

# Normalising Flow Models (Part 1)

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## Where we are?

- Autoregressive Models

$$p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = p(x_1)p(x_2|x_1)p(x_3|x_1, x_2) \dots p(x_n|x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})$$

- Provide **tractable** likelihoods
- No direct mechanism for learning features
- Slow generation – Wavenet: 1 second audio takes 90 mins (200K samples)

- Variational Autoencoders

$$p(X) = \sum_Z p(X|Z)p(Z) \text{ or } p(X) = \int_Z p(X|Z)p(Z)dZ$$

- Can learn feature **representations** (via latent variables Z)
- Have **intractable** marginal likelihoods.
- Optimising a **lower bound** – it is not maximising the likelihood ... we don't know the gap.

Question: Can we design a latent variable model with tractable likelihoods?

Yes! We can use normalising flow models. (Today)

# Reference slides

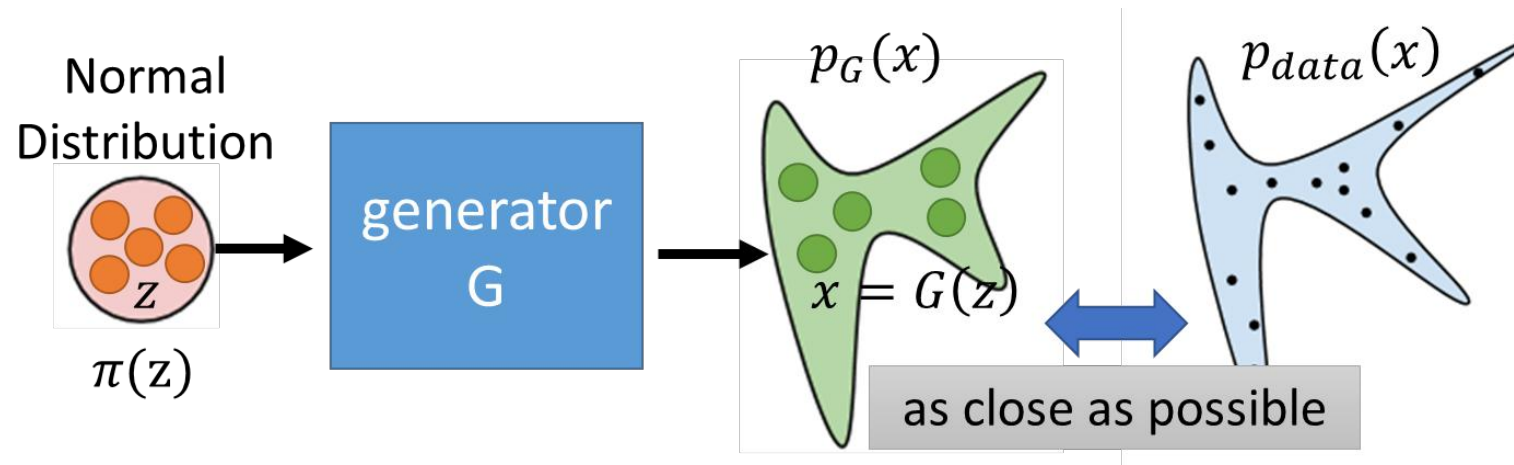
- Hung-yi Li. Flow-based Generative Model
- Stanford “Deep Generative Models”. Normalising Flow Models

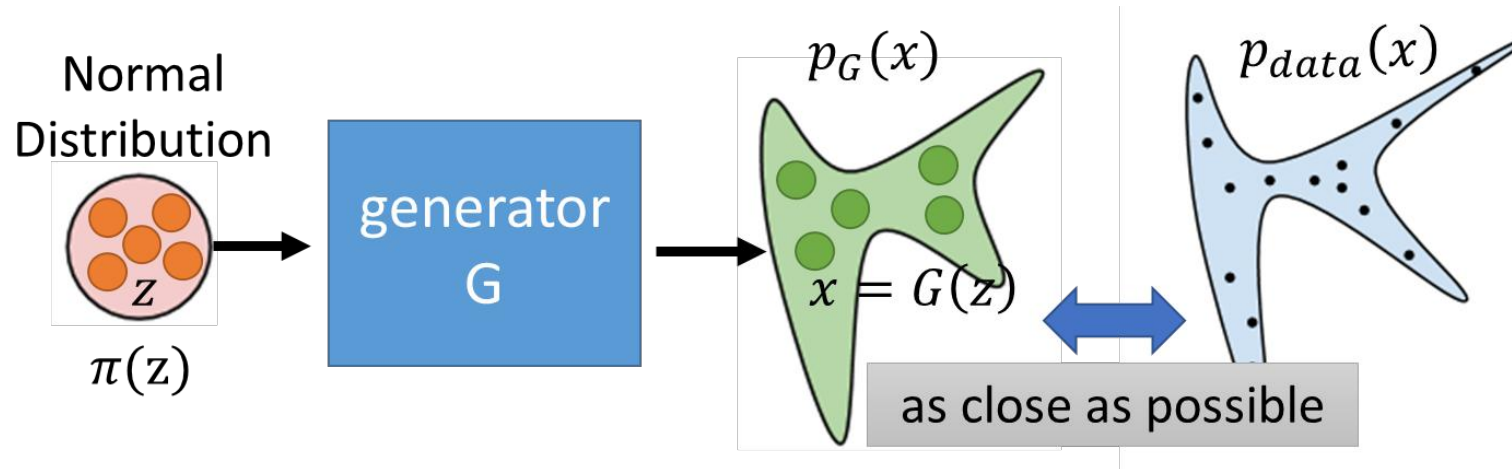
- Background
  - Generator
  - Change of variable theorem (1D)
  - Jacobian Matrix & Determinant
  - Change of variable theorem
- Normalising Flow
  - Flow-based model
  - Learning and inference
  - Desiderata

