

Generative Ratio Matching Networks

Akash Srivastava^{*,1,2}, Kai Xu^{*,3}, Michael U. Gutmann³, Charles Sutton^{3,4,5}

* denotes equal contributions

¹MIT-IBM Watson AI Lab ²IBM Research ³University of Edinburgh ⁴Google AI ⁵Alan Turing Institute

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Introduction and motivations

Implicit deep generative models: $x = \text{NN}(z; \theta)$ where $z \sim \text{noise}$

Maximum mean discrepancy networks (MMD-nets)

- ❌ can only work well with **low-dimensional** data
- ✅ are very **stable** to train by avoiding the saddle-point optimization problem

Adversarial generative models (e.g. GANs, MMD-GANs)

- ✅ can generate **high-dimensional** data such as natural images
- ❌ are very **difficult** to train due to the saddle-point optimization problem

Q: Can we have two ✅✅?

A: Yes. Generative ratio matching (GRAM) is a *stable* learning algorithm for *implicit* deep generative models that does **not** involve a saddle-point optimization problem and therefore is easy to train 🎉.

Background: maximum mean discrepancy

The maximum mean discrepancy (MMD) between two distributions p and q is defined as

$$\text{MMD}_{\mathcal{F}}(p, q) = \sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} (\mathbb{E}_p[f(x)] - \mathbb{E}_q[f(x)])$$

Gretton et al. (2012) shows that it is sufficient to choose \mathcal{F} to be a unit ball in an reproducing kernel Hilbert space (RKHS) \mathcal{R} with a characteristic kernel k s.t.

$$\text{MMD}_{\mathcal{F}}(p, q) = 0 \iff p = q$$

The empirical estimate of the (squared) MMD with $x_i \sim p$ and $y_j \sim q$ by Monte Carlo is

$$\hat{\text{MMD}}_{\mathcal{R}}^2(p, q) = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{i'=1}^N k(x_i, x_{i'}) - \frac{2}{NM} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^M k(x_i, y_j) + \frac{1}{M^2} \sum_{j=1}^M \sum_{j'=1}^M k(y_j, y_{j'})$$

MMD-nets trains neural generators by minimizing this empirical estimate.

Background: density ratio estimation via moment matching

Density ratio estimation: find $\hat{r}(x) \approx r(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$ with samples from p and q

Finite moments under the fixed design setup gives $\hat{\mathbf{r}}_q = [\hat{r}(x_1^q), \dots, \hat{r}(x_M^q)]$ for $x^q \sim q$

$$\min_r \left(\int \phi(x)p(x)dx - \int \phi(x)r(x)q(x)dx \right)^2$$

Huang et al. (2007) shows that by changing $\phi(x)$ to $k(x; \cdot)$, where k is a characteristic kernel in RKHS, we can match infinite moments and the optimization below agrees with the true $r(x)$

$$\min_{r \in \mathcal{R}} \left\| \int k(x; \cdot)p(x)dx - \int k(x; \cdot)r(x)q(x)dx \right\|_{\mathcal{R}}^2$$

Analytical solution: $\hat{\mathbf{r}} = \mathbf{K}_{q,q}^{-1} \mathbf{K}_{q,p} \mathbf{1}$, where $[\mathbf{K}_{p,q}]_{i,j} = k(x_i^p, x_j^q)$ given samples $\{x_i^p\}$ and $\{x_j^q\}$.

GRAM: an overview

Two targets in the training loop

1. Learning a projection function f_θ that maps the data space into a low-dimensional manifold which preserves the density ratio between data and model.

- "Preserves": $\frac{p_x(x)}{q_x(x)} = \frac{\bar{p}(f_\theta(x))}{\bar{q}(f_\theta(x))}$, measured by $D(\theta) = \int q_x(x) \left(\frac{p_x(x)}{q_x(x)} - \frac{\bar{p}(f_\theta(x))}{\bar{q}(f_\theta(x))} \right)^2 dx$
- ? $\frac{p_x(x)}{q_x(x)}$ is hard to estimate in the high-dimensional space ...

