



**ICLR**

# Flow Matching for Generative Modeling

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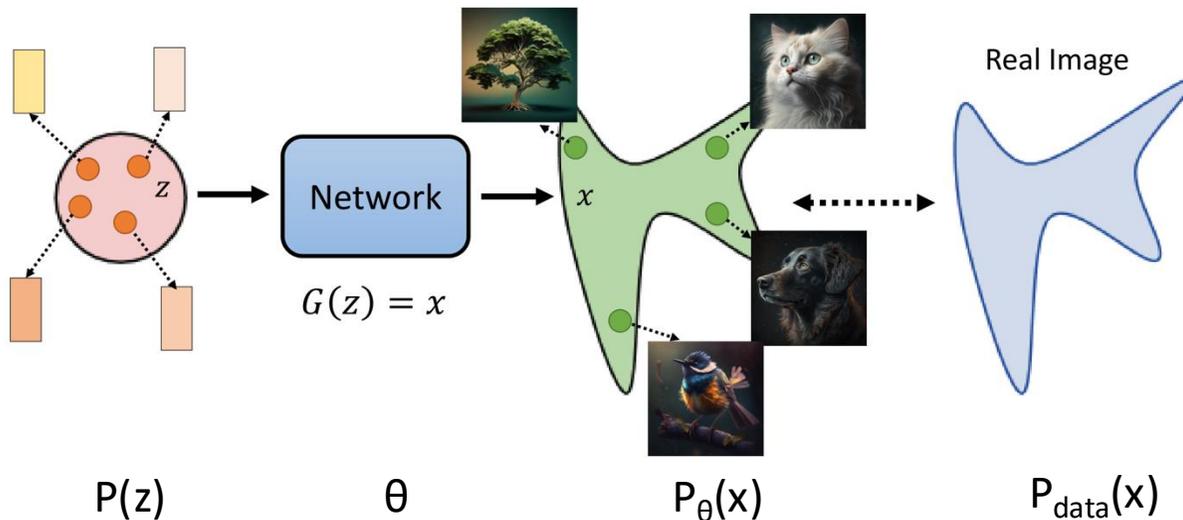
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# Preliminary – Likelihood-based Generative Models



Sample  $\{x^1, x^2, \dots, x^m\}$  from  $P_{data}(x)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \theta^* &= \arg \max_{\theta} \prod_{i=1}^m P_{\theta}(x^i) = \arg \max_{\theta} \log \prod_{i=1}^m P_{\theta}(x^i) \\
 &= \arg \max_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^m \log P_{\theta}(x^i) \approx \arg \max_{\theta} E_{x \sim P_{data}}[\log P_{\theta}(x)] \\
 &= \arg \max_{\theta} \int_x P_{data}(x) \log P_{\theta}(x) dx - \int_x P_{data}(x) \log P_{data}(x) dx \quad (\text{not related to } \theta) \\
 &= \arg \max_{\theta} \int_x P_{data}(x) \log \frac{P_{\theta}(x)}{P_{data}(x)} dx = \arg \min_{\theta} KL(P_{data} || P_{\theta}) \quad \text{Difference between } P_{data} \text{ and } P_{\theta}
 \end{aligned}$$

Maximum Likelihood = Minimize KL Divergence

- $P_{data}(x)$ : probability distribution of the data
- $P_{\theta}(x)$ : approximate probability distribution of the data
- $P(z)$ : probability distribution of the latent variable, usually a Gaussian distribution



# Preliminary – Jacobian Matrix

- $\mathbf{f} : \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^m$
- Then the Jacobian matrix of  $\mathbf{f}$ , denoted  $\mathbf{J}_f \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$ , is defined as:

$$\mathbf{J}_f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla^\top f_1 \\ \vdots \\ \nabla^\top f_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

Consider a function  $\mathbf{f} : \mathbf{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^2$ , with  $(x, y) \mapsto (f_1(x, y), f_2(x, y))$ , given by

$$\mathbf{f} \left( \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} f_1(x, y) \\ f_2(x, y) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x^2 y \\ 5x + \sin y \end{bmatrix}.$$

The Jacobian matrix of  $\mathbf{f}$  is

$$\mathbf{J}_f(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2xy & x^2 \\ 5 & \cos y \end{bmatrix}$$



# Preliminary – Jacobian Matrix

- According to the inverse function theorem, the matrix inverse of the Jacobian matrix of an invertible function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is the Jacobian matrix of the *inverse* function.
- That is  $J_f J_g = I$ , where  $g(\cdot) = f^{-1}(\cdot)$ .

