

**Yes,
we GAN.**

VLC = \iiint Vision
Learning *aVdLdC*
Control

Deep Generative Modelling

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- What is generative modelling and why do we do it?
- Differentiable Generator Networks
- Variational Autoencoders
- Generative Adversarial Networks

Generative Modelling and Differentiable Generator Networks

Recap: Generative Models

- Learn models of the data: $p(\mathbf{x})$
- Learn *conditional* models of the data: $p(\mathbf{x}|y = y)$
- Some generative models allow the probability distributions to be evaluated explicitly
 - i.e. compute the probability of a piece of data \mathbf{x} : $p(\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x})$
- Some generative models allow the probability distributions to be sampled
 - i.e. draw a sample \mathbf{x} based on the distribution: $\mathbf{x} \sim p(\mathbf{x})$
- Some generative models can do both of the above
 - e.g. a Gaussian Mixture Model is an explicit model of the data using k Gaussians
 - The likelihood of data \mathbf{x} is the weighted sum of the likelihood from each of the k Gaussians
 - Sampling can be achieved by sampling the categorical distribution of k weights followed by sampling a data point from the corresponding Gaussian

Why do generative modelling?

- Try to understand the processes through which the data was itself generated
 - Probabilistic latent variable models like VAEs or topic models (PLSA, LDA, ...) for text
 - Models that try to disentangle latent factors like β -VAE
- Understand how likely a new or previously unseen piece of data is
 - outlier prediction, anomaly detection, ...
- Make 'new' data
 - Make 'fake' data to use to train large supervised models?
 - 'Imagine' new, but plausible, things?

Differentiable Generator Networks

- Generative Modelling is not new; we've known how to make arbitrarily complex probabilistic graphical models for many years.
 - ...But difficult to train and scale to real data, relying on MCMC.
- The past few years has seen major progress along four loose strands:
 - Invertible density estimation - A way to specify complex generative models by transforming a simple latent distribution with a series of invertible functions.
 - Autoregressive models - Another way to model $p(x)$ is to break the model into a series of conditional distributions:
$$p(x) = p(x_1)p(x_2|x_1)p(x_3|x_2, x_1) \dots$$
 - Variational autoencoders - Latent-variable models that use a neural network to do approximate inference.
 - Generative adversarial networks - A way to train generative models by optimizing them to fool a classifier
- **Common thread in recent advances is that the loss functions are end-to-end differentiable.**

Differentiable Generator Networks: key idea

- We're interested in models that transform samples of latent variables z to
 - samples x , or,
 - distributions over samples x
- The model is a (differentiable) function $g(z, \theta)$
 - typically g is a neural network.

Example: drawing samples from $\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$

- Consider a simple generator network with a single affine layer that maps samples $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$ to $\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$:

$$\mathbf{z} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}) \longrightarrow \boxed{g_{\theta}(\mathbf{z})} \longrightarrow \mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

- Note: Exact solution is $\mathbf{x} = g_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}) = \boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{L}\mathbf{z}$ where \mathbf{L} is the Cholesky decomposition of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$: $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^{\top}$, lower triangular \mathbf{L} .

Generating samples

More generally, we can think of g as providing a nonlinear change of variables that transforms a distribution over \mathbf{z} into the desired distribution over \mathbf{x} :

$$p_{\mathbf{z}}(\mathbf{z}) \longrightarrow \boxed{g(\mathbf{z})} \longrightarrow p_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x})$$

For any *invertible, differentiable, continuous* g :

$$p_{\mathbf{z}}(\mathbf{z}) = p_{\mathbf{x}}(g(\mathbf{z})) \left| \det \left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial \mathbf{z}} \right) \right|$$

Which implicitly imposes a probability distribution over \mathbf{x} :

$$p_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p_{\mathbf{z}}(g^{-1}(\mathbf{x}))}{\left| \det \left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial \mathbf{z}} \right) \right|}$$

Note: usually use an indirect means of learning g rather than minimise $-\log(p(\mathbf{x}))$ directly

- Rather than use g to provide a sample of \mathbf{x} directly, we could instead use g to define a conditional distribution over \mathbf{x} , $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})$
 - For example, g might produce the parameters of a particular distribution - e.g.:
 - means of Bernoulli
 - mean and variance of a Gaussian
- The distribution over \mathbf{x} is imposed by marginalising \mathbf{z} : $p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})$

