

# Representation Learning — Module 1

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Lecture, Sep 2020

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Background
- 3 Proper scoring rules
  - Noise-contrastive estimation
  - Score matching
- 4 Exercise 1

- Frontal lecture with breaks and discussion segments

Monday	9-12	Intro, background and proper scoring rules
	13-17	Noise-contrastive estimation, score matching
Tuesday	9-12	Latent variable models I
	13-17	Latent variable models II

Fika breaks at around 10:00 and 15:00

- Homework

- Small-scale numerical experiments for hands-on experience
- Form groups (ideally two students in each group)
- Submit little report describing how your thoughts, implementation & results
- “Engineer’s notes”
- Submit via email (`zach@chalmers.se`) by end of November

<https://drive.google.com/file/d/1aKP85-4R3z8QTks7dRwmTVgxjL0NWy2l/view?usp=sharing>  
[https://drive.google.com/file/d/1JFn44JGIXxoO\\_sc0AHRNl6R4MhAEfA\\_9/view?usp=sharing](https://drive.google.com/file/d/1JFn44JGIXxoO_sc0AHRNl6R4MhAEfA_9/view?usp=sharing)

What is representation learning?

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## From Wikipedia:

In machine learning, feature learning or representation learning is a set of techniques that allows a system to automatically discover the representations needed for feature detection or classification from raw data. This replaces manual feature engineering and allows a machine to both learn the features and use them to perform a specific task.

[...]

Feature learning can be either supervised or unsupervised.

- In supervised feature learning, features are learned using labeled input data. Examples include supervised neural networks, multilayer perceptron and (supervised) dictionary learning.
- *In unsupervised feature learning, features are learned with unlabeled input data. Examples include dictionary learning, independent component analysis, autoencoders, matrix factorization and various forms of clustering.*

# What is representation learning?

- I do not fully agree with Wiki's definition of supervised feature learning
  - Features from supervised learning are often too task-specific
  - You want to extract information about data beyond a particular task

Representing data = encoding+decoding data?

- Supervised feature learning includes (IMHO)
  - Multi-task learning
    - Shared DNN backbone for multiple tasks
    - Extract representations useful for a variety of problems
  - Weakly supervised tasks with virtually unlimited training data
    - Image colorization
    - Image completion / inpainting
    - Solving visual puzzles
    - Siamese DNNs to predict image relations e.g. from videos
    - Feature learnign using contrastive losses

I will not talk about any of these approaches

I will talk about *energy-based models (EBMs)*

Focus on established methods and a few extensions

# What is representation learning?

## Energy-based model (EBM)

An EBM is a function  $E_\theta : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  (depending on parameters  $\theta$ ) that assigns a scalar energy value to an input. The interpretations of  $E_\theta$  is as follows:

- $E_\theta(x) \approx 0$ :  $x$  is “correct” or “likely”
- $E_\theta(x) \gg 0$ :  $x$  is “incorrect” or “unlikely”

- Connecting some EBMs with probabilities

$$E_\theta(x) = -\log p_\theta(x)$$

- Some EBMs are unnormalized likelihoods

$$E_\theta(x) = -\log p_\theta(x) + c$$

- We may not always be interested in  $c$
- Learning: estimate  $\theta$  from training data  $\{x_i\}$  such that

$$E_\theta(x) \approx 0 \text{ for } x = x_i \quad E_\theta(x) \text{ is large for } x \neq x_i \text{ for any } i$$

- Often  $E_\theta(x) \rightarrow \infty$  with  $\|x\| \rightarrow \infty$ 
  - “Likely” data is a bounded region in  $\mathcal{X}$
  - Example: dictionary learning

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Quickly changing research topic, 100s of new publications every year

Focus on fundamentals and established theory

- Introduction
- Background: a short recap on probability theory
- Proper scoring rules
  - General theory
  - Noise contrastive estimation
  - Score matching
- Latent variable models
  - Variational Bayes (VAE & VNCE)
  - Boltzmann machines
  - Dictionary learning and sparse coding

Caveat: I will focus on image and image-like data

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Why?

- One major branch of unsupervised representation learning is tightly connected to estimating parameters of probability distributions
- These distributions can be continuous or discrete
  - Measure-theoretic introduction of probabilities unifies and generalizes notation.

$$Pr(A) = \sum_{x \in A} p(x) \quad \text{vs.} \quad Pr(A) = \int_A p(x) dx.$$

- It is a beautiful theory
- Recap of conditional probabilities, Bayes' theorem etc.

## Probability space

A probability space is a triple  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ , where

- ①  $\Omega$  is the sample set (think of  $\Omega$  as elementary random events)
- ②  $\mathcal{F}$  is the set of possible events and forms a  $\sigma$ -algebra
  - ① With  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  we also have  $(\Omega \setminus A) \in \mathcal{F}$
  - ②  $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$  for all  $i \in \mathbb{N}$  we also have  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{F}$
- ③  $P : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is the probability measure satisfying  $P(\Omega) = 1$  and

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i) \quad \text{if } \{A_i : A_i \in \mathcal{F}\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \text{ are pairwise disjoint}$$



## Null set

A null set  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  has  $P(A) = 0$ .

- $\emptyset$  is always a null set, but there can be  $A \neq \emptyset$  such that  $P(A) = 0$ .
- If  $P(A) = 1$ , then  $P(\Omega \setminus A) = 0$  and  $\Omega \setminus A$  is a null set. The event  $A$  occurs almost surely (a.s.).

## Example

- Infinite number of dice rolls:  $\Omega = \otimes_{i=1}^{\infty} \{1, \dots, 6\}$  (uncountable set of sequences). Strong law of large numbers,

$$P\left(\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N X_i}{N} = \frac{7}{2}\right) = 1.$$

$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^N X_i / N$  does not hold for every sample sequence, e.g.  $A_1 = (1)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ , but  $P(A_1) = 0$ . The probability of all these “atypical” sequences is 0.

