## Normalizing Flows

Volodymyr Kuleshov

Cornell Tech

Lecture 7

#### Announcements

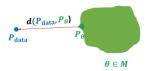
- Assignment 1 is due on Wednesday.
- Project proposals are due in one and a half week.
- Assignment 2 will be released on Wednesday and will be due in two weeks.
- Please think about your preferred presentation topics.

#### Lecture Outline

- Recap and Motivation for Normalizing Flows
- Volume-Preserving Transformations
  - The Determinant
  - Change of Variables Formula
- Normalizing Flows
  - Representation and Learning
  - Composing Simple Transformations
  - Triangular Jacobians

## Recap: Autoregressive Models

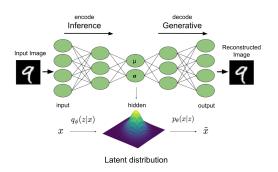




Model family

- **1** Autoregressive models:  $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p_{\theta}(x_i | \mathbf{x}_{< i})$ 
  - Probability distributions factorize into a product of factors
  - We can efficiently represent p via conditional independence and/or neural parameterizations
- ② Autoregressive models Pros:
  - It is computationally tractable to evaluate likelihoods
  - ullet It is tractable to train  $p(\mathbf{x})$  via maximum likelihood & gradient descent
- Autoregressive models Cons:
  - They require choosing an ordering over variables
  - Generation is sequential (hence usually slow)
  - Cannot learn features in an unsupervised way

#### Recap: Latent Variable Models

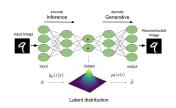


Variational Autoencoders:  $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \int p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z}$ 

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}; \theta, \phi) = E_{q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})}[\log p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}; \theta)] - D_{KL}(q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})||p(\mathbf{z}))$$

- Infinite mixture of Gaussians. Means are parametrized by deep net.
- Objective has a natural auto-encoder interpretation.

### Recap: Latent Variable Models

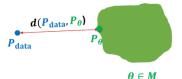


- Latent Variable Models Pros:
  - Naturally combine simple models into more flexible ones:  $p(\mathbf{x}) = \int p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})p(\mathbf{z})d\mathbf{z}$  and  $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}), p(\mathbf{z})$  can be "simple".
  - Directed model permits efficient generation:  $\mathbf{z} \sim p(\mathbf{z})$ ,  $\mathbf{x} \sim p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z};\theta)$
- 2 Latent Variable Models Cons:
  - Evaluating the log-likelihood is generally intractable
  - Hence, training via maximum-likelihood is intractable
  - Fundamentally, the challenge is that posterior inference  $p(\mathbf{z} \mid \mathbf{x})$  is hard. Typically requires variational approximations

#### Can We Get Best of Both Worlds?







 $O \subset M$ 

Model family

- Model families:
  - Autoregressive Models:  $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p_{\theta}(x_i | \mathbf{x}_{< i})$
  - Variational Autoencoders:  $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \int p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z}$
- Autoregressive models provide tractable likelihoods but no direct mechanism for learning features
- Variational autoencoders can learn feature representations (via latent variables z) but have intractable marginal likelihoods
- **Key question**: Can we design a latent variable model with tractable likelihoods? Yes! Use normalizing flows.

## Simple Prior to Complex Data Distributions

- Desirable properties of any model distribution:
  - Analytic density
  - Easy-to-sample
- Many simple distributions satisfy the above properties e.g., Gaussian, uniform distributions
- Unfortunately, data distributions could be much more complex (multi-modal)
- Key idea: Map simple distributions (easy to sample and evaluate densities) to complex distributions (learned via data) using invertible change of variables transformations.

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  - Triangular Jacobians

## Example: Change of Variables

- Let Z be a uniform random variable  $\mathcal{U}[0,2]$  with density  $p_Z$ . What is  $p_Z(1)$ ?  $\frac{1}{2}$
- Let X = 4Z, and let  $p_X$  be its density. What is  $p_X(4)$ ?
- $p_X(4) = p(X = 4) = p(4Z = 4) = p(Z = 1) = p_Z(1) = 1/2$
- This is incorrect. Clearly, X is uniform in [0,8], so  $p_X(4) = 1/8$
- Probability densities are not probability distributions (measures).
- Transformations expand the support of the distribution; we need to scale densities to preserve the *volume* of probability mass.