2. Matching the model G_γ to data in the low-dimensional manifold by minimizing MMD

- 👍 MMD works well in low dimensional space
- $\text{MMD} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\bar{p}(f_\theta(x))}{\bar{q}(f_\theta(x))} = 1 \Rightarrow \frac{p_x(x)}{q_x(x)} = 1$

Both with empirical estimates based on samples from the data $\{x_i^p\}$ and the model $\{x_j^q\}$.

f_θ and G_γ are simultaneously updated.

GRAM: tractable ratio matching

1 Learning the projection function $f_\theta(x)$ by minimizing the squared difference

$$\begin{aligned} D(\theta) &= \int q_x(x) \left(\frac{p_x(x)}{q_x(x)} - \frac{\bar{p}(f_\theta(x))}{\bar{q}(f_\theta(x))} \right)^2 dx \\ &= C - 2 \int p_x(x) \frac{\bar{p}(f_\theta(x))}{\bar{q}(f_\theta(x))} dx + \int q_x(x) \left(\frac{\bar{p}(f_\theta(x))}{\bar{q}(f_\theta(x))} \right)^2 dx \\ &= C - 2 \int \bar{p}(f_\theta(x)) \frac{\bar{p}(f_\theta(x))}{\bar{q}(f_\theta(x))} df_\theta(x) + \int \bar{q}(f_\theta(x)) \left(\frac{\bar{p}(f_\theta(x))}{\bar{q}(f_\theta(x))} \right)^2 df_\theta(x) \\ &= C' - \left(\int \bar{q}(f_\theta(x)) \left(\frac{\bar{p}(f_\theta(x))}{\bar{q}(f_\theta(x))} \right)^2 df_\theta(x) - 1 \right) = C' - \text{PD}(\bar{q}, \bar{p}) \end{aligned}$$

... or by equivalently maximizing the Pearson divergence 😊.

A reminder on LOTUS: $\int p(x)g(f(x))dx = \int p(f(x))g(f(x))df(x)$

[1]: A derivation of the reverse order for a special case of projection functions was also shown in (Sugiyama et al., 2011).

GRAM: Pearson divergence maximization

Monte Carlo approximation of PD

$$\text{PD}(\bar{q}, \bar{p}) = \int \bar{q}(f_\theta(x)) \left(\frac{\bar{p}(f_\theta(x))}{\bar{q}(f_\theta(x))} \right)^2 df_\theta(x) - 1 \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\frac{\bar{p}(f_\theta(x_i^q))}{\bar{q}(f_\theta(x_i^q))} \right)^2 - 1$$

where $x_i^q \sim q_x$ or equivalently $f_\theta(x_i^q) \sim \bar{q}$.

Given samples $\{x_i^p\}$ and $\{x_j^q\}$, we use the density ratio estimator based on infinite moments matching (Huang et al., 2007, Sugiyama et al., 2012) under the fixed-design setup

$$\hat{\mathbf{r}}_{q,\theta} = \mathbf{K}_{q,q}^{-1} \mathbf{K}_{q,p} \mathbf{1} = [\hat{r}_\theta(x_1^q), \dots, \hat{r}_\theta(x_M^q)]^\top$$

where $[\mathbf{K}_{p,q}]_{i,j} = k(f_\theta(x_i^p), f_\theta(x_j^q))$ and $r_\theta(x) = \frac{\bar{p}(f_\theta(x))}{\bar{q}(f_\theta(x))}$.

