Generative Adversarial Nets

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Abstract

We propose a new framework for estimating generative models via an adversarial process, in which we simultaneously train two models: a generative model G that captures the data distribution, and a discriminative model D that estimates the probability that a sample came from the training data rather than G. The training procedure for G is to maximize the probability of D making a mistake. This framework corresponds to a minimax two-player game. In the space of arbitrary functions G and D, a unique solution exists, with G recovering the training data distribution and D equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ everywhere. In the case where G and D are defined by multilayer perceptrons, the entire system can be trained with backpropagation. There is no need for any Markov chains or unrolled approximate inference networks during either training or generation of samples. Experiments demonstrate the potential of the framework through qualitative and quantitative evaluation of the generated samples.

1 Introduction

The promise of deep learning is to discover rich, hierarchical models [?] that represent probability distributions over the kinds of data encountered in artificial

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intelligence applications, such as natural images, audio waveforms containing speech, and symbols in natural language corpora. So far, the most striking successes in deep learning have involved discriminative models, usually those that map a high-dimensional, rich sensory input to a class label [?, ?]. These striking successes have primarily been based on the backpropagation and dropout algorithms, using piecewise linear units [?, ?, ?] which have a particularly well-behaved gradient. Deep *generative* models have had less of an impact, due to the difficulty of approximating many intractable probabilistic computations that arise in maximum likelihood estimation and related strategies, and due to difficulty of leveraging the benefits of piecewise linear nits in the generative context. We propose a new generative model estimation procedure that sidesteps these difficulties.¹

In the proposed adversarial nets framework, the generative model is pitted against an adversary: a discriminate model that leans to determine whether a sample is from the model distribution or the data distribution. The generative model can be thought of as analogous to a team of counterfeiters, trying to produce fake currency and use it without detection, while the discriminative model is analogous to the police, trying to detect the counterfeit currency. Competition in this game drives both teams to improve their methods until the counterfeits are indistinguishable from the genuine articles.

This framework can yield specific training algorithms for many kinds of model and optimization algorithm. In this article, we explore the special case when the generative model generates sample by passing random noise through a multilayer perceptron, and the discriminative model is also a multilayer perceptron. We refer to this special case as *adversarial nets*. In this case, we can train both models using only the highly successful backpropagation and dropout algorithms [?] and sample from the generative model using only forward propagation. No approximate inference or Markov chains are necessary.

2 Related work

An alternative to directed graphical models with latent variables are undirected graphical models with latent variables, such as restricted Boltzmann machines (RBMs) [?, ?], deep Boltzmann machines (DBMs) [?] and their numerous variants. The interactions within such models are represented as the product of unnormalized potential functions, normalized by a global summation/integration over all states of the random variables. This quantity (the partition function) and its gradient are intractable for all but the most trivial instances, although they can be estimated by Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods. Mixing poses a significant problem for learning algorithms that rely on MCMC [?, ?]. Deep belief networks (DBNs) [?] are hybrid models containing a single undirected layer and several directed layers. While a fast approximate layer-wise

 $^{^1\}mathrm{All}$ code and hyperparameters available at $\mathtt{http://www.github.com/goodfeli/adversarial}$

training criterion exists, DBNs incur the computational difficulties associated with both undirected and directed models.

Alternative criteria that do not approximate or bound the log-likelihood have also been proposed, such as score matching [?] and noise-contrastive estimation (NCE) [?]. Both of these require the learned probability density to be analytically specified up to a normalization constant. Note that in many interesting generative models with several layers of latent variables (such as DBNs and DBMs), it is not even possible to derive a tractable unnormalized probability density. Some models such as denoising auto-encoders [?] and contractive autoencoders have learning rules very similar to score matching applied to RBMs. In NCE, as in this work, a discriminative training criterion is employed to fit a generative model. However, rather than fitting a separate discriminative model, the generative model itself is used to discriminate generated data from samples a fixed noise distribution. Because NCE uses a fixed noise distribution, learning slows dramatically after the model has learned even an approximately correct distribution over a small subset of the observed variables.

