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# Quantitative Analysis of GAN samples

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## Abstract

In this paper we quantitatively compare samples produced with adversarial methods, specially Generative Adversarial Networks, and the real data distribution. We show that one can produce a useful distance measure between real and fake distributions by using the joint probability of marginalized perceptually significant features computed over the real and fake data. We provide results on image, music and speech data and show that GAN generated samples have signatures that can be used to detect adversarial attacks.

## 1 Introduction

Since the first Generative Adversarial Networks paper in 2014, there have been many advances and publications related to the topic, including theoretical research on the framework, such as LSGAN, WGAN, Improved WGAN, Mixed GANs, Began, Energy Gans..., mainly applied to the domain of natural images, but slowly expanding to language models and music.

Unlike variational auto encoders and other methods, most of the evaluation of the output of Generators trained with the GAN framework is still qualitative. For example, it is common for authors to subjectively say that their generated samples look better than others. In the early GAN papers, authors estimate the probability of the test set data under the generator by fitting a Gaussian parzen window to the samples generated with G and report the log-likelihood under this distribution, cite Breuleux et al.[8] GAN paper.

In addition to evaluating sample quality manually, authors also mention in their papers that they have not observed mode collapse or that their framework prevents mode collapsing. Mixed GANs paper raises attention to this issue and questions the variety of the samples generated with the GAN framework.

One of the challenges of evaluating GAN samples qualitatively is that it is hard to compute perceptually meaningful features from the images, e.g. there is no body part counting neuron. There has been a research trend, cite Deepak, that uses features computed over the training data, e.g. summary statistics, for training and evaluating generative models. We foresee this practice will develop in parallel with the advancement of visual question answering.

This paper is related to this trend and quantitatively evaluates GAN generated samples by marginalizing perceptually meaningful features and computing the distance between the joint probability of these features in the real data and the fake data, i.e. the data sampled from the generator. The intuition is that as the number of distribution of features being compared increases, the more likely it is that the combination of these features is a meaningful representation of the true data. We offer the following contributions in this paper:

- We provide an alternative method to evaluate GAN samples manually
- We provide an alternative method to evaluate GAN samples that, unlike the Parzen window method, does not a distribution over the data

- We quantitatively evaluate GAN samples by comparing the marginal distribution of features between real and fake data
- We compare the real distribution with adversarial data generated using the fast gradient sign method
- We show that GAN generated samples have a common signature that can be used to detect adversarial attacks

## 2 Related work

In the past few years, several publications have investigated the use of the Generative Adversarial Networks framework for generation of samples and unsupervised feature learning. Following the ground-breaking GAN paper, some GAN papers, specially earlier papers, estimate the probability of a out-of-bag set under the distribution of the generator,  $p_g$  by fitting a Gaussian parzen window<sup>1</sup> to the samples generated with G and reporting the log-likelihood under this distribution. It is know that this method has some drawbacks, including its high variance and bad performance in high dimensional spaces.

In their brilliant publications, LSGAN, WGAN and IWGAN propose alternative objective functions and algorithms that circumvent problems that are common when using the the Jenson-Shannon Divergence objective function described in the GAN paper, including instability of learning, mode collapse and meaningful learning curves. Although decrease in loss can be correlated with increase in image quality, as is show in the WGAN, there are cases where there is no correlation in loss and researchers rely on visual inspection of generated samples.

Although visual inspection can be useful, it can be extremelly cumbersome<sup>2</sup>, it does not provide a clear description of the numerical properties of the generated samples, nor the variety of the generator’s output. In BEGAN, the authors propose a solution to the diversity problem by introducing a new hyper-parameter  $\gamma$  with a loss derived from the Wasserstein distance. Naturally, this new hyper-parameter does not target variety of a specific attribute of the images and the results in the paper suggest that in their experiments  $\gamma$  is also correlated with the variety of the color palette.

Related to our paper, work by Deepak shows an interesting approach, where summary statistics of the output label are used to both train the generator and evaluate its output. In his paper, Deepak proposes a method that uses a novel loss function to optimize for any set of linear constraints on the output space of a CNN. We foresee that the combination of constrained neural networks with advancements provided by the rapidly evolving field of image question answering will provide an important contribution for machine learning in general, including the evaluation of samples with the GAN framework. In our paper, we draw inspiration from formal methods and specification mining. We approach such constraints as specifications that are mined from the real/training data. We use the learned specifications<sup>3</sup> to validate the output of the samples generated with the GAN framework.

