

# Deep Generative Models for High-Resolution Cosmology Images

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**Abstract**—This paper explores various machine learning models for generating sparse, high-resolution cosmology images. The contribution of this paper is twofold. Besides the design of models for cosmology image generation, a similarity function which is part of our data is learned.

The generative models are compared to two simple baseline models and evaluated by estimating the values of the similarity function. We found that extracting the most important features from the images and designing generative models for these features produced the best results. We present our novel approach, which is a conditional DCGAN that was trained on  $k$ -means clustered stars. For the approximation of the similarity function, we compare a random forest that makes use of well-chosen image features against two baselines. We achieved the 2<sup>nd</sup> best result on both public and private test data set on Kaggle [1].

## I. INTRODUCTION

Generative modeling is not a new area of research. However, with the recent advent of deep generative models the research interest in this area has increased drastically.

In this project, we study the generation of cosmology images. Our cosmology images are sparse, high-dimensional data, which has proven to be an interesting problem suitable for the application of mathematical methods and machine learning models.

We split our project into two parts. First, we designed multiple machine learning models for cosmology image generation. Our starting point was a deep convolutional generative adversarial network (DCGAN) capable of generating cosmology images with high resolution. As this model was not able to capture important features such as stars with enough detail, we decided to focus the remaining models on the generation of these critical features only. For the generation of stars only, we started with an adhoc method and then designed a variational autoencoder (VAE) and a DCGAN. Our final solution consists of a conditional DCGAN (cDCGAN) that is able to generate several classes of stars that were found by clustering.

Second, we designed a convolutional neural network (CNN) and used an off-the-shelf random forest (RF) regression model to learn the similarity function which is part of our data. Finally, we evaluated our generative models by estimating the similarity scores of the generated images.

As our models are quite diverse, we refer to Section II for a discussion of related work.

## II. MODELS AND METHODS

The data set used for this project was obtained from Kaggle. It consists of labeled images (where label  $\in \{0, 1\}$  indicates whether an image is a cosmology image or not), scored images (where score  $\in [0, 8]$  indicates the similarity to a cosmology image, larger is more similar) and query images (to be scored and uploaded to Kaggle).

We built all neural networks using the Keras (Chollet et al. [2]) API on the TensorFlow (Abadi et al. [3]) backend and trained them on a single NVIDIA Tesla V100-SXM2 32 GB GPU on the Leonhard Cluster. The random forest regression models were run on a local CPU.

### A. Approximation of the Similarity Function

1) *Random forest regression baseline:* Random forests were introduced in 1995 by Ho [4] and further developed in 1999 by Breiman [5]. In this work, they were used as an off-the-shelf model for regression. By improving on this baseline we also achieved our best result for approximating the similarity function.

For training, we used histograms of image properties as input features. We started with a histogram of pixel intensities which we consider our baseline model. In 2007, Bosch et al. [6] used random forests for image classification. They captured information on shape by computing histograms of oriented gradients (HOG) of edges inside image regions. We computed a similar histogram for the entire image and combined it with the histogram of pixel intensities, which improved the accuracy of the regression.

In a next step, we used a histogram of the power spectrum of the images. To capture the power spectrum in a histogram, we used the fast Fourier transform (FFT) and applied a log transformation. Lastly, we searched for regions of interest (ROIs) by filtering out high frequencies, low frequencies or certain orientations.

2) *CNN baseline:* We used a convolutional neural network (CNN) with a deep architecture (see for instance LeCun et al. [7]) as our second model for approximating the similarity function. To speed up computations, we performed most experiments on images with dimensions  $125 \times 125$  and  $250 \times 250$ . We experimented with convolution depth, normalization (see Ioffe and Szegedy [8] for BatchNorm), number of features, residual connections (He et al. [9]), preprocessing and augmentation. Our final architecture is shown in Figure 1. The network contains a total amount of 228 680 trainable parameters. We use the log-transformed

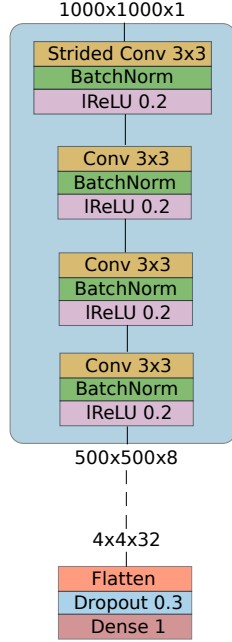


Figure 1. Illustration of the CNN architecture. “(Strided) Conv 3x3” denotes a convolutional layer with a  $3 \times 3$  kernel; the stride is 2 for “Strided Conv” and 1 for the rest. The input to the network is an image of dimensions  $1000 \times 1000 \times 1$ . The spatial resolution is reduced by a factor of 2 in each stacked convolutional block (colored in blue) of which there are 8 in total. The padding layer used for mapping the spatial resolution from  $125 \times 125$  to  $128 \times 128$  is omitted. The number of feature maps is increased by a factor of 2 in each block until a maximum amount of 32 is reached. “Dense 1” outputs the 1-dimensional prediction of the similarity score.

