

CS11-711 Advanced NLP

# Multimodal Modeling II

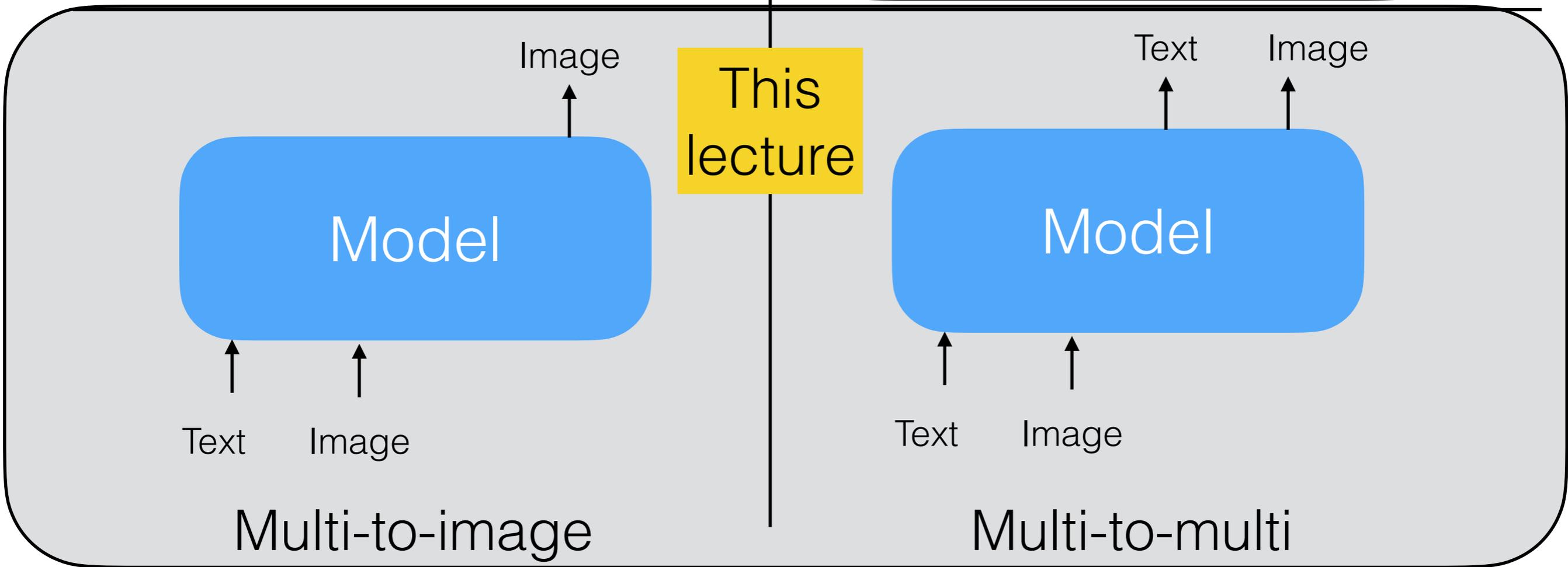
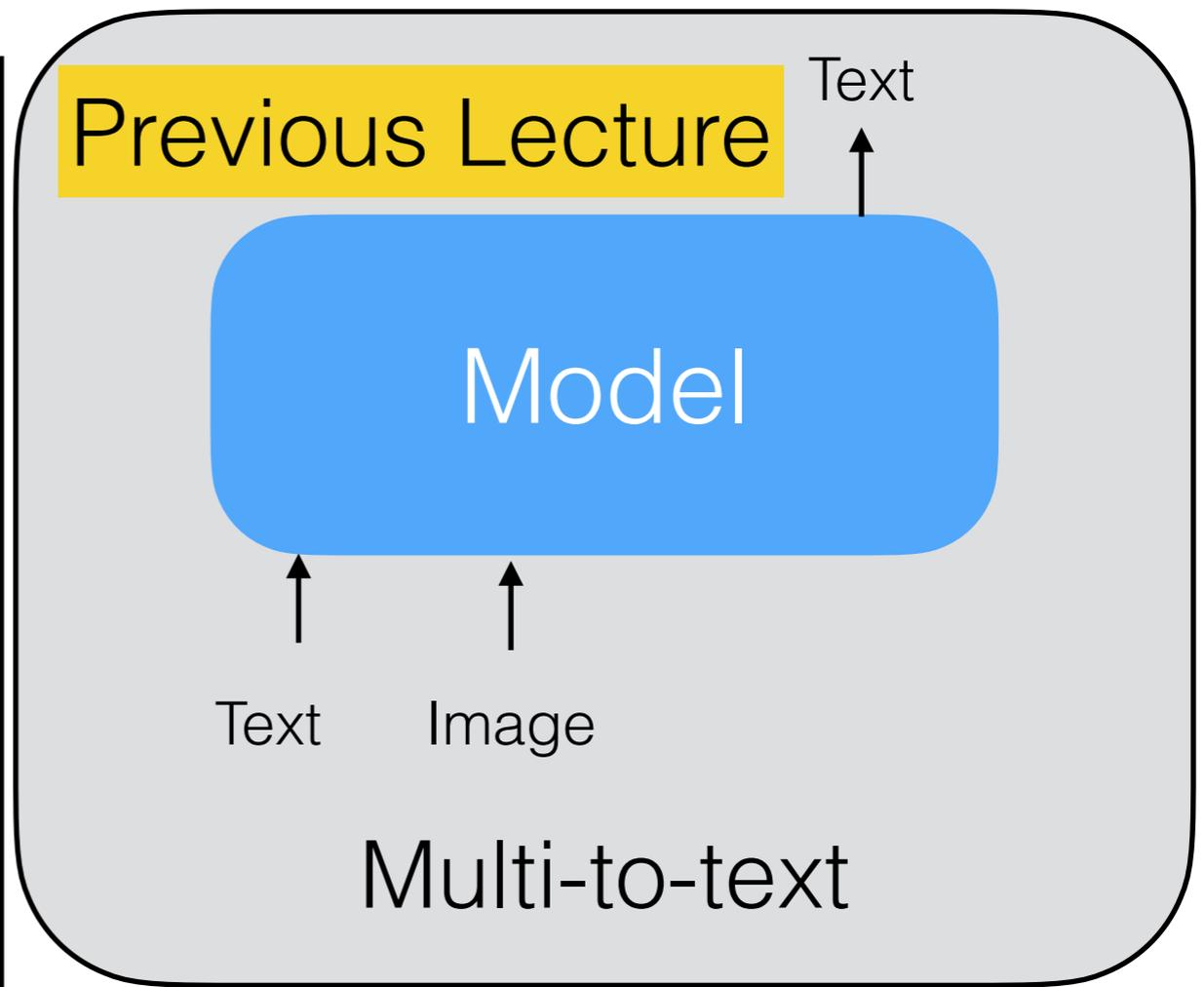
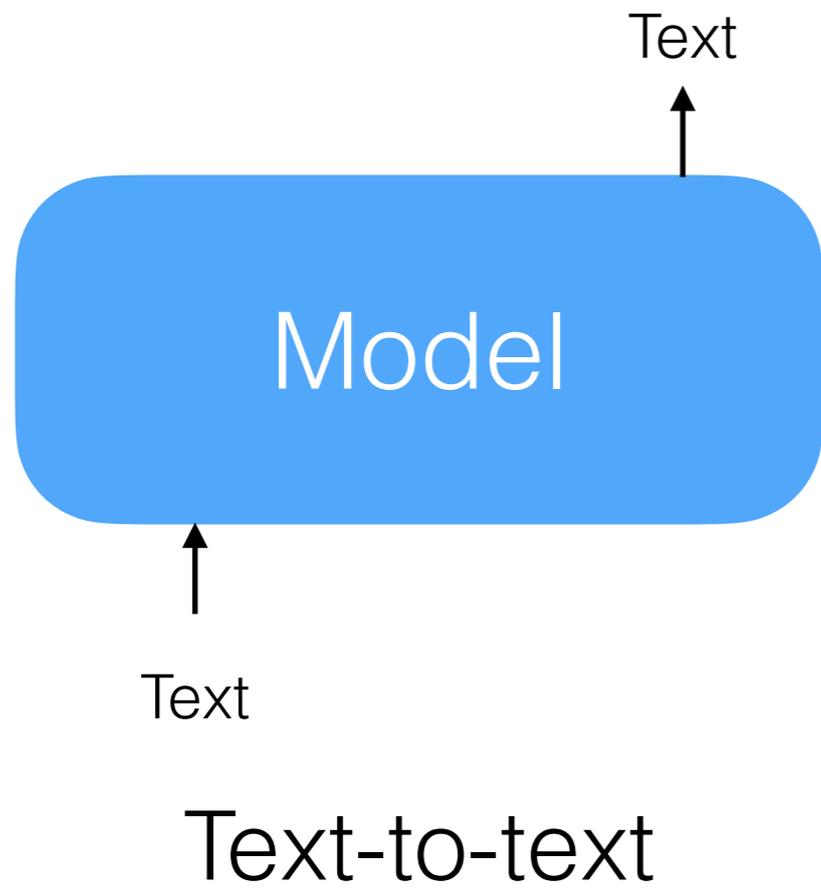
Sean Welleck

**Carnegie  
Mellon  
University**



<https://cmu-l3.github.io/anlp-spring2026/>

<https://github.com/cmu-l3/anlp-spring2026-code>



Generate a framed picture of Pittsburgh in an Impressionist style

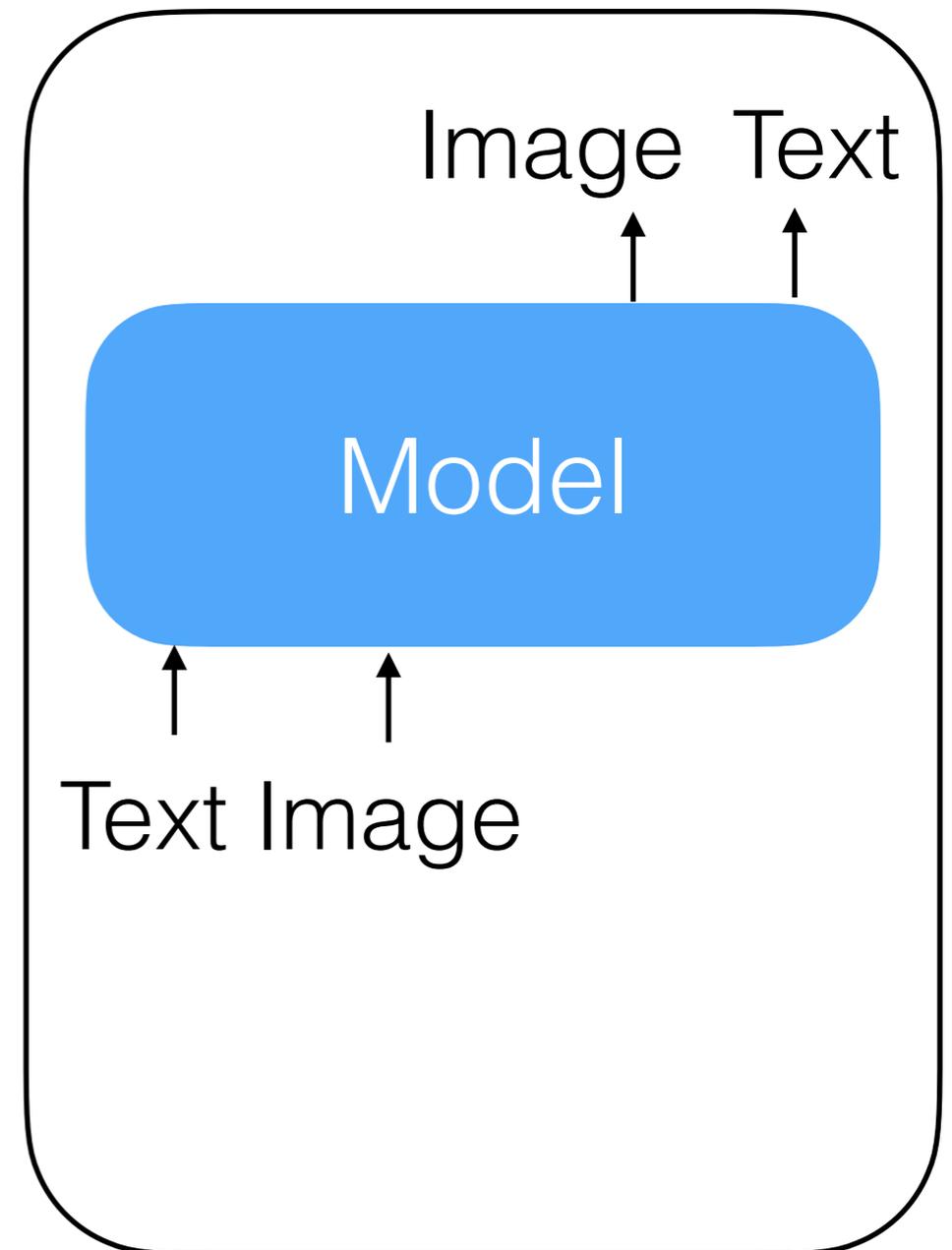
Image created



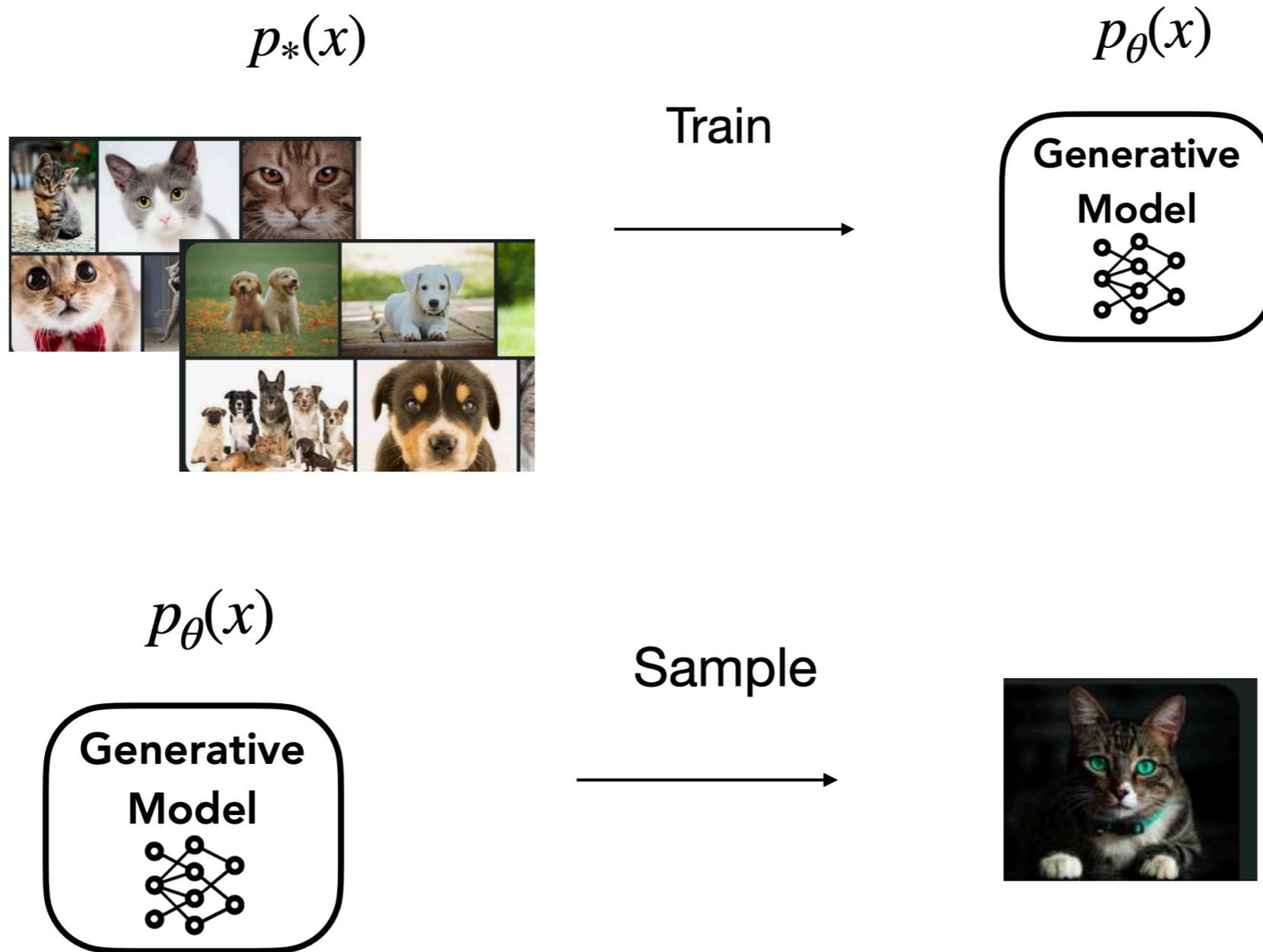
Example: ChatGPT 4o

# Today's lecture

- Basic generative modeling paradigms
- Autoregressive modeling of pixels
- Autoregressive modeling of “image tokens”
- Other paradigms