## 3 Method

In this section we describe our method in detail. We start by describing the hypothesis we will evaluate in our paper using MNIST, music and speech data.

### 3.1 Hypotheses

**Hypothesis 1 (H1):** *Generative models can approximate the distribution of real data and hallucinate fake data that has some variaety and resembles the real data*

Although this hypothesis is trivial for experiments that have already been conducted, it is the first condition for our experiments with music and speech data. To our knowledge there are no publications where GANs are successful in hallucinating music and speech data. During out experiments we prove that this hypothesis is true.

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<sup>1</sup>Kernel Density Estimation

<sup>2</sup>I’ll never train GANs again

<sup>3</sup>No two-headed dogs anymore!

82 **Hypothesis 2 (H2):** *The real data has useful properties that can be extracted computationally.*

83 By useful we refer to properties that are closely related to the real data itself. For example, computing  
84 the distribution MNIST pixel values might be not useful for assessing drawing quality. However, it  
85 might be useful to evaluate if a random MNIST samples is real or fake data.

86 **Hypothesis 3 (H3):** *The fake data has properties that are hardly noticed with non-computational*  
87 *inspection.*

88 Visual inspection of generated samples has become the norm for the evaluation of samples generated  
89 using the GAN framework. We investigate if there are properties common to all GAN samples or  
90 properties that significantly differ between the real data and the fake data. This hypothesis supports  
91 the next hypothesis related to adversarial attacks.

92 **Hypothesis 4 (H4):** *The difference in properties can be used to identify the source (real or fake)*

93 The development of generative models for digital media announce the imminent rise of adversarial  
94 attacks. We investigate if these differences can be used to detect if the data was generated with the  
95 GAN framework or is an adversarial attack.

### 96 **3.2 Learning properties**

97 In this subsection, we describe the properties that we mine from data. They comprise of properties  
98 that are perceptually related with the image and properties that are not perceptually related but that  
99 can be used to identify the source of the image. Consider the single channel image  $I$  with dimensions  
100  $R$  by  $C$ , where  $I_{r,c}$  is the pixel intensity of the pixel at row  $r$  and column  $c$

#### 101 **3.2.1 Summary Statistics**

102 Consists of the distribution of mean, standard deviation, kurtosis and skewness feature values over all  
103 images. It is applied to pixel intensity and some features described below.

#### 104 **3.2.2 Spectral Moments**

105 The spectral centroid is a feature commonly used in the audio domain, where it represents the  
106 barycenter of the spectrum. Given an image, for each column we transform the pixel values into  
107 probabilities by normalizing them by the column sum, after which we take the expected row value.  
108 Given one image column, we define  $r$  as the pixel intensity at row  $r$ , and

$$p(r) = \frac{r}{\sum_{r \in R} r} \quad (1)$$

109 From these definitions, it immediately follows that the first, second, third and fourth moments can be  
110 described as follows:

$$\mu = \int r p(r) dr \quad (2)$$

$$\sigma^2 = \int (r - \mu)^2 p(r) dr \quad (3)$$

$$\gamma_1 = \frac{\int (r - \mu)^3 p(r) dr}{\sigma^3} \quad (4)$$

$$\gamma_2 = \frac{\int (r - \mu)^4 p(r) dr}{\sigma^4} \quad (5)$$

#### 111 **3.2.3 Spectral Slope**

112 Is computed by linear regression on the spectral centroid with window of size 7.

113 **3.2.4 Transition Matrix**

114 Transition matrix is computed only for chromagram representations of piano rolls.  
115 Equation

116 **3.3 Distance Measures**

117 We use the Kolgomorov-Smirnov Two Samples Test  
118 Equation

119 We use the Jensen-Shannong Divergence  
120 Equation

121 **3.4 Generative Adversarial Networks**

122 We investigate the DCGAN architecture under LSGAN, WGAN, IWGAN objective functions.

123 **4 Experiments**

124 **4.1 MNIST**

125 **4.2 Bach Chorales**

126 **4.3 Speech**

127 **5 Conclusions**

128 **Acknowledgments**

129 **References**