# Change of Variables Formula in One Dimension

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

$$p_X(x) = p_Z(h(x))|h'(x)|$$

- Previous example: If X = 4Z and  $Z \sim \mathcal{U}[0,2]$ , what is  $p_X(4)$ ?
- Note that h(X) = X/4
- $p_X(4) = p_Z(1)h'(4) = 1/2 \times 1/4 = 1/8$
- We have expanded the support of the distribution by 4. Hence, we need to decrease the mass at each point by 4 to preserve the volume.
- Generalizes to higher dimensions via determinants of transformations

## Change of Variables Formula: Intuition

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

$$p_X(x) = p_Z(h(x))|h'(x)|$$

• We can understand this as follows:

$$\int p_{Z}(z)dz = \int p_{Z}(z)\frac{dx}{dx}dz$$

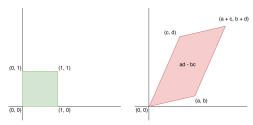
$$= \int p_{Z}(h(x)) \left| \frac{dz}{dx} \right| dx$$

$$= \int p_{Z}(h(x)) \left| h'(x) \right| dx$$

An integral is a sum of "infenitesimal rectangles" dz and dx. We adjust the "volume" of each dx around x because h changes it.

# Review: Determinants and Volumes (in 2D)

Next, we would like to develop a notion of volume in higher dimensions.



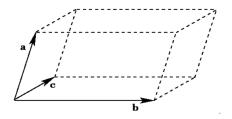
• Matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}$  maps a unit square to a parallelogram, e.g.:

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} a \\ b \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} a & c \\ b & d \end{array}\right) \cdot \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0 \end{array}\right)$$

• The volume of the parallelotope is equal to the determinant of A

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

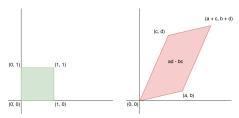
# Review: Determinants and Volumes (in 3D)



- The volume formula still holds in 3D.
- Note that if two vectors are colinear, we get a plane, which has volume zero in 3D. The determinant is zero and the matrix is singular.

# Review: Determinants and Volumes (in n-D)

- In general, the matrix A maps the unit hypercube  $[0,1]^n$  to a parallelotope
- Hypercube and parallelotope are generalizations of square/cube and parallelogram/parallelopiped to higher dimensions



• Determinant det(A) still gives volume of the n-D shape.

# Determinants and Volumes for Changing Variables

- Let Z be a uniform random vector in  $[0,1]^n$
- Let X = AZ for a square invertible matrix A, with inverse  $W = A^{-1}$ . How is X distributed?
- The volume of the parallelotope is equal to the determinant of the transformation A

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

ullet X is uniformly distributed over the parallelotope. Hence, we have

$$p_X(\mathbf{x}) = p_Z(W\mathbf{x}) |\det(W)|$$
$$= p_Z(W\mathbf{x}) / |\det(A)|$$

# Change of Variables Formula (General Case)

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

#### The Jacobian

Consider a vector valued function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ , with:

• 
$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \cdots, x_n)$$

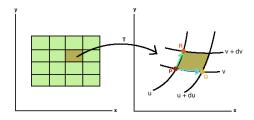
• 
$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = (f_1(\mathbf{x}), \cdots, f_m(\mathbf{x}))$$

The Jacobian is defined as:

$$J = \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

This generalizes the gradient to multi-variate functions.

# Change of Variables Formula (General Case): Intuition



- We are interested in mapping a small volume between (v, u) and (v + dv, u + du).
- For sufficiently small du, dv, the function can be linearized, and becomes the linear mapping specified by the Jacobian.