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# Generator

- A generator  $G$  is a network. The network maps a simple distribution (for example, normal distribution)  $\pi(z)$  to a complex data distribution  $p_G(x)$ , which aims to be as close to real data distribution  $p_{data}(x)$  as possible.

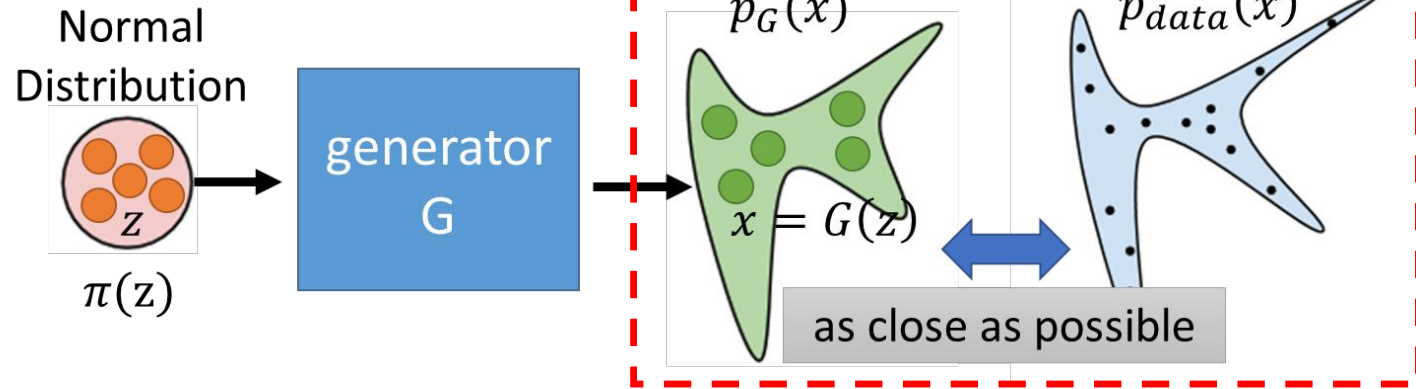




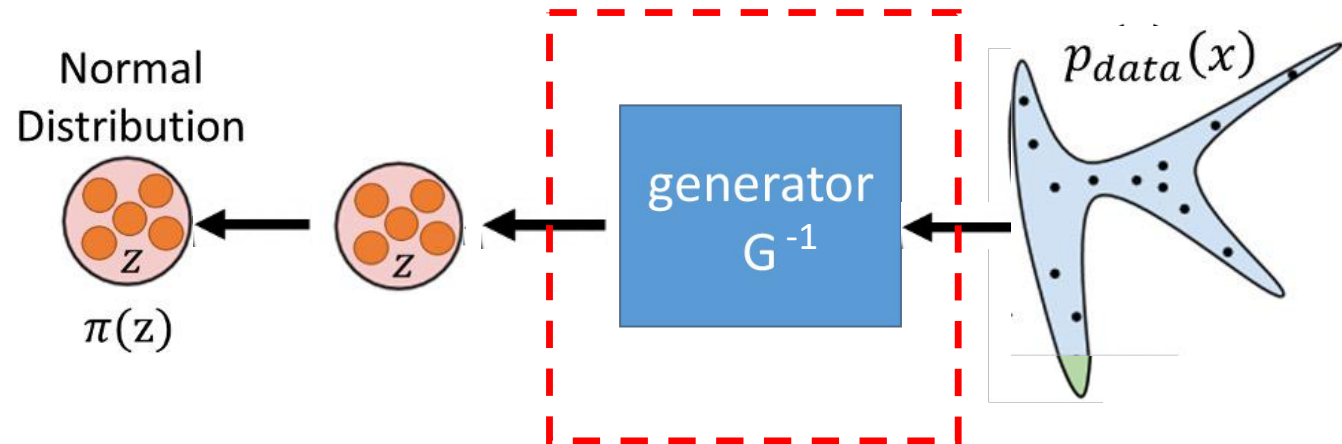
- $G^* = \arg \max_G \sum_{i=1}^m \log P_G(x^i)$
- Normalising flow models directly optimise the objective function!
- **Key idea:** Map simple distributions (easy to sample and evaluate densities) to complex distributions (learned via data) using **change of variables**.



