Deep Generative Models Background

Fall Semester 2025

René Vidal

Director of the Center for Innovation in Data Engineering and Science (IDEAS),
Rachleff University Professor, University of Pennsylvania
Amazon Scholar & Chief Scientist at NORCE



Outline

- Basics of Probability, Statistics, Information Theory
 - Discrete and Continuous Distributions, Independence
 - Marginals, Conditionals, Product Rule, Bayes Rule & Examples for Gaussians
 - Expectations, Covariance, Entropy, KL Divergence, Mutual Information
- Generative vs Discriminative Models
- Learning Generative Models
 - Learning Criterion: Maximum Likelihood Estimation
 - Learning Algorithm: Stochastic Gradient Descent
- Classes of Generative Models
 - Gaussian Models: Closed form Solution
 - General Models: Need for Structure
 - Taxonomy of Models
 - Latent variable models, Autoregressive models, Energy based models

Review of Probability and Statistics

- Data $x \in \mathcal{X}$ follows some data distribution $x \sim p_{\theta}(x)$ with parameter θ .
 - Properties: $p_{\theta}(x) \ge 0$ (non-negativity), $\int p_{\theta}(x) dx = 1$ (add up to 1)
- Continuous case: $x \in \mathbb{R}^D$, $p_{\theta}(x)$ is a probability density function.
 - E.g., Gaussian distribution: $x \sim \mathcal{N}(x \mid \mu, \Sigma)$, $\theta = (\mu, \Sigma)$, $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^D$, $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$, $\Sigma \geqslant 0$

$$p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = (2\pi)^{-\frac{D}{2}} \det(\Sigma)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

- Discrete case: $x \in \{x_1, ..., x_K\}$, $p_{\theta}(x)$ is a probability mass function.
 - E.g., Categorical distribution: $x \sim Cat(x \mid \pi)$, $\theta = \pi$, $\pi_k \geq 0$, $\sum_k \pi_k = 1$

$$p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_k) = \pi_k$$

• Independence: x and y are independent if and only if p(x, y) = p(x)p(y).

Marginals, Conditionals, Product Rule, Bayes Rule

Marginal distribution

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \int p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y}$$

• Discrete case:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{y}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$$

Conditional distribution

$$p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{p(\mathbf{x})}$$

Product rule

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = p(\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{y})p(\mathbf{y}) = p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x})$$

Bayes rule

$$p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{y})p(\mathbf{y})}{p(\mathbf{x})}$$

Example: Marginal and Conditional for a Gaussian

• Assume $x \sim \mathcal{N}(x \mid \mu, \Sigma)$, where

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_a \\ \mathbf{x}_b \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \mathbf{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\mu}_a \\ \mathbf{\mu}_b \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \mathbf{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\Sigma}_a & \mathbf{\Sigma}_{ab} \\ \mathbf{\Sigma}_{ab}^{\mathsf{T}} & \mathbf{\Sigma}_b \end{bmatrix}$$

• Then, we get the following results

$$p(\mathbf{x}_a) = \mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_a \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}_a, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_a),$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}_a \mid \mathbf{x}_b) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_a \mid \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_a, \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_a),$$

where

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{a} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_{a} + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ab} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{b}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{x}_{b} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{b})$$

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{a} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{a} - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ab} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{b}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ab}^{\top}$$

Warm-up exercise -> HW1

Example: Marginal for a Mixture of Gaussians

- Assume $y \sim Cat(y \mid \pi), y \in \{1, ..., K\}.$
- Assume $x \mid y \sim \mathcal{N}(x \mid \mu_y, \Sigma_y)$.
- Then, x is a mixture of Gaussians

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{y}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{\mathbf{y}} p(\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{y}) p(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{y} = k) p(\mathbf{y} = k)$$

Marginalization

Product rule

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{K} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}) \pi_{k}$$

Expectations and Covariance

Expectation

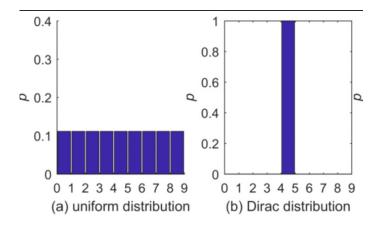
- Continuous case: $\mu_x = \mathbb{E}[x] = \int x \, p(x) dx$
- Discrete case: $\mu_x = \mathbb{E}[x] = \sum_k x_k p(x = x_k)$