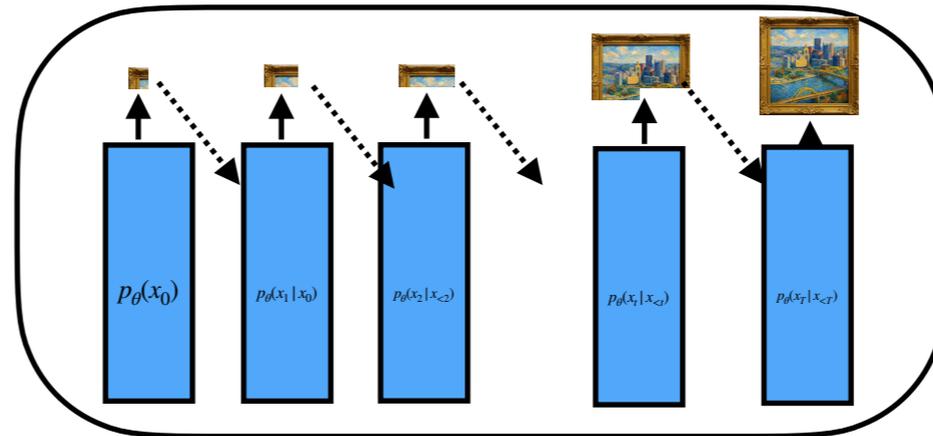


# Generative modeling paradigms

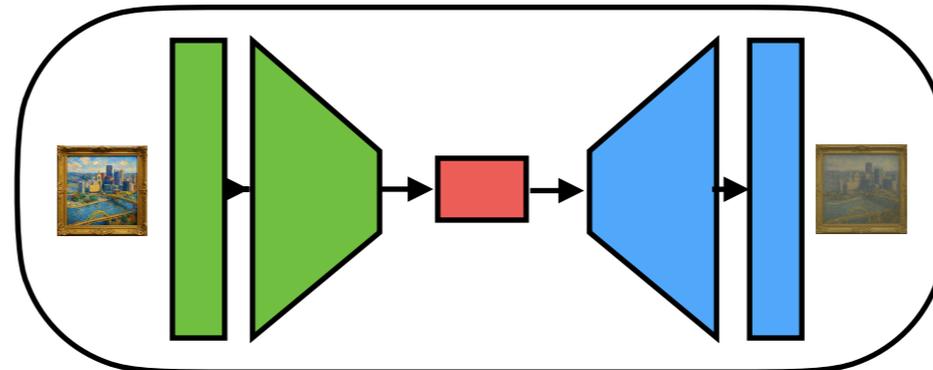


# Generative modeling paradigms

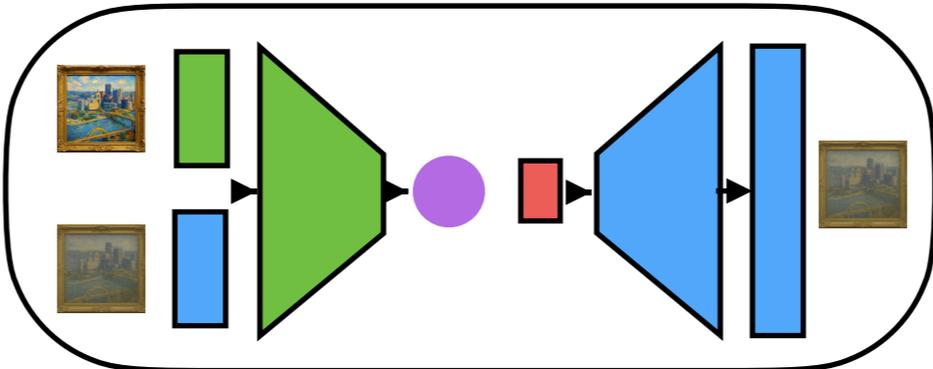
Autoregressive



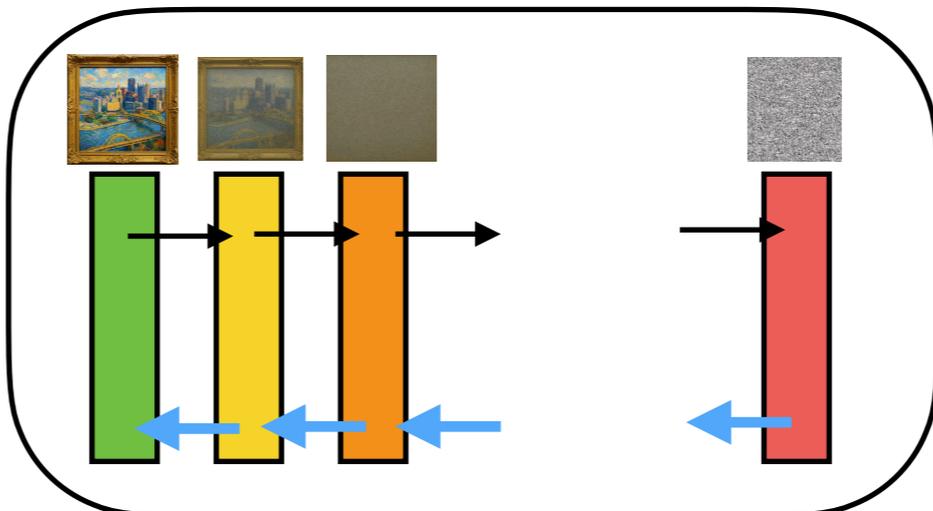
Variational Autoencoder (VAE)



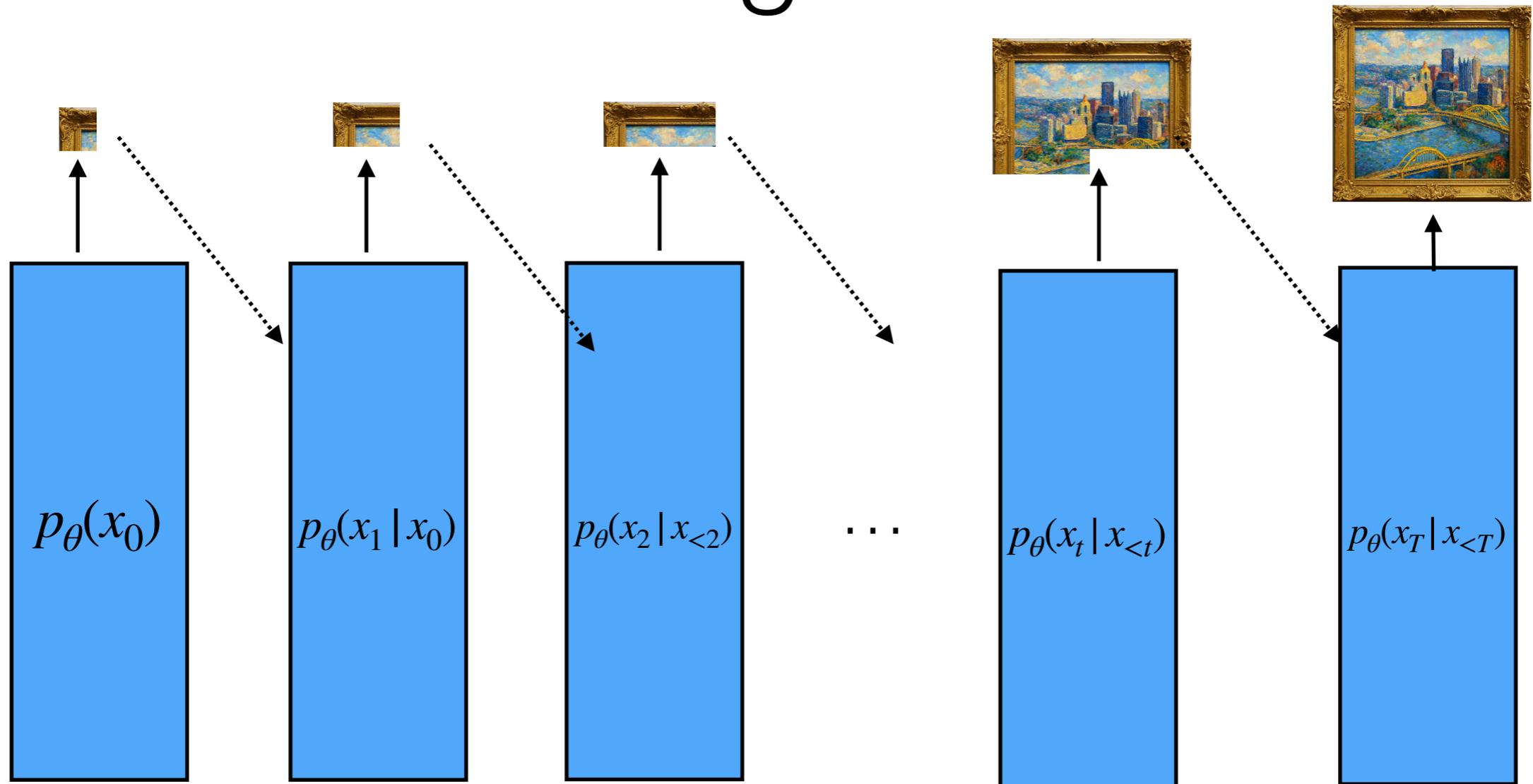
Generative Adversarial Networks (GAN)



Diffusion

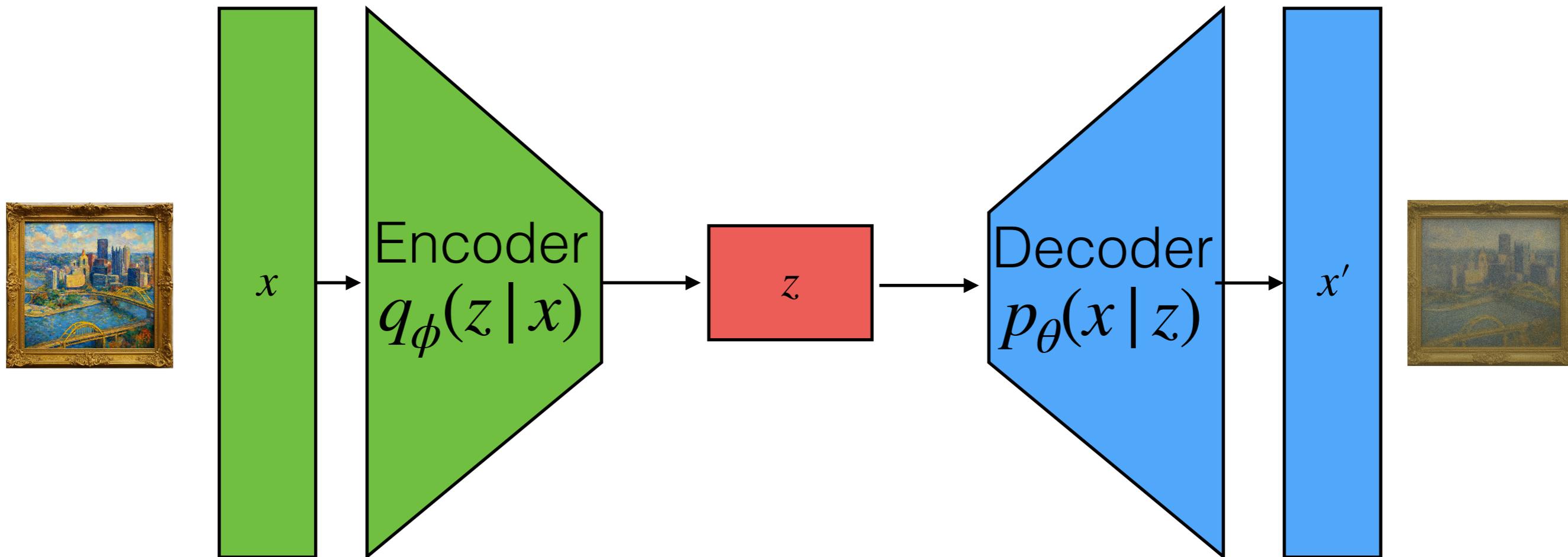


# Autoregressive



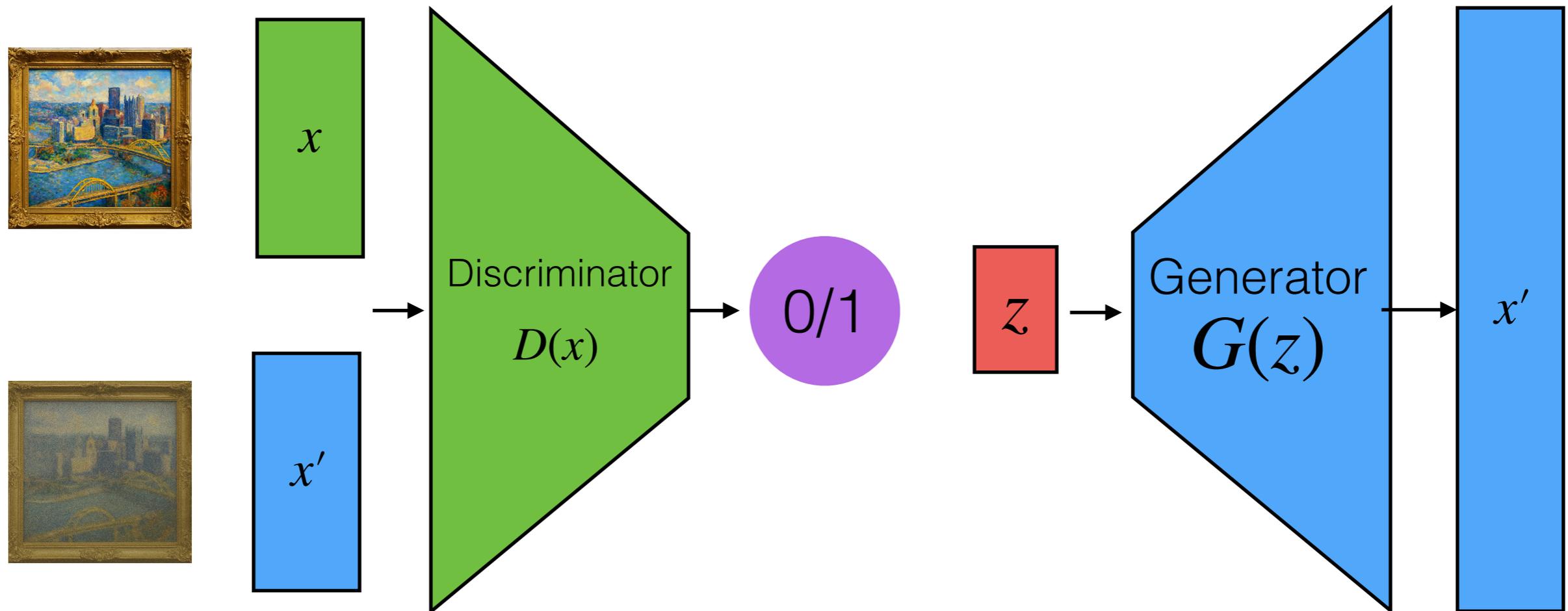
- Generate one dimension (e.g., token, pixel) at a time given the previous ones

