As a recap. Autoencoders.

- learn joint probability distribution from the training data
- predict the conditional probability using Bayes rule

Discriminative models

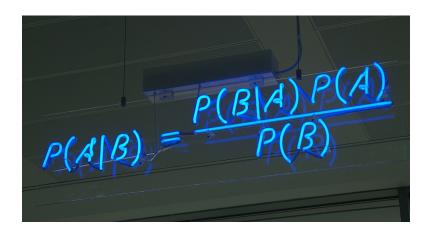
 learn the conditional probability directly from the training data

- learn joint probability distribution from the training data
- predict the conditional probability using Bayes rule

Discriminative models

 learn the conditional probability directly from the training data

The Church of Bayes



- learn joint probability distribution from the training data
- predict the conditional probability using Bayes rule

Discriminative models

 learn the conditional probability directly from the training data

Given training data, we want generate new samples from same distribution.

$$p_{model}(x)$$
 to be similar to $p_{data}(x)$

- learn joint probability distribution from the training data
- predict the conditional probability using Bayes rule

Discriminative models

 learn the conditional probability directly from the training data

Given training data, we want generate new samples from same distribution.

$$p_{model}(x)$$
 to be similar to $p_{data}(x)$

It addresses the problem of density estimation.

- learn joint probability distribution from the training data
- predict the conditional probability using Bayes rule

Discriminative models

 learn the conditional probability directly from the training data

Given training data, we want generate new samples from same distribution.

$$p_{model}(x)$$
 to be similar to $p_{data}(x)$

It addresses the problem of density estimation.



- learn joint probability distribution from the training data
- predict the conditional probability using Bayes rule

Discriminative models

 learn the conditional probability directly from the training data

Given training data, we want generate new samples from same distribution.

$$p_{model}(x)$$
 to be similar to $p_{data}(x)$

It addresses the problem of density estimation.

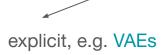




image restoration

ESRGAN: Enhanced Super-Resolution Generative Adversarial Networks

Xintao Wang, Ke Yu, Shixiang Wu, Jinjin Gu, Yihao Liu, Chao Dong, Chen Change Loy, Yu Qiao, Xiaoou Tang (Submitted on 1 Sep 2018 (v1), last revised 17 Sep 2018 (this version, v2))

The Super-Resolution Generative Adversarial Network (SRGAN) is a seminal work that is capable of generating realistic textures during sir further enhance the visual quality, we thoroughly study three key components of SRGAN - network architecture, adversarial loss and perce Residual-in-Residual Dense Block (RRDB) without batch normalization as the basic network building unit. Moreover, we borrow the idea from the perceptual loss by using the features before activation, which could provide stronger supervision for brightness consistency and texture with more realistic and natural textures than SRGAN and won the first place in the PIRM2018-SR Challenge. The code is available at this form.

Comments: To appear in ECCV 2018 workshop. Won Region 3 in the PIRM2018-SR Challenge. Code and models are at this https URL

Subjects: Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (cs.CV)

Cite as: arXiv:1809.00219 [cs.CV]

(or arXiv:1809.00219v2 [cs.CV] for this version)

image restoration

artwork



image restoration

artwork

data augmentation



performing a role similar to SMOTE or ADASYN. It is also useful when the data contains sensitive informa sets using different network architectures, and show that a Decision Tree (DT) classifier trained using the

Comments: Submitted for ACML 2019

set.

Subjects: Machine Learning (cs.LG); Machine Learning (stat.ML)

Cite as: arXiv:1904.09135 [cs.LG]

(or arXiv:1904.09135v1 [cs.LG] for this version)

Variational Autoencoders

Auto-Encoding Variational Bayes

Diederik P Kingma, Max Welling

(Submitted on 20 Dec 2013 (v1), last revised 1 May 2014 (this version, v10))

How can we perform efficient inference and learning in directed probabilist algorithm that scales to large datasets and, under some mild differentiabilit that can be straightforwardly optimized using standard stochastic gradient inference model (also called a recognition model) to the intractable posterior

Subjects: Machine Learning (stat.ML); Machine Learning (cs.LG)

Cite as: arXiv:1312.6114 [stat.ML]

(or arXiv:1312.6114v10 [stat.ML] for this version)