Covariance

- Continuous case:
 - $\Sigma_x = \mathbb{V}[x] = \int (x \mu_x)(x \mu_x)^\top p(x) dx$
 - $\Sigma_{xy} = Cov[x, y] = \int (x \mu_x) (y \mu_y)^{\mathsf{T}} p(x, y) dx dy$
- Discrete case:
 - $\Sigma_x = \mathbb{V}[x] = \sum_k (x_k \mu_x)(x_k \mu_x)^\top p(x = x_k)$
 - $\Sigma_{xy} = Cov[x, y] = \sum_{k} (x_k \mu_x) (y_k \mu_y)^{\mathsf{T}}$

Entropy and Conditional Entropy

- Entropy of a random variable x
 - It captures how much "uncertainty" is present in x.
 - Definition: $H(x) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p(x)}[-\log p(x)]$
 - Continuous: $H(x) = -\int_x \log(p(x)) p(x) dx$
 - Discrete: $H(x) = -\sum_k \log(\pi_k) \pi_k$ where $\pi_k = P(x = k)$



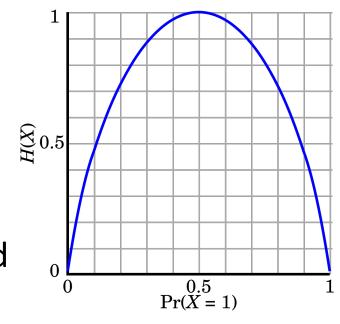
High entropy

Low entropy

• Examples:

• Uniform:
$$\pi_k = \frac{1}{K} \Rightarrow H(x) = -\sum_k \log(\frac{1}{K}) \frac{1}{K} = -\log(\frac{1}{K})$$

- Bernoulli: $\pi_1 = q \Rightarrow H(x) = -q \log q (1 q) \log(1 q)$
- Conditional entropy: uncertainty of $oldsymbol{x}$ when $oldsymbol{y}$ is observed
 - $H(\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{y}) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \sim p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})} [-\log p(\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{y})]$



Entropy of a Bernoulli variable

Kullback-Leibler Divergence and Mutual Information

• KL divergence measures the similarity between two distributions p, q

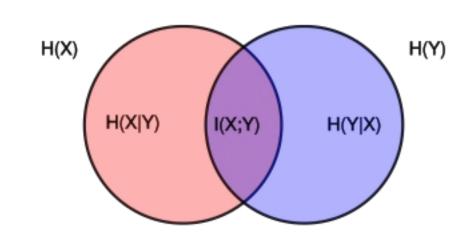
$$KL[p \mid\mid q] = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p} \left[\log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \right]$$

- Non-negativity $KL[p \mid\mid q] \geq 0$. Equality holds iff p = q.
- In general triangle inequality and symmetry does not hold.
- Mutual Information measures the mutual dependence between $oldsymbol{x}$ and $oldsymbol{y}$

$$I(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{y}) = KL[p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \mid\mid p(\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{y})] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \sim p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})} \left[\log \left(\frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{p(\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{y})} \right) \right]$$

- If x, y are independent, then I(x; y) = 0.
- I(x, y) measures the uncertainty in x after observing y.

$$I(x; y) = H(x) - H(x | y) = H(y) - H(y | x)$$

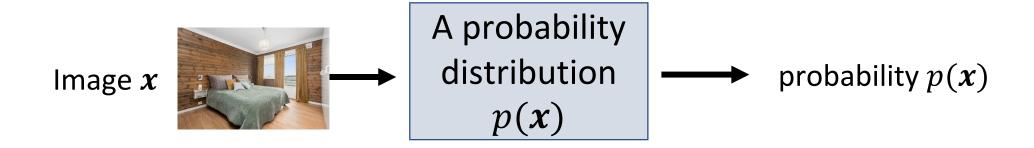


Outline

- Basics of Probability, Statistics, Information Theory
 - Discrete and Continuous Distributions, Independence
 - Marginals, Conditionals, Product Rule, Bayes Rule & Examples for Gaussians
 - Expectations, Covariance, Entropy, KL Divergence, Mutual Information
- Generative vs Discriminative Models
- Learning Generative Models
 - Learning Criterion: Maximum Likelihood Estimation
 - Learning Algorithm: Stochastic Gradient Descent
- Classes of Generative Models
 - Gaussian Models: Closed form Solution
 - General Models: Need for Structure
 - Taxonomy of Models
 - Latent variable models, Autoregressive models, Energy based models

Statistical Generative Models

• A statistical generative model is a probability distribution p(x)



• It is generative because sampling from p(x) generates new images





Discriminative vs. Generative Models

Discriminative: classify bedroom vs. dining room







$$P(y = Bedroom | x = 0.0001)$$



$$) = 0.0001$$

Ex: logistic regression, convolutional net, etc.