Distributions vs Samples

- In both cases (g generates samples and g generates distributions) we can use the reparameterisation tricks we saw last lecture to train models.
- Generating distributions:
 - + works for both continuous and discrete data
 - - need to specify the form of the output distribution
- Generating samples:
 - + works for continuous data
 - + discrete data is recently possible - we need the STargmax
 - + don't need to specify the distribution in explicit form

- In classification both input and output are given
 - Optimisation only needs to learn the mapping
- Generative modelling is more complex than classification because
 - learning requires optimizing intractable criteria
 - data does not specify both input \mathbf{z} and output \mathbf{x} of the generator network
 - learning procedure needs to determine how to arrange \mathbf{z} space in a useful way and how to map \mathbf{z} to \mathbf{x}

Variational Autoencoders

Variational Autoencoder (VAE)

- VAEs architecturally similar to autoencoders (AEs).
- VAEs (vs AEs) significantly different in their goal and mathematical formulation.
- AEs map the input into a fixed vector.
- However, VAEs map the input into a distribution.
- VAEs are a combination of neural networks (AEs) and **graphical models**.

Graphical Models (Background)

- A graphical model is a probabilistic model for which a graph expresses the conditional dependence structure between random variables.
- Graphical models are commonly used in probability theory, statistics—particularly Bayesian statistics—and machine learning.¹

¹Definition taken from Wikipedia

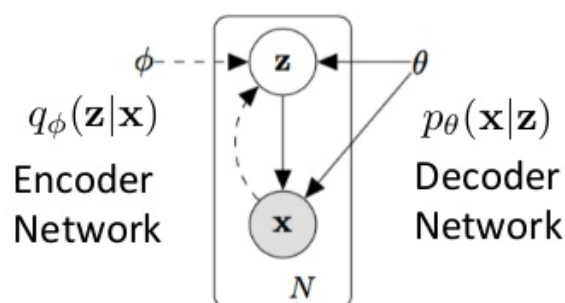
KL Divergence (Background)

- Kullback–Leibler divergence, $D_{KL}(P \parallel Q)$: a measure of how one probability distribution Q is different from a second, reference probability distribution P .²
- A simple interpretation of the divergence of P from Q is the expected excess surprise from using Q as a model when the actual distribution is P .
- While it is a distance, it is not a metric, the most familiar type of distance: it is asymmetric in the two distributions.

²Definition taken from Wikipedia

Variational Autoencoders (VAEs)

Variational Autoencoder



Minimize: $D_{KL}[q_\phi(z|x) \parallel p_\theta(z|x)]$

Intractable: $p_\theta(z|x) = \frac{p_\theta(x|z)p_\theta(z)}{p_\theta(x)}$

³Auto-Encoding Variational Bayes <https://arxiv.org/abs/1312.6114>

Variational Autoencoders (VAEs)

The distance loss just defined is expanded as

$$\begin{aligned} D_{KL}(q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}) \parallel p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x})) &= \int q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}) \log \frac{q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x})}{p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x})} d\mathbf{z} \\ &= \int q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}) \log \frac{q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}) p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})}{p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{x})} d\mathbf{z} \\ &= \int q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}) \left(\log(p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})) + \log \frac{q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x})}{p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{x})} \right) d\mathbf{z} \\ &= \log(p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})) + \int q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}) \log \frac{q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x})}{p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{x})} d\mathbf{z} \\ &= \log(p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})) + \int q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}) \log \frac{q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x})}{p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{z}) p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z})} d\mathbf{z} \\ &= \log(p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})) + E_{\mathbf{z} \sim q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x})} \left(\log \frac{q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x})}{p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z})} - \log(p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{z})) \right) \\ &= \log(p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})) + D_{KL}(q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}) \parallel p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z})) - E_{\mathbf{z} \sim q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x})} (\log(p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{z}))) \end{aligned}$$

At this point, it is possible to rewrite the equation as

$$\log(p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})) - D_{KL}(q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}) \parallel p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x})) = E_{\mathbf{z} \sim q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x})} (\log(p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{z}))) - D_{KL}(q_{\Phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}) \parallel p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}))$$