Auto-Encoding Variational Bayes

Diederik P. Kingma

Machine Learning Group Universiteit van Amsterdam dpkingma@gmail.com

Max Welling

Machine Learning Group Universiteit van Amsterdam welling.max@gmail.com

Abstract

How can we perform efficient inference and learning in directed probabilistic models, in the presence of continuous latent variables with intractable posterior distributions, and large datasets? We introduce a stochastic variational inference and learning algorithm that scales to large datasets and, under some mild differentiability conditions, even works in the intractable case. Our contributions is two-fold. First, we show that a reparameterization of the variational lower bound yields a lower bound estimator that can be straightforwardly optimized using standard stochastic gradient methods. Second, we show that for i.i.d. datasets with continuous latent variables per datapoint, posterior inference can be made especially efficient by fitting an approximate inference model (also called a recognition model) to the intractable posterior using the proposed lower bound estimator. Theoretical advantages are reflected in experimental results.

We want to model X with an additional latent variable z, assuming X is generated from this underlying unobserved representation.

We want to model X with an additional latent variable z, assuming X is generated from this underlying unobserved representation.

z can be thought of as a vector, elements of which are capturing how little or how much of some factor variation we have in the training data.

We want to model X with an additional latent variable z, assuming X is generated from this underlying unobserved representation.

The process of data generation:

- value $z^{(i)}$ is generated from some prior distribution $p_{\Theta^*}(x)$
- value $x^{(i)}$ is generated from some conditional distribution $p_{\Theta^*}(x|z)$

We want to estimate these true parameters Θ^* .

We want to model X with an additional latent variable z, assuming X is generated from this underlying unobserved representation.

The process of data generation:

- value $z^{(i)}$ is generated from some prior distribution $p_{\Theta^*}(z)$
- value $x^{(i)}$ is generated from some conditional distribution $p_{\Theta^*}(x|z)$

We want to estimate these true parameters Θ^* .

How can we represent this model? What should $p_{\Theta^*}(z)$ and $p_{\Theta^*}(x|z)$ be?

We want to model X with an additional latent variable z, assuming X is generated from this underlying unobserved representation.

How can we train this model?

We want to model X with an additional latent variable z, assuming X is generated from this underlying unobserved representation.

How can we train this model?

$$p_{\theta}(x) = \int p_{\theta}(z) p_{\theta}(x|z) dz$$

This is our data likelihood. We want to maximize it.

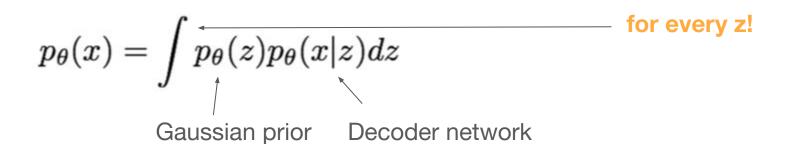
We want to model X with an additional latent variable z, assuming X is generated from this underlying unobserved representation.

How can we train this model?

$$p_{\theta}(x) = \int p_{\theta}(z) p_{\theta}(x|z) dz$$

This is our data likelihood. But it's intractable.

$$p_{ heta}(x) = \int p_{ heta}(z) p_{ heta}(x|z) dz$$
Gaussian prior Decoder network



$$p_{\theta}(x) = \int p_{\theta}(z)p_{\theta}(x|z)dz$$

this guy makes this expression intractable as well!

$$p_{\theta}(z|x) = p_{\theta}(x|z)p_{\theta}(z)/p_{\theta}(x)$$
 (posterior)

$$p_{ heta}(x)=\int p_{ heta}(z)p_{ heta}(x|z)dz$$
 this guy makes this expression intractable as well! $p_{ heta}(z|x)=p_{ heta}(x|z)p_{ heta}(z)/p_{ heta}(x)$ (posterior)

we can approximate this with an encoder network $q_{\phi^*}(z|x)$

PO(x) = SPO(8) PO(X/Z) dz lag (po (xii))= [= = qp(z|xii) (log po (xii)) = EF_{2} |log Pe(x'')/z)Pe(z)| Bayes Rule (lag po (xi)/2)) + lag (po (2)) + lag (qo (2/xi)) + lag (qo (2/xi)) = $= E^{5}(\log \log(x_{(i)}|s)) - E^{5}(\log \frac{\log(s)}{\log(s|x_{(i)})}) + E^{5}(\log \frac{\log(s|x_{(i)})}{\log(s|x_{(i)})})$ sauce

