TOWARDS PRINCIPLED METHODS FOR TRAINING GENERATIVE ADVERSARIAL NETWORKS

Hantao Zhang

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Overview

Introduction

2 Main Contribution

Sources of Instability

- Discontinuity Conjecture
- Perfect Discrimination Theorem
- Vanishing Gradients on the Generator
- The log D Alternative

Towards Softer Metrics and Distributions

- Break Assumptions
- Wasserstein Metric

Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) have achieved great success at generating realistic and sharp looking images. However, they still remain remarkably diffcult to train and most papers at that time dedicated to heuristically finding stable architecture. And there is little to no theory explaining the unstable behaviour of GAN training.

GAN in its original formulation, plays the following game:

$$\min_{G} \max_{D} V(D,G) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}(x)}[\log D(x)] + \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p_z(z)}[\log(1 - D(G(z)))]$$
(1)

And it can be reformulated as:

$$C(G) = \max_{D} V(G, D) \qquad (virtual training criterion)$$
$$= \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}}[\log D_{G}^{*}(x)] + \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p_{z}}[\log(1 - D_{G}^{*}(G(z)))]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}}[\log D_{G}^{*}(x)] + \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{g}}[\log(1 - D_{G}^{*}(x))]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}}[\log \frac{p_{data}(x)}{p_{data}(x) + p_{g}(x)}] + \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{g}}[\log \frac{p_{g}(x)}{p_{data}(x) + p_{g}(x)}]$$

< □ > < 同 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 >

It can be shown that C(G) is equivalent to the following:

$$-\log(4) + 2 \cdot JSD(p_{data}||p_g) \tag{2}$$

where JSD is the Jensen-Shannon divergence:

$$JSD(\mathbb{P}_r||\mathbb{P}_g) = \frac{1}{2}KL(\mathbb{P}_r||\mathbb{P}_A) + \frac{1}{2}KL(\mathbb{P}_g||\mathbb{P}_A)$$
(3)

where \mathbb{P}_A is the 'average' distribution, with density $\frac{P_r+P_g}{2}$.

▲ ศ 🛛 ト ▲ 三 ト

To train a GAN, we first train the discriminator to optimal, which is maximizing:

$$L(D, g_{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathbb{P}_r}[\log D(x)] + \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathbb{P}_g}[\log(1 - D(x))]$$
(4)

and the optimal discriminator is obatined as:

$$D^{*}(x) = \frac{P_{r}(x)}{P_{r}(x) + P_{g}(x)}$$
(5)

< □ > < 同 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 >

Plug in the optimal discriminator to $L(D, g_{\theta})$, we get:

$$L(D^*, g_{\theta}) = 2JSD(\mathbb{P}_r || \mathbb{P}_g) - 2\log 2$$
(6)

So, minimizing eq.(4) as a function of θ gives the minimized Jensen-Shannon divergence when the discriminator is optimal.

The Problem

In theory, we would first train discriminator as close to optimal as we can, then do gradient steps on θ , and alternating these two things to get our generator. But this doesn't work. In practice, as the discriminator gets better, the updates to the generator get consistently worse

Based on the problem regarding GAN training, the authors proposed 4 questions to be answered:

- Why do updates get worse as the discriminator gets better? Both in the original and the new cost function.
- Why is GAN training massively unstable?
- Is the new cost function following a similar divergence to the JSD? If so, what are its properties?
- Is there a way to avoid some of these issues?

Source of Instability

æ

< □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ >

Discontinuity Conjecture

From the cost function and the optimal discriminator, we 'know' that the trained discriminator will have cost of at most $2 \log 2 - 2JSD(\mathbb{P}_r || \mathbb{P}_g)$,. However, in practice, if we train D till convergence, its error will go to 0, pointing to the fact that the JSD between them is maxed out.



Figure: DCGAN trained for 1,10,25 epochs. Then, with generator fixed, train a discriminator from scratch.

- The only way this can happen is if the distributions are not continuous, or they have disjoint supports. And one possible cause for the distribution to be discontinuous is if their supports lie on low dimensional manifolds.
- Previous work on GAN showed strong empirical and theoretical evidence to believe that \mathbb{P}_r is indeed extremely concentrated on a low dimensional manifold. And the authors proved that this is the case as well for \mathbb{P}_g .

Intuition

 \mathbb{P}_g is defined via sampling from a simple prior $z \sim p(z)$, and then applying a function $g : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathcal{X}$, so the support of \mathbb{P}_g has to be contained in $g(\mathbb{Z})$. If the dimensionality of \mathbb{Z} is less than the dimension of \mathcal{X} , then it's impossible for \mathbb{P}_g to be continuous.