# Variational Auto-encoders (VAE)



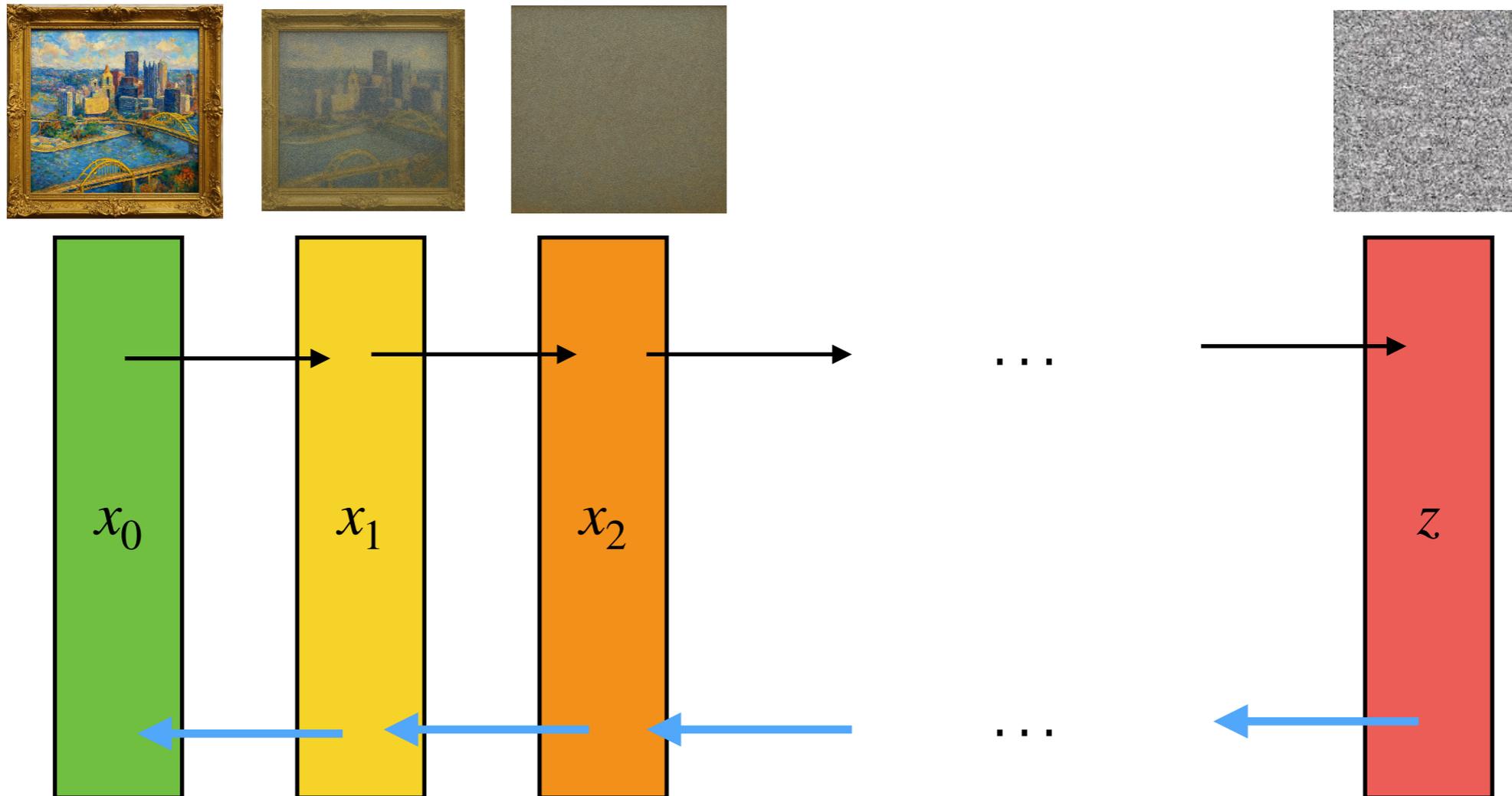
- Learn to reconstruct the image by compressing it into a vector and uncompressing it

# Generative adversarial networks (GAN)



- Learn to generate an image by fooling a discriminator that detects whether an image is fake

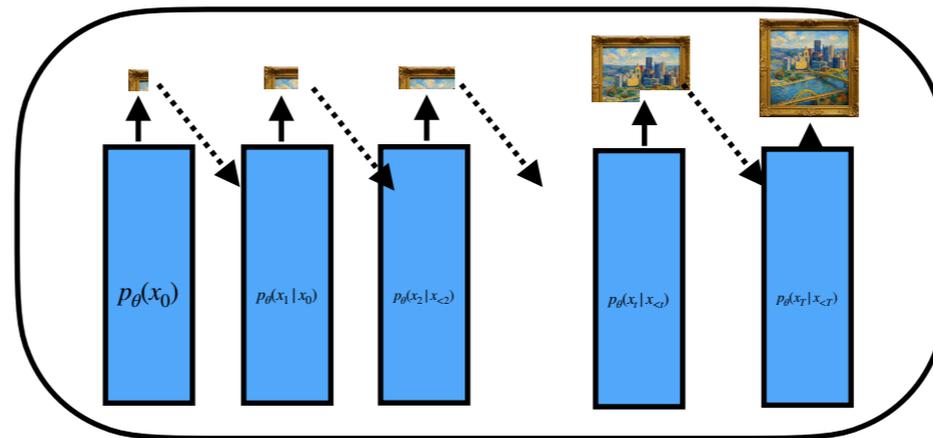
# Diffusion models



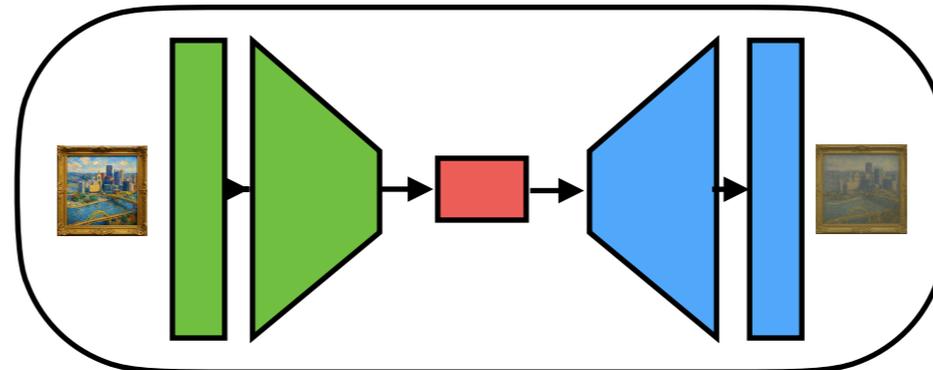
- Gradually add noise to an image, then **learn to de-noise**

# Generative modeling paradigms

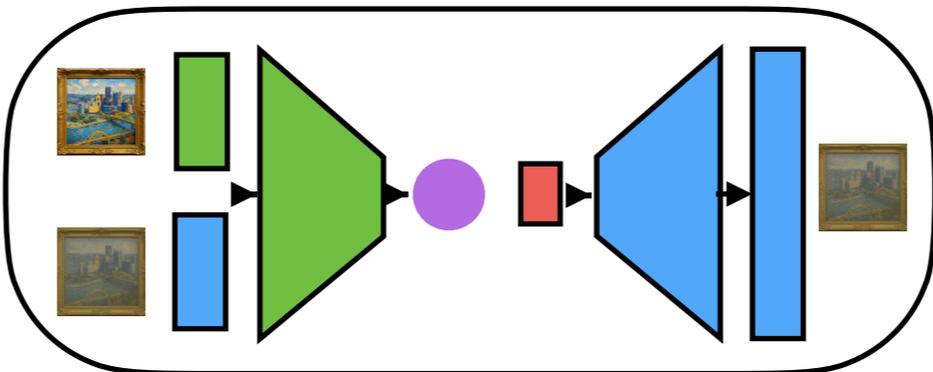
Autoregressive



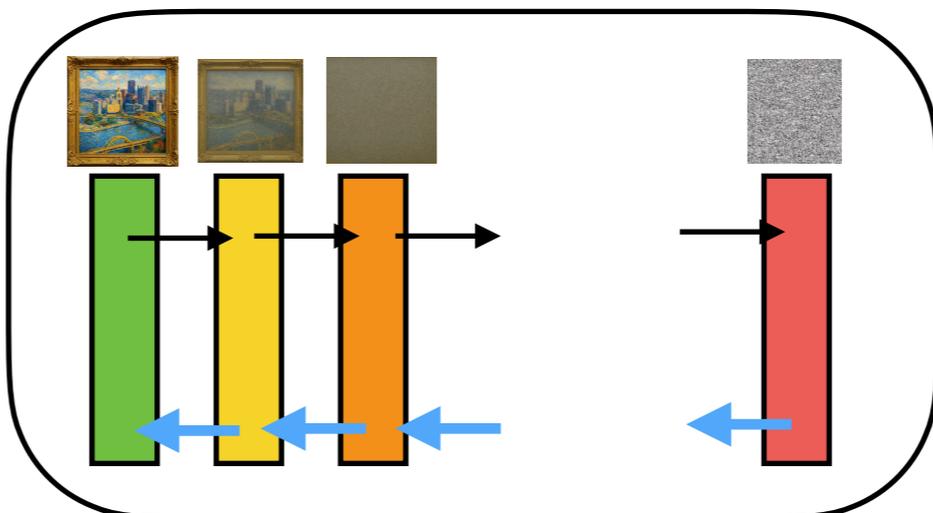
VAE



GAN

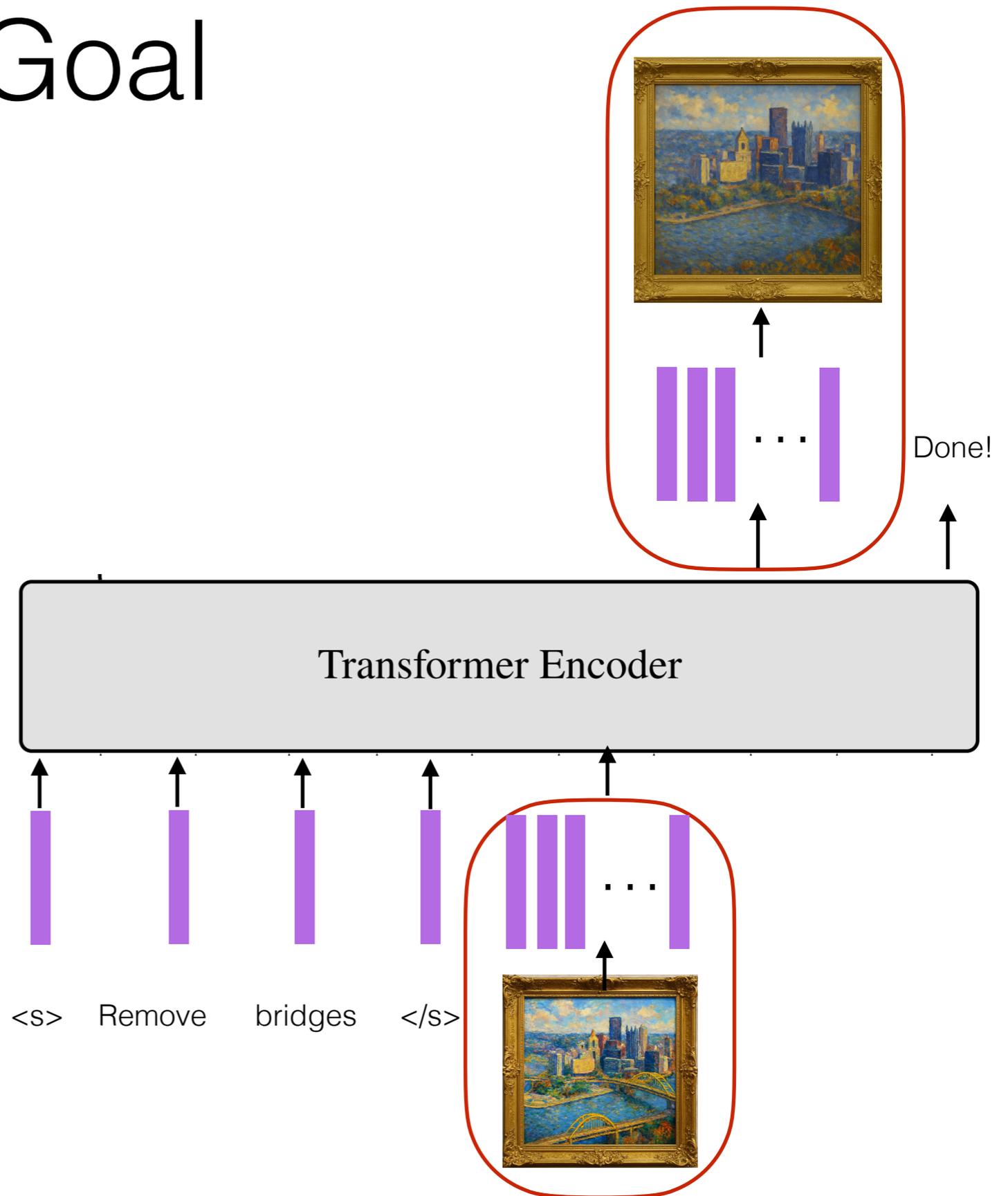


Diffusion



# Goal

- Image tokenizer
- Image “de-tokenizer”
- Single Transformer for text and image



# Roadmap

- **Attempt 1:** use a standard auto-regressive model
  - Tokenizer: individual pixels
  - De-tokenizer: generate individual pixels, no de-tokenizer needed
- **Attempt 2:** learn a discrete tokenizer / de-tokenizer
  - Vector-quantized VAE (VQ-VAE)
  - VQ-GAN

# Auto-regressive model

- **Basic idea:** treat an image as a sequence of pixels
  - Learn a language model over the pixel sequences
- $x_{\text{img}} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C} \rightarrow x_1, \dots, x_T$ 
  - $x_t \in \{1, 2, \dots, 256\}$
- Given a dataset of sequences:

- $$\mathcal{L}_{MLE} = \sum_{t=1}^T -\log p_{\theta}(x_t | x_{<t})$$

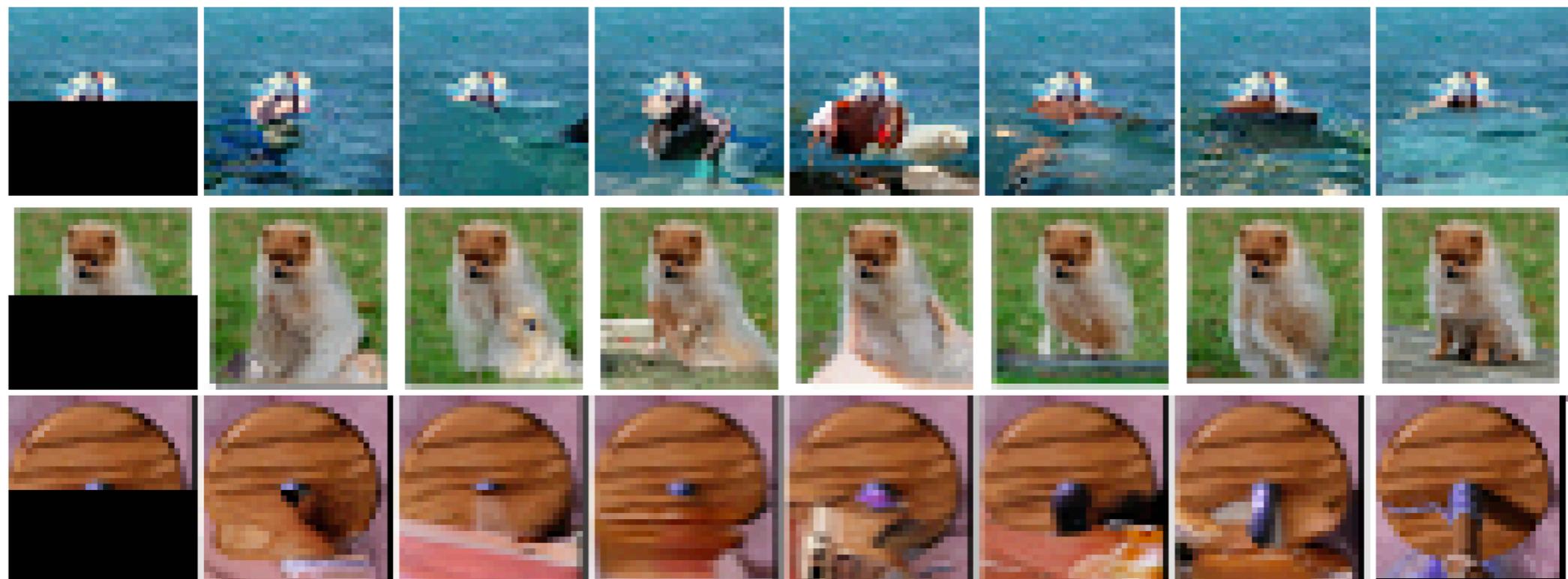
# Example: PixelRNN

[van den Oord 2016]