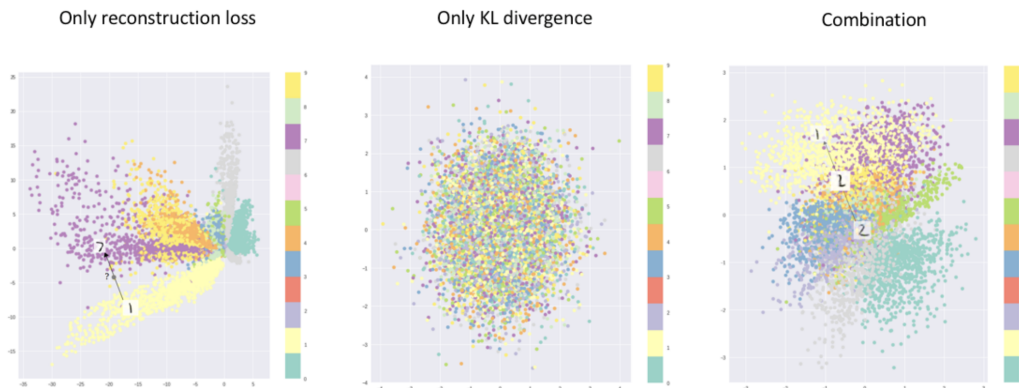
Evidence Lower Bound (ELBO) Loss

$$L_{VAE}(\theta, \phi) = -\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z} \sim q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x})} \log(p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{z})) + D_{KL}(q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}) \parallel p_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}))$$

- We are trying to minimize the ELBO loss with respect to the model parameters.

Why Autoencoder?

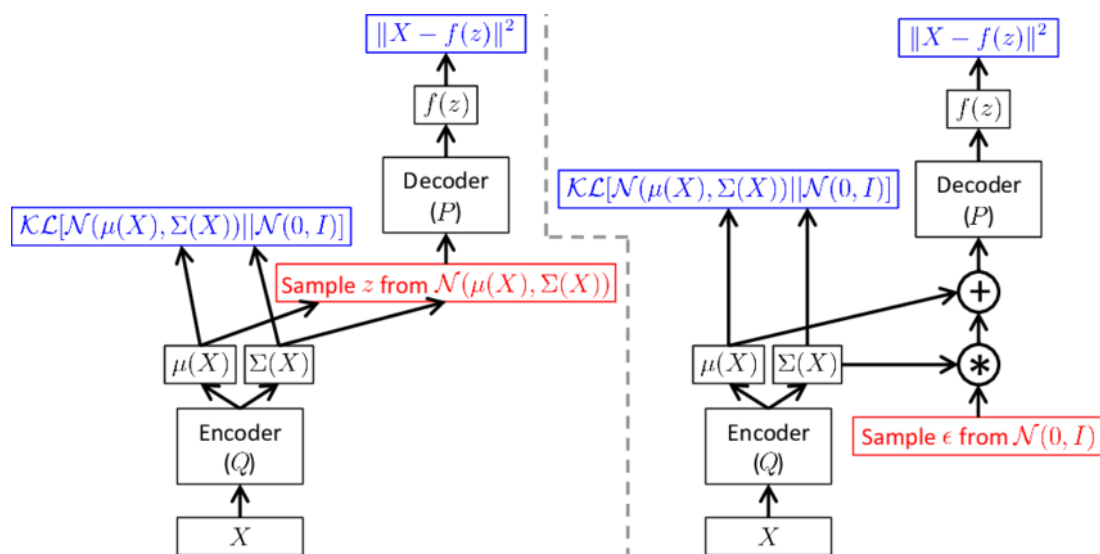
- The reconstruction term, forces each image to be unique and spread out.
- The KL term will push all the images towards the same prior.



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⁴Figure taken from <https://towardsdatascience.com/intuitively-understanding-variational-autoencoders-1bfe67eb5daf>