Finally, some techniques do not involve defining a probability distribution explicitly, but rather train a generative machine to draw samples from the desired distribution. This approach has the advantage that such machines can be designed to be trained by back-propagation. Prominent recent work in this area includes the generative stochastic network (GSN) framework [?], which extends generalized denoising auto-encoders [?]: oth can be seen as defining a parameterized Markov chain, i.e., one learns the parameters of a machine that performs one step of a generative Markov chain. Compared to GSNs, the adversarial nets framework does not require a Markov chain for sampling. Because adversarial nets do not require feedback loops during generation, they are better able to leverage piecewise linear units [?, ?, ?], which improve the performance of backpropagation but have problems with unbounded activation when used ina feedback loop. More recent examples of training a generative machine by backpropagating into it include recent work on auto-encoding variational Bayes [?] and stochastic backpropagation [?].

3 Adversarial nets

The adversarial modeling framework is most straightforward to apply when the models are both multilayer perceptrons. To learn the generator's distribution p_g over data \boldsymbol{x} , we define a prior on input noise variables $p_{\boldsymbol{z}}(\boldsymbol{z})$, then represent a mapping to data space as $G(\boldsymbol{z},\theta_g)$, where G is a differentiable function represented by a multilayer perceptron with parameters θ_g . We also define a second multilayer perceptron $D(\boldsymbol{x},\theta_d)$ that outputs a single scalar. $D(\boldsymbol{x})$ represents the probability that \boldsymbol{x} came from the data rather than p_g . We train D to maximize the probability of assigning the correct labe to both training examples and samples from G. We simultaneously train G to minimize $\log(1-D(G(\boldsymbol{z})))$: In other words, D and G play the following two-player minimax game with value function V(F,D):

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

In the next section, we present a theoretical analysis of adversarial nets, essentially showing that the training criterion allows one to recover the data generating distribution as G and D are given enough capacity, i.e., in the non-parametric limit. See for a less formal, more pedagogical explanation of the approach. In practice, we must implement the game using an iterative, numerical approach. Optimizing D to completion in the inner loop of training is computationally prohibitive, and on finite datasets would result in overfitting. Instead, we alternate between k steps of optimizing D and one step of optimizing G. This results in D being maintained near its optimal solution, so long as G changes slowly enough. This strategy is analogous to the way that SML/PCD [?, ?] training maintains samples from a Markov chain from one learning step to the next in order to avoid burning in a Markov chain as part of the inner loop of learning. The procedure is formally presented in

In practice equation 1 may not provide sufficient gradient for G to learn well. Early in learning, when G is poor, D can reject samples with high confidence because they are clearly different from the training data. In this case, $\log(1 - D(G(z)))$ saturates. Rather than training G to minimize $\log(1 - D(G(z)))$ we can train G to maximize $\log D(G(z))$. This objective function results in the same fixed point of the dynamics of G and D but provides much stronger gradients early in learning.

4 Theoretical Results

The generator G implicitly defines a probability distribution p_g as the distribution of the samples G(z) obtained when $z \sim p_z$. Therefore, we would like to converge to a good estimator of $p_{\rm data}$, if given enough capacity and training time. The results of this section are done in a nonparametric setting, e.g. we represent a model wit infinite capacity by studying convergence in the space of probability density functions.

We will show in that this minimax game has a global optimum for $p_g = p_{\text{data}}$. We will then show in that optimizes, thus obtaining the desired result.

4.1 Global Optimality of $p_q = p_{\text{data}}$

We first consider the optimal discriminator D for any give generator G.

Proposition 1. For G fixed, the optimal discriminator D is

$$D_G^*(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})}{p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x}) + p_q(\mathbf{x})}$$
(2)

Proof. The training criterion for the discriminator D, given any generator G, is to maximize the quantity V(G, D)

$$V(G, D) = \int_{\boldsymbol{x}} p_{\text{data}}(\boldsymbol{x}) \log(D(\boldsymbol{x})) d\boldsymbol{x} + \int_{\boldsymbol{z}} p_{\boldsymbol{z}}(\boldsymbol{z}) \log(1 - D(G(\boldsymbol{z}))) d\boldsymbol{z}$$
$$= \int_{\boldsymbol{x}} p_{\text{data}}(\boldsymbol{x}) \log(D(\boldsymbol{x})) + \int_{\boldsymbol{z}} p_{\boldsymbol{z}}(\boldsymbol{z}) \log(1 - D(\boldsymbol{x})) d\boldsymbol{x}$$

For any $(a,b) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0,0\}$, the function $y \to a \log(Y) + b \log(1-y)$ achieves its maximum in][0,1] at $\frac{a}{a+b}$. The discriminator does not need to be defined outside of $Supp(p_{\text{data}}) \cup Supp(p_q)$, concluding the proof.