DKL (9e (Elx (") | 1 po (2)) | see here

KL divergence (1951)

$$KL(p(X)||q(X)) = \int p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} dx$$

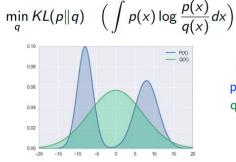
Example: p - bimodal q - Gaussian

The amount of information lost when q is used to approximate p.

It is non-negative, and is equal to zero iff p=q.

It's also asymmetric:

Minimizing forward KL divergence:



Well on average in the expectation over p

Minimizing reverse KL divergence:

$$\min_{q} KL(q||p) \qquad \left(\int q(x) \log \frac{q(x)}{p(x)} dx \right)$$

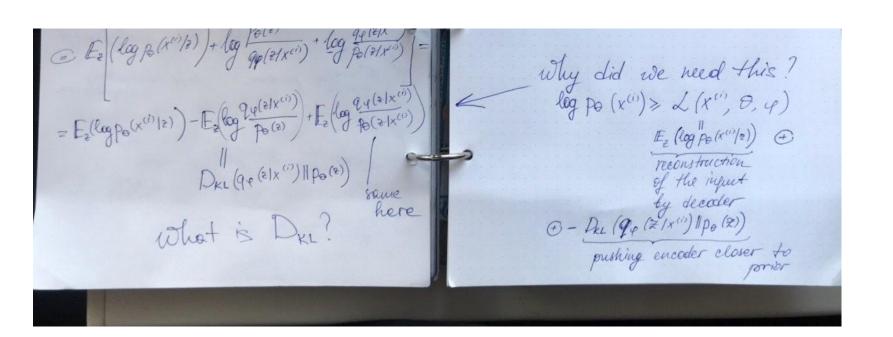
Well on average in the expectation over q — concentrating around a mode of p

Alex Shekhovtsov, CV course @ UCU, 2018

-10

$$F_{z\sim q_{\varphi}(z|x^{(i)})} \log \frac{q_{\varphi}(z|x^{(i)})}{p_{\theta}(z)} = \int q_{\varphi}(z|x^{(i)}) \log \frac{q_{\varphi}(z|x^{(i)})}{p_{\theta}(z)}$$

= KL (94(Z/x"))

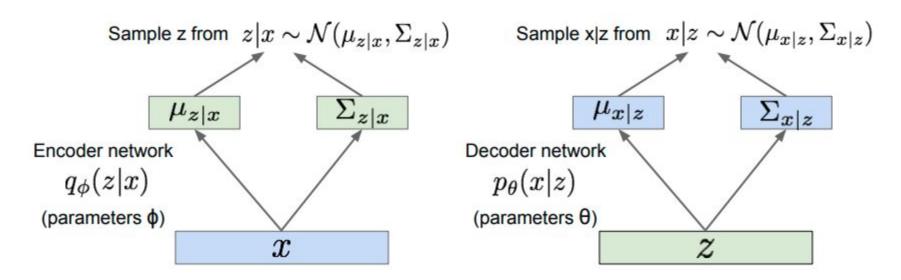


$$\underbrace{\mathbf{E}_{z} \left[\log p_{\theta}(x^{(i)} \mid z) \right] - D_{KL}(q_{\phi}(z \mid x^{(i)}) \mid\mid p_{\theta}(z))}_{\mathcal{L}(x^{(i)}, \theta, \phi)}$$

