

Koç University

COMP547 Deep Unsupervised Learning

Lecture Notes*

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10.1 Autoregressive models

Start with a reminder that some autoregressive models that we have seen so far are PixelRNN, PixelCNN, PixelCNN++ and PixelSNAIL. As an overview, first remember the Masked Autoencoder Distribution Estimation MADE(2015) approach. MADE creates an autoencoder where the latent space logits will give you the conditional probabilities of each input and the product of them will give you the joint probability of all inputs as seen in Fig.1a. Then, we have seen PixelRNN/CNN(2016) approach as in Fig.1b where a pixel's probability is conditioned on previous surrounding pixels and these surrounding is determined by a kernel with binary mask. Hence this is a convolutional approach to masked autoencoders. This simplifies the design of the masked autoencoder approach to pictures and add efficiency. Shortcoming of this model, namely blind spots, is dealt with by using two different stacks as in the Fig.1b. Yet, another autoregressive model WaveNet(2016) has come for speech recognition Fig.1c. Here, by 1D kernel/mask and appropriate dilation, output sees many previous input in an effective manner. Moreover, PixelCNN idea is extended to video generation process as in Video Pixel Networks (2017) Fig.1d. We also saw Subscale Pixel Networks (2018), which generates picture in smaller resolution or in smaller scale then by conditioning on these pixels continue to generate pixels between them. We also mentioned Hierarchical Autoregressive Image Models with Auxiliary Decoders (2019) and Scaling Autoregressive Video Models (2020). Note that Autoregressive models are mostly used in language models from the start. Please check OpenAI GPT-3.

Basically, in autoregressive models, you get the logits of the data by a network coming from the input like models in Fig.1. Then you find the probabilities by softmax or some probability function and train them by using cross entropy or maximum likelihood loss respectively. Check the simple equations Eq.1. Note that in the second equation, you have an ordering.

$$\begin{aligned} \log p_{\theta}(x) &= \sum_{i=1}^d \log p_{\theta}(x_i | \text{parents}(x_i)) \\ \log p_{\theta}(x) &= \sum_{i=1}^d \log p_{\theta}(x_i | x_{1:i-1}) \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Huge advances of these models due to:

- Larger batch sizes
- More hidden units
- More layers (Note that GPT-3 has 175 billion parameters)
- Clever ways to condition on auxiliary variables (e.g. Subscale Pixel Networks)
- Preprocessing
- Computer power
- Several days / weeks of training
- Fewer assumptions

*Instructions borrowed from Andreas Geiger from his notes for his Deep Learning class.

- Architectural advances

Masked / Causal Convolutions

Dilated Convolutions

Transformers

- Loss functions

Relying heavily on well-behaved cross-entropy loss. However, for example for images, there can be mixture of logits to enforce some sort of similarity of color values which are close to each other.

Drawbacks of these models:

- You can not see the models intuition about the data in any layer. This is a downside for the representation learning point of view
- Sampling is still quite slow.
- You can not use your weights for downstream tasks. (This is mostly for visual domain, for example GPT-3 could be used for many downstream tasks even without any fine tuning.)
- No interpolations.

Please check the lecture slides for possible future directions of autoregressive models.

10.2 Flow models

As a reminder, some flow models that we saw earlier are NICE(2014), RealNVP(2016), Autoregressive Flows, Inverse Autoregressive Flows, Glow(2018) and Flow++(2019). See the Fig.2 that perfectly shows the spirit of the Flow models. Here, we do not know the true distribution of the data, for that reason, we take a latent space distribution which is accessible to us e.g. Uniform distribution. Then we generate a reversible mapping from data space to latent space and we learn this mapping variables to use it to generate the data with reverse mapping. We can simply write the equations of this kind of transformation as an example. Let x_1 and x_2 are two dimensional data coming from a mixture of gaussians $x_i \sim \sum_{j=1}^5 \pi_j \mathcal{N}(\mu_j, \sigma_j)$ and we want to learn these parameters to sample new data. Here the latent space Z is in uniform distribution and we can simply go there by cumulative distribution function CDF. To adjust the volume between these two random variables as transforming one to another we will need $\left| \det\left(\frac{dz_i}{dx_i}\right) \right|$ multiplication. Note that derivative of CDF will give the probability density function PDF. Here, you get log likelihood of x_1 and you get the probability variables of x_2 conditioned on x_1 by using multi later perceptron MLP transfer. See equations Eg.2 and notice that you'll maximize log likelihood of joint probability of x_1 and x_2 .