occluded

completions

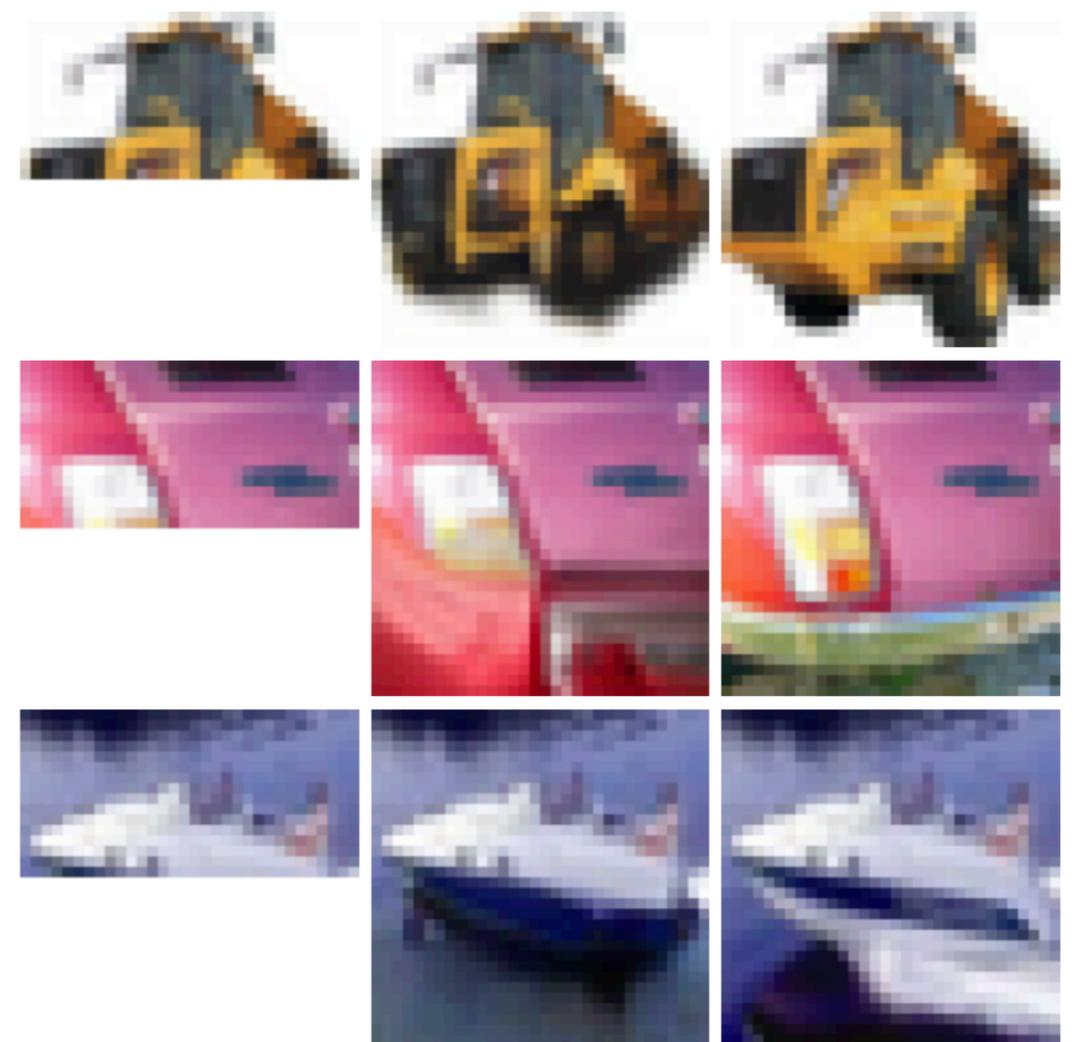
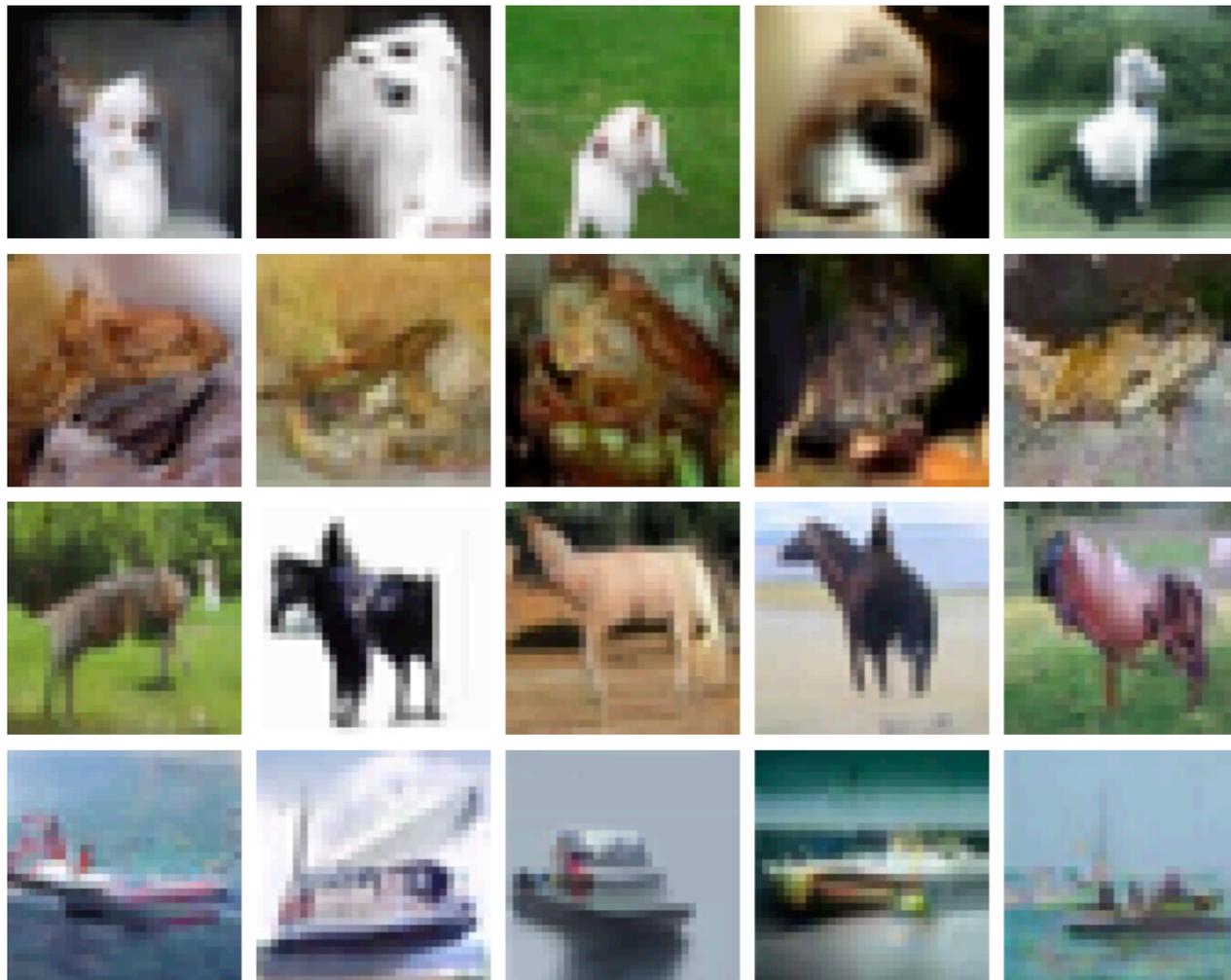
original



*Figure 1.* Image completions sampled from a PixelRNN.

# Example: Image Transformer

[Parmar et al 2018]



# Example: iGPT

[OpenAI et al 2020]

## Generative Pretraining from Pixels

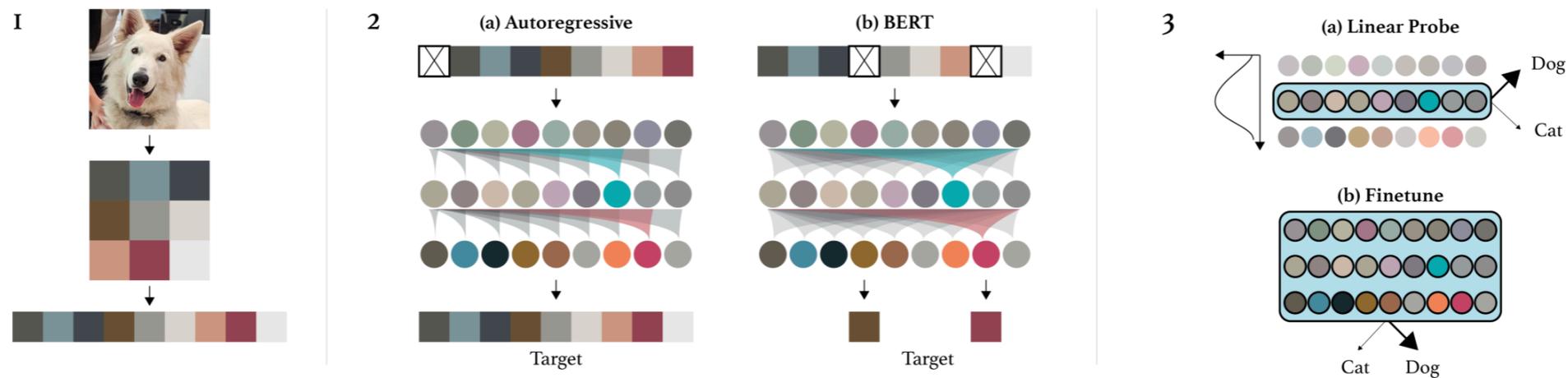
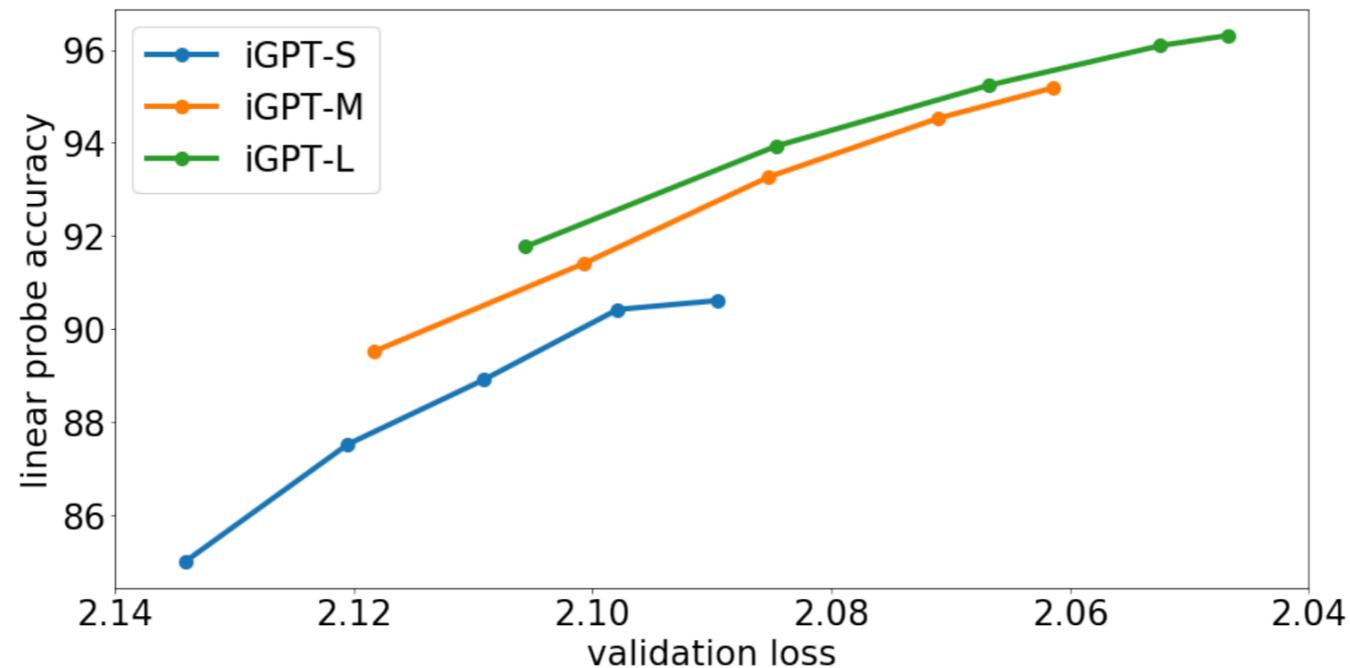
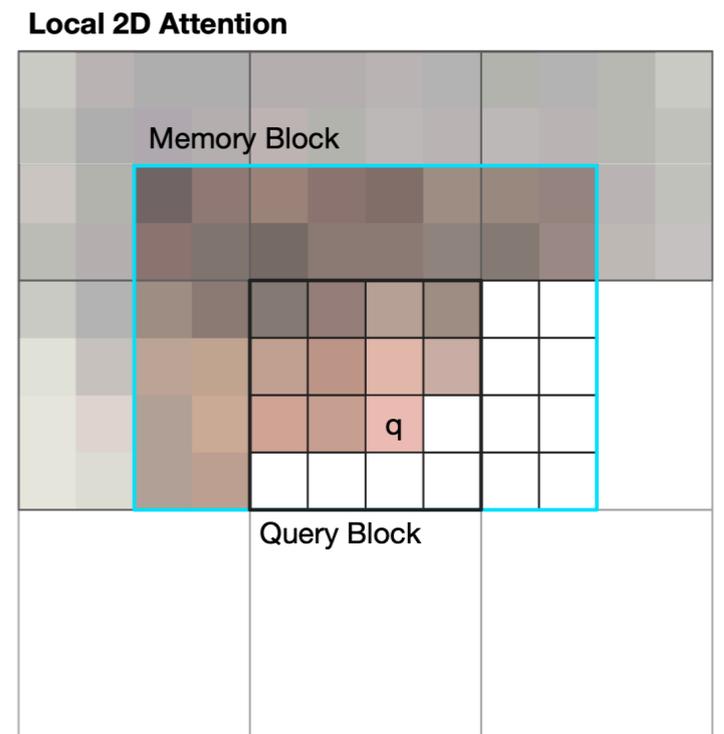


Figure 1. An overview of our approach. First, we pre-process raw images by resizing to a low resolution and reshaping into a 1D sequence. We then chose one of two pre-training objectives, auto-regressive next pixel prediction or masked pixel prediction. Finally, we evaluate the representations learned by these objectives with linear probes or fine-tuning.