GRAM: matching projected model to projected data

2 Minimizing the empirical estimator of MMD in the low-dimensional manifold

$$\min_{\gamma} \left[\frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{i'=1}^N k(f_{\theta}(x_i), f_{\theta}(x_{i'})) - \frac{2}{NM} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^M k(f_{\theta}(x_i), f_{\theta}(G_{\gamma}(z_j))) \right. \\ \left. + \frac{1}{M^2} \sum_{j=1}^M \sum_{j'=1}^M k(f_{\theta}(G_{\gamma}(z_j)), f_{\theta}(G_{\gamma}(z_{j'}))) \right]$$

with respect to its parameters γ .

GRAM: the complete algorithm

Loop until convergence

1. Sample a minibatch of data and generate samples from G_γ
2. Project data and generated samples using f_θ
3. Compute the kernel Gram matrices using Gaussian kernels in the projected space
4. Compute the objectives for f_θ and G_γ using the same kernel Gram matrices
5. Backprop two objectives to get the gradients for θ and γ
6. Perform gradient update for θ and γ

😎 Fun fact: the objectives in our GRAM algorithm both heavily relies on the use of kernel Gram matrices.

How do GRAM-nets compare to other deep generative models

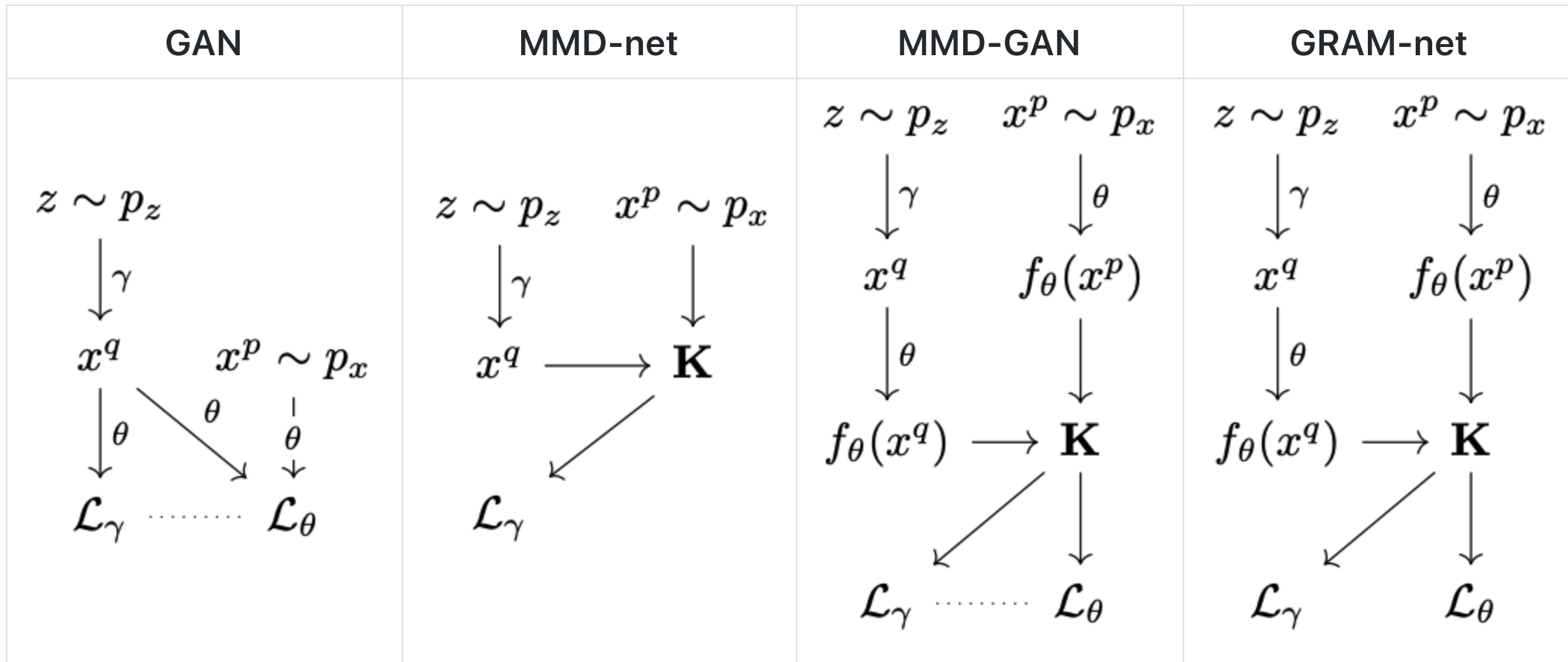
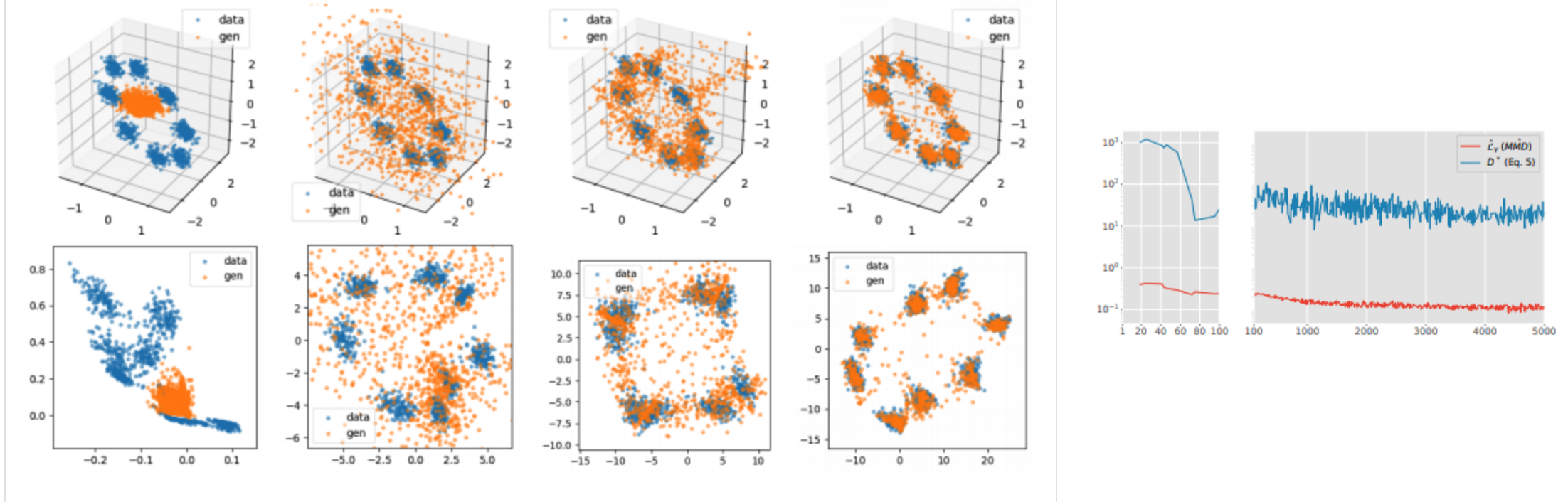
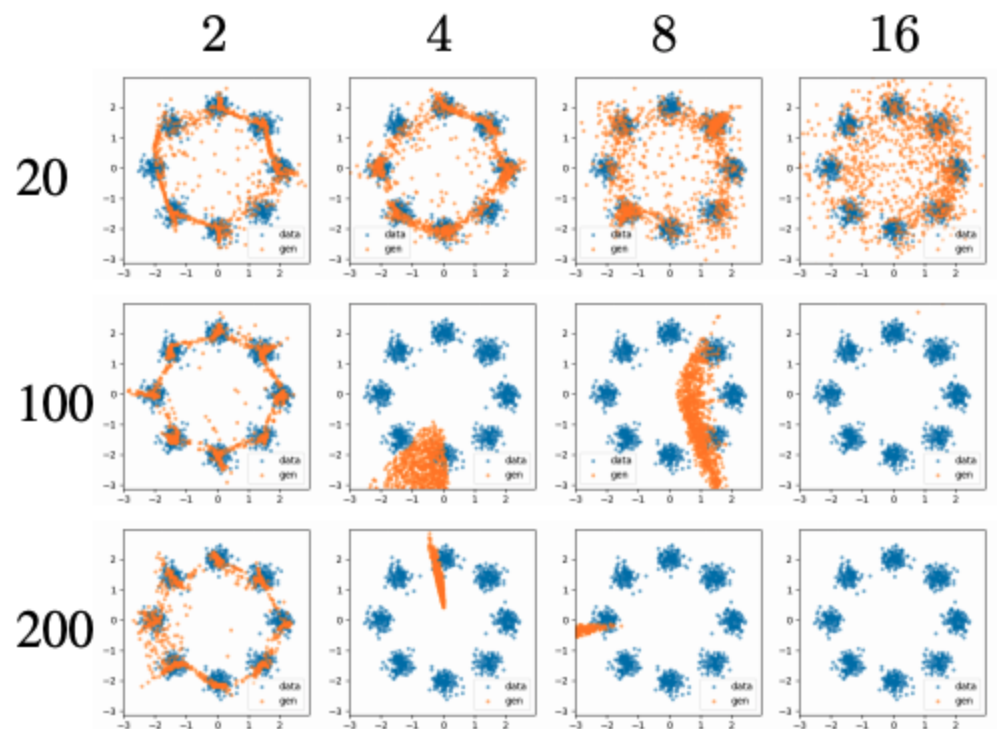


