕ is the pushforward of p_Z by f_ϕ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{ELBO}(\phi) &:= \int q_\phi(y) \log \frac{p_{\bar{X}, Y}(\bar{X}, y)}{q_\phi(y)} dy \\ &= \int p_Z(z) \log \frac{p_{\bar{X}, Y}(\bar{X}, f_\phi(z))}{q_\phi(f_\phi(z))} dz\end{aligned}$$

By differentiating under the integral sign,

$$\nabla_\phi \text{ELBO}(\phi) = \int p_Z(z) \nabla_\phi \log \frac{p_{\bar{X}, Y}(\bar{X}, f_\phi(z))}{q_\phi(f_\phi(z))} dz,$$

so that if $Z \sim p_Z$, then $\nabla_\phi \log \frac{p_{\bar{X}, Y}(\bar{X}, f_\phi(Z))}{q_\phi(f_\phi(Z))}$ is an **unbiased estimate** of $\nabla_\phi \text{ELBO}(\phi)$ suitable for optimisation

Summary

When using normalising flows for **variational inference**:

- ① Choose p_Z and parameterise f_ϕ
- ② Sample $Z \sim p_Z$ and compute $\nabla_\phi \log \frac{p_{\bar{X}, Y}(\bar{X}, f_\phi(Z))}{q_\phi(f_\phi(Z))}$
- ③ Update ϕ via stochastic gradient ascent

In practice:

- Use neural network for f_ϕ (can for p_Z also if **reparameterisable**)
- Obtain ϕ gradient via **autodiff**
- Must be able to sample efficiently from q_ϕ (i.e. compute $f_\phi(z)$)
- Only need to be able to compute efficiently

$$q_\phi(f_\phi(Z)) = p_Z(f_\phi^{-1}(f_\phi(Z))) \left| \det \text{D}f_\phi^{-1}(f_\phi(Z)) \right| = p_Z(Z) |\det \text{D}f_\phi(Z)|^{-1}$$

(or an unbiased estimate of its log), i.e. not $f_\phi^{-1}(y)$ given only y

- Can **amortise** this procedure

Density estimation

Overview

Aim: determine p_{data} from samples $X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} p_{\text{data}}$

Applications:

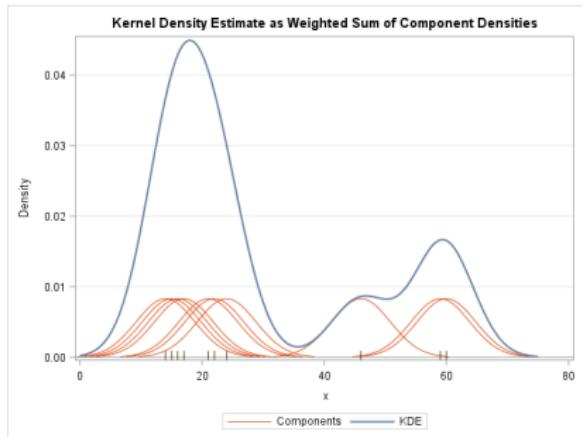
- Out-of-distribution detection
- Synthetic data generation

Illustrative approach

Kernel density estimation:
approximate density of p_{data} by

$$p(x) := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n k(x - X_i),$$

where k is e.g. a scaled Gaussian



Source: blogs.sas.com

Motivation

Curse of dimensionality \Rightarrow different strategies needed in high dimensions

Neural networks have had great success with high-dimensional data e.g. in classification problems

How can we leverage this expressiveness for density estimation?

High-level strategy

Alternatively, consider **projecting** p_{data} onto a model family, i.e. estimate is

$$\operatorname{argmin}_{\theta \in \Theta} \text{KL}(p_{\text{data}} \parallel p_{\theta})$$

where p_{θ} is a **parametrised density**

As with variational inference, expressiveness of p_{θ} is clearly important

Normalising flows for density estimation

A popular idea is to use normalising flows to define p_θ , i.e. p_θ is the X marginal of the following **generative process**:

$$Z \sim p_Z \quad X := f_\theta(Z),$$

where f_θ is a parameterised **diffeomorphism**

This gives a procedure for **sampling** from p_θ

Can also **compute densities** via change-of-variables:

$$p_\theta(x) = p_Z(f_\theta^{-1}(x)) |\det Df_\theta^{-1}(x)|$$

where $Df_\theta^{-1}(x)$ denotes the Jacobian of f_θ^{-1} evaluated at x

A nice feature is that this is often **exactly tractable** by construction

Gradient estimation

By differentiating under the integral sign

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_{\theta} \text{KL}(p_{\text{data}} \parallel p_{\theta}) &= -\nabla_{\theta} \int p_{\text{data}}(x) \log \frac{p_{\theta}(x)}{p_{\text{data}}(x)} dx \\ &= - \int p_{\text{data}}(x) \nabla_{\theta} \log p_{\theta}(x) dx,\end{aligned}$$

so if $X \sim p_{\text{data}}$, then $-\nabla_{\theta} \log p_{\theta}(X)$ is an **unbiased gradient estimate**