# Autoregressive Autoencoder



# Flow-based Model

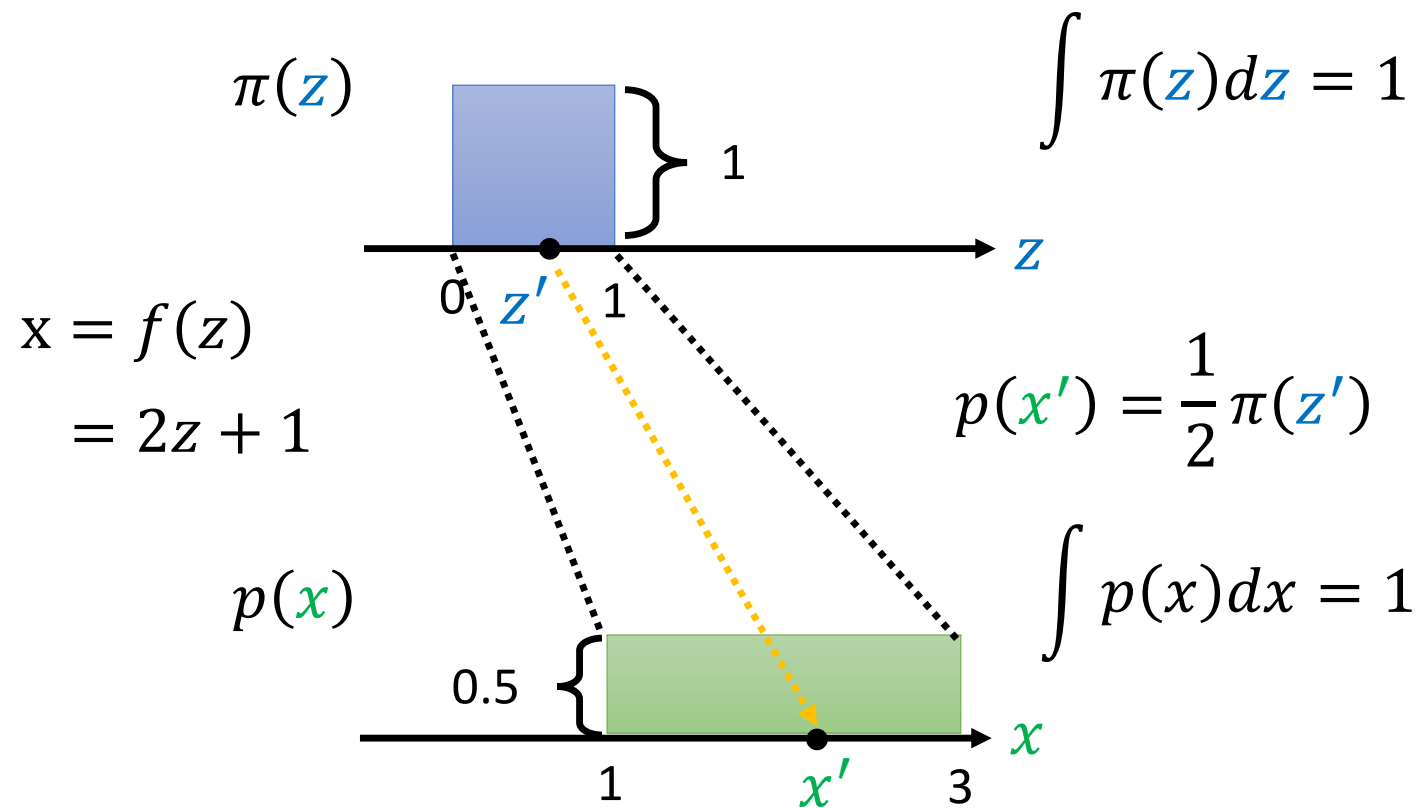


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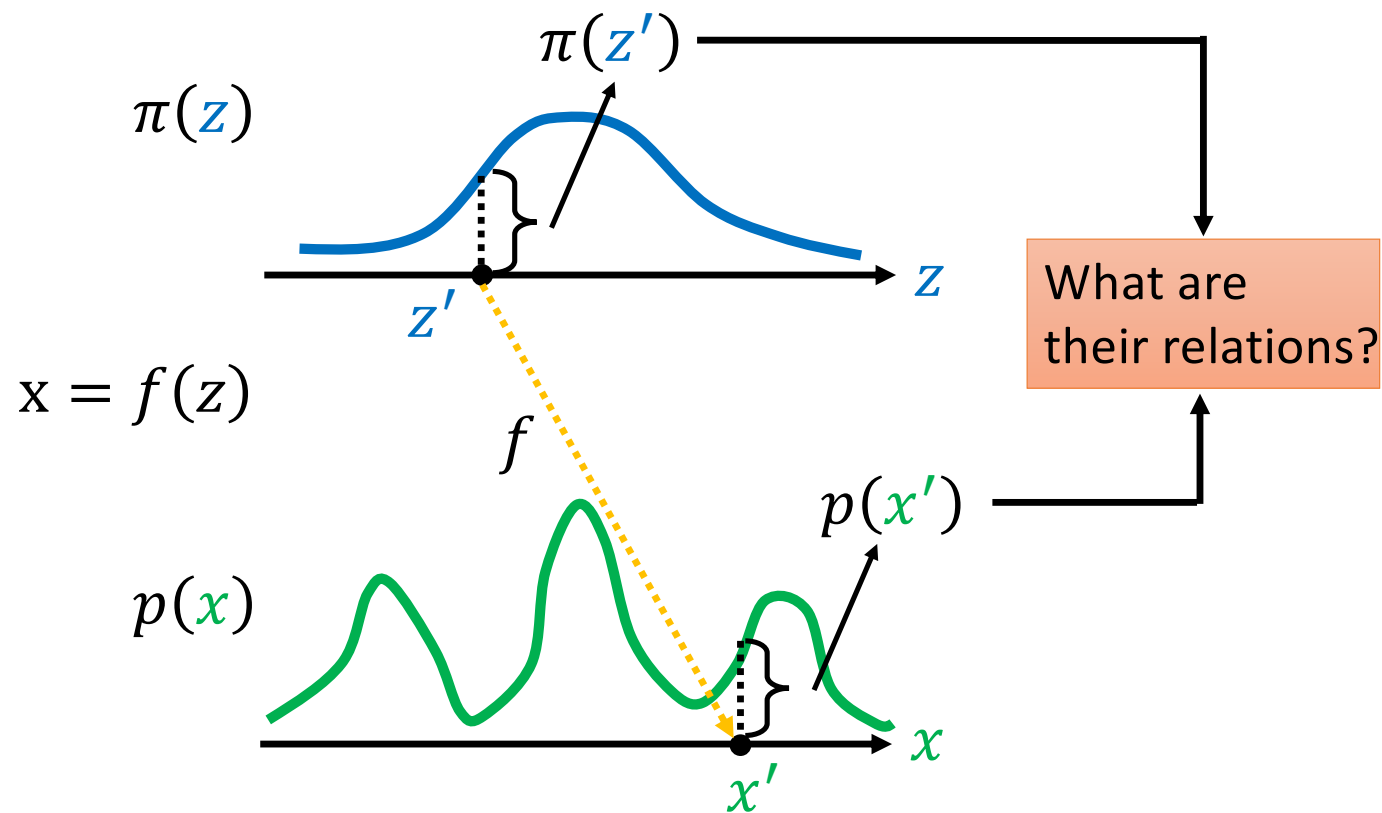
# Change of Variable Theorem (1D)

- Let  $Z$  be a uniform random variable  $U[0,1]$  with density  $\pi_Z$ . What is  $\pi_Z(1/2)$ ?
  - 1
- Let  $X = f(Z) = 2Z + 1$  and let  $p_X$  be its density. What is  $p_X(2)$ ?
  - When  $Z = 1/2$ ,  $X = 2Z + 1 = 2$ , so does  $p_X(2) = \pi_Z\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = 1$ ?
  - No
- Solution:
  - As  $Z$  is uniform in  $[0, 1]$ ,  $X$  is uniform in  $[1,3]$ , so  $p_X(2) = 1/2$

# Change of Variable Theorem (1D)



# Change of Variable Theorem (1D)



# Change of Variable Theorem (1D)

When  $x = f(z)$  and function  $f$  is **invertible** and **differentiable**.