Lemma (1)

Let $g : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathcal{X}$ be a function composed by affine transformations and pointwise non-linearities, which can either be rectifiers, leaky rectifiers, or smooth strictly increasing functions (such as the sigmoid, tanh, softplus, etc). Then, $g(\mathbb{Z})$ is composed in a countable union of manifolds of dimension at most dim \mathbb{Z} . Therefore, if the dimension of \mathbb{Z} is less than the one of \mathcal{X} , $g(\mathbb{Z})$ will be a set of measure 0 in \mathcal{X} .

|| 御 || (注 || (注 ||

Theorem (2.1)

If two distributions \mathbb{P}_r and \mathbb{P}_g have support contained on two disjoint compact subsets \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{P} respectively, then there is a smooth optimal discriminator $D^* : \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]$ that has accuracy 1 and $\nabla_x D^*(x) = 0 \forall x \in \mathcal{M} \cup \mathcal{P}.$

Definition (Transversal Intersection)

Let \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{P} be two boundary free regular submanifolds of \mathcal{F} , which in our case will simply be $\mathcal{F} = \mathbb{R}^d$. Let $x \in \mathcal{M} \cap \mathcal{P}$ be an intersection point of the two manifolds. We say that \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{P} intersect transversally in x if $\mathcal{T}_x \mathcal{M} + \mathcal{T}_x \mathcal{P} = \mathcal{T}_x \mathcal{F}$, where $\mathcal{T}_x \mathcal{M}$ means the tangent space of \mathcal{M} around x.



Definition (Perfect Alignment)

We say that two manifolds without boundary \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{P} **perfectly align** if there exists $x \in \mathcal{M} \cap \mathcal{P}$ such that \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{P} don't intersect transversally in x. And let $\partial \mathcal{M}$ and $\partial \mathcal{P}$ denote the boundary of manifolds \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{P} , we say \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{P} are perfectly align if any of the boundary free manifold pairs $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{P}), (\mathcal{M}, \partial \mathcal{P}), (\partial \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{P}), (\partial \mathcal{M}, \partial \mathcal{P})$ perfectly align.



Lemma (2)

Let \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{P} be two regular submanifolds of \mathbb{R}^d that don't have full dimension. Let η, η' be arbitrary independent continuous random variables. We therefore define the perturbed manifolds as $\tilde{\mathcal{M}} = \mathcal{M} + \eta$ and $\tilde{\mathcal{P}} = \mathcal{P} + \eta'$. Then

 $\mathbb{P}_{\eta,\eta'}(ilde{\mathcal{M}} ext{ does not perfect align with } ilde{\mathcal{P}}) = 1$

This implies that, in practice, we can safely assume that any two manifolds never perfectly assign, since arbitrarilly small perturbation on two manifolds will lead them to intersect transversally or don't intersect at all.

Lemma (3)

Let \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{P} be two regular submanifolds of \mathbb{R}^d that don't perfectly align and don't have full dimension. Let $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{M} \cap \mathcal{P}$. If \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{P} don't have boundary, then \mathcal{L} is also a manifold, and has strictly lower dimension than both the one of \mathcal{M} and the one of \mathcal{P} . If they have boundary, \mathcal{L} is a union of at most 4 strictly lower dimensional manifolds. In both cases, \mathcal{L} has measure 0 in both \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{P} .

If two manifolds don't perfectly align, their intersection $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{M} \cap \mathcal{P}$ will be a finite union of manifolds with dimensions strictly lower than both the dimension of \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{P} .

Theorem (2.2 Perfect Discrimination Theorem)

Let \mathbb{P}_r and \mathbb{P}_g be two distributions that have support contained in two closed manifolds \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{P} that don't perfectly align and don't have full dimension. We further assume that \mathbb{P}_r and \mathbb{P}_g are continuous in their respective manifolds, meaning that if there is a set A with measure 0 in \mathcal{M} , then $\mathbb{P}_r(A) = 0$ (and analogously for \mathbb{P}_g). Then, there exists an optimal discriminator $D^* : \mathcal{X} \to [0, 1]$ that has accuracy 1 and for almost any x in \mathcal{M} or \mathcal{P} , D^* is smooth in a neighbourhood of x and $\nabla_x D^*(x) = 0$.

Combining the two theorems stated together tells us that there are perfect discriminators which are smooth and constant almost everywhere in \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{P} . And the fact that the discriminator is constant in both manifolds points to the fact that we won't be able to learn anything by backproping through it.