power spectrum as input to the network. For training, we augmented the data using horizontal and vertical flips with probability 0.5 as well as random spatial shifts by up to 20%. The model was trained for 140 epochs with a mean absolute error (MAE) loss function.

### B. Cosmology Image Generation

1) *Adhoc Generator (AG) baseline:* Cosmology images in the given data sets are, in essence, white stars on a black background. As such we were able to use a simple tiling method for our easy baseline, where we copied stars from the available data and placed them onto a black background. Using the available labeled data, we detected stars in all the cosmology images by finding contours in the image. Doing this also allowed us to find the minimum  $s_{\min}$  and maximum  $s_{\max}$  amount of stars in a cosmology image.

For each image to generate, we started with a black base image. Then, we selected a random number  $s_{\text{rand}}$  between  $s_{\min}$  and  $s_{\max}$ . Finally, we extracted  $s_{\text{rand}}$  stars from random source cosmology images and placed them on random spots into the destination image. We consider this our hard baseline.

2) *Large DCGAN baseline:* The deep convolutional generative adversarial network (DCGAN) was introduced in 2015 by Radford et al. [10]. It is a generative adversarial

network (GAN) where both generator and discriminator are convolutional neural networks (CNNs) with architectural constraints which stabilize training. We used a large DCGAN to generate entire cosmology images.

Our implementation is based on a reference implementation on the TensorFlow website [11] as well as on the original paper and implementation. As proposed by Odena et al. [12] we used nearest neighbor interpolation and convolution instead of transposed convolution.

For training, all labeled images and all scored images in the data set with similarity score greater or equal to 2.61 were used. The pixel intensities were normalized to the range  $[-1, 1]$ , and the images were padded to dimensions  $1024 \times 1024$  to simplify upsampling and strided convolutions. Generator and discriminator contain a total amount of 6 491 125 trainable parameters.

3) *VAE on stars:* In this approach, we used a variational autoencoder (VAE) to generate images of stars only and placed them within a black background.

The VAE was introduced in 2014 by Kingma and Welling [13]. It allows the encoding of data points to low-dimensional latent representations  $\sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$  and to generate new data points by decoding arbitrary latent vectors  $\sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$ . This is achieved by learning to map each data point  $x$  to a Gaussian distribution  $q_\phi(z|x)$ , determined by  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ , and each latent vector  $z$  to a Bernoulli distribution  $p_\theta(x|z)$  determined by  $p$ .

Our implementation is based on the original paper as well as on the tutorial on variational autoencoders by Doersch [14] and on a reference implementation on the TensorFlow website [15]. Because stars are shaped in a similar fashion, a simple multilayer perceptron (MLP) with a single hidden layer of size 500 is used for both the probabilistic encoder  $q_\phi(z|x)$  and the probabilistic decoder  $p_\theta(x|z)$ . The parameters of the MLPs are denoted by  $\phi$  and  $\theta$ . The latent dimension is set to 16.

For training, we only used the labeled images. As with the adhoc generator, we extracted stars and centered them inside images of size  $28 \times 28$ . The pixel intensities were normalized to the range  $[0, 1]$ . The MLPs contain a total amount of 811 816 trainable parameters. To create cosmology images, the star images were distributed randomly inside an image with black background. The number of stars per image is normally distributed and estimated from the labeled images.