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## Examples

- ❶  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathcal{F} = 2^\Omega$  and  $P$  is given by

$$P(A) = \sum_{\omega \in A} p(\omega) \quad \forall A \subseteq \Omega,$$

where  $p : \Omega \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is the *probability mass function* with  $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} p(\omega) = 1$ .

- ❷  $\Omega = [0, 1]$ .  $\mathcal{F} = 2^\Omega$ ? No, more complicated.  $2^\Omega$  is too large to find a  $P$  with the right properties. Most useful working example: Borel algebras and Lebesgue measures.
- ❸ Borel algebra  $\mathcal{B}$ : smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra that contains intervals  $[a, b] \subseteq [0, 1]$  (or  $[a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ ).
- ❹ Lebesgue measure  $\lambda$ : extension of  $\lambda([a, b]) = a - b$  to all sets from  $\mathcal{B}$ . Generalization to higher dimensions via Cartesian products. The Lebesgue measure corresponds to our intuitive notions of length, area and volume.

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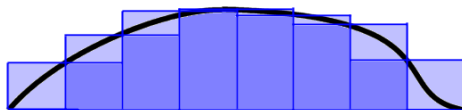
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# Lebesgue integral

- Riemann integral: approximation of the area under a function via horizontal rectangles
- Lebesgue integral: approximation a function via superlevel sets (vertical slabs)
- Assume  $f : \Omega \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ ,  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ , and a measure  $\mu$  given

$$\int_A f d\mu = \int_0^\infty \mu(\{x \in A : f(x) > t\}) dt.$$



## Absolute continuity

Let  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  be two measures on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ . We say  $\nu$  is absolutely continuous w.r.t.  $\mu$  ( $\nu \ll \mu$ ) if  $\mu(A) = 0$  implies  $\nu(A) = 0$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ .

## Radon-Nykodym

If  $\nu \ll \mu$ , then there exists a measurable function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  such that

$$\nu(A) = \int_A f(\omega) d\mu(\omega).$$

- Probability mass functions (pmfs) are densities w.r.t. the counting measure  $\text{card}(A)$

$$P(A) = \sum_{x \in A} p(x)$$

- Probability density functions (pdfs) are densities w.r.t. the Lebesgue measure  $\lambda$

$$\begin{aligned} P(A) &= \int_A f(\omega) d\lambda(\omega) \\ &= \int_A f(\omega) d\omega \quad \text{if } f \text{ is continuous (Riemann-integrable)} \end{aligned}$$

## TL;DR

Summation if the base measure is the counting measure, integral if the base measure is the Lebesgue measure (length of intervals).

I will use the integral notation for both discrete and continuous distributions.



# Random variables

A random variable (RV)  $X$  is a measurable function  $\Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

$$Pr(X \leq x) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \leq x\}).$$

That is why  $X$  needs to be measurable.

- Random variables map general, possibly non-numerical events to numerical values.
- Allows to talk about expected value etc.,

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{\Omega} X(\omega) dP(\omega)$$

Law of the unconscious statistician (LOTUS)

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \int_{\Omega} g(X(\omega)) dP(\omega) = \begin{cases} \sum_x p(x)g(x) & p \text{ is a pmf} \\ \int f(x)g(x)dx & f \text{ is a pdf} \end{cases}$$

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## Conditional probability

Given two events  $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ , define

$$P(A|B) := \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} \quad \text{or} \quad P(A \cap B) := P(A|B)P(B)$$

Further, let  $X$  be a RV and define a new RV

$$P(A|X = x)(\omega) := P(A|X(\omega) = x).$$

$P(A|X = x)$  is technically a RV mapping events to real numbers from  $[0, 1]$ .

## Bayes' theorem

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A|B)P(B)}{P(A)} = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$$

## Marginal distribution / law of total probability

$$P(A) = P(A|B)P(B) + P(A|\bar{B})P(\bar{B}) \quad \bar{B} := \Omega \setminus B$$

$$P(A) = \sum_i P(A|B_i)P(B_i) = \sum_i P(A \cap B_i) \quad \{B_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \text{ is a partition of } \Omega$$

For joint distribution  $P_{X,Y}(\cdot, \cdot)$

$$P_X(A) = \int \mathbf{1}[x \in A] dP_{X,Y}(x, y).$$

$P_X(A)$  is the marginal distribution. Often used for pmfs and pdfs:

$$p(x) = \sum_y p(x, y) \qquad p(x) = \int p(x, y) dy$$

## Convex functions

A function  $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is convex iff for all  $x, x' \in \mathcal{X}$  and all  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$  we have

$$f(\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)x') \leq \alpha f(x) + (1 - \alpha)f(x')$$

- Convex functions can be written as supremum of affine functions

$$f \text{ convex} \iff f(x) = \sup_{\tau} a_{\tau}^T x + b_{\tau}$$

- Useful sufficient conditions

$$f''(x) \geq 0$$

$$\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}$$

## Jensen's inequality

Let  $x$  be a RV with distribution  $p$ . Then

$$f(\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p} [x]) \leq \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p} [f(x)]$$

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## Estimate distribution parameters to fit given data

Given data samples  $\{x_1, \dots, x_N\} \sim p_d(x)$  and parametric distribution  $p_\theta(\cdot)$

$$\theta^* = \arg \min_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^n} \sum_{i=1}^M \ell(p_\theta(x), x_i)$$

What are good choices for  $\ell$ ?

Issues to consider

- We have only access to samples  $x \sim p_d$ , not  $p_d$  itself
- We would like that  $\theta^*$  to approach the true parameters with  $M \rightarrow \infty$ 
  - Consistency of the estimate (a.s.)
  - Requires that  $p_d = p_{\hat{\theta}}$  for some  $\hat{\theta}$
- Our model distribution  $p_\theta$  is usually unnormalized

## Discussion

- 1 What is the connection to representation / feature learning?
- 2 How would you estimate the parameters of  $p_\theta$  from data samples?
- 3 Why will  $p_\theta$  often be unnormalized?