Generative: generate X

$$y = B$$
, $x =$



$$y = D, x = 1$$



$$y = B$$
, $x =$



$$y = D, x =$$



$$y = B, x =$$
 $y = D, x =$



$$y = D, x =$$



The input x is **not** given. Requires a model of the joint distribution over both x and y

$$P(y = Bedroom, x =$$



Discriminative vs. Generative

Joint and conditional are related via Bayes Rule:

$$P(y = Bedroom \mid x =$$
 $) = P(y = Bedroom , x =$ $)$

Discriminative: y is simple; x is always given, so not need to model

Therefore, a disc. model cannot handle missing data $P(y = Bedroom \mid x =$



Conditional Generative Models

Class conditional generative models are also possible:

$$P(x = | y = Bedroom)$$

It's often useful to condition on rich side information Y

$$P(x = | A | Caption = A | Ca$$

A discriminative model is a very simple conditional generative model of y:

$$P(y = Bedroom | x =$$
)

Why Generative Models?

 Al Is Not Only About Decision Making

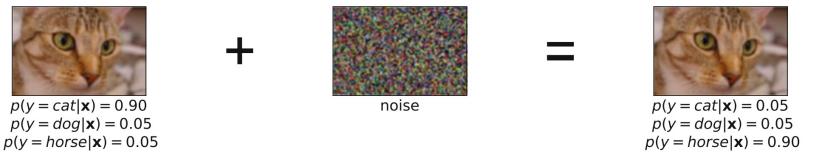


Fig. 1.1 An example of adding noise to an almost perfectly classified image that results in a shift of predicted label

 Importance of uncertainty and understanding in decision making

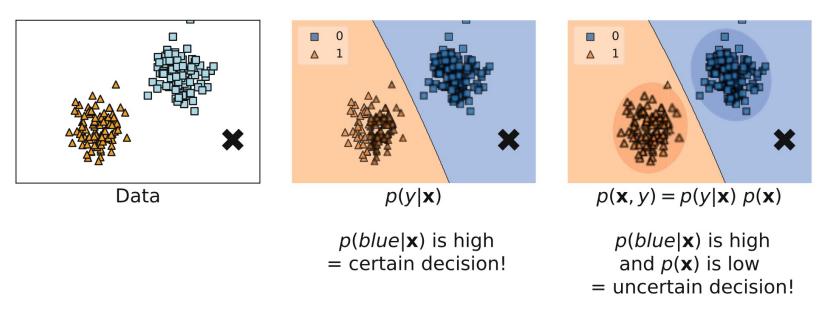


Fig. 1.2 And example of data (*left*) and two approaches to decision making: (*middle*) a discriminative approach and (*right*) a generative approach

Outline

- Basics of Probability, Statistics, Information Theory
 - Discrete and Continuous Distributions, Independence
 - Marginals, Conditionals & Example for a Gaussian
 - Entropy, Mutual Information, KL Divergence
- Generative vs Discriminative Models
- Learning Generative Models
 - Learning Criterion: Maximum Likelihood Estimation
 - Learning Algorithm: Stochastic Gradient Descent
- Classes of Generative Models
 - Gaussian Models: Closed form Solution
 - General Models: Need for Structure
 - Taxonomy of Models
 - Latent variable models, Autoregressive models, Energy based models

Learning Generative Models

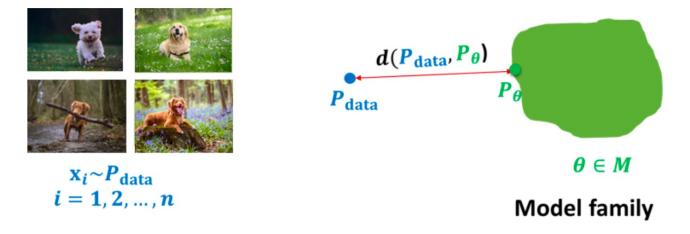
• We are given a training set of examples, e.g., images of dogs