ヘロト ヘヨト ヘヨト

Theorem (2.3)

Let \mathbb{P}_r and \mathbb{P}_g be two distributions whose support lies in two manifolds \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{P} that don't have full dimension and don't perfectly align. We further assume that \mathbb{P}_r and \mathbb{P}_g are continuous in their respective manifolds. Then,

 $JSD(\mathbb{P}_r || \mathbb{P}_g) = \log 2$ $KL(\mathbb{P}_r || \mathbb{P}_g) = +\infty$ $KL(\mathbb{P}_g || \mathbb{P}_r) = +\infty$

- divergences will be maxed out even if the two manifolds lie arbitrarilly close to each other (impossible to apply gradient descent)
- samples of our generator might look impressively good, yet both KL divergences will be infinity
- attempting to use divergences out of the box to test similarities between the distributions we typically consider might be a terrible idea

Denote $||D|| = \sup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} |D(x)| + ||\nabla_x D(x)||_2^{-1}$

Theorem (2.4)

Let $g_{\theta} : \mathcal{Z} \to \mathcal{X}$ be a differentiable function that induces a distribution \mathbb{P}_{g} . Let \mathbb{P}_{r} be the real data distribution. Let D be a differentiable discriminator. If the conditions of Theorem 2.1 and 2.2 are satisfied, $||D - D^{*}|| < \epsilon$, and $\mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)}[||J_{\theta}g_{\theta}(z)||_{2}^{2}] \leq M^{2}$, then

$$||
abla_ heta \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)}[\log(1 - D(g_ heta(z)))]||_2 < Mrac{\epsilon}{1-\epsilon}$$

¹The authors stated that this norm is used to make proofs simpler, and can be replaced with Sobolev norm $|| \cdot ||_{1,p}$ for $p < \infty$ covered by the universal approximation theorem in the sense that we can guarantee a neural network approximation in this norm \odot

Theorem 2.4 shows that as our discriminator gets better, the gradient of the generator vanishes. And the figure below shows an experimental verfication of the above statement.



Figure: First train a DCGAN for 1, 10 and 25 epochs. Then, with the generator fixed train a discriminator from scratch and measure gradients with the original cost function.

To avoid vanishing gradient when the discrminator is very confident, an alternative gradient step for the generator is used:

$$\Delta \theta = \nabla_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)} [-\log D(g_{\theta}(z))]$$

Theorem (2.5)

Let \mathbb{P}_r and $\mathbb{P}_{g_{\theta}}$ be two continuous distributions, with densities P_r , $P_{g_{\theta}}$ respectively. Let $D^*(x) = \frac{P_r(x)}{P_r(x) + P_{g_{\theta}}(x)}$ be the optimal discriminator, fixed for a value θ_0 . Therefore,

$$\mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)}[-\nabla_{\theta} \log D^{*}(g_{\theta}(z))|_{\theta=\theta_{0}}] = \nabla_{\theta}[KL(\mathbb{P}_{g_{\theta}}||\mathbb{P}_{r}) - 2JSD(\mathbb{P}_{g_{\theta}}||\mathbb{P}_{r})]|_{\theta=\theta_{0}}$$

Theorem (2.6 Instability of generator gradient updates)

Let $g_{\theta}: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathcal{X}$ be a differentiable function that induces a distribution \mathbb{P}_{g} . Let \mathbb{P}_{r} be the real data distribution, with either conditions of Theorems 2.1 and 2.2 satisfied. Let D be a discriminator such that $D^{*} - D = \epsilon$ is a centered Gaussian process indexed by x and independent for every x and $\nabla_{x}D^{*} - \nabla_{x}D = r$ another independent centered Gaussian process indexed by x and independent of every x. Then, each coordinate of

$$\mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)}[-
abla_{ heta} \log D(g_{ heta}(z))]$$

is centered Cauchy distribution with infinite expectation and variance.



Theorem 2.6 implies that we would have large variance in gradients, and the instable update would actually lower sample quality. Moreover, the fact that the distribution updates are centered means that, if we bound the updates, the expected update would be 0, providing no feedback to the gradient.



Figure: Same setting as previous but using $-\log D$ cost function

Towards Softer Metrics and Distributions

To fix the Instability and vanishing gradients issue, we need to break the assumptions of previous theorems. And the authors choose to add continuous noise to the inputs of the discriminator, therefore, smoothening the distribution of the probability mass.