If  $f$  is monotonically increasing, we have  $Pr(z' \leq z \leq (z' + \Delta z)) = Pr(f(z') \leq f(z) \leq f(z' + \Delta z)) = Pr(x' \leq x \leq (x' + \Delta x))$

**cum** 当 $\Delta$ 绝对小的时候,  $x$ 和 $z$ 之间变化的概率密度的面积是一样的

If  $f$  is monotonically decreasing, we can get the same result.

So we get

$$\left| \int_{z'}^{z'+\Delta z} \pi(z) dz \right| = \left| \int_{x'}^{x'+\Delta x} p(x) dx \right|$$

# Change of Variable Theorem (1D)

- $\left| \int_{z'}^{z'+\Delta z} \pi(z) dz \right| = \left| \int_{x'}^{x'+\Delta x} p(x) dx \right|$

- Use laGrange's Mean Value Theorem, we get

- $\pi(\tilde{z})|\Delta z| = p(\tilde{x})|\Delta x|$

- where

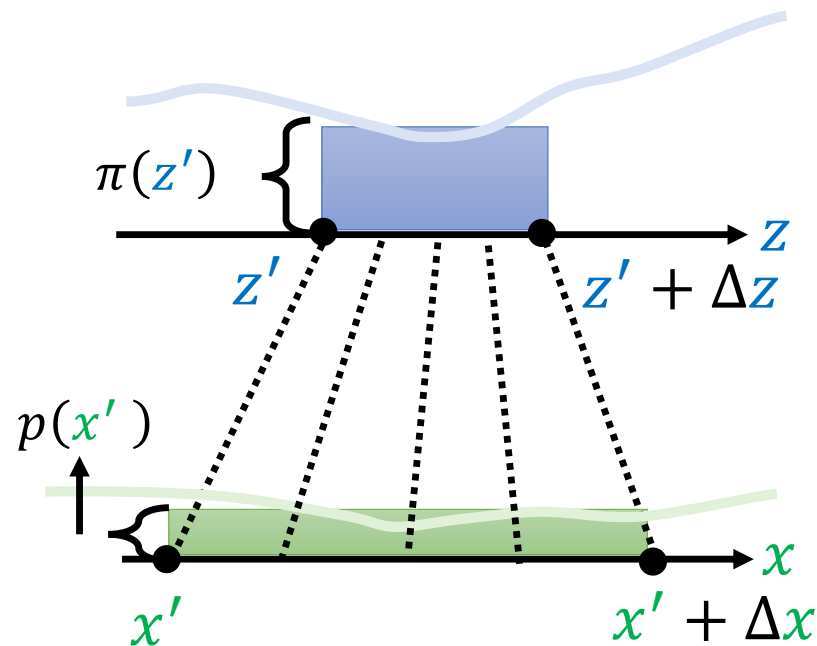
- $z' \leq \tilde{z} \leq z' + \Delta z$