# Auto-regressive model

- **Challenge 1:** sequence length
  - 1024 x 1024 image with 3 channels (RGB)
    - 3 million tokens
- **Challenge 2:** each pixel carries relatively little semantic information compared to a word token
  - => lots of data needed



Typically involved  
alternative  
memory-efficient  
attention patterns

# Auto-regressive model scaling

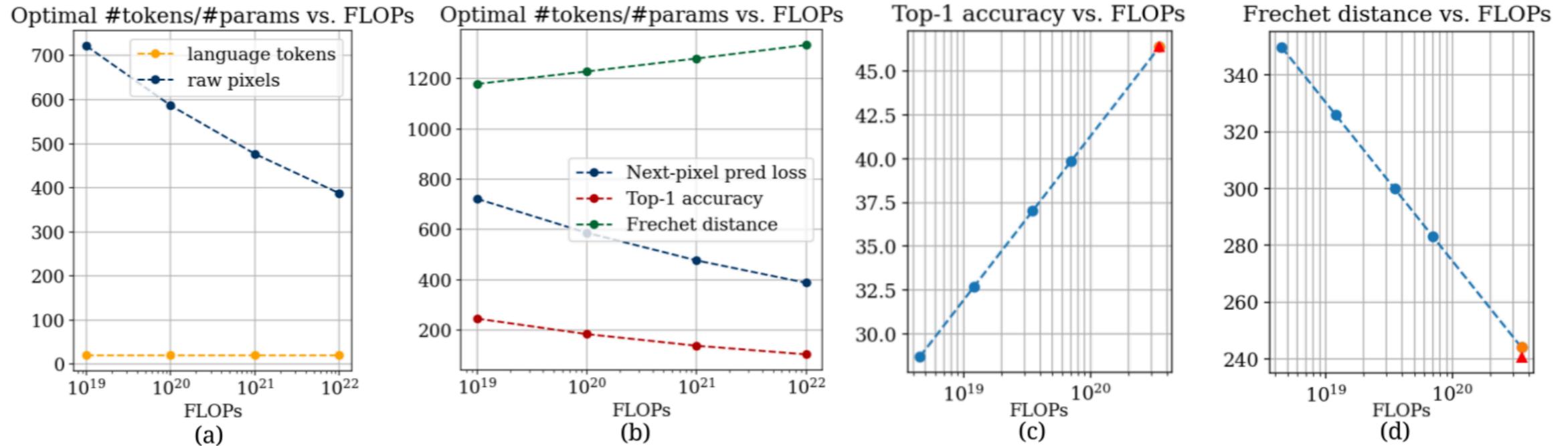


Figure 1. Key findings on the scaling properties of next-pixel prediction, based on training Transformers on  $32 \times 32$  images. (a) Learning on raw pixels (blue line) requires 10 – 20 $\times$  higher optimal token-to-parameter ratio than learning on language tokens (yellow line). (b) The optimal scaling strategy varies: generation quality (Fréchet Distance, green) requires more training data optimally than classification (Top-1 accuracy, red) or the next-pixel prediction loss (blue). (c)-(d) The optimal-token and optimal-parameter setup is further verified by training models following the scaling prediction. Given  $3.5e20$  training FLOPs (with 5  $\times$  more compute), we project to reach 46.39% accuracy (vs. 46.41% in reality) and 244 Fréchet Distance (vs. 240 Fréchet Distance in reality).

**Rethinking generative image pretraining:  
How far are we from scaling up next-pixel prediction?**

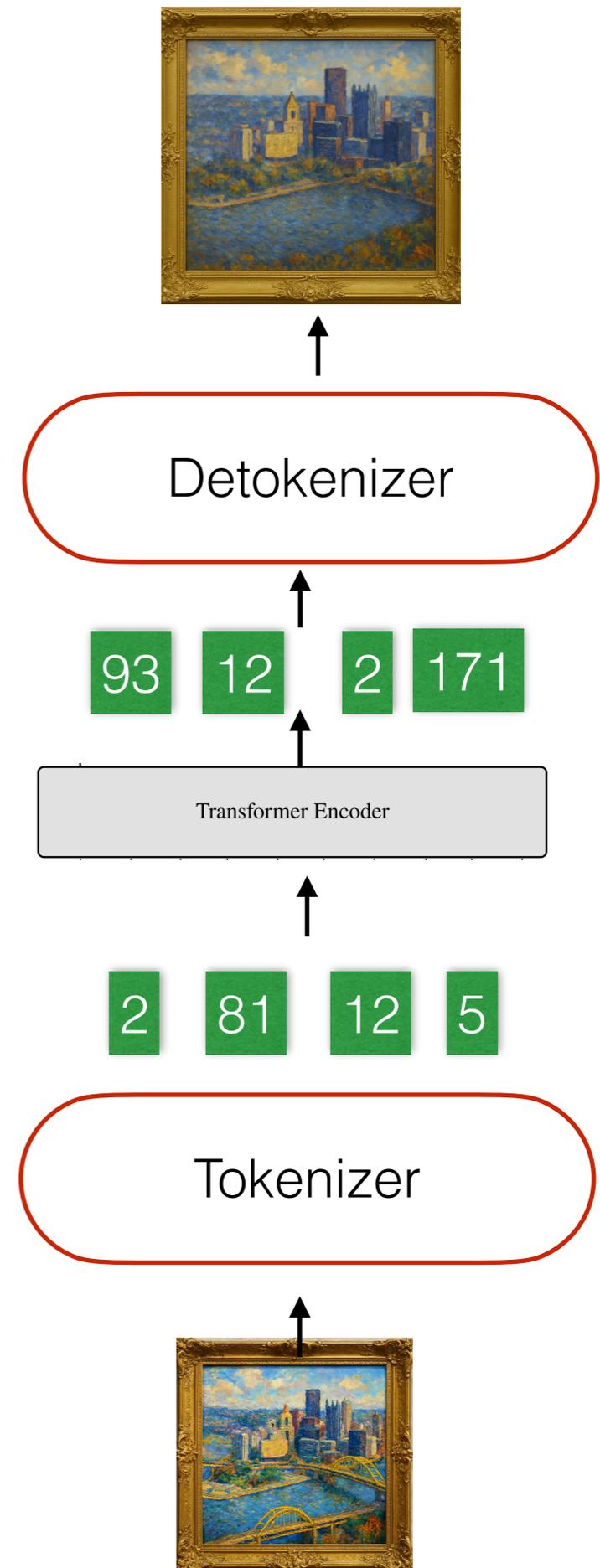
Xinchen Yan<sup>1\*</sup> Chen Liang<sup>1\*</sup> Lijun Yu<sup>1</sup> Adams Wei Yu<sup>1</sup> Yifeng Lu<sup>1</sup> Quoc V. Le<sup>1</sup>

# Roadmap

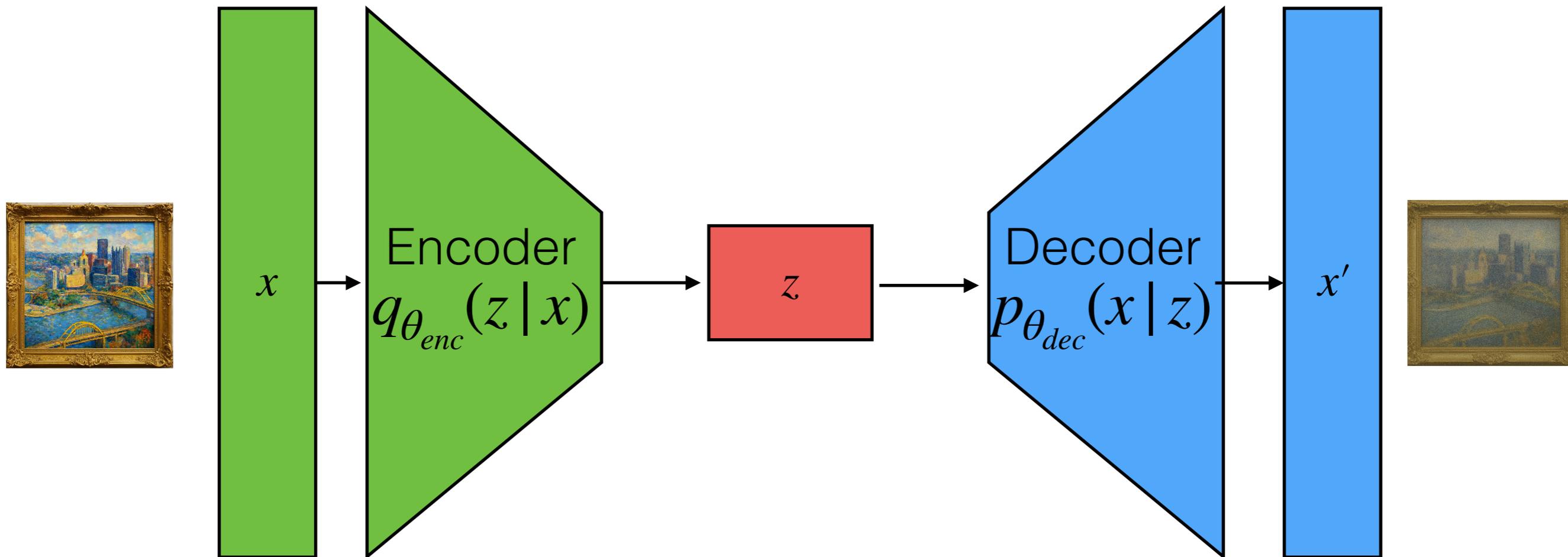
- Attempt 1: use a standard auto-regressive model
- **Attempt 2:** learn a discrete tokenizer / de-tokenizer
  - Vector-quantized VAE (VQ-VAE)
  - VQ-GAN

# Idea

- Learn a tokenizer that compactly represents an image as a sequence of discrete tokens.
- Example:
  - Vocabulary: 8,000 token ids
  - Image: sequence of 1024 tokens
- Approach: VQ-VAE

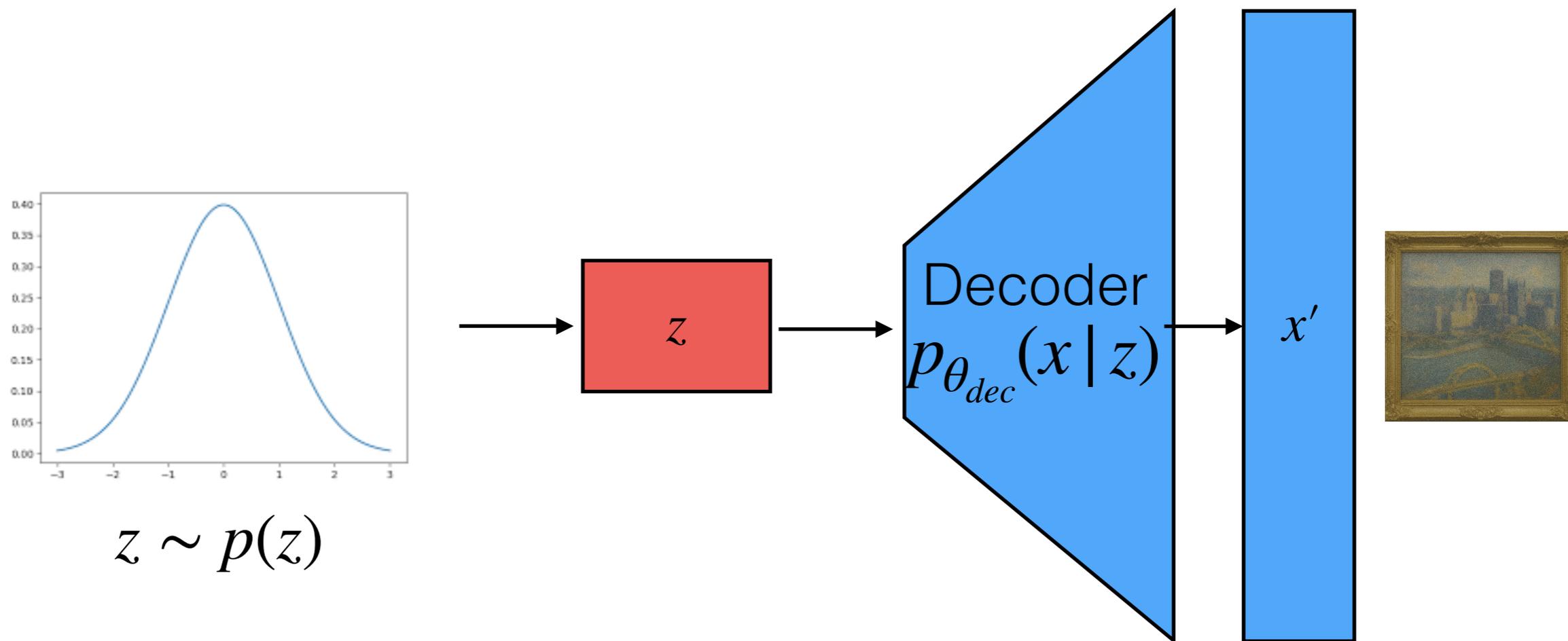


# Variational Autoencoder (VAE)



- Learn to reconstruct the image by compressing it into a vector and uncompressing it

# Variational Autoencoder (VAE)



- After training, generate by sampling a latent vector from the prior and passing it to the decoder

# Standard VAE

[Kingma & Welling 2013]

- **Goal:** learn to compress data (like images) into a low-dimensional representation  $z$ , and then reconstruct or generate new data with it
- Assume that data is generated as follows:
  - First sample a latent variable  $z \sim p(z)$
  - Turn it into data  $x$  with a decoder,  $p_{\theta_{dec}}(x | z)$
- The encoder maps data  $x$  into a latent variable,  $q_{\theta_{enc}}(z | x)$

# Standard VAE

[Kingma & Welling 2013]

- Train by balancing two goals:

- **Reconstruct the input well:**

Reconstruction loss:  $-\log p_{\theta_{dec}}(x | z)$

- **Keep  $z$  values well behaved:**

Regularization:  $D_{KL} \left( q_{\theta_{enc}}(z | x) || \mathcal{N}(0, I) \right)$

Makes the encoder's output distribution close to a standard Gaussian

# Standard VAE

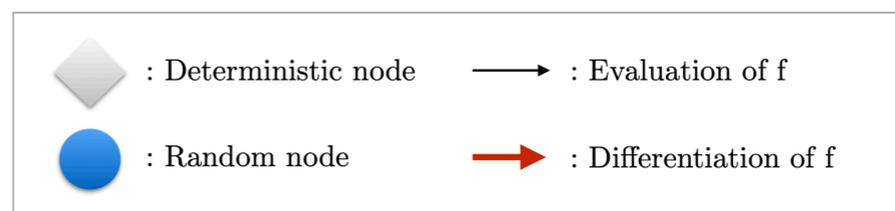
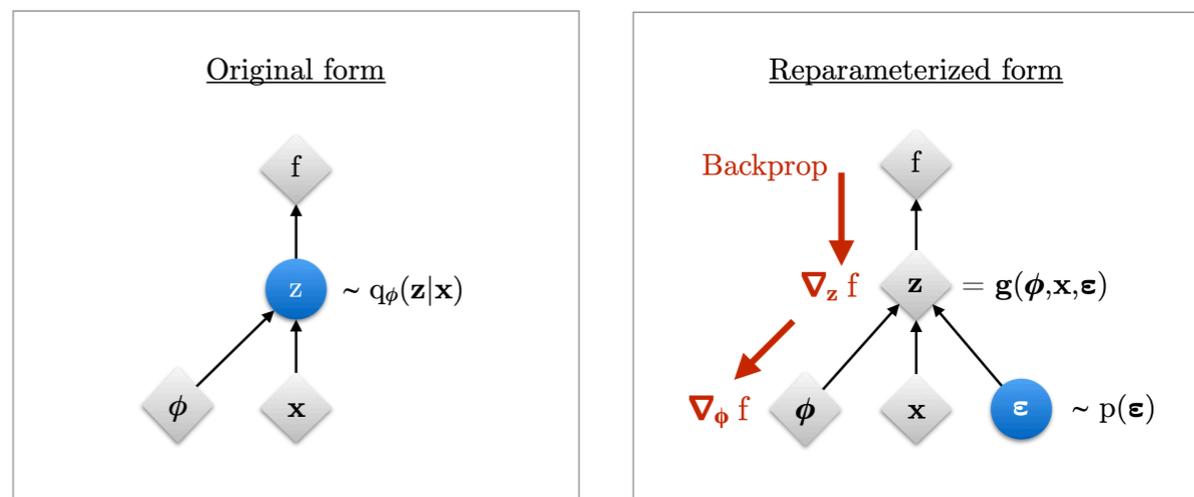
[Kingma & Welling 2013]

- Final loss:

$$\mathcal{L}_{VAE}(x) = -\mathbb{E}_{q_{\theta_{enc}}(z|x)} \left[ \log p_{\theta_{dec}}(x|z) \right] + D_{KL}(q_{\theta_{enc}}(z|x) || p(z))$$

where  $p(z)$  is  $\mathcal{N}(0, I)$

“Reparameterization trick”