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(x_1) &= \sum_{j=1}^5 \pi_{1j} \mathcal{N}(\mu_{1j}, \sigma_{1j}) \\
 z_1 &= f_1(x_1) = CDF(x_1), \quad z_1 \sim U[0, 1] \\
 \log p_{\theta}(x_1) &= \log p_{z_1}(z_1) + \log \left| \det\left(\frac{dz_1}{dx_1}\right) \right| \\
 \log p_{\mu_1, \sigma_1}(x_1) &= \log U(z_1) + \log PDF(x_1) \\
 \log p_{\mu_1, \sigma_1}(x_1) &= \log U(z_1) + \log p(x_1) \\
 \mu_{x_2}, \sigma_{x_2}, \pi_{x_2} &\sim MLP(x_1) \\
 p(z_2; x_1, x_2) &= f_2(x_2; x_1) = CDF(x_2; \mu_{x_2}(x_1), \sigma_{x_2}(x_1), \pi_{x_2}(x_1)) = CDF\left(\sum_{j=1}^5 \pi_{2j} \mathcal{N}(\mu_{2j}, \sigma_{2j})\right) \\
 \log p_{\mu_2, \sigma_2}(x_2; x_1) &= \log U(z_2; x_1, x_2) + \log p(x_2; x_1) \\
 \log p(x_1, x_2) &= \log p(x_1) + \log p(x_2; x_1) \\
 \mathcal{J} &= -\frac{1}{batch\ size} \sum_{k=1}^{batch\ size} \log p(x_1^k, x_2^k)
 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

Note that, when this is for pictures, you can take previous pixels as PixelCNN and by conditioned on them you can create mixture of gaussians parameters of current pixel. Then use this for maximizing likelihood of that pixel.