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- Maximize log-likelihood:  $\max_\theta \sum_i \log p_\theta(x_i)$ 
  - $\ell(p, x) = -\log p(x)$
  - Only works for “simple” distributions  $p_\theta$
- VAE (variational auto-encoder, auto-encoding variational Bayes)
  - $\ell$  is upper bound on  $-\log p_\theta(x)$
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  - In one line: minimize Bregman divergence between  $p_d(x)$  and  $p_\theta(x)$
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## Overview

Proper scoring rules (PSRs) are one way to design losses  $\ell$  with certain performance guarantees.

- PSRs unify a number of proposed methods for learning distributions
  - Maximum likelihood estimation
  - Score matching
  - Noise-contrastive estimation
  - Learning of graphical models using pseudo-likelihoods
- T. Gneiting & A.E. Raftery, “Strictly proper scoring rules, prediction, and estimation”
- A.P. Dawid & M. Musio, “Theory and applications of proper scoring rules”

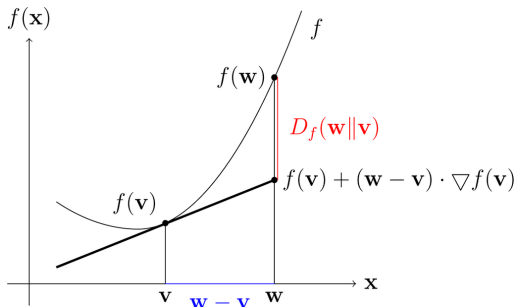
# Bregman divergence

## Bregman divergence

Let  $f$  be a diff'able convex function. The Bregman divergence  $D_f(w||v)$  is defined as

$$D_f(w||v) := f(w) - (f(v) + \nabla f(v)^T (w - v)).$$

- $D_f(w||v) \geq 0$ .
- If  $f$  is strictly convex, then  $D_f(w||v) = 0$  iff  $w = v$ .
- $D_f(w||v)$  can be interpreted as linearization error of a convex function
- $f$  linearized at  $v$   
linearization error measured at  $w$



# Proper scoring rules

- Let  $\Omega = \{1, \dots, K\}$  be a finite set
- $p, q \in \mathbb{P}(\Omega)$  be probability measures

$$\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = \left\{ p \in [0, 1]^K : \sum_{x=1}^K p(x) = 1 \right\}$$

- $F : \mathbb{P}(\Omega) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a diff'able convex function

$$\begin{aligned} D_F(p||q) &= F(p) - F(q) - \nabla F(q)^T (p - q) \\ &= F(p) - F(q) - \sum_{x=1}^K \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x)} (p(x) - q(x)) \end{aligned}$$

Minimize  $D_F(p||q)$  w.r.t.  $q = (q_1, \dots, q_K)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \arg \min_q D_F(p||q) &= \arg \min_q -F(q) - \sum_{x=1}^K \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x)} (p(x) - q(x)) \\ &= \arg \max_q F(q) + \sum_{x=1}^K \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x)} (p(x) - q(x)) \end{aligned}$$

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Using  $\sum p(x) = 1$ :

$$\begin{aligned} q^* &= \arg \max_q F(q) + \sum_{x=1}^K \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x)} (p(x) - q(x)) \\ &= \arg \max_q \sum_{x=1}^K p(x) \left( F(q) + \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x)} \right) - \sum_{x=1}^K \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x)} q(x) \\ &= \arg \max_q \sum_{x=1}^K p(x) \underbrace{\left( F(q) + \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x)} - \sum_{x'=1}^K \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x')} q(x') \right)}_{=: S(q,x)} \\ &= \arg \max_q \sum_{x=1}^K p(x) S(q, x) = \arg \max_q \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p} [S(q, x)] \end{aligned}$$

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## Proper scoring rule (PSR)

For a diff'able convex function  $F$  define

$$S(q, x) := F(q) + \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x)} - \sum_{x'=1}^K \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x')} q(x')$$

$$S(q, p) := \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p} [S(q, x)]$$

$S$  is called a proper scoring rule (PSR). If  $F$  is strictly convex, then  $S$  is a strictly PSR.

- Historically, the convention is to maximize PSRs (higher scores are better)
- What about  $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^D$ ?

$$S(q, x) := F(q) + \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x)} - \int \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x')} q(x') dx'$$

- $F$  can be recovered from  $S$  via

$$\begin{aligned} S(q, q) &= \mathbb{E}_{x \sim q} [S(q, x)] \\ &= \sum_x q(x) \left( F(q) + \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x)} - \sum_{x'} \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x')} q(x') \right) \\ &= F(q) + \sum_x q(x) \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x)} - \sum_x q(x) \sum_{x'} \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x')} q(x') \\ &= F(q) + \sum_x q(x) \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x)} - \sum_{x'} \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x')} q(x') \\ &= F(q) \end{aligned}$$

- $S(q, q) = F(q)$  can also be interpreted as generalized (negated) entropy

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## Why are PSRs useful?