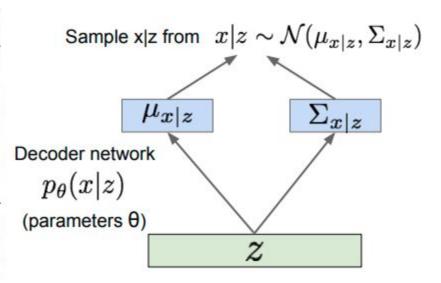
sampling, BUT we can deal with that

decoder; contains

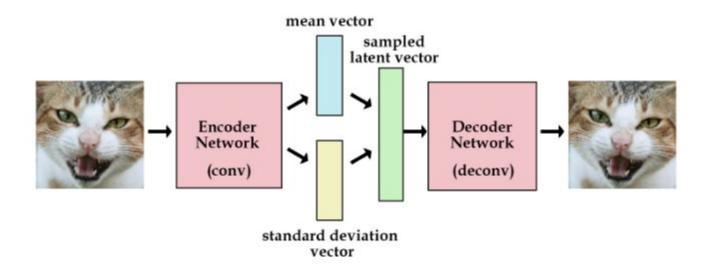
has differentiable closed form in case of Gaussians, see Appendix B in the orig.paper



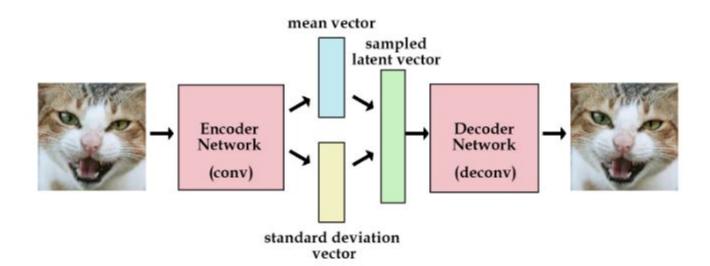
ones. In VAEs, the choice of this output distribution is often Gaussian, i.e., $P(X|z;\theta) = \mathcal{N}(X|f(z;\theta), \sigma^2 * I)$. That is, it has mean $f(z;\theta)$ and covariance equal to the identity matrix I times some scalar σ (which is a hyperparameter). This replacement is necessary to formalize the intuition that some z needs to result in samples that are merely like X. In general, and particularly early in training, our model will not produce outputs that are identical to any particular X. By having a Gaussian distribution, we can use gradient descent (or any other optimization technique) to increase P(X) by making $f(z;\theta)$ approach X for some z, i.e., gradually making the training data more likely under the generative model. This wouldn't be possible if P(X|z) was a Dirac delta function, as it would be if we used $X = f(z; \theta)$ deterministically! Note that the output distribution is not required to be Gaussian: for instance, if X is binary, then P(X|z) might be a Bernoulli parameterized by $f(z;\theta)$. The important property is simply that P(X|z) can be computed, and is continuous in θ . From here onward, we will omit θ from $f(z;\theta)$ to avoid clutter.



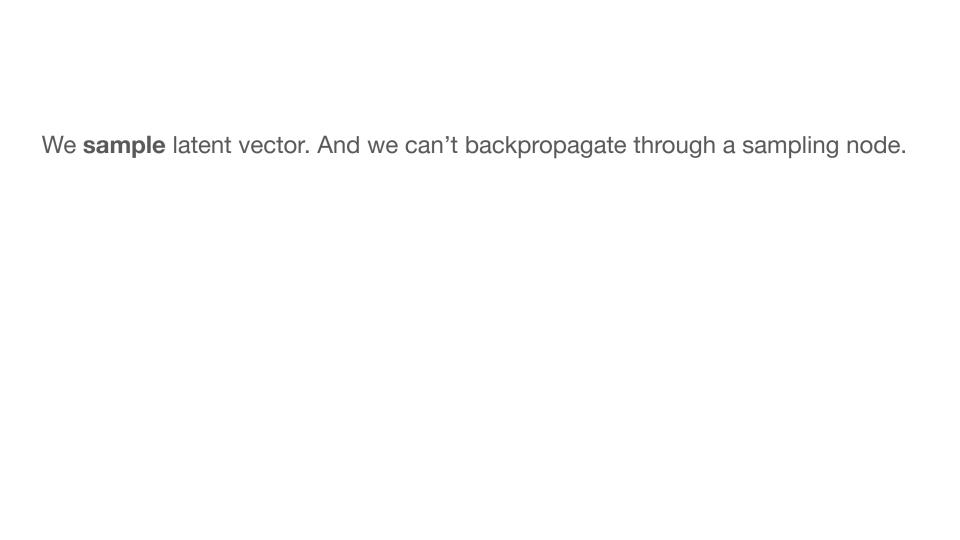
That's why I like this one better.