This allows finding $\operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} \text{KL}(p_{\text{data}} \parallel p_{\theta})$ by **stochastic gradient descent**

Summary

When using normalising flows for **density estimation**:

- ① Choose p_Z and parameterise f_θ
- ② Obtain $X \sim p_{\text{data}}$ and compute $-\nabla_\theta \log p_\theta(X)$
- ③ Update θ via stochastic gradient descent

In practice:

- Use neural network for f_θ
- Obtain θ gradient via **autodiff**
- Must be able to compute efficiently

$$p_\theta(x) = p_Z(f_\theta^{-1}(x)) |\det \mathrm{D}f_\theta^{-1}(x)|$$

(or an unbiased estimate of $\nabla_\theta \log p_\theta(x)$)

- Don't need to be able to sample from p_θ

Some flow architectures

Key considerations

Want to parameterise a family of diffeomorphisms f_ψ

Key requirements:

- f_ψ must be invertible (in practice this may be implicit)
- Tractable log Jacobian (or tractable unbiased estimate)

Can **compose** flows to obtain greater complexity

RealNVP

For $w \in \mathbb{R}^D$ and $1 \leq d < D$, Dinh et al. [2017] defines

$$f_\psi(w) = \begin{bmatrix} w_{1:d} \\ \exp(s(w_{1:d}; \psi)) \odot w_{d+1:D} + t(w_{1:d}; \psi) \end{bmatrix}$$

where $s, t : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{D-d}$ are unconstrained neural networks

Clear that this is invertible

Jacobian matrix is lower-triangular, so determinant is tractable

Inverse Autoregressive Flow / Masked Autoregressive Flow

For $w \in \mathbb{R}^D$, define

$$f_i(w; \psi) = \exp(s_i(w_{1:i-1}; \psi)) \odot w_i + t_i(w_{1:i-1}; \psi),$$

where $s_i, t_i : \mathbb{R}^{i-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are unconstrained neural networks, and set

$$f_\psi(w) := \begin{bmatrix} f_1(w; \psi) \\ \vdots \\ f_D(w; \psi) \end{bmatrix}$$

Again invertible and triangular Jacobian matrix

For efficiency (in one direction), MADE [Germain et al., 2015] provides a way to parameterise an **autoregressive** neural network

Used by Kingma et al. [2016] (for VI) and Papamakarios et al. [2017] (for density estimation)

Residual Flows

Triangular Jacobians seem to reduce expressiveness

Alternative strategy [Behrmann et al., 2019, Chen et al., 2020]: if $g_\psi : \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^D$ has $\text{Lip } g_\psi < 1$, then we get a diffeomorphism

$$f_\psi(w) := w + g_\psi(w)$$

Can ensure a neural network g_ψ is Lipschitz via **spectral normalisation**

Can estimate Jacobians unbiasedly by expanding as a matrix power series, and using **debiasing techniques** plus the **Skilling-Hutchinson trace estimator**

Can be inverted numerically by **Banach Fixed Point theorem**

Limitations of normalising flows

Intuition

Diffeomorphisms preserve **topological properties** of their input space, e.g.

- Number of connected components
- Number of “holes”
- How the space is “knotted”

Intuitively suggests that if $X = f(Z)$ then the **supports** of X and Z will share the same topological properties

Precise result

Theorem (Cornish et al. [2020])

If $\text{supp } p_Z$ is not homeomorphic to $\text{supp } p_{\text{data}}$, then a sequence of diffeomorphisms f_n can yield $f_n(Z) \rightarrow p_{\text{data}}$ in distribution only if

$$\max\{\text{Lip } f_n, \text{Lip } f_n^{-1}\} \rightarrow \infty$$

Convergence in distribution straightforwardly implies a version in terms of being “approximately not homeomorphic”

General consequence: **numerical noninvertibility** (observed by Behrmann et al. [2020])

Consequences for Residual Flows

The following densities were learned using a **Gaussian prior** with a **10-layer Residual Flow** [Behrmann et al., 2019, Chen et al., 2020]