$$J_f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} \quad J_{f^{-1}}(f(x)) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial f_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial f_m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial x_n}{\partial f_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial x_n}{\partial f_m} \end{bmatrix} = (J_f(x))^{-1}$$

# Preliminary – Determinant

- The **determinant** is a scalar-valued function of the entries of a square matrix. The determinant of a matrix  $A$  is commonly denoted  $\det(A)$ ,  $\det A$ , or  $|A|$ .

$$\det(A^T) = \det(A).$$

$$\det(AB) = \det(A) \det(B)$$

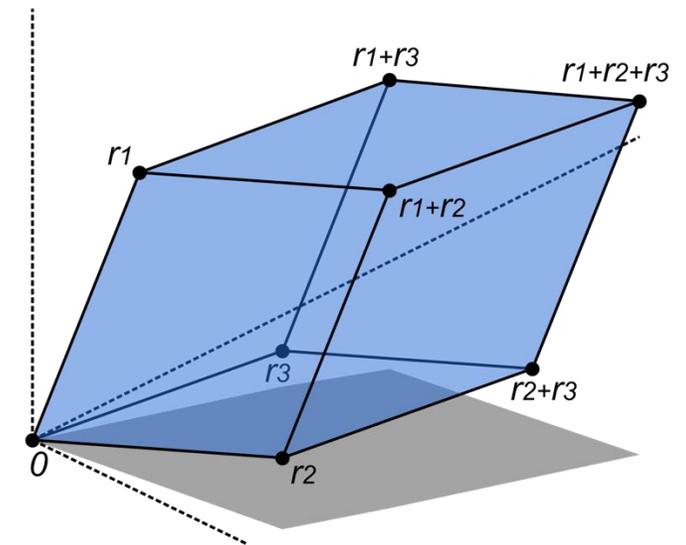
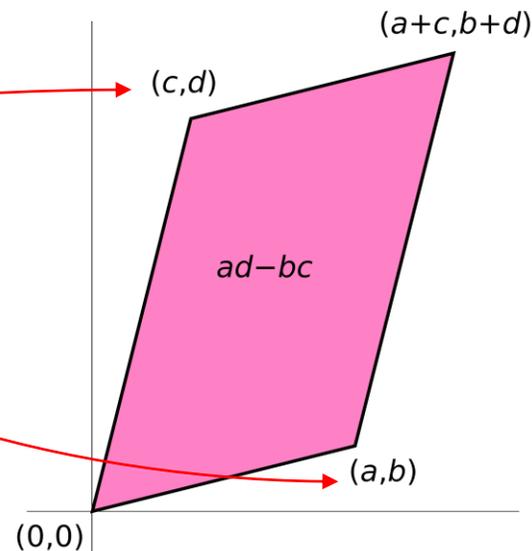
$$\det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det(A)} = [\det(A)]^{-1}. \quad \text{yellow arrow} \quad \det(J_f) = \frac{1}{\det(J_{f^{-1}})}$$

The determinant of a  $2 \times 2$  matrix is

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc,$$

and the determinant of a  $3 \times 3$  matrix is

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{vmatrix} = aei + bfg + cdh - ceg - bdi - afh.$$