That's why I like this one better.

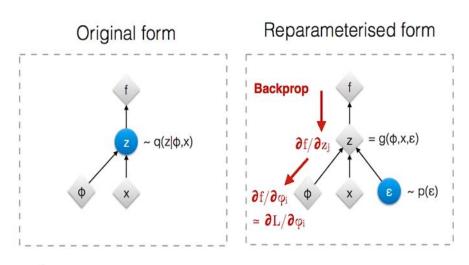


Not just because of cats:)



Instead of having $z \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, we can have $z = \mu + \sigma \epsilon$ with $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

Instead of having $z \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, we can have $z = \mu + \sigma \epsilon$ with $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.



: Deterministic node

: Random node

Instead of having $z \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, we can have $z = \mu + \sigma \epsilon$ with $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

Again: can it be Gaussian only?

Instead of having $z \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, we can have $z = \mu + \sigma \epsilon$ with $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

Again: can it be Gaussian only?

$$\int q_{m{\phi}}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})f(\mathbf{z})\,d\mathbf{z} \simeq rac{1}{L}\sum_{l=1}^{L}f(g_{m{\phi}}(\mathbf{x},m{\epsilon}^{(l)}))$$
 - diff. estimator

Take, for example, the univariate Gaussian case: let $z \sim p(z|x) = \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$. In this case, a valid reparameterization is $z = \mu + \sigma\epsilon$, where ϵ is an auxiliary noise variable $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$. Therefore, $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{N}(z;\mu,\sigma^2)}[f(z)] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{N}(\epsilon;0,1)}[f(\mu + \sigma\epsilon)] \simeq \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} f(\mu + \sigma\epsilon^{(l)})$ where $\epsilon^{(l)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$.

For which $q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$ can we choose such a differentiable transformation $g_{\phi}(.)$ and auxiliary variable $\epsilon \sim p(\epsilon)$? Three basic approaches are:

- 1. Tractable inverse CDF. In this case, let $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{U}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$, and let $g_{\phi}(\epsilon, \mathbf{x})$ be the inverse CDF of $q_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$. Examples: Exponential, Cauchy, Logistic, Rayleigh, Pareto, Weibull, Reciprocal, Gompertz, Gumbel and Erlang distributions.
- 2. Analogous to the Gaussian example, for any "location-scale" family of distributions we can choose the standard distribution (with location =0, scale =1) as the auxiliary variable ϵ , and let $g(.) = \text{location} + \text{scale} \cdot \epsilon$. Examples: Laplace, Elliptical, Student's t, Logistic, Uniform, Triangular and Gaussian distributions.
- 3. Composition: It is often possible to express random variables as different transformations of auxiliary variables. Examples: Log-Normal (exponentiation of normally distributed variable), Gamma (a sum over exponentially distributed variables), Dirichlet (weighted sum of Gamma variates), Beta, Chi-Squared, and F distributions.

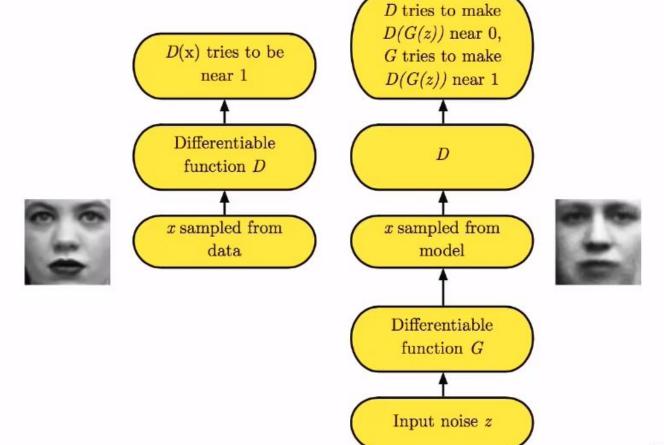
Kingma et al, Auto-Encoding Variational Bayes, 2014

Generative adversarial networks

GANs

- both players are neural networks
- worst case input for one network is produced by another network