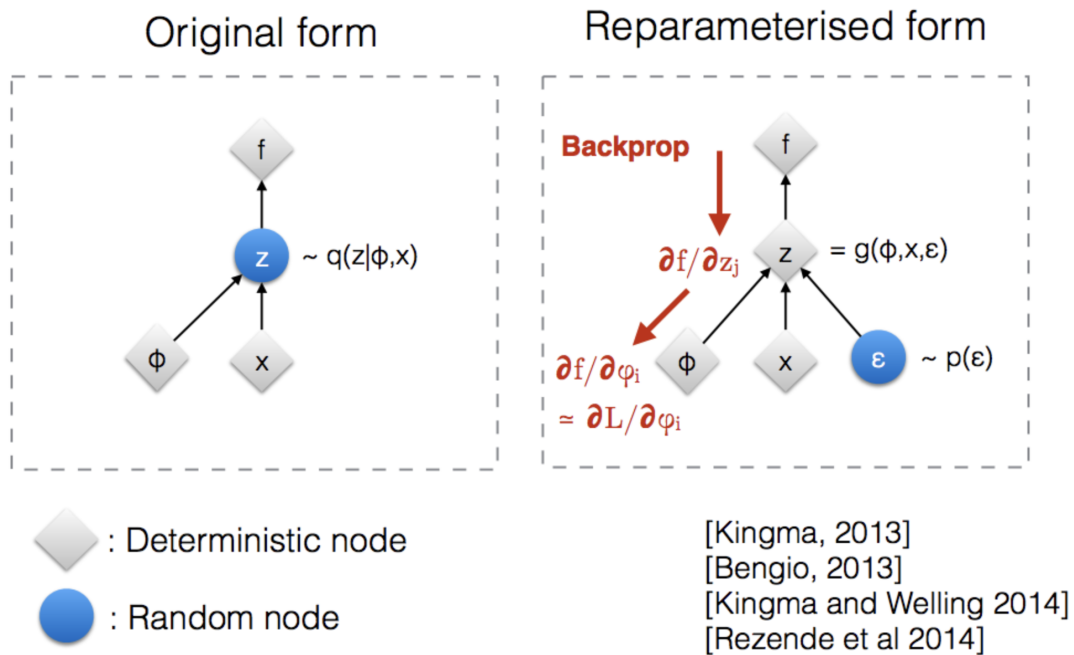
Training Procedure



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⁵Figure taken from Carl Doersch tutorial

Reparametrization Trick Visualisation



VAE Models and Performance

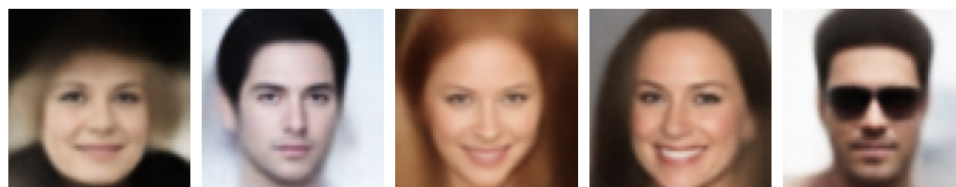
- VAEs can be used with any kind of data
 - the distributions and network architecture just needs to be set accordingly
 - e.g. it's common to use convolutions in the encoder and transpose convolutions in (Gaussian) decoder for image data
- VAEs have nice learning dynamics; they tend to be easy to optimise with stable convergence
- VAEs have a reputation for producing blurry reconstructions of images
 - Not fully understood why, but most likely related to a side effect of maximum-likelihood training
- VAEs tend to only utilise a small subset of the dimensions of z

Reconstructions Example

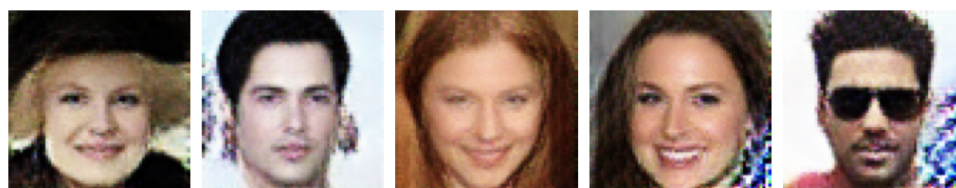
Input



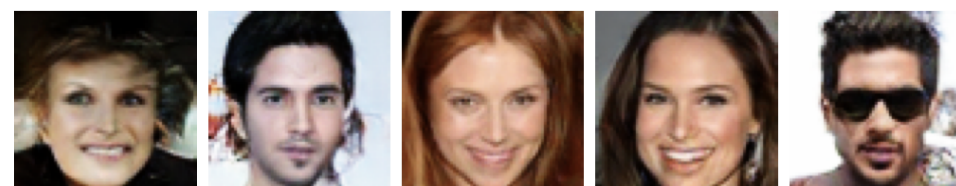
VAE



VAE_{Dis_l}



VAE/GAN



Generative Adversarial Networks

Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs)

- New (old?!⁶) method of training deep generative models
- Idea: pitch a generator and a discriminator against each other
 - Generator tries to draw samples from $p(x)$
 - Discriminator tries to tell if sample came from the generator (fake) or the real world
- Both discriminator and generator are deep networks (differentiable functions)
- LeCun quote 'GANs, the most interesting idea in the last ten years in machine learning'

⁶c.f. Schmidhuber

Aside: Adversarial Learning vs. Adversarial Examples

The approach of GANs is called adversarial since the two networks have *antagonistic* objectives.