- We want to learn a probability distribution p(x) over images x to allow for
 - Generation: If we sample $x_{\text{new}} \sim p(x)$, x_{new} should look like a dog (sampling)
 - **Density estimation**: p(x) should be high if x looks like a dog, and low otherwise (anomaly detection)
 - Unsupervised representation learning: We should be able to learn what these images have in common, e.g., ears, tail, etc. (features)

Learning Generative Models

• We are given a training set of examples, e.g., images of dogs



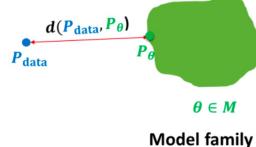
- What learning criterion should we use?
- What optimization algorithm should we use?
- What classes of models should we learn?

Learning Criterion: Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- Given: a dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{x_1, ..., x_N\}$ of i.i.d. samples from the unknown data distribution $p_{\text{data}}(x)$
- Goal: learn a distribution $p_{\theta}(x)$ parameterized by θ that is as close to $p_{\text{data}}(x)$







- Taking d as the KL divergence introduced before: $\min_{\theta} KL[p_{\text{data}}(x) \mid\mid p_{\theta}(x)]$
- Since $KL[p_{\text{data}}(x) \mid\mid p_{\theta}(x)] = E_{x \sim p_{\text{data}}} \left[\log \frac{p_{\text{data}}(x)}{p_{\theta}(x)} \right]$ and we optimize over θ , the above problem is equivalent to

$$\max_{\theta} E_{x \sim p_{\text{data}}} [\log p_{\theta}(x)]$$

• As we do not know the true distribution $p_{\rm data}(x)$ and only have samples ${\mathcal D}$ from it, we can replace the above objective with an unbiased estimate of it

$$\max_{\theta} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p_{\theta}(x_i)$$

This is the classic Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) principle!

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

- Likelihood is expressed as the joint distribution over all samples
- And by our i.i.d. assumption

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

Taking the log, we can rewrite

$$\ell(\theta) = \log(\mathcal{L}(\theta)) = \log\left(\prod_{i=1}^{N} p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_i)\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

• The maximum likelihood estimator is the parameters that maximizes $\ell(\theta)$, i.e.

$$\hat{\theta}_{ML} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

Optimization Algorithm: Stochastic Gradient Descent

- Goal: optimize an objective that contains an expectation $\min_{\theta} g(\theta) \coloneqq E_{x \sim p}[f(x, \theta)]$
- First order algorithms to optimize $g(\theta)$
 - Tractable even when θ is in high dimensions
 - Gradient descent: $\theta^{(k+1)} = \theta^{(k)} \eta \nabla_{\theta} g(\theta^{(k)})$
 - Many variants to accelerate / deal with non-differentiability
- Challenge: It is difficult to compute $\nabla_{\theta} g(\theta)$ in closed form
 - $\nabla_{\theta} g(\theta) = \nabla_{\theta} E_{x \sim p} [f(x, \theta)] = E_{x \sim p} [\nabla_{\theta} f(x, \theta)]$
 - Often p is the true data distribution which we do not know; we have samples from p
 - Even if we know p, integrating a potentially very complicated f is difficult
- Solution: Approximating $\nabla_{\theta} g(\theta)$ with samples
 - Let $x_1, ..., x_b$ be a batch of i.i.d. samples from p
 - $\frac{1}{h}\sum_{i}^{b}\nabla_{\theta}f(x_{i},\theta)$ is an unbiased estimator of $\nabla_{\theta}g(\theta)$
 - Stochastic gradient descent: $\theta^{(k+1)} = \theta^{(k)} \eta \frac{1}{h} \sum_{i=1}^{h} \nabla_{\theta} f(x_i, \theta)$

Outline

- Basics of Probability, Statistics, Information Theory
 - Discrete and Continuous Distributions, Independence
 - Marginals, Conditionals & Example for a Gaussian
 - Entropy, Mutual Information, KL Divergence
- Generative vs Discriminative Models
- Learning Generative Models
 - Learning Criterion: Maximum Likelihood Estimation
 - Learning Algorithm: Stochastic Gradient Descent