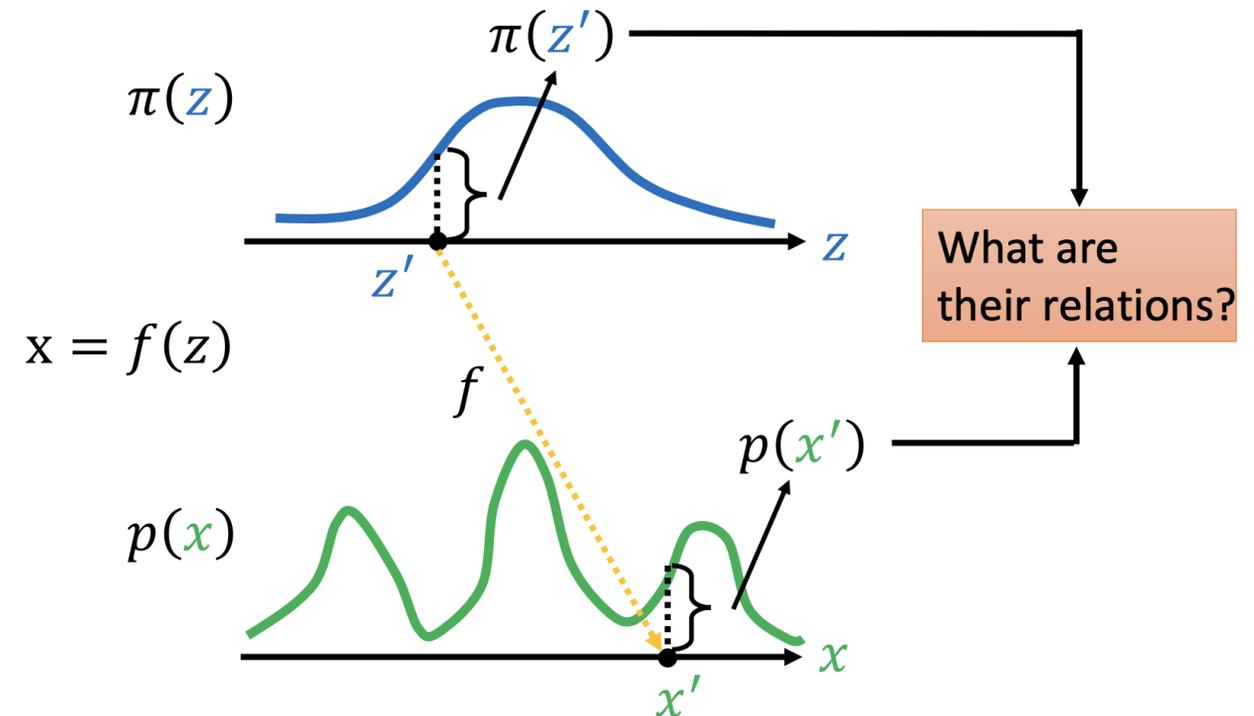


**Area = Absolute value of the determinant**



# Preliminary – Change of Variables Theorem (in PDF)

- $z$  is a one-dimensional variable.
- $\pi(z)$  is a simple distribution, like a standard normal distribution.
- $x = f(z)$  is a mapping.
- $p(x)$  is the probability distribution of  $x$ .
- If we know the probability density of  $z'$ ,  $\pi(z')$ , and we know  $x' = f(z')$ , what can we tell about  $p(x')$ ?