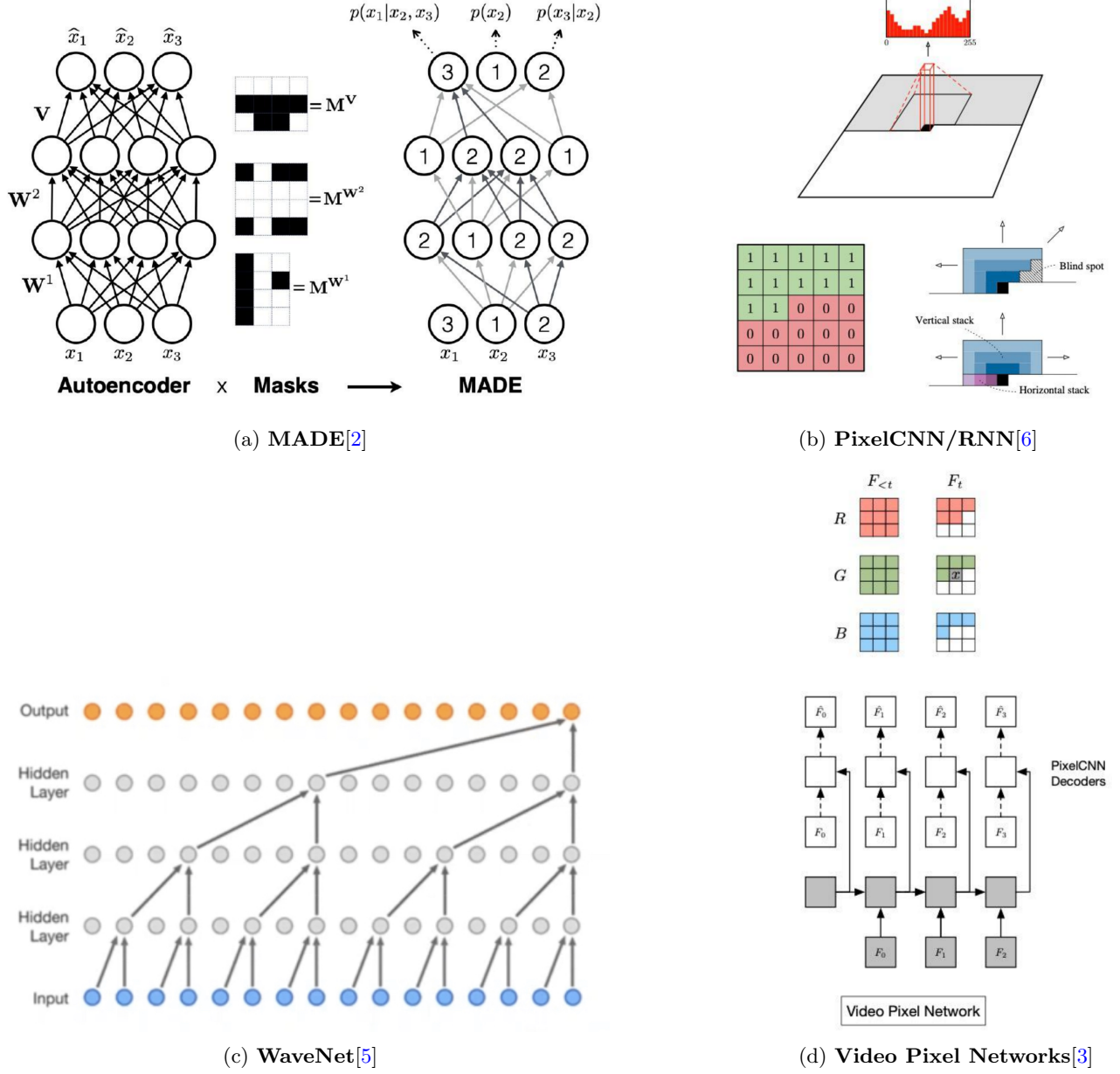


Figure 1: Autoregressive Models

Let's look closer to RealNVP (Non Volume Preserving flow, 2016) model. Please see Equations Eg.3 for 2D data. Note that, when this is for pictures, you can use the checkerboard approach to condition one pixel on to next/previous one. See Fig.3b

$$\begin{aligned}
 z_i &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \\
 z_1 &= x_1 \\
 \log \text{Sigma} &= \text{scalePar} * \tanh(\log \text{Sigma}(\text{MLP}(x_1))) + \text{scaleShiftPar} \\
 z_2 &= \exp(\log \text{Sigma}) * x_2 + \mu(\text{MLP}(x_1)) \\
 \text{same for } z_2 = x_2 \text{ and reverses (for sampling)} \\
 \frac{dz}{dx} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \mu(\text{MLP}(X_1))' & \exp(\log \text{Sigma}) \end{bmatrix} \\
 (z_1, z_2) &= (f_{\theta, x_1} \circ f_{\theta, x_2} \circ f_{\theta, x_1} \circ f_{\theta, x_2} \circ f_{\theta, x_1} \circ f_{\theta, x_2} \circ f_{\theta, x_1} \circ f_{\theta, x_2}) \text{ composition of MLP's} \\
 \log p_\theta(x) &= \log p(z) + \log \left| \det \left(\frac{dz}{dx} \right) \right| \text{ remember for composition } \det(A\dot{B}) = \det(A)\det(B)
 \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

Advantage of the flow models:

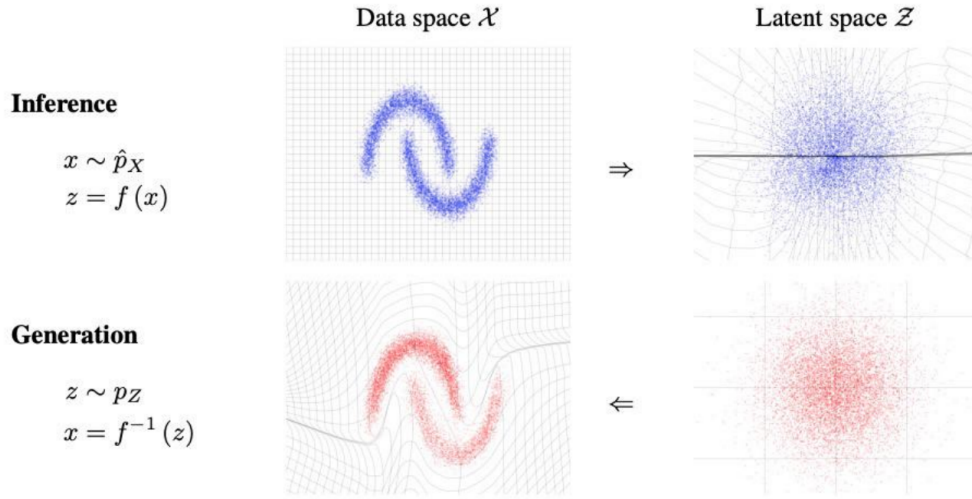


Figure 2: Flow Models[1]