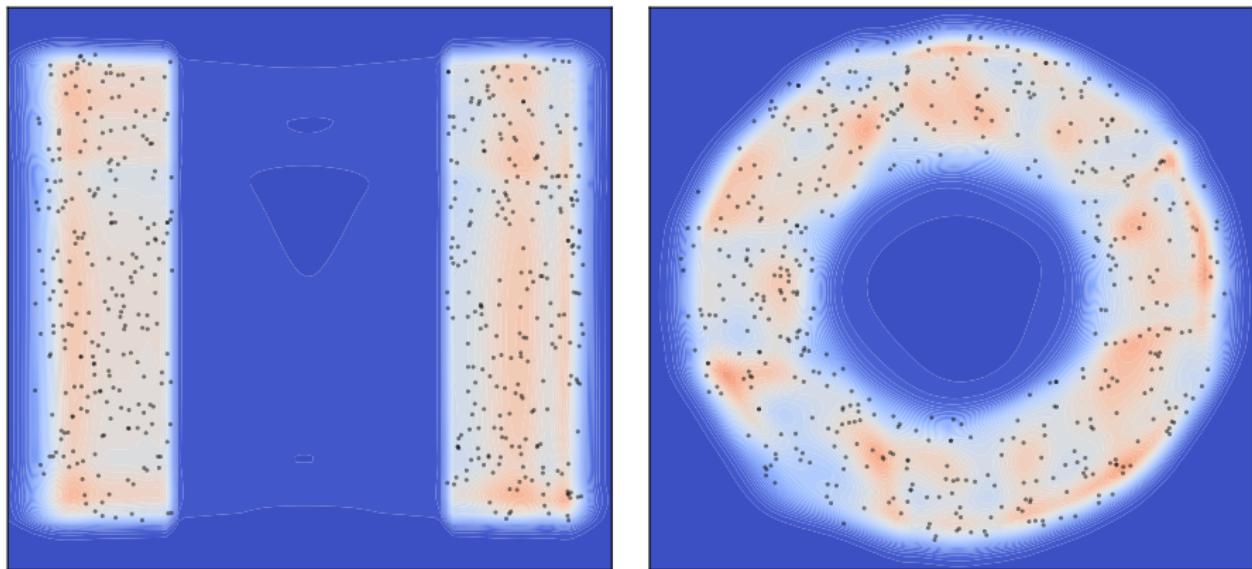


Figure: Darker regions indicate lower density. Data shown in black.

Continuously-Indexed Normalizing Flows (for density estimation)

Continuously-Indexed Flow Layer

To gain expressiveness over baseline flows, **continuously-indexed flows (CIFs)** now model the data as the X -marginal of

$$Z \sim p_Z, \quad U | Z \sim p_{U|Z}(\cdot | Z), \quad X := F(Z; U)$$

where

- U is a **continuous index variable**
- $p_{U|Z}$ is a (parametrized) conditional distribution
- $F(\cdot; u)$ is a diffeomorphism for every u

Any existing normalizing flow f can be used to construct F , e.g. via

$$F(z; u) := f \left(e^{s(u)} \odot z + t(u) \right)$$

for neural networks s, t outputting values in Z -space

Multi-Layer CIFs

An L -layer CIF is obtained by **stacking** the single-layer model:

$$Z_0 \sim p_{Z_0},$$

$$U_1 \sim p_{U_1|Z_0}(\cdot | Z_0), \quad Z_1 := F_1(Z_0; U_1),$$

...

$$U_L \sim P_{U_L|Z_{L-1}}(\cdot | Z_{L-1}), \quad X := F_L(Z_{L-1}; U_L)$$

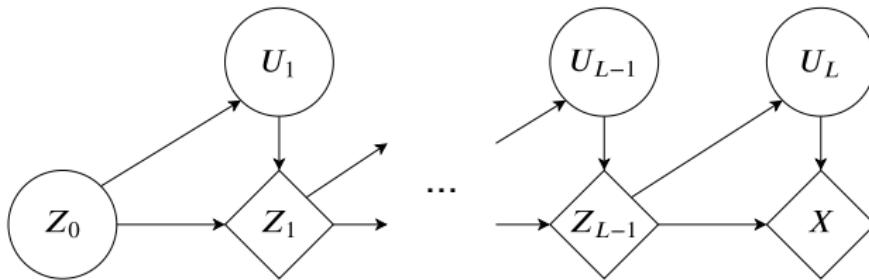


Figure: Graphical multi-layer CIF generative model

Training and inference

The marginal p_X is **intractable**, but the *joint* $p_{X, U_{1:L}}$ has a closed-form, e.g. for a single layer

$$p_{X,U}(x, u) = p_Z(F^{-1}(x; u))p_{U|Z}(u \mid F^{-1}(x; u))|\det DF^{-1}(x; u)|$$