- $x' \leq \tilde{x} \leq x' + \Delta x$

- When  $\Delta z \rightarrow 0$ , we have  $p(x') = \pi(z') \left| \frac{\Delta z}{\Delta x} \right|_{x=x'} = \pi(z') \left| \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \right|_{x=x'}$

Change of variable theorem (1D)

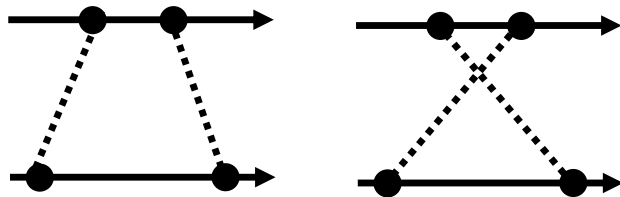
# Change of Variable Theorem (1D)



The blue square and the green square should be equal in area

$$p(x')|\Delta x| = \pi(z')|\Delta z|$$

$$p(x') = \pi(z') \left| \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \right|$$





# Change of Variable Theorem (1D)

- **change of variable theorem (1-D case):** if  $x = f(z)$  and function  $f$  is invertible and differentiable, then  $p(x) = \pi(z) \left| \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \right| = \pi(z) \left| \frac{\partial f^{-1}(x)}{\partial x} \right|$

- How about multi-dimension cases?
  - We need more math background.

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## Jacobian Matrix (2D case)

$$1) \quad x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad z = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x = f(z) \quad z = f^{-1}(x)$$

$$2) \quad \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 + z_2 \\ 2z_1 \end{bmatrix} = f \left( \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_2/2 \\ x_1 - x_2/2 \end{bmatrix} = f^{-1} \left( \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$3) \quad J_f = \begin{array}{c} \text{input} \\ \left[ \begin{array}{cc} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial z_1} & \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial z_2} \\ \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial z_1} & \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial z_2} \end{array} \right] \\ \text{output} \end{array}$$

$$J_{f^{-1}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial z_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial z_1}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial z_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial z_2}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$4) \quad J_f = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$J_{f^{-1}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1/2 \\ 1 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$J_f J_{f^{-1}} = I$$

# Determinant

The determinant of a **square matrix** is a **scalar** that provides information about the matrix.

- 2 X 2

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(A) = ad - bc$$

$$\det(A) = 1/\det(A^{-1})$$

$$\det(J_f) = 1/\det(J_{f^{-1}})$$

- 3 x 3

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ a_4 & a_5 & a_6 \\ a_7 & a_8 & a_9 \end{bmatrix}$$

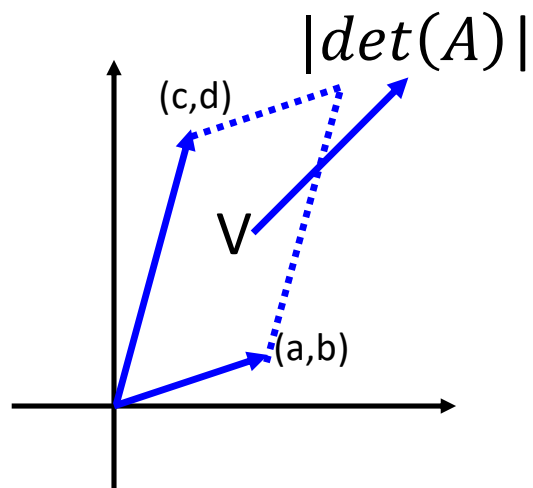
$$\det(A) =$$

$$a_1 a_5 a_9 + a_2 a_6 a_7 + a_3 a_4 a_8 \\ - a_3 a_5 a_7 - a_2 a_4 a_9 - a_1 a_6 a_8$$