# VAE Loss: Evidence Lower Bound

$$\bullet \log p(x) = \log \int p(x, z) dz$$

$$= \log \int q(z | x) \frac{p(x, z)}{q(z | x)} dz$$

$$= \log \mathbb{E}_{q(z|x)} \left[ \frac{p(x, z)}{q(z | x)} \right]$$

$$\geq \mathbb{E}_{q(z|x)} \left[ \log \frac{p(x, z)}{q(z | x)} \right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{q(z|x)} [\log p(x | z)] + \mathbb{E}_{q(z|x)} \left[ \log \frac{p(z)}{q(z | x)} \right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{q(z|x)} [\log p(x | z)] - D_{\text{KL}}(q(z | x) || p(z))$$

$$= - \mathcal{L}_{\text{VAE}}$$

Importance sampling

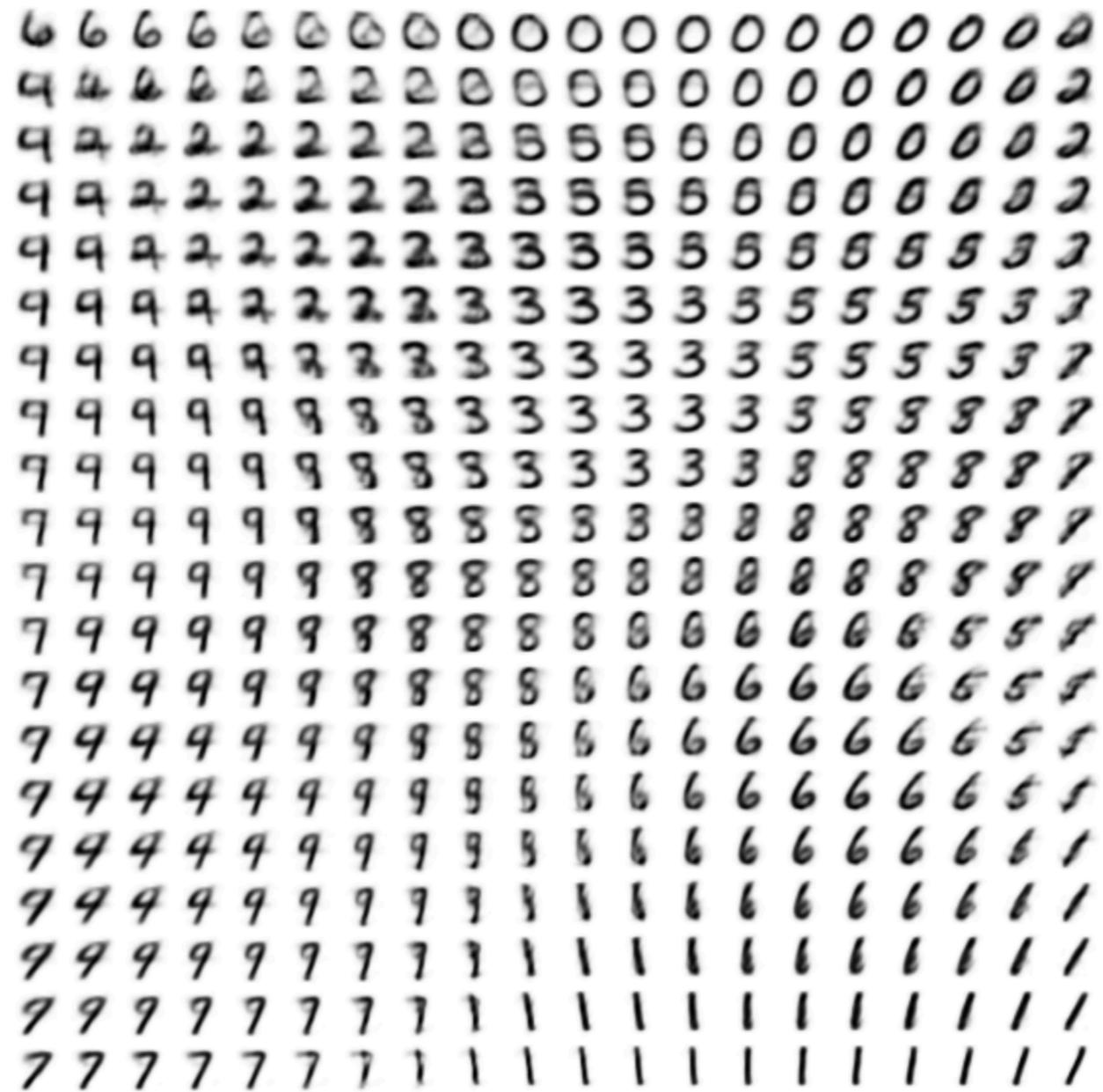
Jensen's inequality

**Evidence Lower Bound ("ELBO")**

# Standard VAE



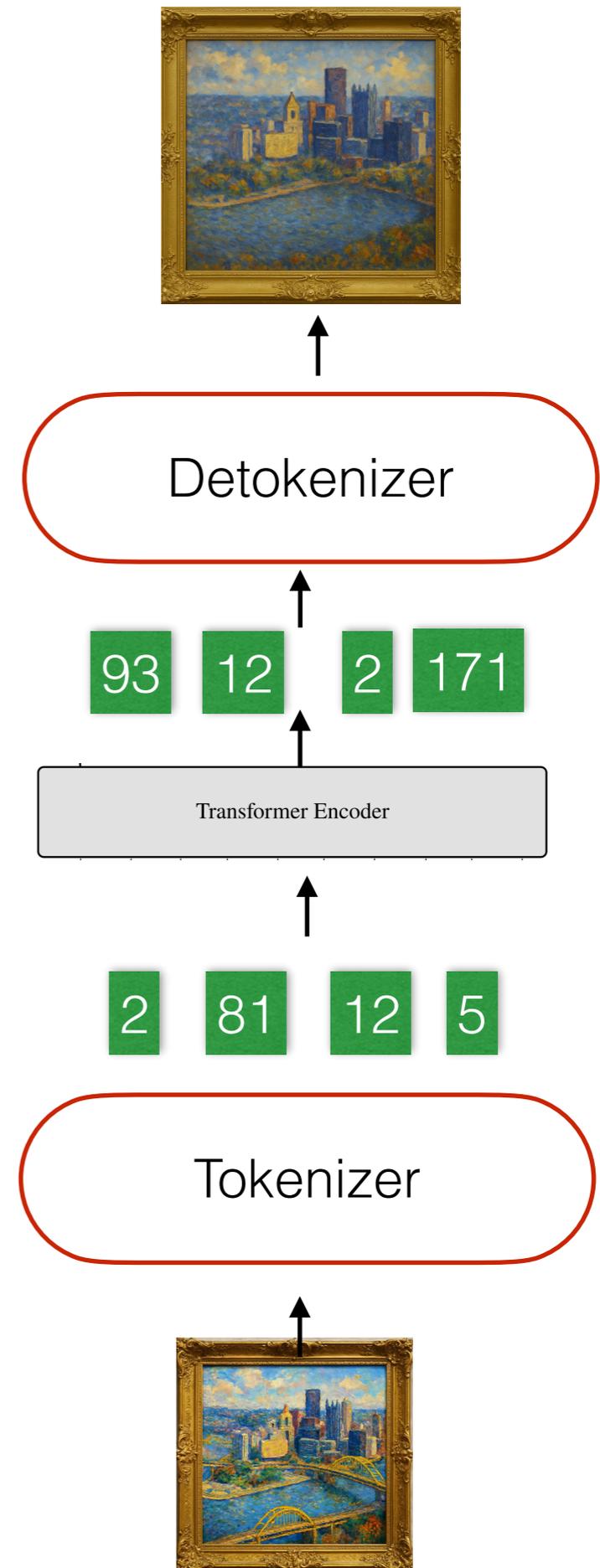
(a) Learned Frey Face manifold



(b) Learned MNIST manifold

# From continuous to discrete

- Standard VAEs give us a way to encode and decode images using a continuous vector
- Idea: make a *discrete* VAE to let us:
  - encode an image as a sequence of *discrete tokens*
  - decode an image from a sequence of discrete tokens



# VQ-VAE

[van den Oord 2017]

- Encoder:  $q(z|x)$

- $x \rightarrow z_e(x) \in \mathbb{R}^d$

- Quantizer:  $z_e(x) \rightarrow z_q(x)$

- Compare  $z_e(x)$  to a set of learned codebook vectors

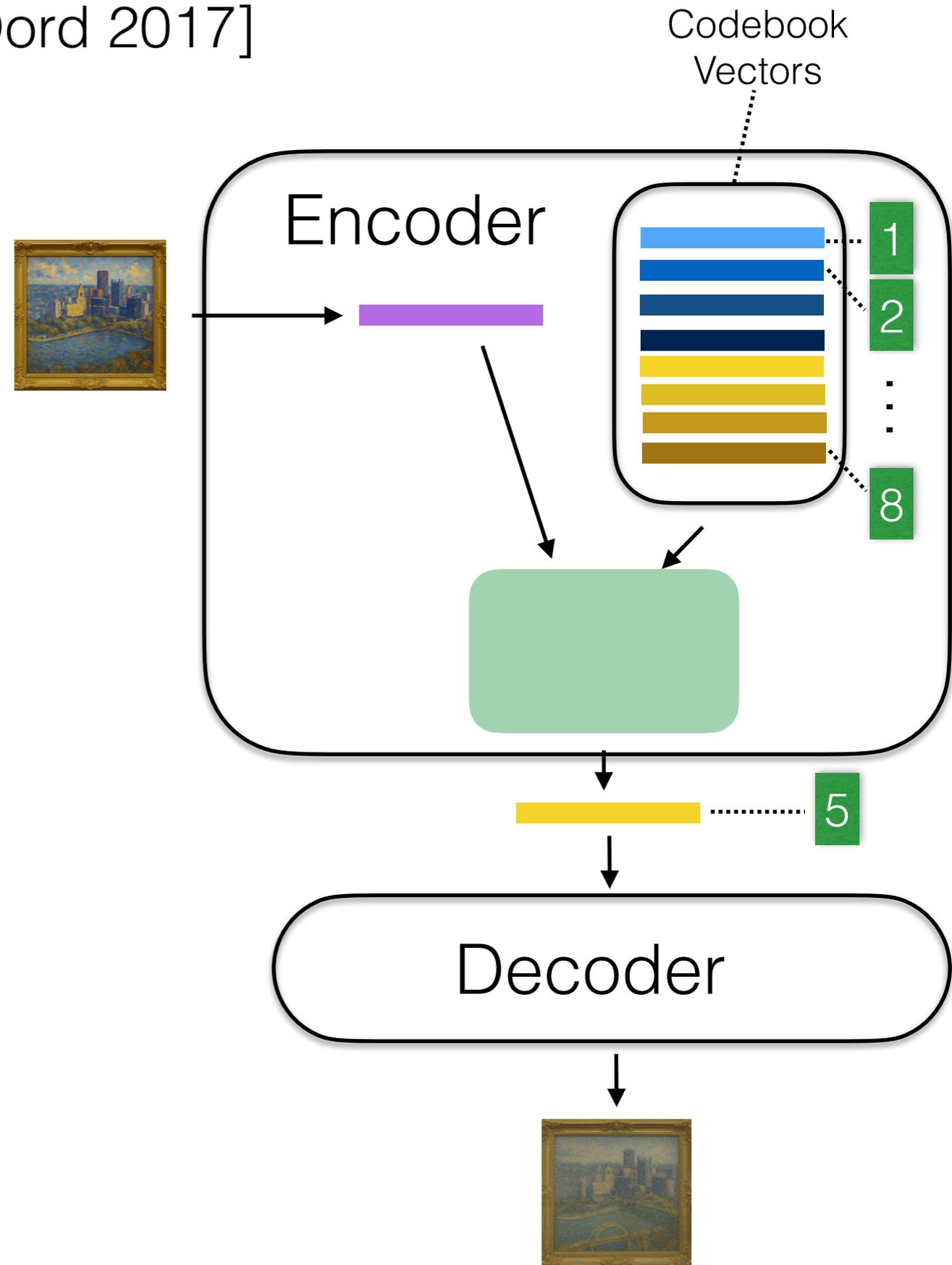
- $z_q(x) = e_{k^*}$ , where

$$k^* = \arg \min_{j \in \{1, \dots, K\}} \|z_e(x) - e_j\|_2$$

- $q(z = k|x) = \begin{cases} 1 & k = k^* \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

- Decoder:

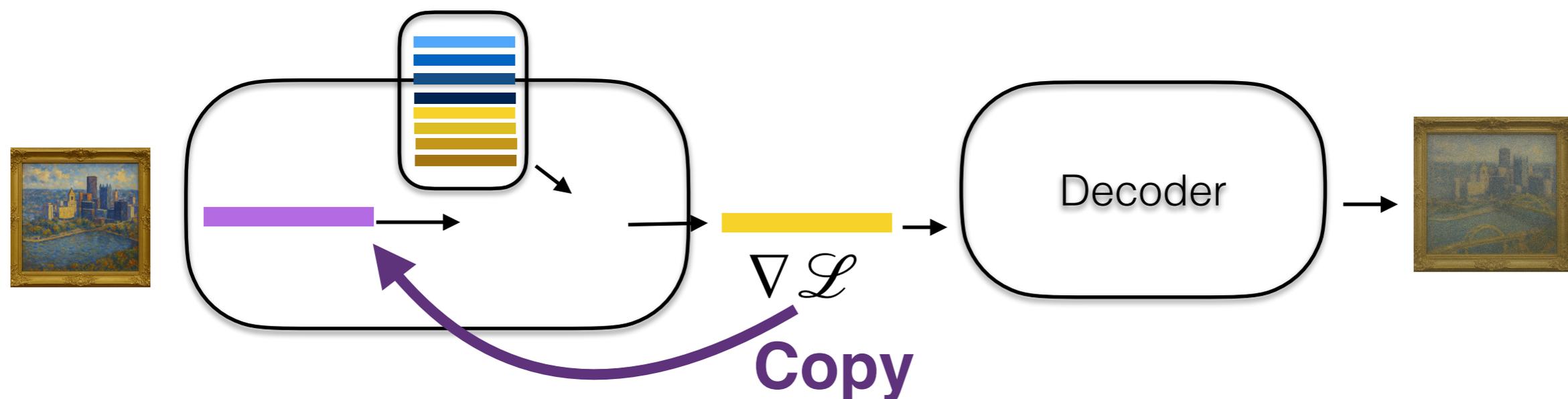
- $p(x|z_q(x))$



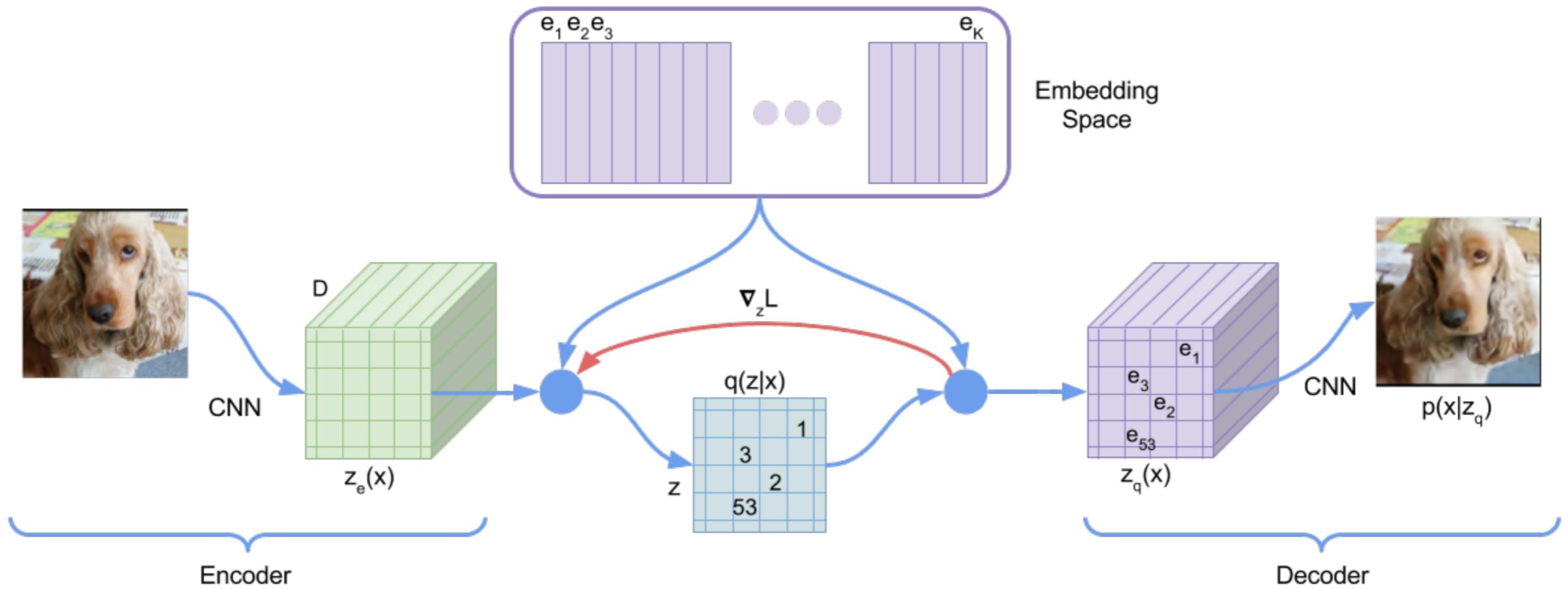
# VQ-VAE training

- $\mathcal{L} = \log p(x | z_q(x)) + \| \text{sg}[z_e(x)] - e \|_2^2 + \beta \| z_e(x) - \text{sg}[e] \|_2^2$