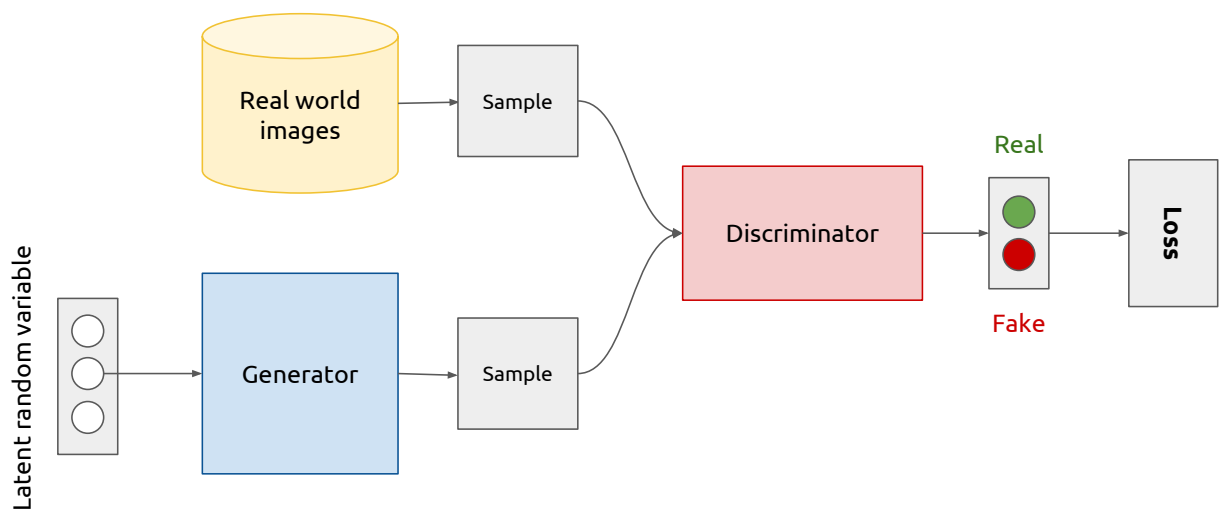
This is not to be confused with *adversarial examples* in machine learning.

See these two papers for more details:

<https://arxiv.org/pdf/1412.6572.pdf>

<https://arxiv.org/pdf/1312.6199.pdf>

Generative adversarial networks (conceptual)



Picture Credit: Xavier Giro-i-Nieto

More Formally

- The **generator**

$$\mathbf{x} = g(\mathbf{z})$$

is trained so that it gets a random input $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ from a distribution (typically $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$ or $\mathcal{U}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$) and produces a sample $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ following the data distribution as output (ideally). Usually $n \ll d$.

- The **discriminator**

$$y = d(\mathbf{x})$$

gets a sample \mathbf{x} as input and predicts a probability $y \in [0, 1]$ (or real-valued logit of a Bernoulli distribution) determining if it is real or fake.

- Training a standard GAN is difficult and often results in two undesirable behaviours
 - Oscillations without convergence. No guarantee that the loss will actually decrease...
 - It has been shown that a GAN has saddle-point solution, rather than a local minima.
 - The **mode collapse** problem, when the generator models very well a small sub-population, concentrating on a few modes.
- Additionally, performance is hard to assess and often boils down to heuristic observations.

Deep Convolutional Generative Adversarial Networks (DCGANs)

- Motivates the use of GANS to learn reusable feature representations from large unlabelled datasets.
- GANs known to be unstable to train, often resulting in generators that produce “nonsensical outputs”.
- Model exploration to identify architectures that result in **stable** training across datasets with higher resolution and deeper models.



- Replace pooling layers with strided convolutions in the discriminator and fractional-strided (transpose) convolutions in the generator.
 - This will allow the network to learn its own spatial downsampling.
- Use batchnorm in both the generator and the discriminator.
 - This helps deal with training problems due to poor initialisation and helps the gradient flow.
- Eliminate fully connected hidden layers for deeper architectures.
- Use ReLU activation in the generator for all layers except for the output, which uses tanh.
- Use LeakyReLU activation in the discriminator for all layers.

Summary

- Generative modelling is a massive field with a long history
- Differentiable generators have had a profound impact in making models that work with real data at scale
- VAEs and GANs are currently the most popular approaches to training generators for spatial data
- We've only scratched the surface of generative modelling
 - Auto-regressive approaches are popular for sequences (e.g. language modelling).
 - But also for images (e.g. PixelRNN, PixelCNN)
 - typically RNN-based
 - but not necessarily - e.g. WaveNet is a convolutional auto-regressive generative model