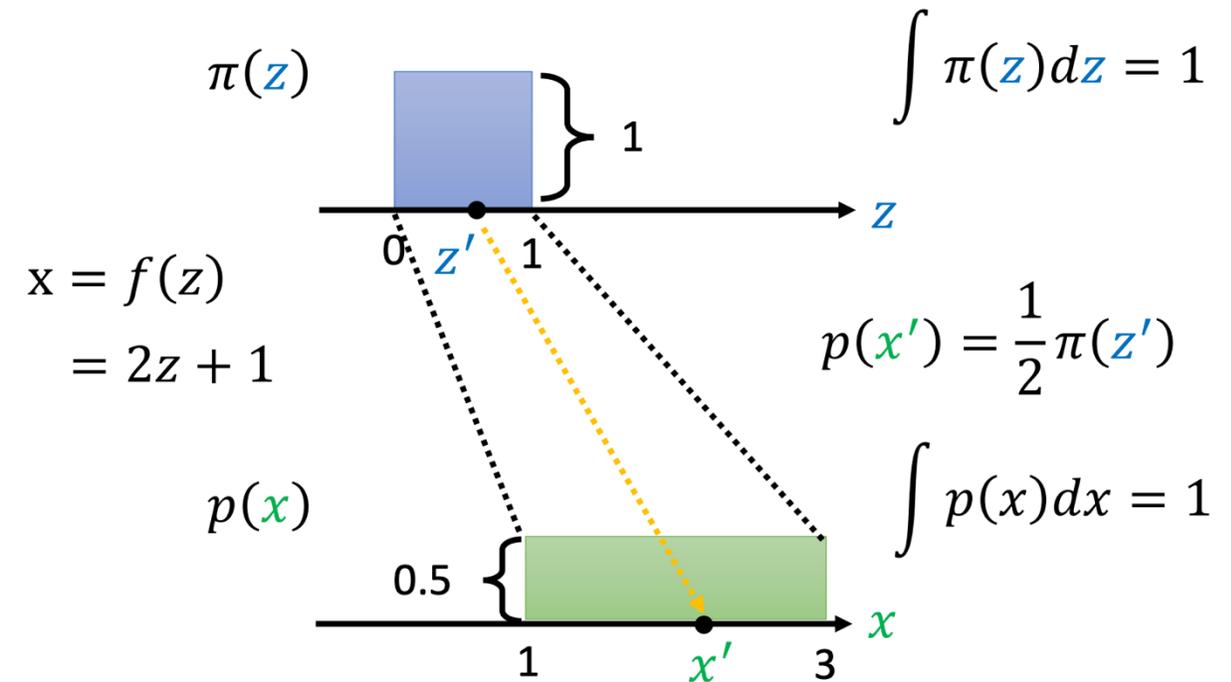




# Preliminary – Change of Variables Theorem (in PDF)

## EXAMPLE:

- $\pi(z)$  is a uniform distribution defined within 0 to 1, and zero probability otherwise.
- $x = f(z) = 2z + 1$  is a mapping.
- $p(x)$  is the probability distribution of  $x$ .
- Since both  $\pi(z)$  and  $p(x)$  are probability density functions, their integrals should be same and equal to 1.

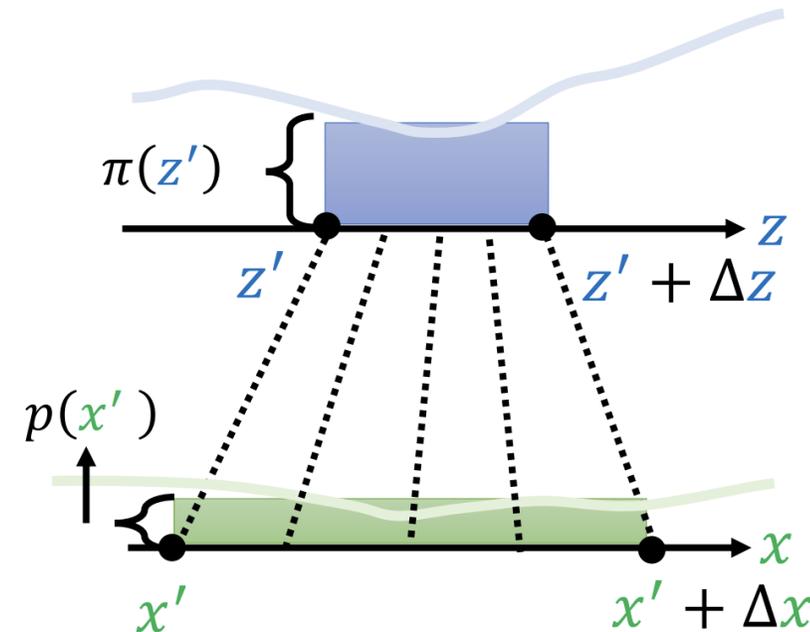




# Preliminary – Change of Variables Theorem (in PDF)

## General case (one-dimensional):

- Similarly, the blue region and the green region should have the same area.
- Notably, here we need  $dz/dx$ , so it implicitly requires that  $x = f(z)$  is an invertible mapping such that  $z = f^{-1}(x)$ .



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

$$p(x') = \pi(z') \frac{\Delta z}{\Delta x}$$

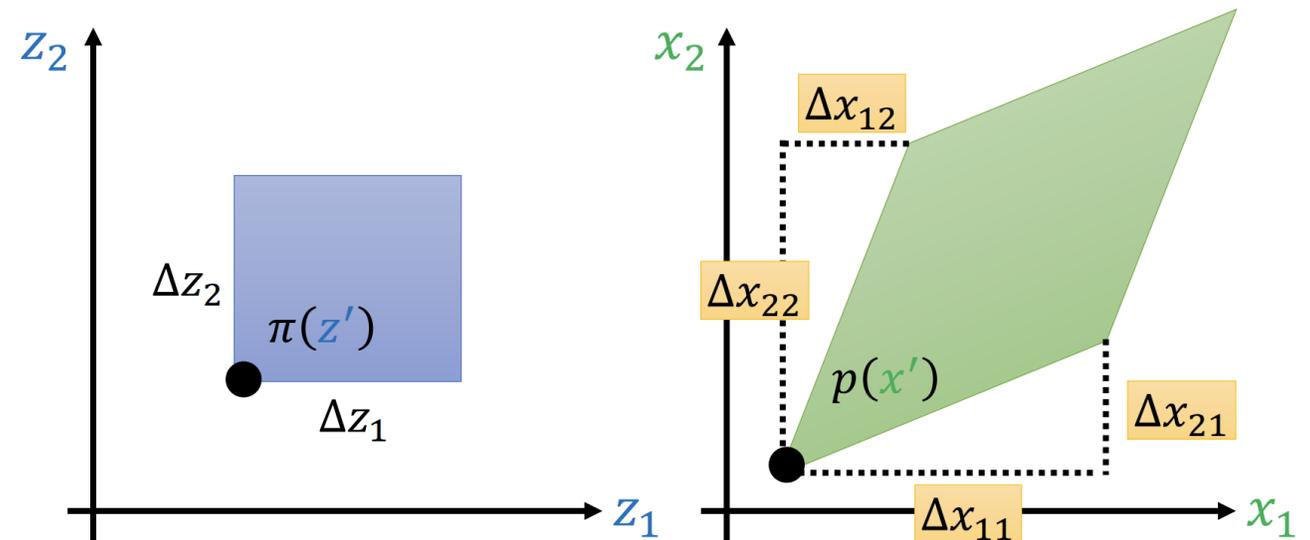
$$p(x') = \pi(z') \left| \frac{dz}{dx} \right|$$