Monte Carlo approximation of  $D_F(p||q)$

$$-D_F(p||q) \doteq \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p}[S(q, x)] \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_i S(q, x_i)$$

We only need iid samples  $(x_i)_{i=1}^N$  with  $x_i \sim p$

- Let  $S$  be a strictly PSR. With  $N \rightarrow \infty$ :

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_i S(q, x_i) \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p}[S(q, x)] \doteq -D_F(q||p)$$

Since  $D_F(p||q) = 0$  iff  $q = p$  (modulo null sets)

- $p = q^* = \arg \max_q -D_F(q||p) = \arg \min_q D_F(q||p)$  unique solution
- $q^*$  consistent estimator of  $p$

## Proper scoring rules: examples

- Logarithmic scoring rule
- Let  $F(p) = \sum_x p(x) \log p(x)$  be the (negated) Shannon entropy

$$\begin{aligned} S(q, x) &= F(q) + \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x)} - \sum_{x'=1}^K \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x')} q(x') \\ &= F(q) + 1 + \log q(x) - \sum_{x'=1}^K q(x') (1 + \log q(x')) \\ &= \log q(x) + F(q) - \underbrace{\sum_{x'=1}^K q(x') \log q(x')}_{=F(q)} + 1 - \underbrace{\sum_{x'=1}^K q(x')}_{=1} \\ &= \log q(x) \end{aligned}$$

- Maximum likelihood!
- $S(q, x) = \log q(x)$  depends only on  $q(x)$  but not on  $q(x')$  for any  $x' \neq x$
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- Quadratic (or Brier) scoring rule

$$F(p) = \frac{1}{2} \|p\|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_x p(x)^2$$

- Exercise for now: what is  $S(q, x)$ ?
- Recall

$$S(q, x) = F(q) + \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x)} - \sum_{x'=1}^K \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x')} q(x')$$



# Proper scoring rules: examples

- Quadratic (or Brier) scoring rule:  $F(p) = \frac{1}{2} \|p\|^2$

- Yields  $S(q, x) = q(x) - \|q\|^2/2$
- Non-local PSR

$$\|q\|^2 = \sum_{x'} q(x)^2 = \langle q, q \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^K} \qquad \|q\|_{L_2}^2 = \int q(x)^2 dx = \langle q, q \rangle_{L_2}$$

- Spherical scoring rule with  $S(q, x) = q(x)/\|q\|$
- *Local PSR* only depend on  $q(x)$ , not on  $q(x')$  for  $x' \neq x$ 
  - Logarithmic score
  - Hyvärinen score (score matching): depends on derivatives of  $q(x)$
- $S(q, x) = q(x)$  is *not* a PSR!
  - Discussion: optimal parameter  $\mu$  of a Gaussian (with  $\sigma = 1$ )

$$\max_{\mu \in \mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sum_i \exp\left(-\frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2}\right)$$

How is this different from a MLE?

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# Proper scoring rules for Bernoulli RVs

- Let  $z$  be a Bernoulli RV

$$p_{\theta}(z = 1) = \theta$$

$$p_{\theta}(z = 0) = 1 - \theta$$

for a  $\theta \in [0, 1]$

- $N$  training samples  $\{z_i\}$
- $\eta N$  ones in the training set with  $\eta \in (0, 1)$
- Logarithmic PSR

$$\max_{\theta \in (0, 1)} \eta \log \theta + (1 - \eta) \log(1 - \theta)$$

- First order optimality

$$\frac{\eta}{\theta} - \frac{1 - \eta}{1 - \theta} \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \iff \frac{\eta}{\theta} = \frac{1 - \eta}{1 - \theta} \iff \eta(1 - \theta) = (1 - \eta)\theta \iff \eta = \theta$$

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- $N$  training samples  $\{z_i\}$
- $\eta N$  ones in the training set with  $\eta \in (0, 1)$
- Quadratic PSR

$$\begin{aligned} & \max_{\theta \in (0,1)} \eta \left( \theta - \frac{1}{2} \left\| \begin{pmatrix} \theta \\ 1 - \theta \end{pmatrix} \right\|^2 \right) + (1 - \eta) \left( 1 - \theta - \frac{1}{2} \left\| \begin{pmatrix} \theta \\ 1 - \theta \end{pmatrix} \right\|^2 \right) \\ &= \max_{\theta \in (0,1)} \eta \theta + (1 - \eta)(1 - \theta) - \frac{1}{2} \left\| \begin{pmatrix} \theta \\ 1 - \theta \end{pmatrix} \right\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

- First order optimality

$$0 \stackrel{!}{=} \eta - (1 - \eta) - \theta - (\theta - 1) \iff 2\eta = 2\theta$$

Recall our starting point:

Estimate distribution parameters to fit given data

Given data samples  $\{x_1, \dots, x_N\} \sim p_d(x)$  and parametric distribution  $p_\theta(\cdot)$

$$\theta^* = \arg \min_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^n} \sum_{i=1}^M \ell(p_\theta(\cdot), x_i)$$

What are good choices for  $\ell$ ?

We have now one answer:

Choose a strictly convex and diff'able function  $F$  and set

$$\ell(p_\theta, x) = -S(p_\theta, x),$$

where  $S$  is the PSR induced by  $F$ .

## Big assumption

There exists a  $\hat{\theta}$  such that  $p_d = p_{\hat{\theta}}$ .

## Discussions

- Mis-specification: what happens if  $p_d$  cannot be represented as  $p_{\hat{\theta}}$ ?
- Robustness: which PSRs might be more robust when the training data is contaminated by outliers?
- Ideal setting: why are we not done yet?



## Big assumption

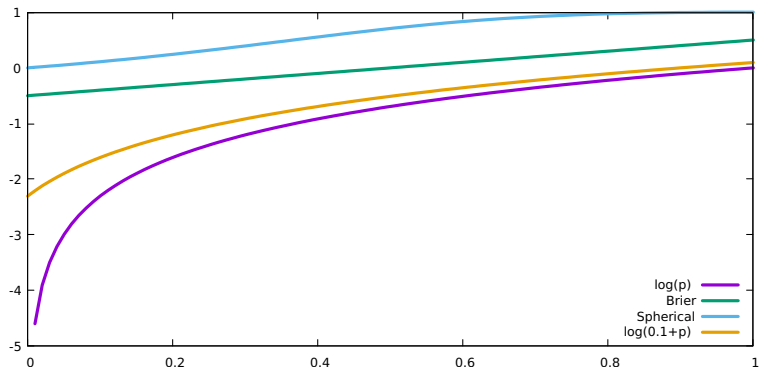
There exists a  $\hat{\theta}$  such that  $p_d = p_{\hat{\theta}}$ .