Classes of Generative Models

- Gaussian Models: Closed form Solution
- General Models: Need for Structure
- Taxonomy of Models
 - Latent variable models, Autoregressive models, Energy based models

Gaussian Parameter Estimation via MLE

- Given: N i.i.d. samples $x_1, ... x_N$ from an unknown Gaussian $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ in \mathbb{R}^D
- Goal: use MLE to estimate the parameters $\theta = (\mu, \Sigma)$ of the Gaussian distribution
- Recall Gaussian density: $p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^D \det(\Sigma)}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^\top \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)\right)$
- This allows us to write down the likelihood function...

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)}{(2\pi)^{\frac{ND}{2}} \det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma})^{\frac{N}{2}}}$$

... and the log of the likelihood

$$\ell(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} -\frac{D}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{1}{2} \log \det \mathbf{\Sigma} - (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$
$$= -\frac{ND}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{N}{2} \log \det \mathbf{\Sigma} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$

Finding the gradient of parameters

Reminder: Log-likelihood objective

$$\ell(\theta) = -\frac{ND}{2}\log 2\pi - \frac{N}{2}\log \det \mathbf{\Sigma} - \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$

• To find the optimal θ_{ML} , we take the derivatives of our objective w.r.t our parameters and set them to 0

$$\frac{\partial \ell(\theta)}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}} = 0, \qquad \frac{\partial \ell(\theta)}{\partial \boldsymbol{\Sigma}} = 0$$

For the mean

Reminder: Log-likelihood objective

$$\ell(\theta) = -\frac{ND}{2}\log 2\pi - \frac{N}{2}\log \det \mathbf{\Sigma} - \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$

• Taking the derivative log-likelihood w.r.t. to the mean yields

$$\frac{\partial \ell(\theta)}{\partial \mu} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_i - \mu) = 0$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_i - \mu) = 0$$

• Hence,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{ML} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{x}_i$$

For the covariance

Reminder: Log-likelihood objective

$$\ell(\theta) = -\frac{ND}{2}\log 2\pi - \frac{N}{2}\log \det \mathbf{\Sigma} - \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$

 Before we find the derivative, we find a change of variable to handle the inverse covariance (also known as the precision matrix

$$S = \Sigma^{-1}$$

And note the following identity involving traces

$$Sx = \operatorname{tr}(x^{\mathsf{T}}Sx) = \operatorname{tr}(Sxx^{\mathsf{T}})$$

For the covariance

Reminder: Log-likelihood objective

$$\ell(\theta) = -\frac{ND}{2}\log 2\pi - \frac{N}{2}\log \det \mathbf{\Sigma} - \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$

- The two facts:
 - $S = \Sigma^{-1}$
 - $Sx = \operatorname{tr}(x^{\mathsf{T}}Sx) = \operatorname{tr}(Sxx^{\mathsf{T}})$
- ullet Using these two facts, we can rewrite the log-likelihood in terms of $oldsymbol{S}$ (omitting terms that derivative will cancel)

$$\ell(\theta) = -\frac{ND}{2}\log 2\pi - \frac{N}{2}\log \det(\mathbf{S}^{-1}) - \frac{1}{2}\operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{S}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(\mathbf{x}_{i} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x}_{i} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}}\right)$$

For the covariance

From our re-written log-likelihood function

$$\ell(\theta) = -\frac{ND}{2}\log 2\pi + \frac{N}{2}\log \det(\mathbf{S}) - \frac{1}{2}\operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{S}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(\mathbf{x}_{i} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x}_{i} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}}\right)$$

Taking the derivative with respect to S

$$\frac{\partial \ell(\theta)}{\partial \mathbf{S}} = \frac{N}{2} \mathbf{S}^{-1} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}) (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}} = 0$$

Arriving at our desired ML estimator for the covariance

$$\hat{\Sigma}_{ML} = S^{-1} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \mu) (x_i - \mu)^{\top}$$

ML Estimators for mean and variance

• The complete statement:

 If we assume our data samples are i.i.d Gaussians, the maximum log likelihood estimators for the mean and covariance are