# Change of Variables Formula (General Case)

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

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

- Note 1:  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}$  need to be continuous and have the same dimension. For example, if  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  then  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- Note 2: For any invertible matrix A,  $det(A^{-1}) = det(A)^{-1}$

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

# Change of Variables Formula (General Case): 2D Example

- Let  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$  be continuous random variables with joint density  $p_{Z_1,Z_2}$ .
- Let  $u: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$  be a transformation with inverse  $v: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ .
- Let  $X_1 = u_1(Z_1, Z_2)$  and  $X_2 = u_2(Z_1, Z_2)$  Then,  $Z_1 = v_1(X_1, X_2)$  and  $Z_2 = v_2(X_1, X_2)$

$$\begin{aligned} & p_{X_1,X_2}(x_1,x_2) \\ &= p_{Z_1,Z_2}(v_1(x_1,x_2),v_2(x_1,x_2)) \left| \det \left( \begin{array}{c} \frac{\partial v_1(x_1,x_2)}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial v_1(x_1,x_2)}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial v_2(x_1,x_2)}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial v_2(x_1,x_2)}{\partial x_2} \end{array} \right) \right| \text{ (inverse)} \end{aligned}$$

$$= p_{Z_1,Z_2}(z_1,z_2) \left| \det \left( \begin{array}{c} \frac{\partial u_1(z_1,z_2)}{\partial z_1} & \frac{\partial u_1(z_1,z_2)}{\partial z_2} \\ \frac{\partial u_2(z_1,z_2)}{\partial z_1} & \frac{\partial u_2(z_1,z_2)}{\partial z_2} \end{array} \right) \right|^{-1} \text{ (forward)}$$

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### Normalizing Flow Models: Representation

Consider a directed, latent-variable model over observed variables X and latent variables Z



In a **normalizing flow model**, the mapping between Z and X, given by  $\mathbf{f}_{\theta}: \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$ , is deterministic and invertible such that  $X = \mathbf{f}_{\theta}(Z)$  and  $Z = \mathbf{f}_{\theta}^{-1}(X)$ 

## Normalizing Flow Models: Learning

• In a **normalizing flow model**, the mapping between Z and X, given by  $\mathbf{f}_{\theta}: \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$ , is deterministic and invertible such that  $X = \mathbf{f}_{\theta}(Z)$  and  $Z = \mathbf{f}_{\theta}^{-1}(X)$ 



- We want to learn  $p_X(\mathbf{x}; \theta)$  using the principle of maximum likelihood.
- Using change of variables, the marginal likelihood p(x) is given by

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

- Note 1: Unlike in VAEs, we compute the marginal likelihood exactly!
- Note 2: x, z need to be continuous and have the same dimension.

## Normalizing Flow Models: Constructing f.

We need to construct a density transformation that is:

- Invertible, so that we can apply the change of variables formula.
- Expressive, so that we can learn complex distributions.
- Computationally tractable, so that we can optimize and evaluate it.

#### One strategy:

- ullet Start with a simple distribution for  $z_0$  (e.g., Gaussian)
- ullet Apply sequence of M simple invertible transformations with  ${f x} \stackrel{\triangle}{=} {f z}_M$

$$\mathbf{z}_m := \mathbf{f}_{\theta}^m \circ \cdots \circ \mathbf{f}_{\theta}^1(\mathbf{z}_0) = \mathbf{f}_{\theta}^m(\mathbf{f}_{\theta}^{m-1}(\cdots(\mathbf{f}_{\theta}^1(\mathbf{z}_0)))) \triangleq \mathbf{f}_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}_0)$$

• By change of variables

$$p_X(\mathbf{x};\theta) = p_Z\left(\mathbf{f}_{\theta}^{-1}(\mathbf{x})\right) \prod_{m=1}^{M} \left| \det \left( \frac{\partial (\mathbf{f}_{\theta}^m)^{-1}(\mathbf{z}_m)}{\partial \mathbf{z}_m} \right) \right|$$

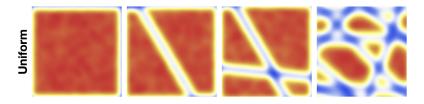
(Note: determininant of composition equals product of determinants)

## Example: Planar Flows

Planar flow (Rezende and Mohamed, 2015). Invertible transformation

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{f}_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}) = \mathbf{z} + \mathbf{u}h(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z} + b)$$

parameterized by  $\theta = (\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{u}, b)$  where  $h(\cdot)$  is a non-linearity



Above, we visualize the transformation after 0, 1, 2, 10 recursive applications.