## Discussions

- Mis-specification: what happens if  $p_d$  cannot be represented as  $p_{\hat{\theta}}$ ?
  - *Different PSRs lead to different estimates  $\theta^*$*
- Robustness: which PSRs might be more robust when the training data is contaminated by outliers?
- Ideal setting: why are we not done yet?

## Discussion: Robustness

Which PSRs might be more robust when the training data is contaminated by outliers?



## Discussion

### Why are we not done yet?

- Non-local PSRs only easy to use for discrete (categorical) RVs
  - For continuous RVs we need to compute e.g.,  $\int q(x)^2 dx$
  - At least as difficult as computing  $Z = \int q(x) dx$
- Non-local PSRs also not tractable for discrete RVs with many states
  - Quantized images:  $256^{3 \times 1000 \times 1000}$  possible values
- Logarithmic PSR is maximum likelihood
  - We need to work with normalized models
- PSRs do not work directly with latent variable models

We give examples addressing some issues:

- Working with unnormalized models: NCE and score matching
- Working with latent variable models: variational Bayes and VAE
- Working with unnormalized and latent variable models: VNCE

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  - Noise-contrastive estimation
  - Score matching
- 4 Exercise 1

## Overview

### Noise-contrastive estimation (NCE)

- casts estimation of distribution parameters as supervised learning problem
  - jointly estimates the unknown partition function / normalization constant
  - applies logarithmic PSR to estimate parameters of a binary RV
- 
- T. Hastie, R. Tibshirani & J. Friedman, “The Elements of Statistical Learning”, Sec. 14.2.4
  - M. Gutmann & A. Hyvärinen, “Noise-contrastive estimation: A new estimation principle for unnormalized statistical models”

## Given

- Samples  $\{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$  from unknown data distribution  $p_d$
- Fully known noise distribution  $p_n$  (e.g. multi-variate Gaussian)
  - We can evaluate  $p_n(x)$  for any  $x$  and sample from  $p_n$  easily

Goal: estimate parameters of  $p_\theta$  that models/approximates  $p_d$

Idea:

- Randomly choose  $z \in \{0, 1\}$  whether to draw a sample from  $p_d$  or  $p_n$

$$p_{d,n}(x|z=0) = p_d(x)$$

$$p_{d,n}(x|z=1) = p_n(x)$$

- We use a prior  $p(z)$  on  $z$ : select  $\eta \in (0, 1)$

$$p(z=0) = \eta$$

$$p(z=1) = 1 - \eta$$

Exercise now: what is  $p_{d,n}(z|x)$ ?

# Noise-contrastive estimation

- Recall Bayes' theorem

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

- In our setting

$$p_{d,n}(z|x) = \frac{p_{d,n}(x|z)p(z)}{p_{d,n}(x)}$$

- From the previous slide

$$p_{d,n}(x|z=0) = p_d(x)$$

$$p(z=0) = \eta$$

$$p_{d,n}(x|z=1) = p_n(x)$$

$$p(z=1) = 1 - \eta$$

- Recall law of total probability

$$\begin{aligned} p_{d,n}(x) &= p_{d,n}(x|z=0)p(z=0) + p_{d,n}(x|z=1)p(z=1) \\ &= p_d(x)\eta + p_n(x)(1 - \eta) \end{aligned}$$



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$$p_{d,n}(x) = \eta p_d(x) + (1 - \eta)p_n(x)$$

- Apply Bayes

$$p_{d,n}(z = 0|x) = \frac{p_{d,n}(x|z = 0)p(z = 0)}{p_{d,n}(x)} = \frac{\eta p_d(x)}{\eta p_d(x) + (1 - \eta)p_n(x)}$$

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- We rewrite  $\eta = 1/(1 + \nu)$  (hence  $1 - \eta = \nu/(1 + \nu)$ ) for a  $\nu > 0$

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- Can be unified into (observe that  $z \in \{0, 1\}$ )

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$p_\theta$  has our parameters of interest

- NCE: use logarithmic PSR to align  $p_{\theta,n}$  with  $p_{d,n}$ 
  - We need only samples from  $p_{d,n}(x, z)$
  - Construction of training data  $\{(x_i, z_i)\}$

$$z_i \sim p(z) \qquad x_i \sim \begin{cases} p_d(x) & \text{if } z = 0 \\ p_n(x) & \text{if } z = 1 \end{cases}$$



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- Let  $S$  be any (strictly) PSR
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- Choose  $S(q, z) = \log q(z)$

$$\begin{aligned} J(\theta) &\propto \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_d} \left[ \log \frac{p_\theta(x)}{p_\theta(x) + \nu p_n(x)} \right] + \nu \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_n} \left[ \log \frac{\nu p_n(x)}{p_\theta(x) + \nu p_n(x)} \right] \\ &\approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \log \frac{p_\theta(x_i)}{p_\theta(x_i) + \nu p_n(x_i)} + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{\nu N} \log \frac{\nu p_n(x'_i)}{p_\theta(x'_i) + \nu p_n(x'_i)} \end{aligned}$$

with  $x_i \sim p_d$  and  $x'_i \sim p_n$

- This is noise-contrastive estimation
- Learning distribution parameters by binary classification
  - Classifier distinguishes between real data and noise samples
  - Superficially* similar to GANs
- In practice  $p_n$  should be as close to  $p_d$  as possible
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$$p_d(x) > 0 \implies p_n(x) > 0$$



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$$p_d(x) > 0 \implies p_n(x) > 0$$

- What about unnormalized models?

$$p_{\theta}(x; \theta) = \frac{1}{Z(\theta)} p_{\theta}^0(x; \theta)$$

$Z(\theta) = \int p_{\theta}^0(x; \theta) dx$  is hard to compute

- Solution: add  $Z$  to the set of parameters!
  - In practice add  $c = \log Z$
  - Numerical stability
- Strictly PSR makes sure that

$$c \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow \infty} \log \int p_{\theta}^0(x; \theta^*) dx \quad \text{a.s.}$$

## Discussion

What are pros and cons of NCE?