- For reconstruction loss, use a **straight-through gradient estimator** since the codebook lookup is non-differentiable



# VQ-VAE



# Example

- DALL-E tokenizer



```
import torch.nn.functional as F

z_logits = enc(x)
z_tokens = torch.argmax(z_logits, axis=1)
z = F.one_hot(z_tokens, num_classes=enc.vocab_size).permuto
z_tokens, z_tokens.shape

✓ 0.5s

(tensor([[[7522, 741, 119, ..., 629, 4695, 4695],
          [ 782, 7459, 4762, ..., 6913, 5215, 5887],
          [1580, 4066, 5768, ..., 5677, 224, 2913],
          ...,
          [3990, 7130, 5047, ..., 6027, 5770, 1212],
          [4898, 5659, 6296, ..., 5788, 6476, 6397],
          [2757, 3243, 5504, ..., 5016, 1144, 7261]]]),
torch.Size([1, 32, 32]))
```

```
x_stats = dec(z).float()
x_rec = unmap_pixels(torch.sigmoid(x_stats[:, :3]))
x_rec = T.ToPILImage(mode='RGB')(x_rec[0])

display_markdown('Reconstructed image:')
display(x_rec)
```

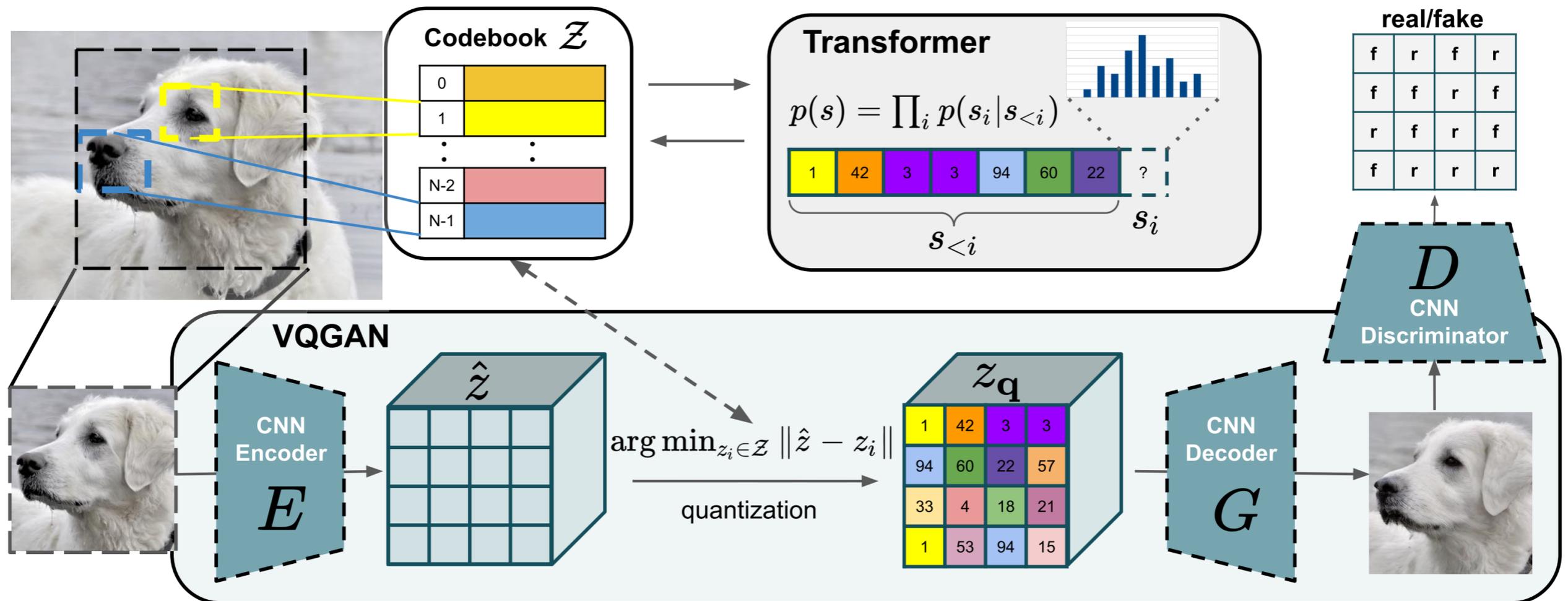
✓ 0.3s



<https://github.com/openai/DALL-E>

# VQ-GAN

[Esser et al 2021]



- Modify VQ-VAE objective: use a GAN objective and perceptual loss
- Train an autoregressive transformer (“language model”) on the resulting discrete tokenized images. Generate images with it.

# VQ-GAN

[Esser et al 2021]

Training the encoder/decoder:

- $\hat{x} = G(\text{select}(E(x)))$ 
  - G: generator
  - E: encoder
- $\mathcal{L}_{\text{GAN}} = \log D(x) + \log(1 - D(\hat{x}))$ 
  - D: discriminator

# VQ-GAN

[Esser et al 2021]

Training the transformer language model:

- Tokenize lots of images using the tokenizer (encoder)

$$x_{img} \rightarrow (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_T)$$

- Train an autoregressive transformer:

$$\bullet \mathcal{L} = \mathbb{E}_{x_{img}} \left[ -\log \prod_{t=1}^T p(x_t | x_{<t}) \right]$$

- Example  $T$ :  $32 \times 32 = 1024$

- Much less than modeling pixels ( $256 \times 256 = 65,536$ )!

# VQ-GAN

[Esser et al 2021]



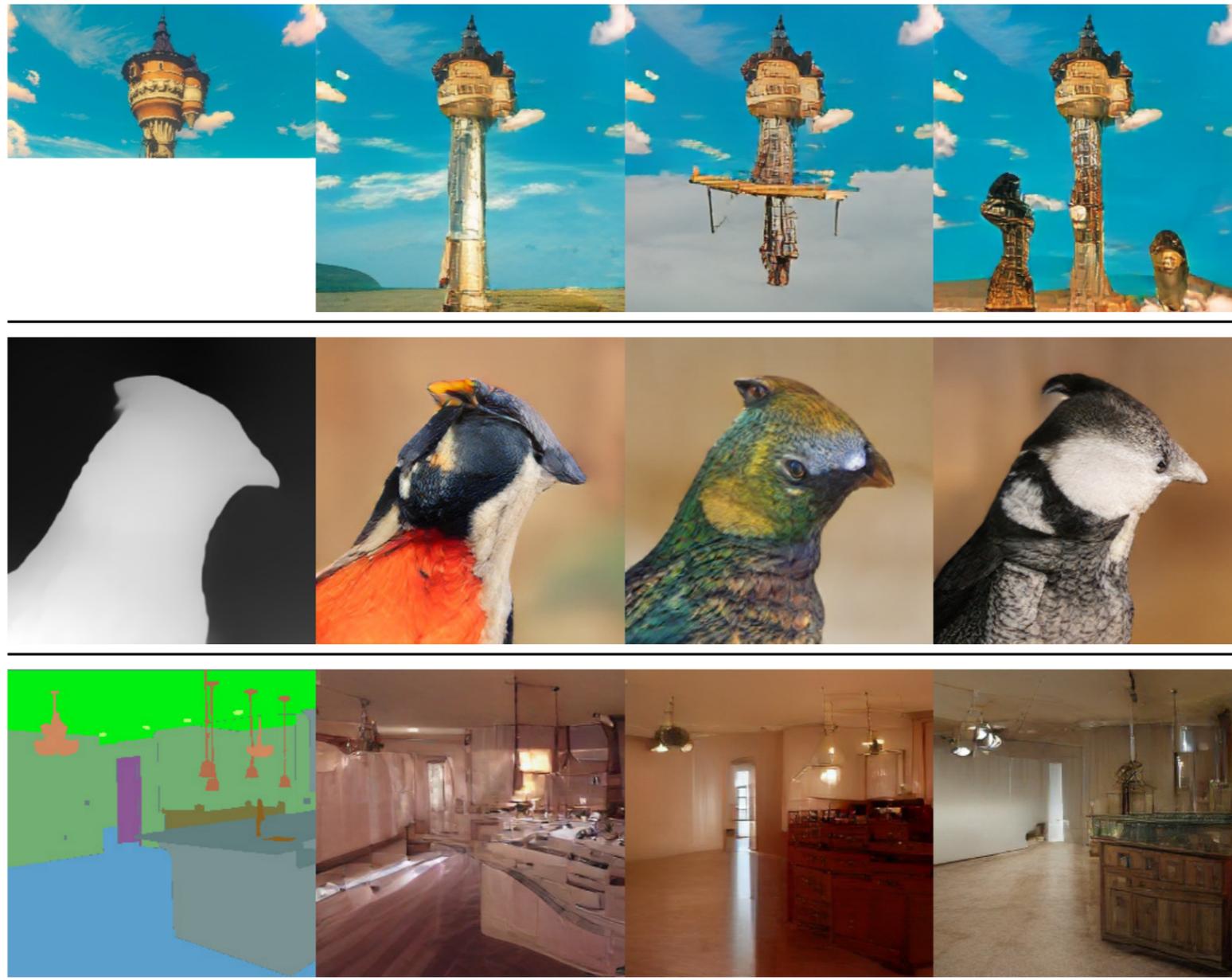
Figure 8. Samples from our class-conditional ImageNet model trained on  $256 \times 256$  images.

# VQ-GAN

[Esser et al 2021]

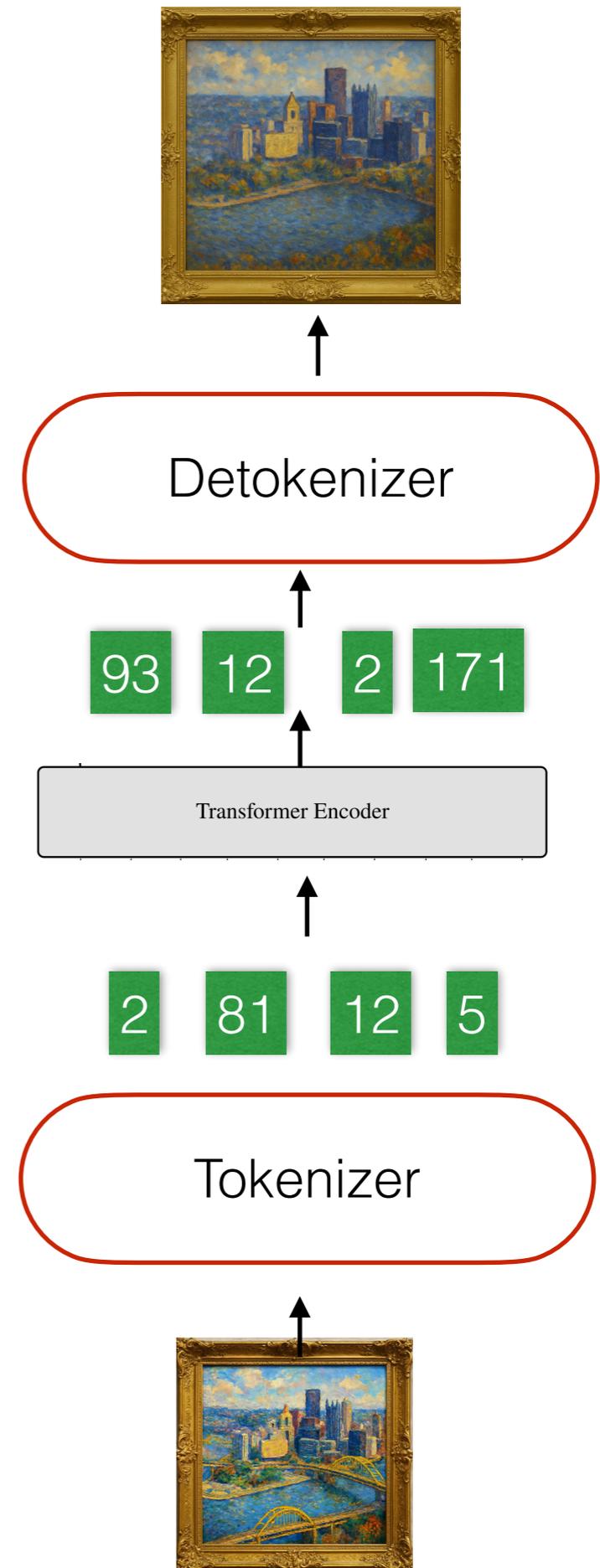
conditioning

samples



# Recap

- Tokenizer: VQ-VAE/VQ-GAN encoder
- De-tokenizer: VQ-VAE/VQ-GAN decoder
- Next:
  - Add the tokens to a language model's vocabulary
  - Train / fine-tune the model on both text and image tokens



# Example: Dall-E

[OpenAI 2021]

- **Stage 1.** We train a discrete variational autoencoder (dVAE)<sup>1</sup> to compress each  $256 \times 256$  RGB image into a  $32 \times 32$  grid of image tokens, each element of which can assume 8192 possible values. This reduces the context size of the transformer by a factor of 192 without a large degradation in visual quality (see Fig-

- **Stage 2.** We concatenate up to 256 BPE-encoded text tokens with the  $32 \times 32 = 1024$  image tokens, and train an autoregressive transformer to model the joint distribution over the text and image tokens.

a bathroom with two sinks, a cabinet and a bathtub.



a man riding a bike down a street past a young man.



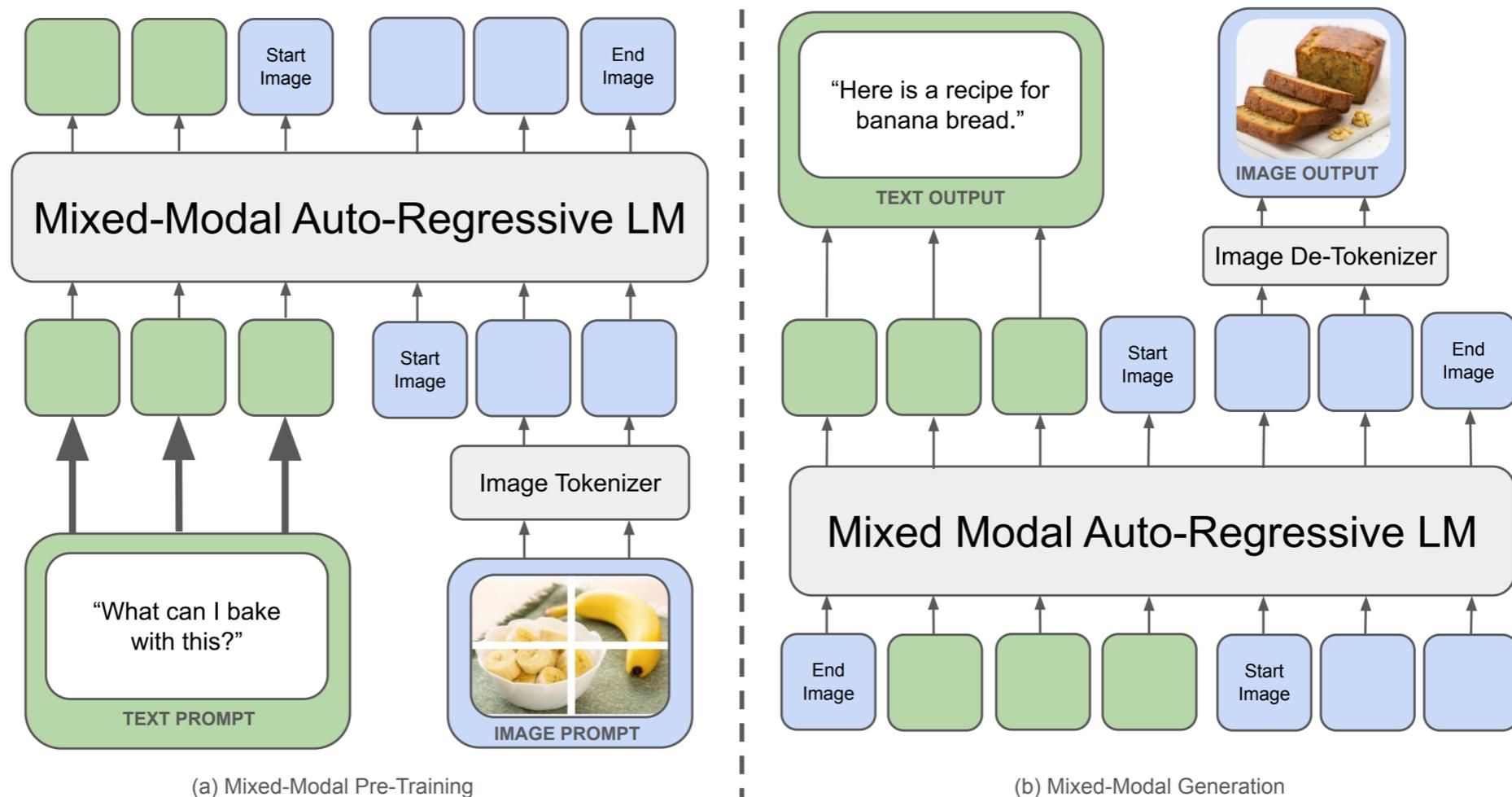
a truck stopped at an intersection where construction barriers are up.