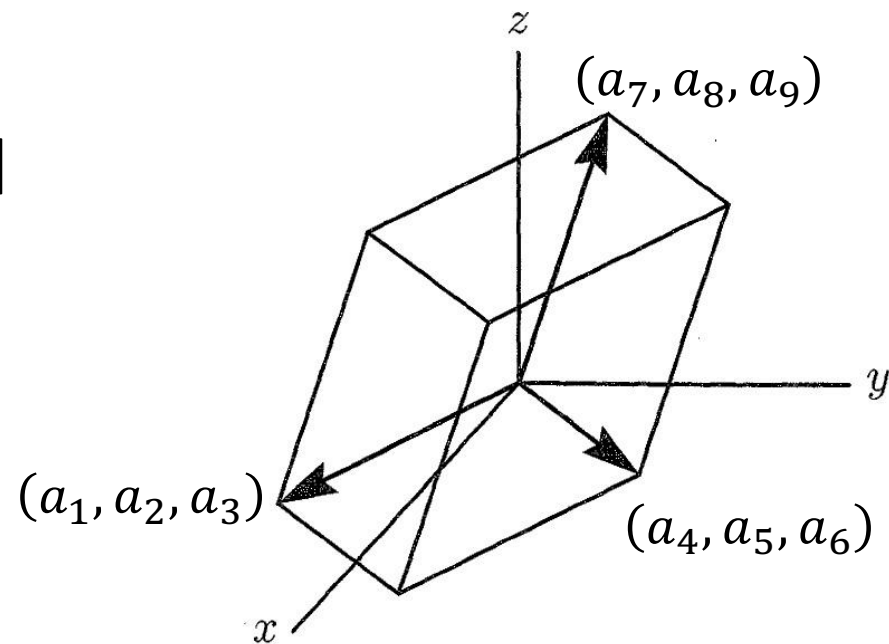
# Determinant

- 2 X 2

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

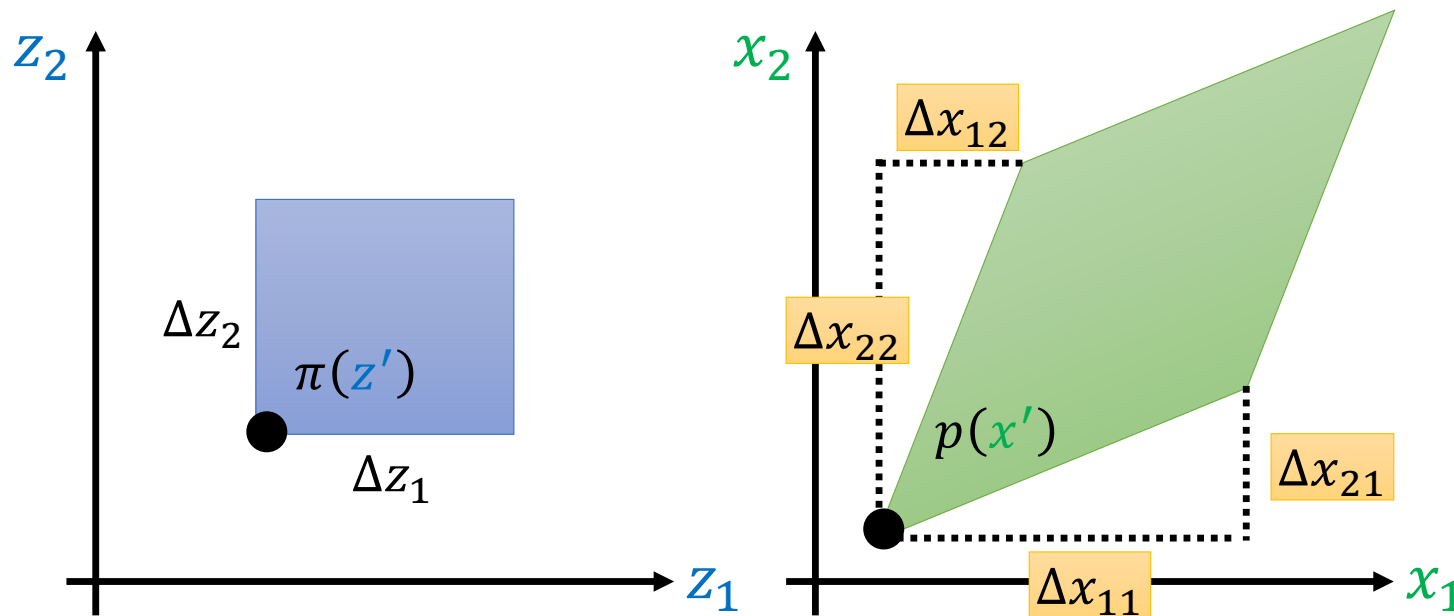


- 3 x 3
- $$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ a_4 & a_5 & a_6 \\ a_7 & a_8 & a_9 \end{bmatrix}$$



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# Change of Variable Theorem (2D case)



$$p(x') \left| \det \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x_{11} & \Delta x_{21} \\ \Delta x_{12} & \Delta x_{22} \end{bmatrix} \right| = \pi(z') \Delta z_1 \Delta z_2$$



$$p(\mathbf{x}') \left| \det \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x_{11} & \Delta x_{21} \\ \Delta x_{12} & \Delta x_{22} \end{bmatrix} \right| = \pi(\mathbf{z}') \Delta z_1 \Delta z_2 \quad \mathbf{x} = f(\mathbf{z})$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}') \left| \frac{1}{\Delta z_1 \Delta z_2} \det \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x_{11} & \Delta x_{21} \\ \Delta x_{12} & \Delta x_{22} \end{bmatrix} \right| = \pi(\mathbf{z}')$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}') \left| \det \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x_{11}/\Delta z_1 & \Delta x_{21}/\Delta z_1 \\ \Delta x_{12}/\Delta z_2 & \Delta x_{22}/\Delta z_2 \end{bmatrix} \right| = \pi(\mathbf{z}')$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}') \left| \det \begin{bmatrix} \partial x_1/\partial z_1 & \partial x_2/\partial z_1 \\ \partial x_1/\partial z_2 & \partial x_2/\partial z_2 \end{bmatrix} \right| = \pi(\mathbf{z}')$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}') \left| \det \begin{bmatrix} \partial x_1/\partial z_1 & \partial x_1/\partial z_2 \\ \partial x_2/\partial z_1 & \partial x_2/\partial z_2 \end{bmatrix} \right| = \pi(\mathbf{z}') \quad (\text{transpose})$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}') | \det(J_f) | = \pi(\mathbf{z}')$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}') = \pi(\mathbf{z}') | \det(J_{f^{-1}}) |$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}') = \pi(\mathbf{z}') \left| \frac{1}{\det(J_f)} \right|$$