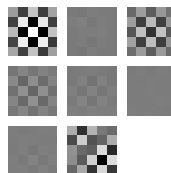
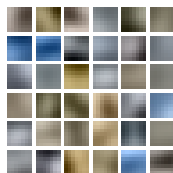
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## Caveats

- Curse of dimensionality
  - In high dimensions you need *many* noise samples to carve out  $p_\theta$
- Interpolation regime
  - Finite sets  $\{x_i\}$  and  $\{x'_i\}$  and overparametrized  $p_\theta$
  - NCE loss can approach zero,  $\theta$  unbounded
- Be careful to model  $p_\theta$  right!
  - You want to model properties of  $p_d$  not of  $p_n$
  - It is easy to have a “good” solution if  $p_\theta$  detects features in (simple) noise

$$\log p_\theta(x) = \sum_k \log(1 + e^{w_k^T x}) \quad \text{okay}$$

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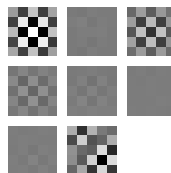
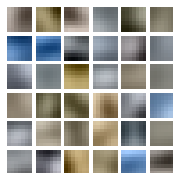
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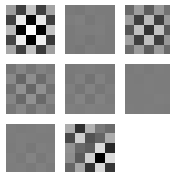
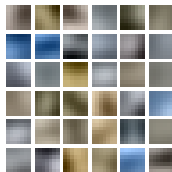
# Noise-contrastive estimation

## Caveats

- Curse of dimensionality
  - In high dimensions you need *many* noise samples to carve out  $p_\theta$
- Interpolation regime
  - Finite sets  $\{x_i\}$  and  $\{x'_i\}$  and overparametrized  $p_\theta$
  - NCE loss can approach zero,  $\theta$  unbounded
- Be careful to model  $p_\theta$  right!
  - You want to model properties of  $p_d$  not of  $p_n$
  - It is easy to have a “good” solution if  $p_\theta$  detects features in (simple) noise

$$\log p_\theta(x) = \sum_k \log(1 + e^{w_k^T x}) \quad \text{okay}$$

$$\log p_\theta(x) = - \sum_k \log(1 + e^{w_k^T x}) \quad \text{bad}$$



## Overview

Conditional NCE (cNCE) is a variant of NCE that

- perturbs the real training data instead of using a separate noise distribution
  - therefore distinguishes between real data and nearby noisy samples
  - is not able to estimate the partition function
- Ceylan & Gutmann, “Conditional Noise-Contrastive Estimation of Unnormalised Models”

- As with NCE, we convert the problem by matching suitable posteriors
- Let  $p_n(x|x')$  be a noise distribution conditioned (dependend) on  $x'$ , e.g.

$$p_n(x|x') = \mathcal{N}(x; x', \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$$

- For given  $z \in \{0, 1\}$  model the conditional probabilities

$$p_d(x, x'|z) = \begin{cases} p_d(x)p_n(x'|x) & \text{if } z = 0 \\ p_d(x')p_n(x|x') & \text{if } z = 1 \end{cases}$$

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- $z \in \{0, 1\}$  determines whether the 1st or the 2nd element in a pair is the clean data
  - Clean data comes from  $p_d$  or  $p_\theta$



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- Recall

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- W.l.o.g. we can assume  $p(z = 0) = p(z = 1) = 1/2$

- The posterior  $p_{\theta}(z|x, x')$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} p_{\theta}(z = 0|x, x') &= \frac{p_{\theta}(x, x'|z = 0)p(z = 0)}{p_{\theta}(x, x'|z = 0)p(z = 0) + p_{\theta}(x, x'|z = 1)p(z = 1)} \\ &= \frac{p_{\theta}(x)p_n(x'|x)}{p_{\theta}(x)p_n(x'|x) + p_{\theta}(x')p_n(x|x')} \\ p_{\theta}(z = 1|x, x') &= \frac{p_{\theta}(x')p_n(x|x')}{p_{\theta}(x)p_n(x'|x) + p_{\theta}(x')p_n(x|x')} \end{aligned}$$

- In this formulation we cannot estimate the partition function as it cancels
  - The posterior is invariant to scaling of  $p_{\theta}$

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- Let  $S$  be a PSR

$$\begin{aligned} J(\theta) &= \mathbb{E}_{(x, x', z) \sim p_d(x, x', z)} [S(p_\theta(z|x, x'), z)] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_d(x), x' \sim p_n(x'|x)} \left[ S \left( \frac{p_\theta(x)p_n(x'|x)}{p_\theta(x)p_n(x'|x) + p_\theta(x')p_n(x|x')}, 0 \right) \right] \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{x' \sim p_d(x), x \sim p_n(x|x')} \left[ S \left( \frac{p_\theta(x')p_n(x|x')}{p_\theta(x)p_n(x'|x) + p_\theta(x')p_n(x|x')}, 1 \right) \right] \end{aligned}$$

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- Relies on symmetry of  $S$ :  $S(q(0), 0) = S(q(1), 1)$ 
  - One can design asymmetric PSRs



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- We are given  $N$  data samples  $\{x_i\}$  and generate  $x'_i \sim p_n(x_i)$
- The sample version of the cNCE objective is

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i [\log p_\theta(x_i) - \log (p_\theta(x_i) + p_\theta(x'_i))]$$

