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8.1 Recap

During previous lectures we discussed *convex optimization* and *sampling*, which are techniques used in supervised, unsupervised, and reinforcement learning. Those techniques tell us **how to learn**, but we now want to formulate what we want to learn. We want to parameterize the distributions or densities by determining $p(x)$. We will also look at figuring out $p(\theta)$, $p(x|\theta)$, and $p(\theta|x)$.

8.2 New Content: Distributions (Density) Parametrization

8.2.1 Exponential Family of Distributions

The probability distribution is in the *canonical parameterization*:

$$
p(x) = h(x) \exp(\eta^T T(x) - A(\eta))
$$
\n(8.1)

 $A(\eta)$ is the *partition* function which satisfies the following condition to ensure that $p(x)$ is a valid distribution:

$$
A(\eta) = \log \left(\int h(x) \exp(\eta^T T(x)) dx \right)
$$
\n(8.2)

Typically, it's easier to determine these terms by converting $p(x)$ to the format above and then comparing terms.

Properties of Exponential Distributions

Property 1 (Convexity). $A(\eta)$ is convex with respect to η . **Proof:** For convexity we need to show that $A(\lambda \eta_1 + (1 - \lambda)\eta_2) \leq \lambda A(\eta_1) + (1 - \lambda)A(\eta_2)$, i.e.,

 \blacksquare

$$
\exp(A(\lambda \eta_1 + (1 - \lambda)\eta_2)) = \int h(x) \exp((\lambda \eta_1 + (1 - \lambda)\eta_2)^T T(x)) dx
$$

=
$$
\int (h(x) \exp(\lambda \eta_1^T T(x))) (h(x)^{1-\lambda} \exp((1 - \lambda)\eta_2^T T(x))) dx
$$

=
$$
\int (h(x) \exp(\eta_1^T T(x)))^{\lambda} (h(x) \exp(\eta_2^T T(x)))^{1-\lambda} dx
$$

$$
\leq \left(\int (h(x) \exp(\eta_1^T T(x))) dx \right)^{\lambda} \left(\int h(x) \exp(\eta_2^T T(x)) dx \right)^{1-\lambda}
$$

The last step of the simplification relies on Holder's identity with $p = \frac{1}{\lambda}$ and $q = \frac{1}{1-\lambda}$.

$$
\int f(x)g(x)dx \le \left(\int f(x)^p dx\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\int g(x)^q dx\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}
$$

Upon taking the log of the LHS and RHS above and applying the definition of $A(\eta)$, we get:

$$
A(\lambda \eta_1 + (1 - \lambda)\eta_2) \le \lambda A(\eta_1) + (1 - \lambda)A(\eta_2)
$$

Property 2 (First-order derivatives). The first derivative of $A(\eta)$ w.r.t. η is the expected value of $T(x)$, i.e.,

$$
\frac{\partial A(\eta)}{\partial \eta} = \mathbb{E}_{p(x)}[T(x)]
$$

Property 3 (Second-order derivatives). The second derivative of $A(\eta)$ w.r.t. η is variance of $T(x)$, i.e.,

$$
\frac{\partial^2 A(\eta)}{\partial^2 \eta} = \mathbb{E}_{p(x)}[T^2(x)] - \mathbb{E}_{p(x)}[T(x)]^2
$$

Basic Distributions

Bernoulli Distribution. This distribution is discrete and deals with variables that can just take on 2 values (*x* ∈ *{*0*,* 1*}*):

$$
p(x) = \pi^x (1 - \pi)^{1 - x}
$$

The Bernoulli distribution is in fact a part of the exponential family:

$$
p(x) = \exp\left(x \log(\pi)\right) \exp\left((1-x) \log(1-\pi)\right)
$$

$$
= \exp\left(x \log(\pi) + \log(1-\pi) - x \log(1-\pi)\right)
$$

$$
= \exp\left(x \log\left(\frac{\pi}{1-\pi}\right) + \log(1-\pi)\right)
$$

On comparing with 8.1 we can see that

$$
h(x) = 1, \eta = \log\left(\frac{\pi}{1-\pi}\right), T(x) = x, A(\eta) = -\log(1-\pi)
$$

Gaussian Distribution. This is the standard normal distribution that is often used for the purpose of simulating noise. The pdf $p(x)$ is:

$$
p(x) = \left(\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}\right) \exp\left(\frac{-(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)
$$