Given an **inference** model $q_{U_{1:L}|X}$, we can use the *ELBO* for training:

$$\mathcal{L}(x) := \mathbb{E}_{u_{1:L} \sim q_{U_{1:L}|X}(\cdot|x)} \left[\log \frac{p_{X, U_{1:L}}(x, u_{1:L})}{q_{U_{1:L}|X}(u_{1:L} \mid x)} \right] \leq \log p_X(x)$$

At test time, we can estimate $\log p_X(x)$ to **arbitrary precision** using an m -sample *IWAE* estimate with $m \gg 1$

Inference model

To obtain an **efficient** inference model $q_{U_{1:L}|X}$, we exploit the *conditional independence structure* of $p_{U_{1:L}|X}$ from the forward model:

$$\begin{aligned} Z_L &:= X, \\ U_L &\sim q_{U_L|Z_L}(\cdot | Z_L), \quad Z_{L-1} := F_L^{-1}(Z_L; U_L), \\ &\dots \\ U_1 &\sim q_{U_1|Z_1}(\cdot | Z_1), \quad Z_0 := F_1^{-1}(Z_1; U_1) \end{aligned}$$

In other words,

$$q_{U_{1:L}|X}(u_{1:L} | x) := \prod_{\ell=1}^L q_{U_\ell|Z_\ell}(u_\ell | z_\ell)$$

This induces a natural **weight-sharing** scheme between the forward and inverse models, since the same F_ℓ are used in both cases

Benefits over Standard Flows

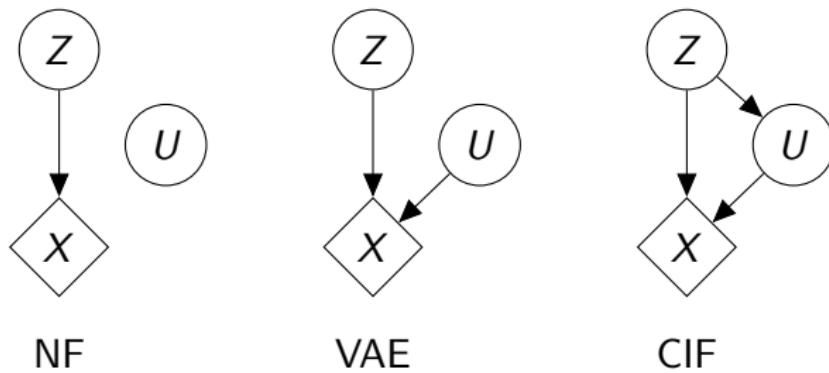
Intuitively, the additional flexibility afforded by $p_{U|Z}$ allows a CIF to “clean up” mass that would be misplaced by a single bijection

Proposition: Under mild conditions on the target and F , there exists $p_{U|Z}$ such that the model p_X has the same support as the target p_X^*

Proposition: If $F(z; \cdot)$ is surjective for each z , there exists $p_{U|Z}$ such that p_X matches p_X^* exactly

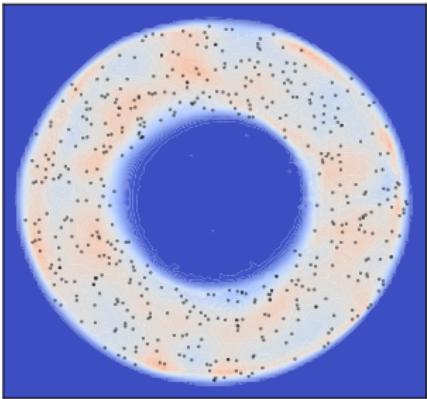
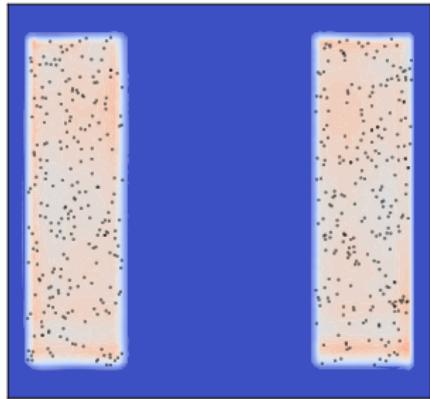
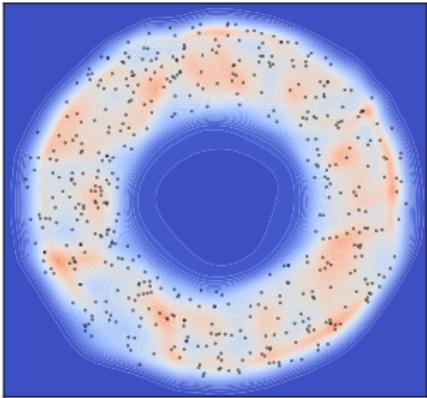
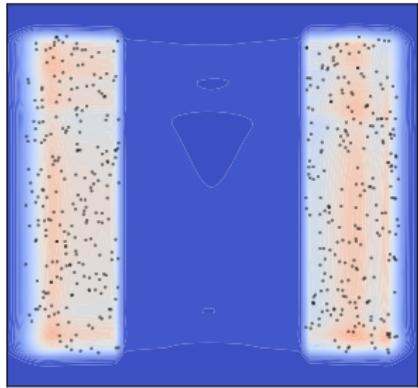
Comparison with Related Models