# Preliminary – Change of Variables Theorem (in PDF)

## General case (two-dimensional):

- In this case, the probability density becomes the axis perpendicular to the plane.
- Therefore, in this case, the volume of the blue polyhedron should be same as the volume of the green polyhedron.



$$p(x') \underbrace{\left| \det \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x_{11} & \Delta x_{21} \\ \Delta x_{12} & \Delta x_{22} \end{bmatrix} \right|}_{\text{Area of green region}} = \underbrace{\pi(z') \Delta z_1 \Delta z_2}_{\text{Area of blue region}}$$



# Preliminary – Change of Variables Theorem (in PDF)

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

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

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

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

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

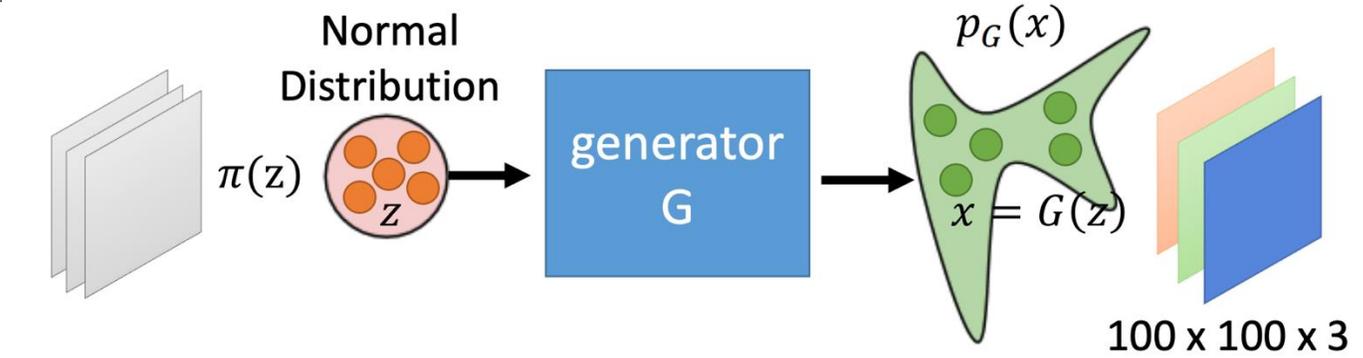
$$p(x') | \det(J_f) | = \pi(z')$$

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

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



# Discrete Normalizing Flows (DNF)

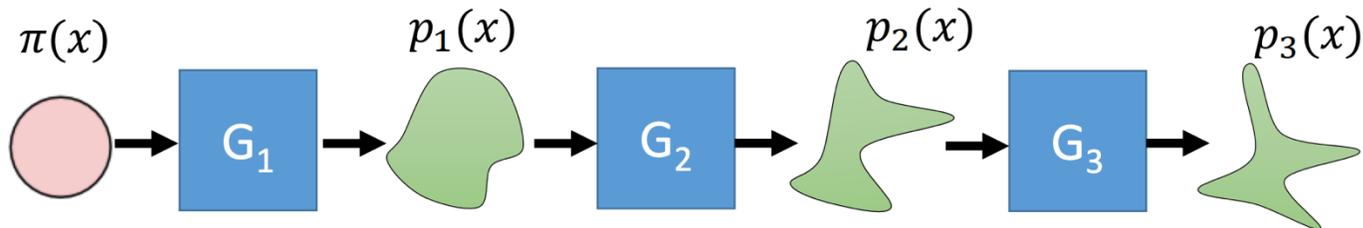


$$p_G(x^i) = \pi(z^i) |det(J_{G^{-1}})|$$

$$z^i = G^{-1}(x^i)$$

**Limitation:**

- **G must be invertible.**
- **So, G has constrained expressiveness.** 🙄



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

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

⋮

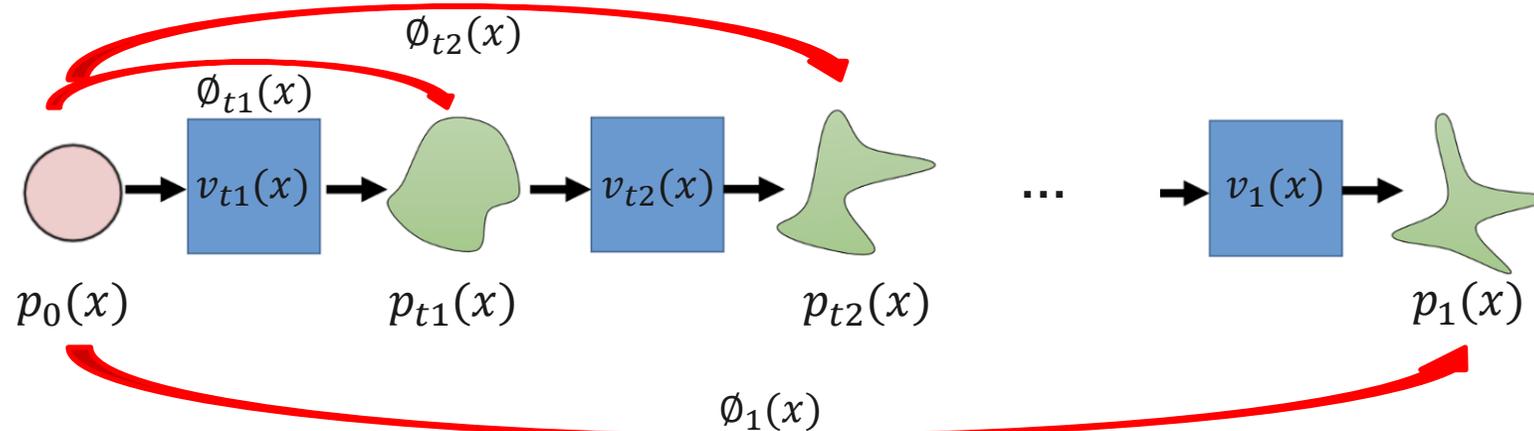
$$p_K(x^i) = \pi(z^i) \left( |det(J_{G_1^{-1}})| \right) \dots \left( |det(J_{G_K^{-1}})| \right)$$

**We can have more!**

**Why not have infinitely many?**



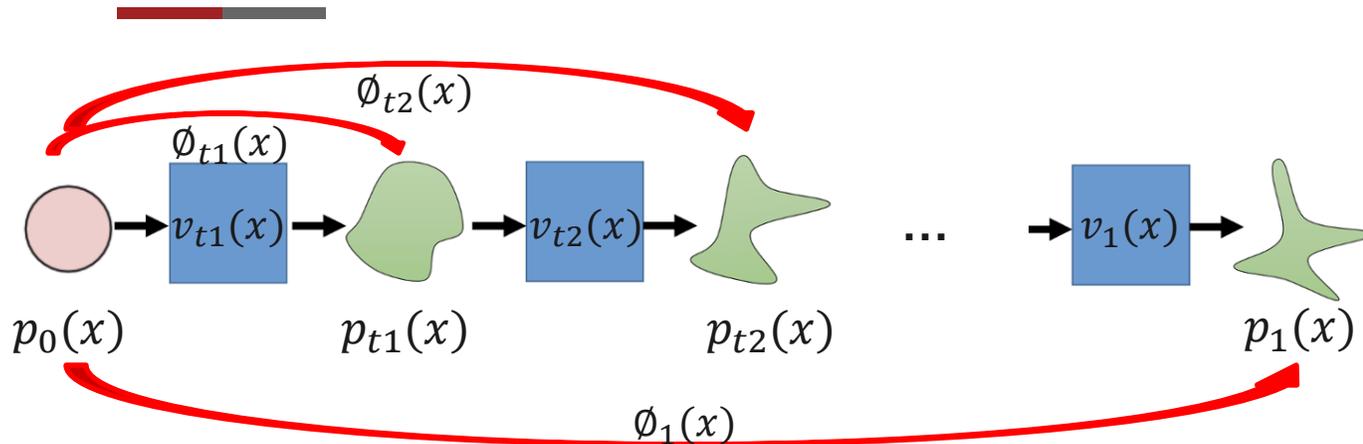
# Continuous Normalizing Flows (CNF)