- When is  $J$  large?
  - If  $p_\theta(x) \gg p_\theta(x')$  where  $x$  is real (clean) data and  $x'$  is a perturbed sample
- Conditional NCE aims for  $p_\theta$  ( $\log p_\theta$ ) to be a local maximum at real samples  $x_i$ 
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- 1 Introduction
- 2 Background
- 3 Proper scoring rules**
  - Noise-contrastive estimation
  - Score matching**
- 4 Exercise 1

## Overview

### Score matching

- fits model parameters such that training samples are preferably local maxima of  $\log p_\theta$
  - works with unnormalized models, but does not estimate  $Z$
  - is a non-trivial instance of a local PSR
  - works only for continuous data
- 
- A. Hyvärinen, “Estimation of Non-Normalized Statistical Models by Score Matching”

- Origin of the name
  - $s(\theta) = \nabla_{\theta} f(\theta)$  is called the “score” in statistics
  - Score used here:  $\nabla_x \log p(x)$
- Choice of strictly convex  $F$

$$\begin{aligned} F(q) &= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim q} [ \|\nabla_x \log q(x)\|^2 ] = \frac{1}{2} \int q(x) \|\nabla_x \log q(x)\|^2 dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{\|\nabla_x q(x)\|^2}{q(x)} dx \end{aligned}$$

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- Why is  $F$  convex?

$$F(q) = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{\|\nabla_x q(x)\|^2}{q(x)} dx$$

- $\nabla_x$  is linear operator
- We have quadratic-over-linear terms

$$\frac{\|Ax\|^2}{b^T x}$$

- Convex when  $b^T x > 0$ !
- Extension to  $\{x : b^T x \geq 0\}$  possible
  - Yields constraint  $Ax = 0$  whenever  $b^T x = 0$

- We recall

$$S(q, x) = F(q) + \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x)} - \int \frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x')} q(x') dx'$$

- Main problem: what is

$$\frac{\partial F(q)}{\partial q(x)} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial q(x)} \left( \int q(x') \|\nabla_x \log q(x')\|^2 dx' \right)$$

- Solution 1: calculus of variations
- Solution 2: we guess  $S$  and recover  $F(q) = S(q, q)$

# Score matching

- Use infinite dimensional Hilbert spaces:  $A$  is a linear operator

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int f(x)g(x) dx \qquad \langle Af, g \rangle = \langle f, A^T g \rangle$$

- $A = \nabla$ : integration by parts (related to divergence thm and Green's identities)

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f' g dx = f(x)g(x)|_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} fg' dx$$

Assume  $f(x) \rightarrow 0$  and  $g(x) \rightarrow 0$  for  $\|x\| \rightarrow \infty$

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- Higher dimensions (sum over dimensions)

$$\int \operatorname{div}(f) g dx = \langle \operatorname{div}(f), g \rangle = - \int f^T \nabla g dx = - \langle f, \nabla g \rangle \implies \nabla^T = -\operatorname{div}$$

- $\Delta$  is the Laplace operator

$$\Delta f(x) = \operatorname{div} \nabla f(x) = -\nabla_x^T \nabla f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^d \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_j^2}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} S(q, q) &= \mathbb{E}_{x \sim q} [S(q, x)] = \int q(x) S(q, x) dx \\ &= - \int q(x) \left( \frac{1}{2} \|\nabla_x \log q(x)\|^2 + \Delta \log q(x) \right) dx \\ &= - \int \left( \frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\nabla_x q(x)\|^2}{q(x)} - q(x) \nabla_x^T \nabla_x \log q(x) \right) dx \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} \left\langle \frac{\nabla_x q}{q}, \nabla_x q \right\rangle + \langle q, \nabla_x^T \nabla_x \log q \rangle \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} \left\langle \frac{\nabla_x q}{q}, \nabla_x q \right\rangle + \left\langle \nabla_x q, \frac{\nabla_x q}{q} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{2} \left\langle \nabla_x q, \frac{\nabla_x q}{q} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{\|\nabla_x q(x)\|^2}{q(x)} dx \end{aligned}$$

- Our guess for  $S$

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- Recall PSR

$$S(q, x) = -\frac{1}{2} \|\nabla_x \log q(x)\|^2 - \Delta \log q(x)$$

- Depends only on  $q(x)$  not  $q(x')$  for any  $x' \neq x$ 
  - and 1st and 2nd derivatives of  $q$  at  $x$
  - A local PSR
- $S(q, x) = S(q/c, x)$  for any  $c > 0$ 
  - We cannot directly estimate the partition function of  $q$
  - We can compare likelihood ratio of two points  $q(x)/q(x')$

- For an unknown data distribution  $p_d$  the goal is to minimize

$$J_{SM}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_d} [-S(p_\theta, x)] = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_d} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \|\nabla_x \log p_\theta(x)\|^2 + \Delta \log p_\theta(x) \right]$$

- Given  $N$  training samples  $\{x_i\}$  its sample version is

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_i \left( \frac{1}{2} \|\nabla_x \log p_\theta(x_i)\|^2 + \Delta \log p_\theta(x_i) \right) \rightarrow \min_q$$

- 1st term:  $x_i$  aims to be a critical point of  $\log p_\theta$
- 2nd term:  $x_i$  should be a local maximum of  $\log p_\theta$

- In the original paper, Hyvärinen started from the following objective

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- Matching of scores (in the  $L^2$ -sense)

- Gaussian example ( $\Lambda = \Sigma^{-1} \succ 0$ )

$$\log p_{\theta}(x) = -\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu)^T \Lambda (x - \mu) \quad \nabla_x \log p_{\theta}(x) = -\Lambda(x - \mu)$$
$$\Delta \log p_{\theta}(x) = -\text{trace}(\Lambda) = -\sum_j \Lambda_{jj}$$