Note that the training objective for D can be interpreted as maximizing the log-likelihood for estimating the conditional probability $P(Y = y|\mathbf{x})$, where Y indicates whether \mathbf{x} comes from p_{data} (with y = 1) or from p_g (with y = 0). The minimax game in can now be reformulate as:

$$\begin{split} C(G) &= \max_{D} V(G, D) \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{x} \sim p_{\text{data}}} [\log D_G^*(\boldsymbol{x})] + \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{z} \sim p_{\boldsymbol{z}}} [\log (1 - D_G^*(G(\boldsymbol{z})))] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{x} \sim p_{\text{data}}} [\log D_G^*(\boldsymbol{x})] + \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{x} \sim p_g} [\log (1 - D_G^*(\boldsymbol{x}))] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{x} \sim p_{\text{data}}} \left[\log \frac{p_{\text{data}}(\boldsymbol{x})}{p_{\text{data}}(\boldsymbol{x}) + p_g(\boldsymbol{x})} \right] + \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{x} \sim p_g} \left[\log \frac{p_g(\boldsymbol{x})}{p_{\text{data}}(\boldsymbol{x}) + p_g(\boldsymbol{x})} \right] \end{split}$$

Theorem 1. The global minimum of the virtual training criterion C(G) is achieved if and only if $p_g = p_{\text{data}}$. At that point, C(G) achieves the value $-\log 4$.

Proof. For $p_g = p_{\text{data}}$, $D_G^*(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{1}{2}$, (consider). Hence, by inspecting at $D_G^*(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{1}{2}$, we find $C(G) = \log \frac{1}{2} + \log \frac{1}{2} = -\log 4$. To see that this is the best possible value of C(G), reached only for $p_g = p_{\text{data}}$, observe that

$$\mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{x} \sim p_{\text{data}}}[-\log 2] + \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{x} \sim p_g}[-\log 2] = -\log 4$$

and that by subtracting this expression from $C(G) = V(D_G^*, G)$, we obtain:

$$C(G) = -\log(4) + KL\left(p_{\text{data}} \| \frac{p_{\text{data}} + p_g}{2}\right) + KL\left(p_g \| \frac{p_{\text{data}} + p_g}{2}\right)$$
(3)

where KL is the Kullback–Leibler divergence. We recognize in the previous expression the Jensen–Shannon divergence between the model's distribution and the data generating process:

$$C(G) = -\log(4) + 2 \cdot JSD(p_{\text{data}} || p_q) \tag{4}$$

Since the Jensen–Shannon divergence between two distributions is always non-negative and zero only when they are equal, we have shown that $C^* = -\log(4)$ is the global minimum of C(G) and that the only solution is $p_g = p_{data}$, i.e., the generative model perfectly replicating the data generating process.

4.2 Convergence of

Proposition 2. If G and D have enough capacity, and at each step of, the discriminator is allowed to reach its optimum given G, and p_g is updated so as to improve the criterion

$$\mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{x} \sim p_{\text{data}}}[\log D_G^*(\boldsymbol{x})] + \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{x} \sim p_g}[\log(1 - D_G^*(\boldsymbol{x}))]$$

then p_g converges to p_{data} .

Proof. Consider $V(G,D)=U(p_g,D)$ as a function of p_g as done in the above criterion. Note that $U(p_g,D)$ is convex in p_g . The subderivatives of a supremum of convex functions include the derivative of the function at the point where the maximum is attained. In other words, if $f(x)=\sup_{\alpha\in\mathcal{A}}f_{\alpha}(x)$ and $f_{\alpha}(x)$ is convex in x for every α , then $\partial f_{\beta}(x)\in\partial f$ if $\beta=\arg\sup_{\alpha\in\mathcal{A}}f_{\alpha}(x)$. This is equivalent to computing a gradient descent update for p_g at the optimal D given the corresponding G. $\sup_D U(p_g,D)$ is convex in p_g with a unique global optima as proven in , therefore with sufficiently small updates of p_g , p_g converges to p_x , concluding the proof.

In practice, adversarial nets represent a limited family of p_g distributions via the function $G(z;\theta_g)$, and we optimize $\theta)g$ rather than p_g itself. Using a multilayer perceptron to define G introduces multiple critical point in parameter space. However, the excellent performance of multilayer perceptrons in practice suggests that they are a reasonable model to use despite their lack of theoretical guarantees.