=
$$
\left(\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}\right) \exp\left(\frac{-x^2 + 2x\mu}{2\sigma^2} - \frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)
$$

=
$$
\left(\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}\right) \exp\left(\left[\frac{\mu}{\sigma^2} - \frac{-1}{2\sigma^2}\right] \left[x^2\right] - \frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)
$$

On comparing this with 8.1, we get:

$$
h(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}, \eta = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2} \\ \frac{-1}{2\sigma^2} \end{bmatrix}, T(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ x^2 \end{bmatrix}, A(\eta) = \frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2}
$$

Poisson Distribution.

$$
p_{\lambda}(x) = \frac{\lambda^x \exp(-\lambda)}{x!}
$$

=
$$
\frac{\exp(x \log \lambda - \lambda)}{x!}
$$
 (8.3)

On this with 8.1 we can see that

$$
h(x) = \frac{1}{x!}, \eta = \log(\lambda), T(x) = x, A(\eta) = \lambda
$$

8.2.2 Energy-based Models (EBM)

Energy-based models are more general than the exponential family. They are of the following form:

$$
p(x) = \exp(f(x) - A(f))
$$
\n
$$
(8.4)
$$

A is the partition function and takes in the function *f* as input. It is of the form:

$$
A(f) = \log \int \exp(f(x))dx
$$
\n(8.5)

This normalizes $p(x)$ such that $\int p(x)dx = 1$,

The function *f* in energy-based models could be a neural network.

Ising Model. The Ising Model is a specific example of energy-based models that is widely used in image denoising tasks. *x* is a set of discrete variables such that

$$
x = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k], x_i \in \{-1, 1\}
$$

The probability distribution is then proportional to the following exponential quantity:

$$
p(x) \propto \exp(-\mu^T x - x^T W x) \tag{8.6}
$$

Specifically it is of the form:

$$
p(x) = \exp(-\mu^T x - x^T W x - A(u, w))
$$
\n(8.7)

The partition function is given by the following:

$$
A(u, w) = \log \left[\sum_{x \in \{+1, -1\}^k} \exp(-\mu^T x - x^T W x) \right]
$$
 (8.8)

8.2.3 Latent Variable Model

The latent variable model is a *stochastic* model of the following form:

$$
p(x) = \int p(x|z)p(z)dz
$$
\n(8.9)

where $p(x|z)$ and $p(z)$ are both distributions from the exponential family. This model maps the distribution $p(z)$ to the distribution $p(x)$.

Gaussian Mixture Models. Gaussian mixture models are a type of latent variable models. The marginal distribution over *z* is given by:

$$
p(\mathbf{z}) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k^{z_k}
$$
\n(8.10)

The condition distribution $p(x|z)$ is given by:

$$
p(x|z) = \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \sigma_k^2) \tag{8.11}
$$

Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA). LDA is another example of a latent variable model that is used in NLP tasks such as corpus generation.

Diffusion Model. The diffusion model is a special case of latent variable model that follows a Markov chain. Since it is a Markov chain, each state is dependently on only the previous state. Thus, if we have a final state x, beginning state z_0 , and intermediate states $z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_{k-1}, z_k$, the probability distribution is given by:

$$
p(x) = \int p(x|z_k)p(z_k|z_{k-1})\dots p(z_1|z_o)p(z_0)dz_0^k
$$
\n(8.12)

8.2.4 Normalizing Flow Model

The normalizing flow is a *deterministic* model that allows us to map a simple distribution to a more complex one. We have latent variable *Z* and observed variable *X* and a function *f* such that $f(Z) = X$. This function *f* must be invertible so there must be a function *g* such that $g(f(z)) = z$.

We sample $z \sim p(z)$, then we have $x = f(z)$. We can then use change of variables to calculate the distribution *q*(*x*):

$$
q(x) = p(f^{-1}(x)) * \left| \det \frac{\partial f^{-1}(x)}{\partial z} \right| \tag{8.13}
$$

8.2.5 Autoregressive Model (ARM)

Autoregressive models use all of the previous time steps in order to calculate the probability of the current state. The joint distribution of states x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_k is given by:

$$
p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) = p(x_1)p(x_2|x_1)p(x_3|x_1, x_2)\dots p(x_k|x_{< k})
$$
\n(8.14)