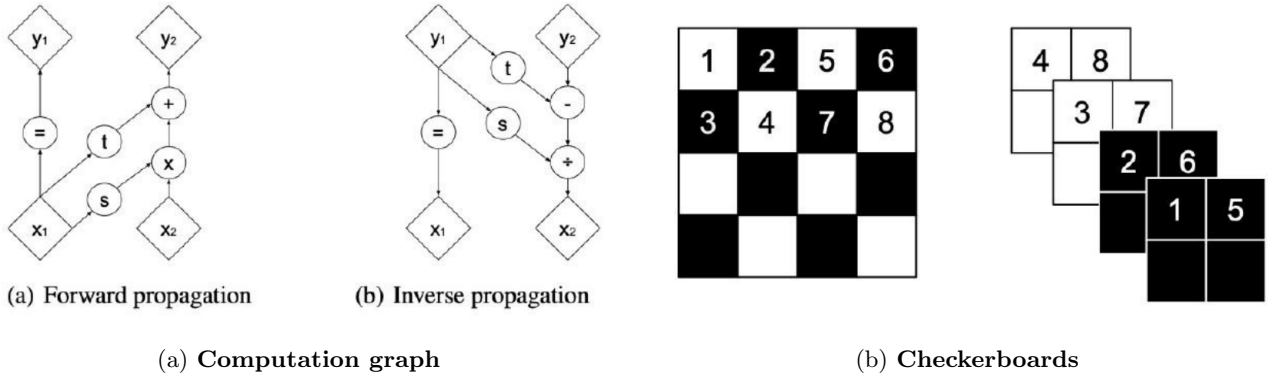


Figure 3: RealNVP[1]

- Very stable training process and containing fixed set of engineering practices.

Drawbacks of these modes:

- Latent space dimension is as big as the input space, which makes the model bigger by growing input dimension.
- Needs careful initialization (not really a negative)

For the possible future improvements of the flow models, please check the lecture slides.

10.3 Latent Variable Models

In latent variable models, we basically assume that we have a latent space z , which could generate our data. See Fig.4a. This latent space dimension can be much less than the input space dimension. Moreover, there will be meaningful directions in this latent space that you can generate different samples between two generated samples by interpolation. See Fig.4b

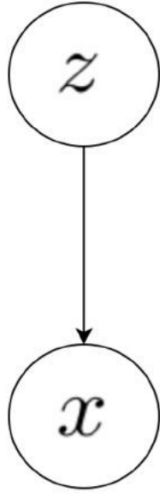
To understand the model calculations, let us have 2D data like Fig.5. Now, let's write the legitimate calculations to train this model as simple VAE.

- After MLP from input space to latent space (encoder step):

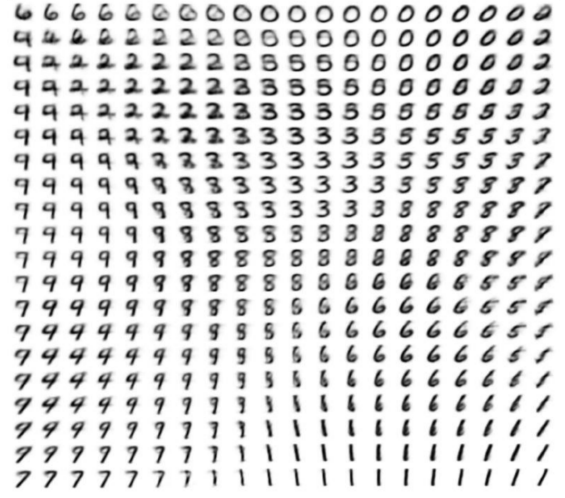
$$[x_1, x_2] \rightarrow [\mu_{z_1}, \mu_{z_2}, \sigma_{z_1}, \sigma_{z_2}]$$

- Then sample from standard normal : ϵ_1, ϵ_2

$$[z_1, z_2] = [\sigma_{z_1}\epsilon_1 + \mu_{z_1}, \sigma_{z_2}\epsilon_2 + \mu_{z_2}]$$



(a) Basically latent variable models



Auto-Encoding Variational Bayes
(Kingma 2013)

(b) Interpolations[4]

Figure 4: Latent Variable Models

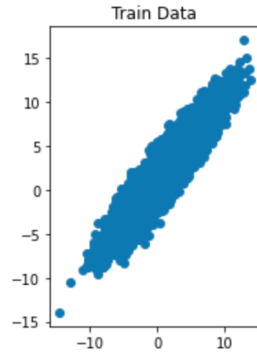


Figure 5: 2D train data (from hw 3)