# Change of Variable Theorem (General case)

- **Change of Variable Theorem (General case):** if the mapping function between  $Z$  and  $X$ , given by  $f: R^n \rightarrow R^n$ , is differentiable and invertible such that  $X = f(Z)$  and  $Z = f^{-1}(X)$ , then

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

- Note 1:  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{z}$  need to be continuous and have the same dimension
- Note 2: since for any invertible matrix  $A$ ,  $\det(A^{-1}) = \det(A)^{-1}$

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \pi(\mathbf{z}) \left| \frac{1}{det(J_f)} \right|$$

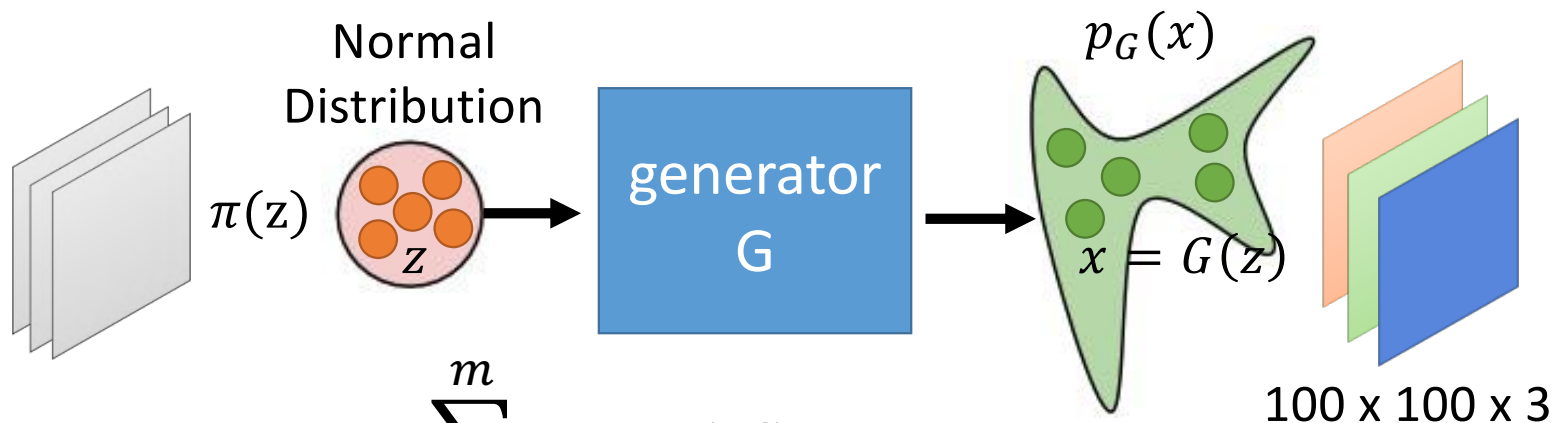
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# Flow-based Model

$$p(x') | \det(J_f) | = \pi(z')$$

$$p(x') = \pi(z') | \det(J_{f^{-1}}) |$$



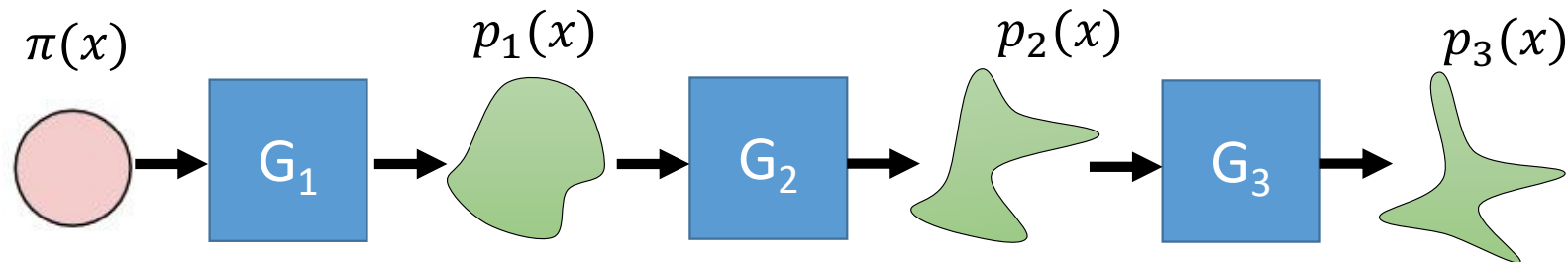
$$G^* = \arg \max_G \sum_{i=1}^m \log p_G(x^i)$$