Theorem (3.1)

If X has distribution $\mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{X}}$ with support on \mathcal{M} and ϵ is an absolutely continuous random variable with density P_{ϵ} , then $\mathbb{P}_{X+\epsilon}$ is absolutely continuous with density

$$P_{X+\epsilon} = \mathbb{E}_{y \sim \mathbb{P}_X}[P_{\epsilon}(x-y)]$$

= $\int_{\mathcal{M}} P_{\epsilon}(x-y) d\mathbb{P}_X(y)$

Theorem (3.2)

Let \mathbb{P}_r and \mathbb{P}_g be two distributions with support on \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{P} respectively, with $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 I)$. Then, the gradient passed to the generator has the form

$$egin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{z\sim p(z)} [
abla_ heta \log(1-D^*(g_ heta(z)))] \ =& \mathbb{E}_{z\sim p(z)} [a(z) \int_{\mathcal{M}} P_\epsilon(g_ heta(z)-y)
abla_ heta| |g_ heta(z)-y||^2 d\mathbb{P}_r(y)] \ &- b(z) \int_{\mathcal{P}} P_\epsilon(g_ heta(z)-y)
abla_ heta| |g_ heta(z)-y||^2 d\mathbb{P}_g(y)] \end{aligned}$$

This theorem proves that we will drive our samples $g_{\theta}(z)$ towards points along the data manifold, weighted by their probability and the distance from our samples.

To protect the discriminator from measure 0 adversarial examples, it is important to backprop through noisy samples in the generator as well.

Corollary

Let $\epsilon,$ epsilon' $\sim \mathcal{N}(0,\sigma^2 I)$ and $\tilde{g}_{\theta}(z) = g_{\theta}(z) + \epsilon',$ then

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)} [\nabla_{\theta} \log(1 - D^{*}(\tilde{g}_{\theta}(z)))] \\ = \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)} [a(z) \int_{\mathcal{M}} P_{\epsilon}(\tilde{g}_{\theta}(z) - y) \nabla_{\theta} || \tilde{g}_{\theta}(z) - y ||^{2} d\mathbb{P}_{r}(y) \\ - b(z) \int_{\mathcal{P}} P_{\epsilon}(\tilde{g}_{\theta}(z) - y) \nabla_{\theta} || \tilde{g}_{\theta}(z) - y ||^{2} d\mathbb{P}_{g}(y)] \\ = 2 \nabla_{\theta} JSD(\mathbb{P}_{r+\epsilon} || \mathbb{P}_{g+\epsilon}) \end{split}$$

Definition (Wasserstein Metric)

$$W(P,Q) = \inf_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \int_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}} ||x - y||_2 d\gamma(x,y)$$

where Γ is the set of all possible joints on $\mathcal{X}\times\mathcal{X}$ that have marginals P and Q.

Wasserstein Distance is also called Earth Mover's Distance (EMD), it's the minimum cost of transporting the whole probability mass of P from its support to match the probability mass of Q on Q's support.

Intuition

Intuitively, given two distributions, one can be seen as a mass of earth properly spread in space, the other as a collection of holes in that same space. Then, the EMD measures the least amount of work needed to fill the holes with earth. Here, a unit of work corresponds to transporting a unit of earth by a unit of ground distance.



The distance between points (ground distance) can be Euclidean distance, Manhattan...

Lemma (4)

Let ϵ be a random vector with mean 0, then we have

$$W(\mathbb{P}_X,\mathbb{P}_{X+\epsilon})\leq V^{rac{1}{2}}$$

where $V = \mathbb{E}[||\epsilon||_2^2]$ is the variance of ϵ .

Theorem (3.3)

Let \mathbb{P}_r and \mathbb{P}_g be any two distributions, and ϵ be a random vector with mean 0 and variance V. If $\mathbb{P}_{r+\epsilon}$ and $\mathbb{P}_{g+\epsilon}$ have support contained on a ball of diameter C, then

$$W(\mathbb{P}_r,\mathbb{P}_g) \leq 2V^{rac{1}{2}} + 2C\sqrt{JSD(\mathbb{P}_{r+\epsilon}||\mathbb{P}_{g+\epsilon})}$$

Martin Arjovsky and Leon Bottou.

Towards principled methods for training generative adversarial networks.

International Conference on Learning Representations, 2017.

Ian J. Goodfellow, Jean Pouget-Abadie, Mehdi Mirza, Bing Xu, David Warde-Farley, and Yoshua Bengio Sherjil Ozair andAaron Courville. Generative adversarial nets.

Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems, 2014.