Adversarial Nets Framework



Minimax Game

$$J^{(D)} = -\frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{x} \sim p_{\text{data}}} \log D(\boldsymbol{x}) - \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{z}} \log (1 - D(G(\boldsymbol{z})))$$
$$J^{(G)} = -J^{(D)}$$

- Nash equilibrium (given unlimited capabilities)
- JS divergence between the data and the model

$$D_G^*(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{p_{data}(\boldsymbol{x})}{p_{data}(\boldsymbol{x}) + p_g(\boldsymbol{x})}$$

$$C(G) = \max_{D} V(G, D)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{x} \sim p_{\text{data}}} [\log D_{G}^{*}(\boldsymbol{x})] + \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{z} \sim p_{\boldsymbol{z}}} [\log (1 - D_{G}^{*}(G(\boldsymbol{z})))]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{x} \sim p_{\text{data}}} [\log D_{G}^{*}(\boldsymbol{x})] + \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{x} \sim p_{g}} [\log (1 - D_{G}^{*}(\boldsymbol{x}))]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{x} \sim p_{\text{data}}} \left[\log \frac{p_{\text{data}}(\boldsymbol{x})}{P_{\text{data}}(\boldsymbol{x}) + p_{g}(\boldsymbol{x})} \right] + \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{x} \sim p_{g}} \left[\log \frac{p_{g}(\boldsymbol{x})}{p_{\text{data}}(\boldsymbol{x}) + p_{g}(\boldsymbol{x})} \right]$$

$$C(G) = -\log(4) + KL\left(p_{\text{data}} \left\| \frac{p_{\text{data}} + p_g}{2} \right.\right) + KL\left(p_g \left\| \frac{p_{\text{data}} + p_g}{2} \right.\right)$$

$$C(G) = -\log(4) + 2 \cdot JSD\left(p_{\text{data}} \parallel p_g\right)$$

Non-saturating game

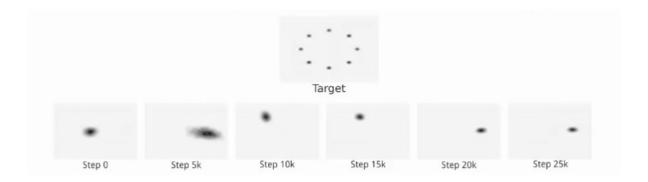
$$\begin{split} J^{(D)} &= -\frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{x} \sim p_{\text{data}}} \log D(\boldsymbol{x}) - \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{z}} \log \left(1 - D\left(G(\boldsymbol{z})\right)\right) \\ \cdot J^{(G)} &= -\frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{z}} \log D\left(G(\boldsymbol{z})\right) \end{split}$$

- G can still learn even when D rejects all G's samples
- G maximizes log-prob of the D being mistaken

Mode collapse

$$\min_{G} \max_{D} V(G, D) \neq \max_{D} \min_{G} V(G, D)$$

- when we have LHS expression convergence to correct distribution
- when we have RHS expression we have mode collapse



Was Jürgen Schmidhuber right when he claimed credit for GANs at NIPS 2016?



Answer 5 Follow 32 + Request











1 Answer



Ian Goodfellow, I invented generative adversarial networks Answered Mar 21, 2017



He isn't claiming credit for GANs, exactly. It's more complicated.

You can see what he wrote in his own words when he was a reviewer of the NIPS 2014 submission on GANs: Export Reviews, Discussions, Author Feedback and Meta-Reviews

He's the reviewer that asked us to change the name of GANs to "inverse PM."

Here's the paper he believes is not being sufficiently acknowledged: http://ftp://ftp.idsia.ch/pub/juergen/factorial.pdf

I don't like that there is no good way to have issues like this adjudicated. I contacted the NIPS organizers and asked if there is a way for Jürgen to file a complaint about me and have a committee of NIPS representatives judge whether my publication treats his unfairly. They said there is no such process available.

I personally don't think that there is any significant connection between predictability minimization and GANs. I have never had any problem acknowledging connections between GANs and other algorithms that actually are related, like noise-contrastive estimation and self-supervised boosting.

Jürgen and I intend to write a paper together soon describing the similarities and differences between PM and GANs, assuming we're able to agree on what those are.

23.3k views · View Upvoters · View Sharers · Answer requested by Juan Manuel Pérez Rúa