Illustration of GRAM training

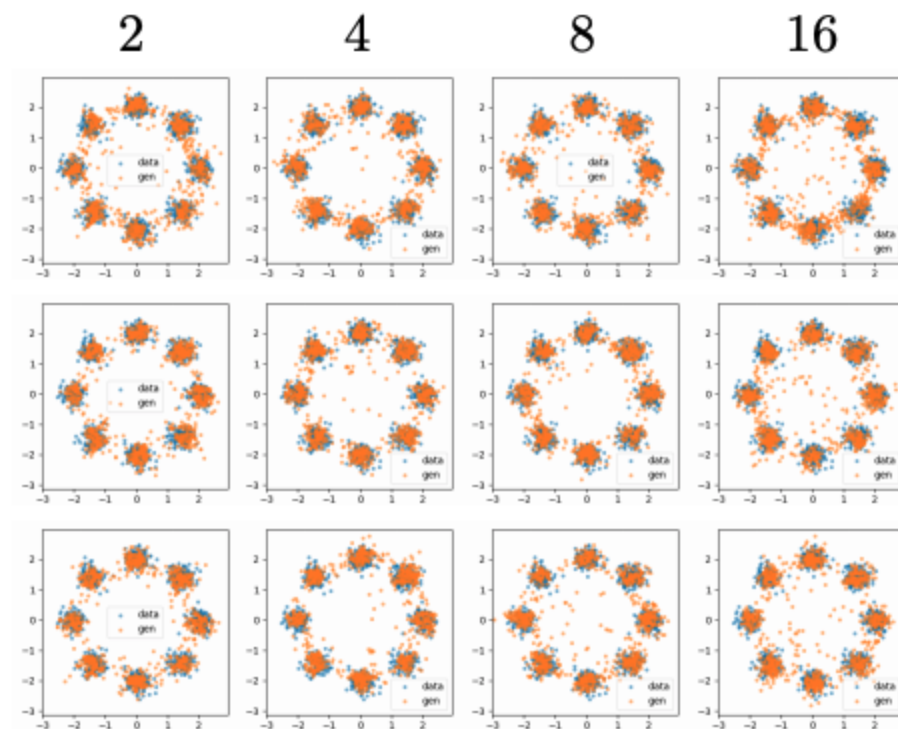


Blue: data, Orange: samples
Top: original, Bottom: projected

Evaluations: the stability of models



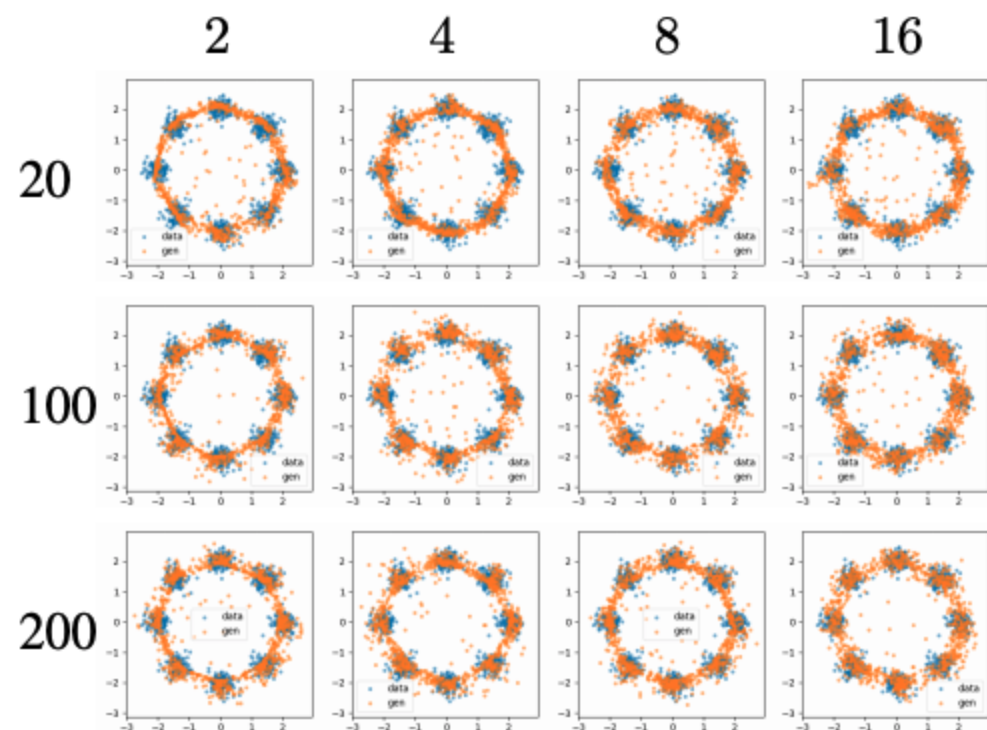
(a) GAN



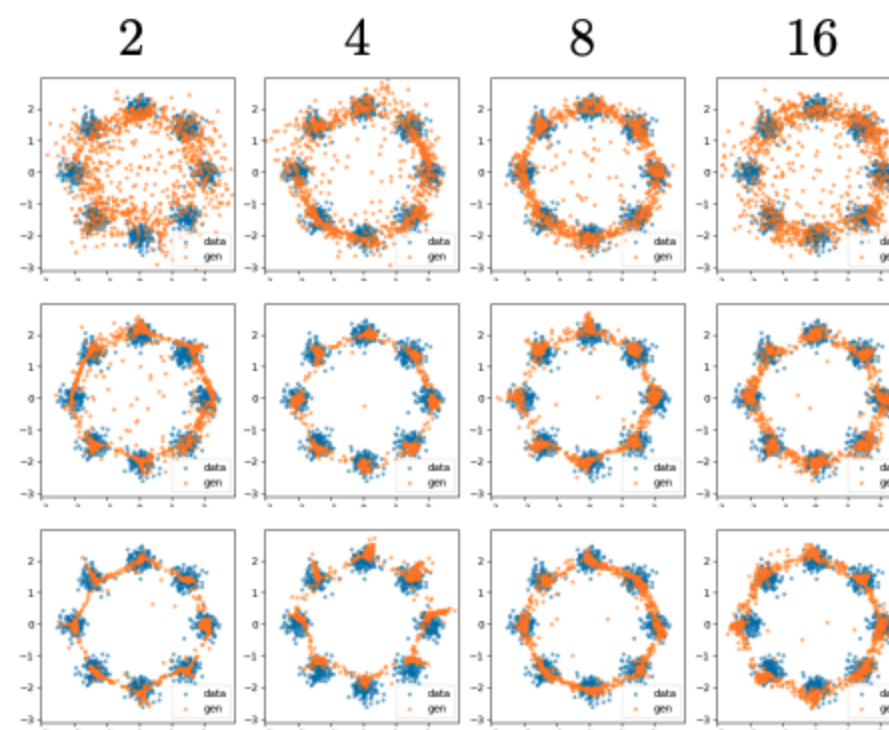
(b) GRAM-net