- Infinite number of intermediate probability distributions is referred as a **probability density path**. Mathematically, we have  $p : [0, 1] \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ , where  $\int p_t(x) dx = 1$ .
- A time dependent vector field defines the transformation between any consecutive distributions:  $x_{t+\Delta t} = x_t + v_t(x_t) * \Delta t$ . When  $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ , we have  $\frac{dx}{dt} = v_t(x)$ .
- A **flow**  $\phi : [0, 1] \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  defines accumulative changes from  $x_0$  to  $x_t$  through the solution of an ordinary differential equation (ODE) initial value problem:  $\frac{d}{dt} \phi_t(x) = v_t(\phi_t(x))$  where  $\phi_0(x) = x$ .



# Continuous Normalizing Flows (CNF)



$$\begin{aligned} \phi &: [0, 1] \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d \\ \frac{d}{dt} \phi_t(x) &= v_t(\phi_t(x)) \\ \phi_0(x) &= x \end{aligned}$$

- Invertibility is guaranteed by the symmetricity of ODE. Its inverse flow  $\phi_t^{-1}(x)$  is defined by the reverse vector field  $-v_t(x)$ .
- The existence and uniqueness of the solution of the ODE is guaranteed by Picard-Lindelöf Theorem (Cauchy-Lipschitz Theorem).

- A CNF is used to reshape a simple prior density  $p_0$  (e.g., pure noise) to a more complicated one,  $p_1$ , via the push-forward equation  $p_t = [\phi_t]_* p_0$  where the push-forward operator  $*$  is defined by  $[\phi_t]_* p_0(x) = p_0(\phi_t^{-1}(x)) \det \left[ \frac{\partial \phi_t^{-1}}{\partial x}(x) \right]$ .
- A vector field  $v_t$  is said to generate a probability density path  $v_t$  if its flow  $\phi_t$  satisfies the above equations. One method of testing if a vector field  $v_t$  generates a probability path  $p_t$  is the **continuity equation**:  $\frac{d}{dt} p_t(x) + \text{div}(p_t(x)v_t(x)) = 0$ , where  $\text{div} = \sum_{i=1}^d \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}$ .



# Flow Matching

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- Let  $x_1$  denote a random variable distributed according to some unknown data distribution  $q(x_1)$ . Assume we only have access to data samples from  $q(x_1)$  but have no access to the density function itself.
- Furthermore, let  $p_t$  be a probability path such that  $p_0 = p$  is a simple distribution, e.g., the standard normal distribution  $p(x) = N(x|0, I)$ , and let  $p_1$  be approximately equal in distribution to  $q$ .
- Given a target probability density path  $p_t(x)$  and a corresponding vector field  $u_t(x)$ , which generates  $p_t(x)$ , the Flow Matching (FM) objective is defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{FM}}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{t, p_t(x)} \|v_t(x) - u_t(x)\|^2$$

where  $\theta$  denotes the learnable parameters of the CNF vector field  $v_t$ ,  $t \sim U[0, 1]$  (uniform distribution), and  $x \sim p_t(x)$ .



# Flow Matching

- No prior knowledge for what an appropriate  $p_t$  and  $u_t$  are. 🙄
- Don't have access to a closed form  $u_t$  that generates the desired  $p_t$ . 😞

- A simple way to construct a target probability path is via a mixture of simpler probability paths:
  - Given a particular data sample  $x_1$ , we denote by  $p_t(x|x_1)$  a conditional probability path such that it satisfies  $p_0(x|x_1) = p(x)$  at time  $t = 0$
  - Design  $p_1(x|x_1)$  at  $t = 1$  to be a distribution concentrated around  $x = x_1$ , e.g.,  $p_1(x|x_1) = N(x|x_1, \sigma^2 I)$ , a normal distribution with  $x_1$  mean and a sufficiently small standard deviation  $\sigma > 0$ .

$$p_t(x) = \int p_t(x|x_1)q(x_1)dx_1$$

$$p_1(x) = \int p_1(x|x_1)q(x_1)dx_1 \approx q(x)$$

$$u_t(x) = \int u_t(x|x_1) \frac{p_t(x|x_1)q(x_1)}{p_t(x)} dx_1^*$$

\* Can be proved with the continuity equation, see appendix of the paper for more details.