G has limitation

$p_G(x^i) = \pi(z^i) | \det(J_{G^{-1}}) |$     ➔ You can compute  $\det(J_G)$   
 $z^i = G^{-1}(x^i)$                     ➔ You know  $G^{-1}$

$$\log p_G(x^i) = \log \pi(G^{-1}(x^i)) + \log | \det(J_{G^{-1}}) |$$

G is limited. We need more generators



$$p_1(x^i) = \pi(z^i) \left( \left| \det(J_{G_1^{-1}}) \right| \right) \quad z^i = G_1^{-1} \left( \dots G_K^{-1}(x^i) \right)$$

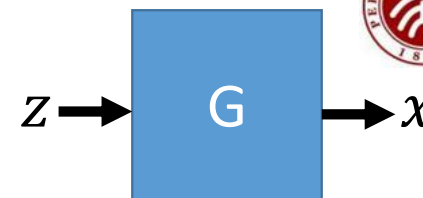
$$p_2(x^i) = \pi(z^i) \left( \left| \det(J_{G_1^{-1}}) \right| \right) \left( \left| \det(J_{G_2^{-1}}) \right| \right)$$

⋮

$$p_K(x^i) = \pi(z^i) \left( \left| \det(J_{G_1^{-1}}) \right| \right) \dots \left( \left| \det(J_{G_K^{-1}}) \right| \right)$$

$$\log p_K(x^i) = \log \pi(z^i) + \sum_{h=1}^K \log \left| \det(J_{G_h^{-1}}) \right| \quad \text{Maximise}$$

What you actually do?

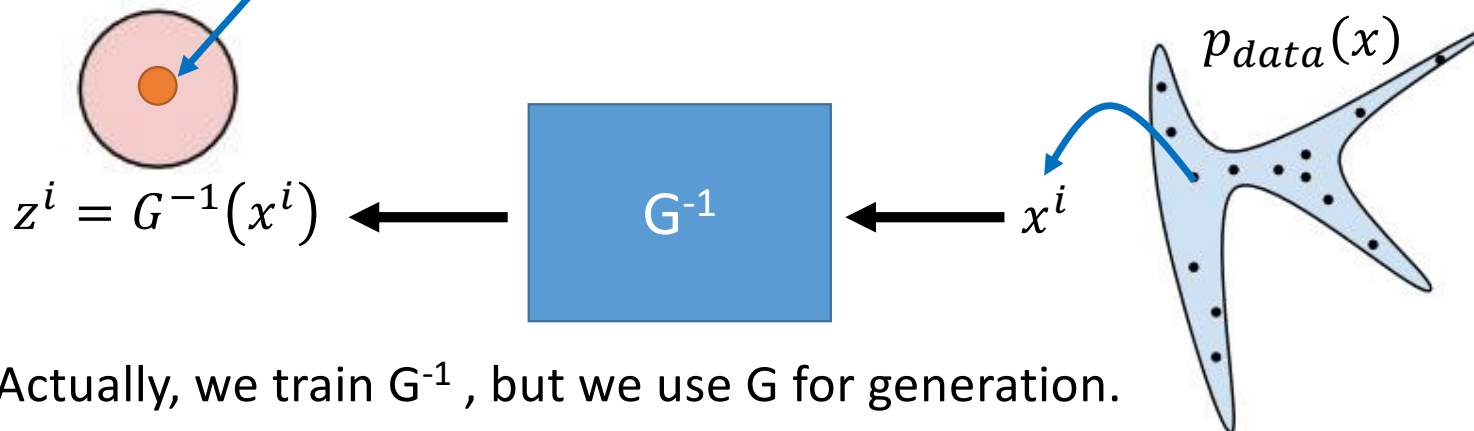


$$\log p_G(x^i) = \log \pi(G^{-1}(x^i)) + \log |\det(J_{G^{-1}})|$$

If  $z$  is zero, this term will be -inf

This term: make  $z^i$  become zero vector

If  $z^i$  is always zero:  
 $J_{G^{-1}}$  would be zero matrix  
 $\det(J_{G^{-1}}) = 0$



Actually, we train  $G^{-1}$ , but we use  $G$  for generation.

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# Learning and inference

- Learning via **maximum likelihood** over the dataset  $D$

$$\max_{\theta} \log p(D; \theta) = \sum_{x \in D} \log \pi \left( G_{\theta}^{-1}(x) \right) + \log \left| \det \left( \frac{\partial G_{\theta}^{-1}(x)}{\partial x} \right) \right|$$

- **1) Exact likelihood evaluation** via inverse transformation and change of variables formula
- **2) Sampling** via forward transformation  $G_{\theta}: Z \rightarrow X$   
 $z \sim \pi(z), x = G_{\theta}(z)$
- **3) Latent representations** inferred via inverse transformation (no inference network required!)

$$z = G_{\theta}^{-1}(x)$$

# Normalising Flow

- “Normalising” means that the change of variables gives a normalised density after applying an invertible transformation.
- “Flow” means that the invertible transformations can be composed with each other to create more complex invertible transformations.



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# Desiderata for flow models

- Simple prior  $\pi(z)$  that allows for efficient sampling and **tractable** likelihood evaluation. E.g., Gaussian
- **Invertible** transformations
- **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 transformations 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 Matrix

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

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

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

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

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

Thanks