x-axis = noise dimension and y-axis = generator layer size

Evaluations: the stability of models (continued)



(a) MMD-nets



(b) MMD-GANs

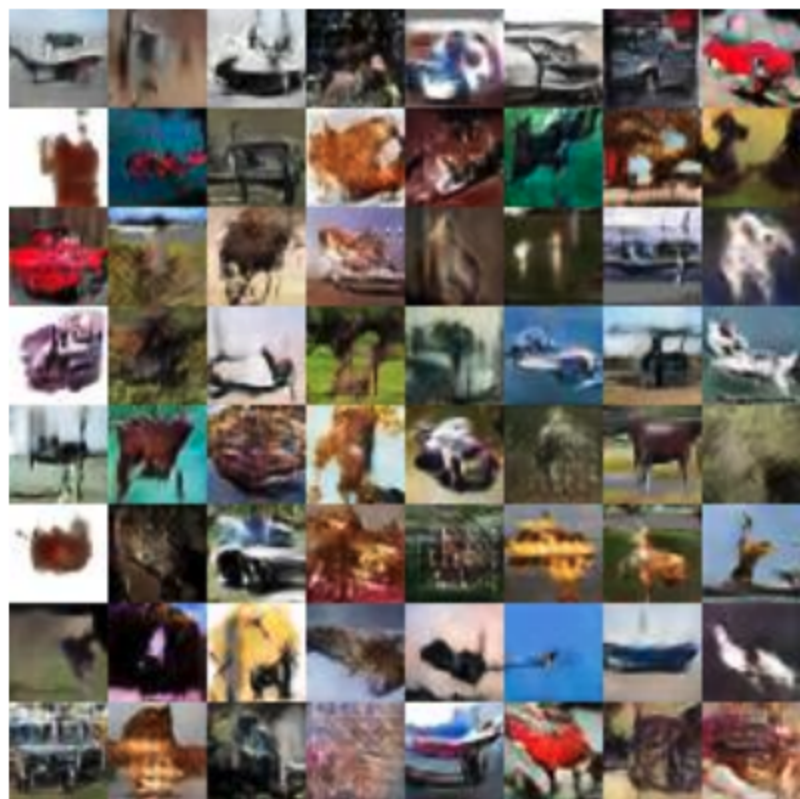
x-axis = noise dimension and y-axis = generator layer size

Quantitative results: sample quality

Table 1: Sample quality (measured by FID; lower is better) of GRAM-nets compared to GANs.

Arch.	Dataset	MMD-GAN	GAN	GRAM-net
DCGAN	Cifar10	40.00 ± 0.56	26.82 ± 0.49	24.85 ± 0.94
Weaker	Cifar10	210.85 ± 8.92	31.64 ± 2.10	24.82 ± 0.62
DCGAN	CelebA	41.105 ± 1.42	30.97 ± 5.32	27.04 ± 4.24

Qualitative results: random samples



(a) CIFAR10



(b) CelebA

The end