# Flow Matching

- Calculating  $u_t(x)$  involves intractable integration. 🗨️

- Fortunately and surprisingly, we can directly use vector fields  $u_t(x|x_1)$  that generate conditional probability paths  $p_t(x|x_1)$  instead of the marginal vector field  $u_t(x)$ .
- Consider the Conditional Flow Matching (CFM) objective:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{CFM}}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{t, q(x_1), p_t(x|x_1)} \left\| v_t(x) - u_t(x|x_1) \right\|^2$$

where  $t \sim U[0, 1]$ ,  $x_1 \sim q(x)$  and  $x \sim p_t(x|x_1)$ .

- Unlike the FM objective, the CFM objective allows us to easily sample unbiased estimates as long as we can efficiently sample from  $p_t(x|x_1)$  and compute  $u_t(x|x_1)$ , both of which can be easily done as they are defined on a per-sample basis.

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{FM}}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{t, p_t(x)} \left\| v_t(x) - u_t(x) \right\|^2$$

- The FM and CFM objectives have identical gradients w.r.t.  $\theta$ .\*

\* Can be proved easily, see appendix of the paper for more details.



# Flow Matching

- The Conditional Flow Matching objective works with any choice of conditional probability path and conditional vector fields.
- This paper constructs  $p_t(x|x_1)$  and  $u_t(x|x_1)$  with Gaussian conditional probability.

$$p_t(x|x_1) = \mathcal{N}(x | \mu_t(x_1), \sigma_t(x_1)^2 I)$$

set  $\mu_0(x_1) = 0$  and  $\sigma_0(x_1) = 1$  and set  $\mu_1(x_1) = x_1$  and  $\sigma_1(x_1) = \sigma_{min}$ .

- Construct the flow as:

$$\psi_t(x) = \sigma_t(x_1)x + \mu_t(x_1)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}\psi_t(x) = u_t(\psi_t(x)|x_1) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{CFM}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{t,q(x_1),p(x_0)} \left\| v_t(\psi_t(x_0)) - \frac{d}{dt}\psi_t(x_0) \right\|^2$$

- The unique vector field that defines  $\psi_t$  has the form (prime denotes derivatives):

$$u_t(x|x_1) = \frac{\sigma'_t(x_1)}{\sigma_t(x_1)} (x - \mu_t(x_1)) + \mu'_t(x_1)$$



# Optimal Transport conditional Vector Fields

- Define the mean and the std to simply change linearly in time:

$$\mu_t(x) = tx_1, \text{ and } \sigma_t(x) = 1 - (1 - \sigma_{\min})t$$

- Then we can derive that this path is generated by the vector field:

$$u_t(x|x_1) = \frac{x_1 - (1 - \sigma_{\min})x}{1 - (1 - \sigma_{\min})t}$$

- The corresponding conditional flow is derived as:

$$\psi_t(x) = (1 - (1 - \sigma_{\min})t)x + tx_1$$

- The CFM loss becomes:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{CFM}}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{t,q(x_1),p(x_0)} \left\| v_t(\psi_t(x_0)) - \left( x_1 - (1 - \sigma_{\min})x_0 \right) \right\|^2$$



# Alternative Implementation of Flow Matching

- We can optimize our model based on the loss function derived on the previous slide, or directly employ the vanilla CFM loss as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{CFM}}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{t, q(x_1), p_t(x|x_1)} \left\| v_t(x) - u_t(x|x_1) \right\|^2$$

- $q(x_1)$  can be approximated by the training dataset.
- $t$  can be randomly sampled from 0 to 1 until the training process converges.
- For  $p_t(x|x_1)$ , we have:

$$p_t(x|x_1) = \mathcal{N}(x | \mu_t(x_1), \sigma_t(x_1)^2 I)$$

- Therefore, we can sample  $x$  as:  $\mu_t(x_1) + \sigma_t(x_1) * \epsilon$ , where  $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$ .
- Then we can calculate the conditional vector field through:

$$u_t(x|x_1) = \frac{x_1 - (1 - \sigma_{\min})x}{1 - (1 - \sigma_{\min})t}$$

- And thus train our model based on the above regression loss.



# Discussion and Conclusions

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- Since we can have different designs for the probability path, flow matching can theoretically unify the score-matching model (Variance Exploding Diffusion) and diffusion denoising probabilistic model (Variance Preserving Diffusion).
- This is similar to the purpose of diffusion models with stochastic differential equations paper.
- Diffusion models use the evidence lower bound (ELBO) as a proxy objective to optimize the model, whereas flow matching directly uses the log likelihood.



# Thanks for your attention!