- After MLP from latent space to input space for reconstruction (decoder step):

$$[z_1, z_2] \rightarrow [\mu_{x_1}, \mu_{x_2}, \sigma_{x_1}, \sigma_{x_2}]$$

- (same for x_1, x_2) Find reconstruction loss:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{x_1} \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z_1|x_1)} [-\log p_\theta(x_1|z_1)] &= \mathbb{E}_{x_1} \left[-\log \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_{x_1}} e^{-\frac{(x_1 - \mu_{x_1})^2}{2\sigma_{x_1}^2}} \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{\#batch} \sum_{x_1} \left(\frac{\log(2\pi)}{2} + \log \sigma_{x_1} + \frac{(x_1 - \mu_{x_1})^2}{2\sigma_{x_1}^2} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

- (same for x_1, x_2) Find KL (regularization) term for ELBO:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}_{x_1} KL(q_\phi(z_1|x_1)||p(z_1)) &= \mathbb{E}_{x_1} \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z_1|x_1)} \left[\log \frac{q_\phi(z_1|x_1)}{p(z_1)} \right] = \mathbb{E}_{x_1} \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z_1|x_1)} \left[\log \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_{z_1}} e^{-\frac{(z_1-\mu_{z_1})^2}{2\sigma_{z_1}^2}}}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{z_1^2}{2}}} \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{x_1} \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z_1|x_1)} \left[\log \frac{e^{\frac{z_1^2}{2} - \frac{(z_1-\mu_{z_1})^2}{2\sigma_{z_1}^2}}}{\sigma_{z_1}} \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{x_1} \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z_1|x_1)} \left[-\log \sigma_{z_1} + \frac{z_1^2}{2} - \frac{(z_1-\mu_{z_1})^2}{2\sigma_{z_1}^2} \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{x_1} \left[-\log \sigma_{z_1} + \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z_1|x_1)} \left[\frac{z_1^2}{2} \right] - \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z_1|x_1)} \left[\frac{(z_1-\mu_{z_1})^2}{2\sigma_{z_1}^2} \right] \right] \tag{5} \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{x_1} \left[-\log \sigma_{z_1} + \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z_1|x_1)} \left[\frac{(z_1-\mu_{z_1}+\mu_{z_1})^2}{2} \right] - \frac{1}{2} \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{x_1} \left[-\log \sigma_{z_1} + \mathbb{E}_{q_\phi(z_1|x_1)} \left[\frac{(z_1-\mu_{z_1})^2 + (\mu_{z_1})^2}{2} + z_1\mu_{z_1} - \mu_{z_1}^2 \right] - \frac{1}{2} \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{x_1} \left[-\log \sigma_{z_1} + \frac{\sigma_{z_1}^2}{2} + \frac{\mu_{z_1}^2}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{\#batch} \sum_{x_1} \left(-\log \sigma_{z_1} + \frac{\sigma_{z_1}^2}{2} + \frac{\mu_{z_1}^2}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

- Sampling:

$$[z_1, z_2] \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \text{ then } \text{decoder}[z_1, z_2] \rightarrow \text{use } [\mu_{x_1}, \mu_{x_2}] = [x_1, x_2]_{\text{sample}}$$

or by adding standart gaussian noise ϵ_1, ϵ_2 ,

$$[z_1, z_2] \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \text{ then } \text{decoder}[z_1, z_2] \rightarrow \text{use } [\sigma_{x_1}\epsilon_1 + \mu_{x_1}, \sigma_{x_2}\epsilon_2 + \mu_{x_2}] = [x_1, x_2]_{\text{sample}}$$

Note that, when it is for, say 32x32 images, computations are as follows;
Let latent space dim is 16. Inputs are 32x32 images.

- After some CONV2D layers, encoder outputs:

$$x \rightarrow [\mu_{z_1} \dots \mu_{z_{16}}, \sigma_{z_1} \dots \sigma_{z_{16}}]$$

- Then sample from standart normal : $\epsilon_1 \dots \epsilon_{16}$

$$z = [\sigma_{z_1}\epsilon_1 + \mu_{z_1}, \dots, \sigma_{z_{16}}\epsilon_{16} + \mu_{z_{16}}]$$

- After some TRANSPOSE_CONV2D layers (decoder step):

$$z \rightarrow \text{reconstruction}(x)$$

- Find reconstraction MSE loss:

$$MSE(x, \text{reconstruction}(x))$$

- Find KL (regularization) term for ELBO:

Eq.5

- Sampling:

$$[z_1, \dots, z_{16}] \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \text{ then } \text{decoder}(z) \rightarrow x_{\text{sample}}$$

Finally note that, we mentioned PixelVAE(2016), Bidirectional-Inference Variational Autoencoder BIVA (2019), VQ-VAE (2017), VQ-VAE 2.0 (2019) in our lectures. Moreover, you may want to check the well known VAE applications like Sketch-RNN(2017), World Models(2018), β -VAE(2017), SCAN:Learning Hierarchical Compositional Visual Concepts Model(2017) which uses β -VAE with additional text input and Generative Query Networks(2018).