- Given  $N$  samples  $\{x_i\}$

$$J(\mu, \Lambda) = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_i \|\Lambda(x_i - \mu)\|^2 - \sum_j \Lambda_{jj}$$
$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \mu} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i \Lambda^2(\mu - x_i) \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$
$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \Lambda} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i \Lambda(\mu - x_i)(\mu - x_i)^T - \mathbf{I} \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

- Yields exactly the MLE

$$\mu = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i x_i \quad \Lambda^{-1} = \Sigma = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i (\mu - x_i)(\mu - x_i)^T$$

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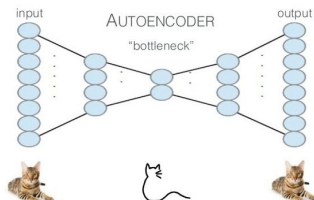
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## A connection with auto-encoders

- “An auto-encoder reconstructs the input, which is going through a bottleneck layer”
- Unsupervised feature learning approach



## Formal justification? (Probabilistic) interpretation?

- Score matching
  - Vincent, “A Connection Between Score Matching and Denoising Autoencoders”
  - Swersky et al, “On autoencoders and score matching for energy based models”
  - Kamyshanska & Memisevic, “The potential energy of an autoencoder”
- Variational Bayes
  - Discussed later

# Score matching

- Let  $S$  be a non-negative function (e.g.  $S(z) = \log(1 + \exp(z))$ )

$$\log p(x) = -\frac{1}{2} \|x\|^2 + \sum_k S(w_k^T x) \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

- Now

$$\nabla_x \log p(x) = \sum_k w_k s(w_k^T x) - x \quad s(z) = S'(z)$$

$$\Delta \log p(x) = \sum_k \text{trace}(w_k w_k^T s'(w_k^T x)) - d = \sum_k \|w_k\|^2 s'(w_k^T x) - d$$

- Insert into score matching objective

$$\begin{aligned} J(W) &= \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_d} \left[ \left\| x - \sum_k w_k s(w_k^T x) \right\|^2 + \sum_k \|w_k\|^2 s'(w_k^T x) \right] - d \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_d} \left[ \underbrace{\left\| x - W s(W^T x) \right\|^2}_{\text{reconstruction error / auto-encoder loss}} + \underbrace{\sum_k \|w_k\|^2 s'(w_k^T x)}_{\text{regularization}} \right] - d \end{aligned}$$

- $W s(W^T x)$  is a 1-layer AE with  $s$  as its non-linear activation function



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- 1 Introduction
- 2 Background
- 3 Proper scoring rules
  - Noise-contrastive estimation
  - Score matching
- 4 Exercise 1

## Example: fitting Gaussians

- Multi-variate Gaussian distribution in  $D$  dimensions

$$p(x; \mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^D |\Sigma|}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)}$$

- When is maximum likelihood estimation easy?
  - $\Sigma$  is unconstrained
  - $\Sigma$  is block-diagonal (why?)
- Precision matrix  $\Lambda := \Sigma^{-1}$
- What if components are known to be conditionally independent?
  - If  $x_i$  and  $x_j$  are conditionally independent, then  $\Lambda_{ij} = \Lambda_{ji} = 0$
  - Enforce non-zero pattern on  $\Lambda$
- Constraints on  $\Sigma = \Lambda^{-1}$ ?
  - In general  $NZ(\Sigma) \neq NZ(\Lambda)$
  - Exception: block-diagonal  $\Sigma$

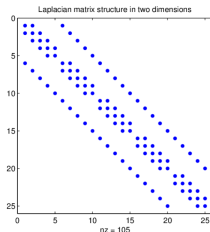
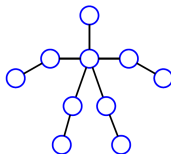
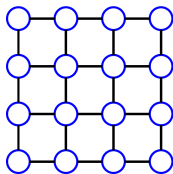
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### Discussion

- When are components of a Gaussian random vector conditionally independent?
- Are there other benefits in high dimensions?



# Exercise 1: fitting Gaussians to MNIST patches

## Exercise

MNIST dataset: <http://yann.lecun.com/exdb/mnist/>

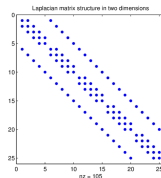
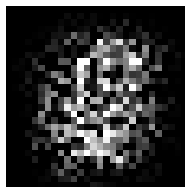
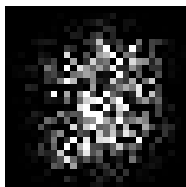
- Convert 8-bit data to  $[0, 1]$  range and add per-pixel Gaussian noise  $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1/100)$
- Model images patches as Gaussian

$$p_{\theta}(x) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Lambda (x-\mu)}$$

- Subtract the empirical mean, leading to

$$p_{\theta}(x) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^T \Lambda x}$$

- $\Lambda$  has 2D Laplacian structure: 4-connected neighboring pixels are correlated



Left: samples from a Gaussian with diagonal  $\Lambda$ . Right: 2D Laplacian NZ structure

# Exercise 1: fitting Gaussians to MNIST patches

## Exercise

MNIST dataset: <http://yann.lecun.com/exdb/mnist/>

- Estimate  $\Lambda$  via
  - NCE (explain your choice of  $p_n(x')$ )
  - cNCE (explain your choice of  $p_n(x'|x)$ ) or score matching (coin flip)
- Use SGD (or RMSProp or ADAM) for gradient-based optimization
- Visualize samples from  $p_\theta$  (with  $\mathbf{A} = \Lambda^{-1/2} = \Sigma^{1/2}$ )

$$x' \leftarrow \mu + \mathbf{A}\varepsilon \quad \varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$$

- NCE: how close is the estimate of  $\log Z$  to  $\frac{D}{2} \log(2\pi) + \frac{1}{2} \log |\Sigma|$ ? ( $D = 28^2$ )
- Bonus exercise: rerun with 8-connected neighborhood assumption