CIFs may be understood as a **hybrid** between standard normalizing flow and VAE density models:



In all cases, $X = F(Z; U)$ for some family of bijections F

2D ResFlow Experiments



2D Masked Autoregressive Flow (MAF) Experiments

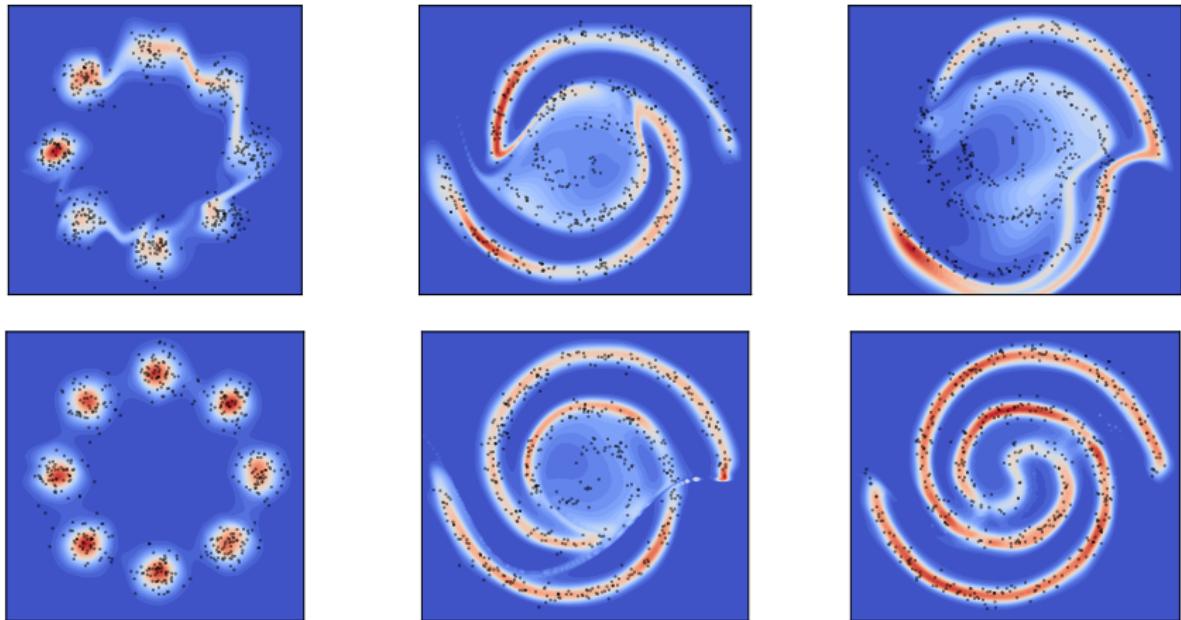


Figure: Density models learned by a 20-layer MAF (above) and a 5-layer CIF-MAF (below) for 2-D target distributions. The far right column uses a higher-capacity model for each method.

High-Dimensional ResFlow Experiments

Table: Test set bits per dimension. Lower is better.

	MNIST	CIFAR-10
ResFlow (small)	1.074	3.474
ResFlow (big)	1.018	3.422
CIF-ResFlow	0.922	3.334

NB: These ResFlows were smaller than those from Chen et al. [2019]

We obtained **similar improvements** on several other problems and flow models

Thank you!



Figure: Joint work with Anthony Caterini, George Deligiannidis, Arnaud Doucet, and Dino Sejdinovic

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