Advantages of VAEs:

- In the latent space there is a lower dimensional and intuitive understanding of the data
- Model also gives the likelihood of the data, which is an advantage over the GANs.
- Interpolations in the latent space give the clues about the learned features by the latent space.
- Especially β -VAE model learns the disentangled representations of distinct features of the data.
- You will have all Generative Model and Density Model and also Latent Variables and Dimensionality Reduction

Drawbacks of these models:

- Blurry samples
- Just relying on Gaussian distribution in the latent space may be too limiting.
- Not much success on large scale is still on-going work
- Disentanglement relying on KL term is not satisfactory yet and could be done just on relatively toy domains
- Although it gives everything in one model, it is not the best in any of them, like samples, representations, density estimations or interpolation.

For possible future advances in VAEs, please check the lecture slides.

10.4 Implicit models

Namely GANs, Generative Adversarial Networks. The basic difference of GANs is, they do not have explicitly written probability function. First paper came in 2014, original starter of GANs. Then DCGAN(2015), StyleGAN(2019), BigGAN(2019) and VQGAN(2020). Through these years sample quality increased very much. To understand the basic structure of GANs, please see the Fig.6¹ Then follow the following equations. Here D stands for Discriminator and G for Generator. Remember that, training procedure tries to maximize the discriminator accuracy while generator tries to fool it. Let's have one dim data x.

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_G \max_D \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}} [\log D(x)] + \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)} [\log(1 - D(G(z)))] \\ \Rightarrow & \min_G \max_D \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}} [\log \sigma(MLP_D(x))] + \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)} [\log(1 - \sigma(MLP_D(MLP_G(z))))] ; \quad \sigma : \text{sigmoid} \end{aligned}$$

Take batch x and generate fake data with $MLP_G(z)$ where $z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize by } (-\text{discriminator}) \text{ (n times)} \\ - > & -\frac{1}{\#batch} \sum_x \log \sigma(MLP_D(x)) - \frac{1}{\#batch} \sum_z \log(1 - \sigma(MLP_D(MLP_G(z)))) \end{aligned}$$

Generate fake data with $MLP_G(z)$ where $z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ again

$$\text{minimize by generator} - > \frac{1}{\#batch} \sum_z \log(1 - \sigma(MLP_D(MLP_G(z))))$$

Advantages of GANs:

- Amazing samples
- Need less computer power
- More easy to train compared to others to get good samples
- Powerful interpolation and conditional generation

Drawbacks of GANs:

¹https://developers.google.com/machine-learning/gan/gan_structure

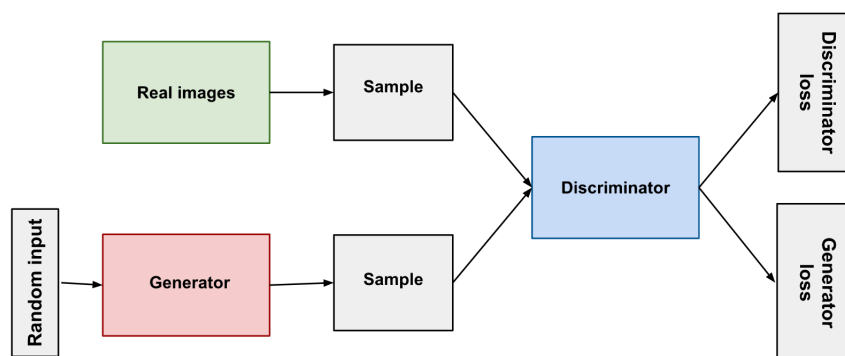


Figure 6: **Gan Structure**

- Plenty of varying engineering tricks and details
- No clear theoretical background yet
- Although there are some ablation studies, it is hard to know which pieces are helping most to these impressive results
- Ablations for large scale datasets are time-consuming
- Unconditional GANs - not capturing all sample diversity (or mode dropping behavior)
- Evaluation metrics can't capture real generalization capacity

For possible future directions of GANs, please revisit the lecture slides.

References

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