## Example: Planar Flows

Planar flow (Rezende and Mohamed, 2015). Invertible transformation

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{f}_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}) = \mathbf{z} + \mathbf{u}h(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z} + b)$$

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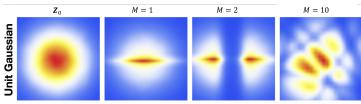
Absolute value of the determinant of the Jacobian is given by

$$\left| \det \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{\theta}(\mathbf{z})}{\partial \mathbf{z}} \right| = \left| \det (I + h'(\mathbf{w}^{T}\mathbf{z} + b)\mathbf{u}\mathbf{w}^{T}) \right|$$
$$= \left| 1 + h'(\mathbf{w}^{T}\mathbf{z} + b)\mathbf{u}^{T}\mathbf{w} \right|$$
(matrix determinant lemma)

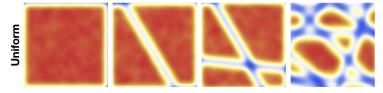
• Need to restrict parameters and non-linearity for the mapping to be invertible. For example, h = tanh() and  $h'(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z} + b)\mathbf{u}^T\mathbf{w} \ge -1$ 

## Example: Planar Flows

Base distribution: Gaussian



Base distribution: Uniform



10 planar transformations can transform simple distributions into a more complex one

## Normalizing Flows: Recap

**Normalizing:** Change of variables gives a normalized density after applying an invertible transformation.

**Flow:** The function f makes the probability mass smoothly flow from a simple distribution over the space to one that is complex.

- Transformations need to be invertible, hence dim(X) = dim(Z).
- Complex transformations can be composed from simple ones:

$$\mathbf{z}_m := \mathbf{f}_{\theta}^m \circ \cdots \circ \mathbf{f}_{\theta}^1(\mathbf{z}_0) = \mathbf{f}_{\theta}^m(\mathbf{f}_{\theta}^{m-1}(\cdots(\mathbf{f}_{\theta}^1(\mathbf{z}_0)))) \triangleq \mathbf{f}_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}_0)$$

ullet Learning via **maximum likelihood** over the dataset  ${\mathcal D}$ 

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log p_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\mathcal{D};\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}} \log p_{\boldsymbol{Z}}\left(\mathbf{f}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{-1}(\mathbf{x})\right) + \log \left| \det \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{-1}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial \mathbf{x}}\right) \right|$$

## Normalizing Flows: Learning and Inference Recap

- Exact likelihood evaluation via inverse tranformation  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{z}$  and change of variables formula
- Sampling via forward transformation  $z \mapsto x$

$$\mathbf{z} \sim p_{\mathcal{Z}}(\mathbf{z}) \ \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{f}_{\theta}(\mathbf{z})$$

• Latent representations inferred via inverse transformation (no inference network required!)

$$\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{f}_{ heta}^{-1}(\mathbf{x})$$

## Challenges in Building Flow Models

To understand next steps, let's review the challenges posed by flow models.

- Complex, invertible transformations with tractable evaluation:
  - ullet Likelihood evaluation requires efficient evaluation of  ${f x}\mapsto {f z}$  mapping
  - Sampling requires efficient evaluation of  $z \mapsto x$  mapping
- Computing likelihoods also requires the evaluation of determinants of  $n \times n$  Jacobian matrices, where n is the data dimensionality
  - Computing the determinant for an  $n \times n$  matrix is  $O(n^3)$ : prohibitively expensive within a learning loop!

**Key idea**: Choose tranformations so that the resulting Jacobian matrix has special structure. For example, the determinant of a triangular matrix is the product of the diagonal entries, i.e., an O(n) operation

## Triangular Jacobian

$$\mathbf{x}=(x_1,\cdots,x_n)=\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{z})=(f_1(\mathbf{z}),\cdots,f_n(\mathbf{z}))$$

$$J = \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial z_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial z_n} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial z_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial z_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

Suppose  $x_i = f_i(\mathbf{z})$  only depends on  $\mathbf{z}_{\leq i}$ . Then

$$J = \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial z_1} & \cdots & 0 \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial z_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial z_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

has lower triangular structure. Determinant can be computed in **linear time**. Similarly, the Jacobian is upper triangular if  $x_i$  only depends on  $\mathbf{z}_{\geq i}$  **Next lecture:** Designing invertible transformations!