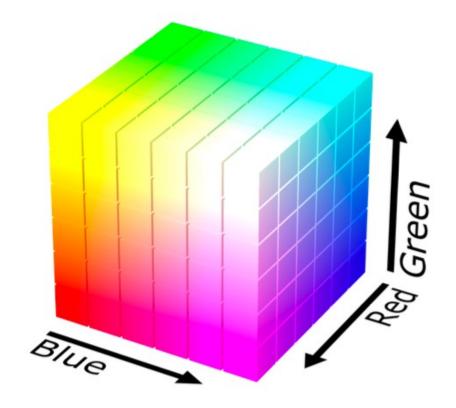
$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{ML} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{x}_{i}$$
 $\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{ML} = \boldsymbol{S}^{-1} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\boldsymbol{x}_{i} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) (\boldsymbol{x}_{i} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{T}$

Outline

- Basics of Probability, Statistics, Information Theory
 - Discrete and Continuous Distributions, Independence
 - Marginals, Conditionals & Example for a Gaussian
 - Entropy, Mutual Information, KL Divergence
- Generative vs Discriminative Models
- Learning Generative Models
 - Learning Criterion: Maximum Likelihood Estimation
 - Learning Algorithm: Stochastic Gradient Descent
- Classes of Generative Models
 - Gaussian Models: Closed form Solution
 - General Models: Need for Structure
 - Taxonomy of Models
 - Latent variable models, Autoregressive models, Energy based models

Example: RGB images

- To modeling a single pixel's color, one needs three discrete random variables:
 - Red Channel R taking values in $\{0, \dots, 255\}$
 - Green Channel G taking values in $\{0, \dots, 255\}$
 - Blue Channel B taking values in $\{0, \dots, 255\}$



• Sampling from the joint distribution $(r,g,b) \sim p(R,G,B)$ randomly generates a color for the pixel. How many parameters do we need to specify the joint distribution p(R=r,G=g,B=b)?

$$256 * 256 * 256 - 1$$

Example: Joint Distribution



- Suppose X_1, \ldots, X_n are Bernoulli random variables modelling n pixels of an image
- How many possible states?

$$\underbrace{2\times2\times\cdots\times2}_{n \text{ times}} = 2^n$$

- Sampling from $p(x_1, ..., x_n)$ generates an image
- How many parameters to specify the joint distribution $p(x_1, ..., x_n)$ over n binary pixels?

$$2^{n}-1$$

Structure Through Independence

• If X_1, \dots, X_n are independent, then

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = p(x_1)p(x_2) \cdots p(x_n)$$

- How many possible states? 2^n
- How many parameters to specify the joint distribution $p(x_1, ..., x_n)$?
 - How many to specify the marginal distribution $p(x_1)$? 1
- 2^n entries can be described by just n numbers (if each X_i just take 2 values)!
- Independence assumption is too strong. Model not likely to be useful
 - For example, each pixel chosen independently when we sample from it.





Structure Through Conditional Independence

Using Chain Rule

$$p(x_1, ..., x_n) = p(x_1)p(x_2 \mid x_1)p(x_3 \mid x_1, x_2) \cdots p(x_n \mid x_1, ..., x_{n-1})$$

- How many parameters? $1 + 2 + \cdots + 2^{n-1} = 2^n 1$
 - $p(x_1)$ requires 1 parameter
 - $p(x_2 \mid x_1 = 0)$ requires 1 parameter, $p(x_2 \mid x_1 = 1)$ requires 1 parameter Total 2 parameters.
 - •
- $2^n 1$ is still exponential, chain rule does not buy us anything.
- Now suppose $X_{i+1} \perp X_1, \dots, X_{i-1} \mid X_i$, then $p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = p(x_1)p(x_2 \mid x_1)p(x_3 \mid x_1, x_2) \cdots p(x_n \mid x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}) = p(x_1)p(x_2 \mid x_1)p(x_2 \mid x_1)p(x_3 \mid x_2) \cdots p(x_n \mid x_{n-1})$
- How many parameters? 2n-1. Exponential reduction!

Taxonomy of Generative Models

Autoregressive Models

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = p(x_0) \prod_{i=1}^{D} p(x_i | \mathbf{x}_{< i}),$$

Latent Variable Models

$$\mathbf{z} \sim p(\mathbf{z})$$
$$\mathbf{x} \sim p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})$$

Energy Based Models

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\exp\{-E(\mathbf{x})\}}{Z}$$

Taxonomy of Generative Models