(b) an illustration of a baby hedgehog in a christmas sweater walking a dog

# Example: Chameleon

[Meta 2024]



- Train a VQ-GAN tokenizer/de-tokenizer
- Then train a language model on 10T tokens

# Example: Chameleon

[Meta 2024]



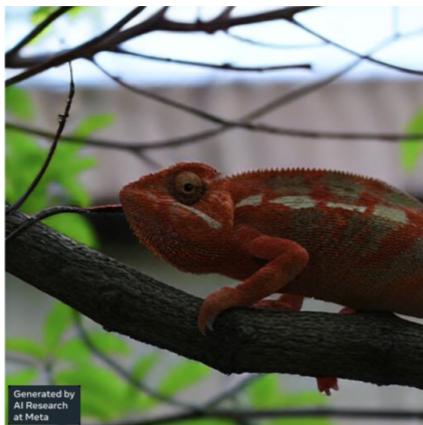
**Prompt:** `<img>` While chameleons are masters of camouflage in the natural world, let's see how they might fare in a man-made setting.

1. Analyze the colors, patterns, and textures in this image and identify the most challenging spot for a chameleon to blend in.
2. Then generate an image of a chameleon with the optimal pattern to camouflage itself.
3. Then, rate and explain how successful each attempt is on a scale from 1-10.

**Response:** The image is of a stop sign in a forested area, with some sunlight filtering through the trees. The sign has a red octagonal shape with a white border and the word "STOP" written in white letters. In the background, there are green leaves and trees.

**Challenging Spot for a Chameleon:** The stop sign would be the most challenging spot for a chameleon to blend in due to its bright red color and bold white letters, which would stand out in the forested environment.

**Optimal Pattern for Camouflage:** To camouflage itself on the stop sign, a chameleon would need to have a pattern that would break up its outline and make it less conspicuous. A pattern with shades



of brown and red would help the chameleon blend in more effectively. Additionally, a mottled or dappled pattern would help to scatter light and further reduce the chameleon's visibility.

`<img>`

**Rating and Explanation:** A rating of 2/10 would be given for the chameleon's ability to blend in on the stop sign. While the chameleon's green and brown pattern helps to break up its outline, the bright red color of the stop sign will still make it stand out in the forested environment.

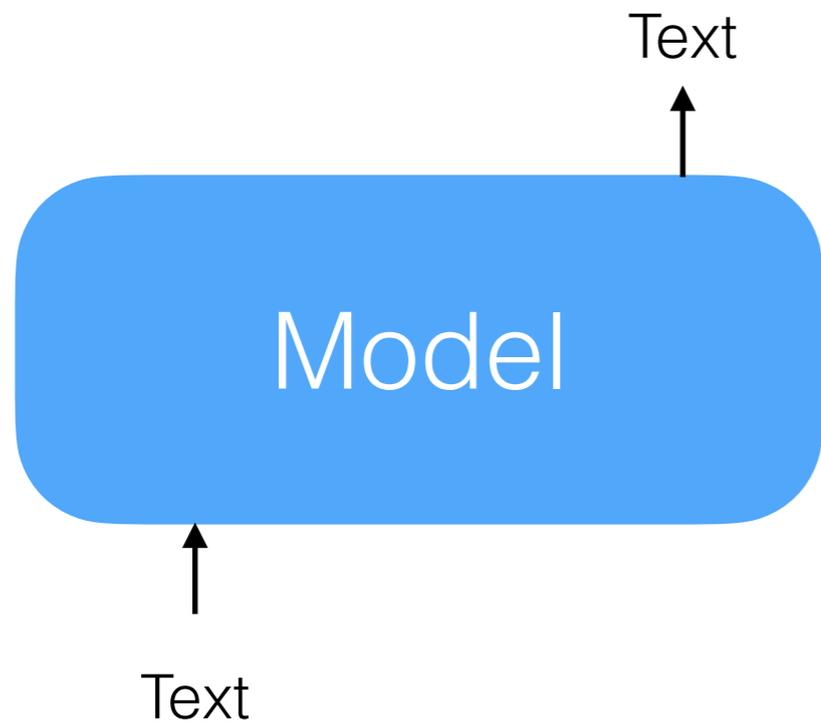
# Pros and Cons

- **Pros:** unified generative model (autoregressive, everything is tokens)
- **Cons:** information loss from the image tokenizer/detokenizer
- To generate SOTA-quality images we'll use a different paradigm (next lecture!)

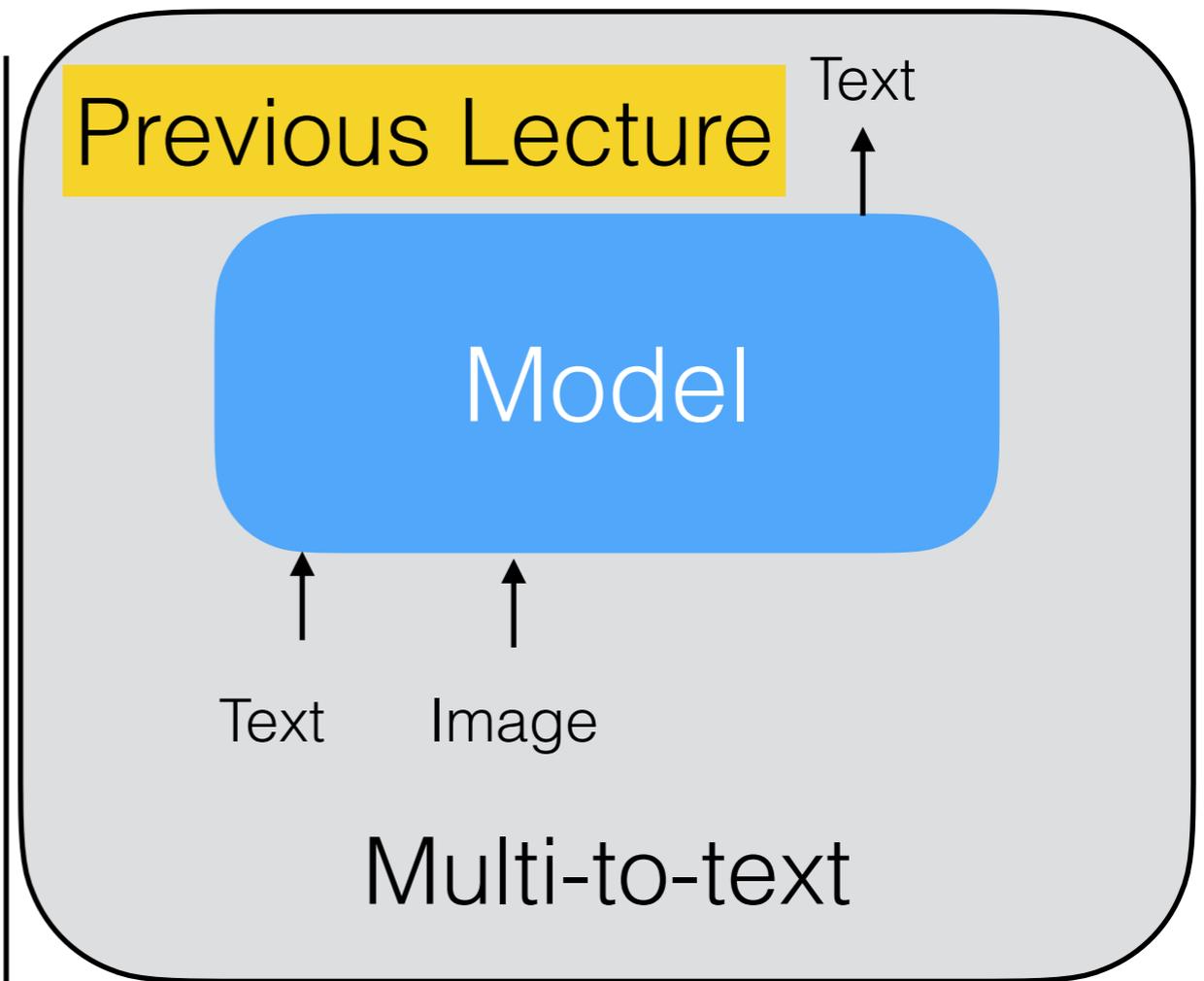


Figure 1. Comparison of original images (top) and reconstructions from the discrete VAE (bottom). The encoder downsamples the

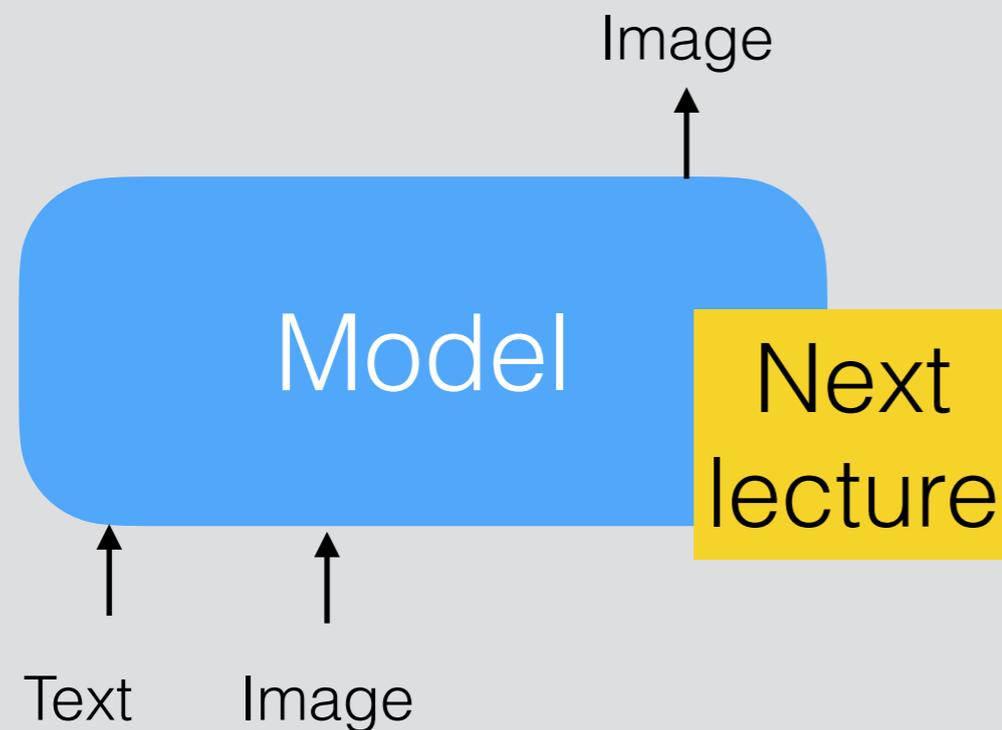
[OpenAI 2021]



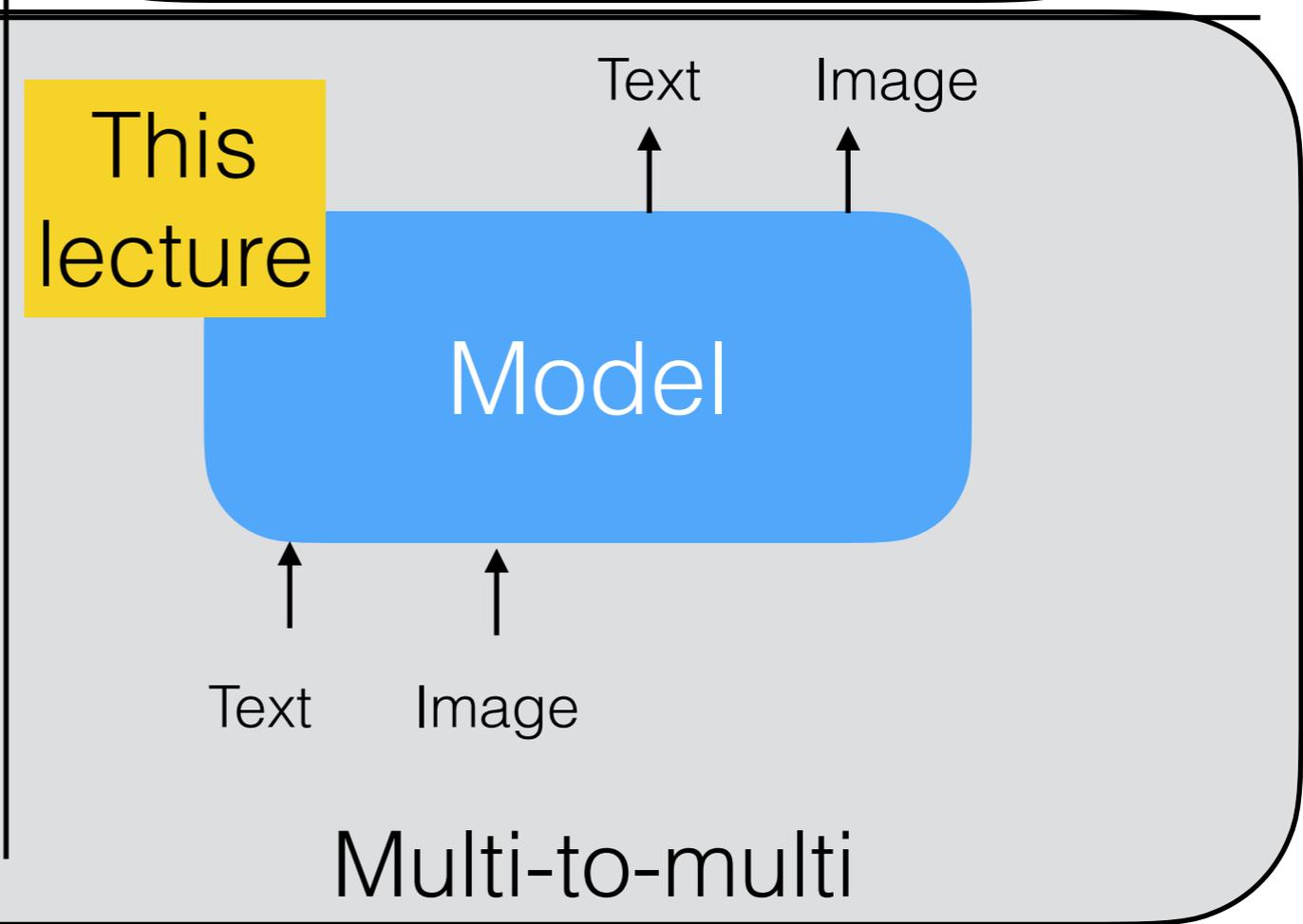
Text-to-text



Multi-to-text



Multi-to-image



Multi-to-multi

Thank you!