4) *cDCGAN on stars:* Taking the same approach as with the VAE, we also trained a smaller DCGAN on our data set of extracted stars. In order to control the star distribution in an image more precisely, we decided to cluster the star images. Considering our large data set of about 15 000 star images, most of them looked very similar, which is why we chose to divide them into five distinct classes. To achieve that, we trained a simple deep convolutional autoencoder (DCAE) on the star images for 400 epochs and applied  $k$ -means clustering on each image’s latent code. We did not

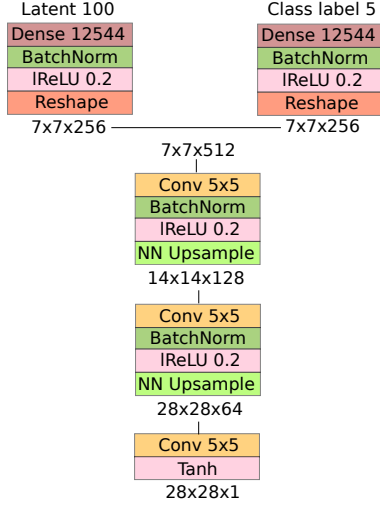


Figure 2. Illustration of the architecture of the conditional generator. A latent vector of size 100 and a class label vector of size 5 are each mapped to a vector of size 12 544, then reshaped to dimensions  $7 \times 7 \times 256$  and stacked. “Conv 5x5” denotes a convolutional layer with a  $5 \times 5$  kernel and stride 1, “NN Upsample” nearest neighbor upsampling of the spatial resolution by a factor of 2.

have to worry about overfitting the DCAE, because it was only used on the data it was trained on.

Afterwards, we used the clustered data to train a conditional DCGAN (cDCGAN). Besides the image/latent code, the generator/discriminator was also fed the class label belonging to a star. In order to find a good distribution for the final images, we measured the number of occurrences of each star class per cosmology image and approximated it with a normal distribution bound to unsigned integers. We still assumed the positioning of a star to be distributed uniformly. We then placed the stars generated by the cDCGAN into 100 background images and repeated this process 2000 times to find those random numbers that produced the highest mean similarity scores (MSS) as estimated by our random forest (RF) and CNN models. We included this deterministic image stitching and MSS estimation as validation score into the training of our final cDCGAN.

The architecture of the cDCGAN was adopted from the reference implementation on the TensorFlow website [11]. No adjustments to the resolution had to be made, only the conditional property had to be added. The architecture of the conditional generator is shown in Figure 2. It uses a total amount of 3 212 480 trainable parameters. The discriminator uses 269 313 trainable parameters. Its architecture is illustrated in Figure 3. The total amount of parameters is high compared to e.g. the CNN and could have been reduced. However, since the generation of such small images is very stable, no architectural experiments were conducted. The cDCGAN was trained for 185 epochs with LSGAN (Mao et al. [16]) as loss function, and about half the training time was spent on validation.

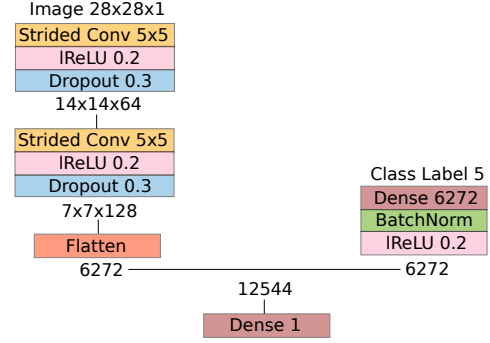


Figure 3. Illustration of the architecture of the conditional discriminator. The input image of dimensions  $28 \times 28 \times 1$  is downsampled by two convolutional layers with stride 2 and a  $5 \times 5$  kernel (denoted by “Strided Conv 5x5”), flattened and then combined with the class label’s latent code, which was mapped from dimension 5 to 6272 by a dense layer. “Dense 1” maps this combined latent code to the 1-dimensional prediction.

	# features	MAE (pub.)	MAE (priv.)
Pixel intensity (baseline)	32	0.258	0.287
Pixel intensity + oriented gradients	32 + 36	0.183	0.203
Power spectrum	48	0.107	0.124
Power spectrum + ROI (best)	48 + 48	0.095	0.105

Table I  
MEAN ABSOLUTE ERROR (MAE) FOR RANDOM FOREST REGRESSION USING 100 TREES AND DIFFERENT FEATURES.

### III. RESULTS

Table I shows the results of our different random forest regression models (RF). By using histograms of different image properties, we were able to improve the accuracy of the regression as measured by the MAE by a factor of approximately 3 with respect to the baseline.

All of our models for approximating the similarity function were evaluated on Kaggle. The results are shown in Table II. For the CNN, we additionally calculated the MAE on our local 20 % validation split. Since the RF model is not prone to overfitting, it was trained without a local validation split and thus local results are omitted. We included training and scoring time for these models in Table III.

For our generative models, we decided to follow the evaluation process of the Kaggle competition and used our best RF model and the CNN to estimate the mean similarity score of the generated images. The results are displayed in Table IV. The time needed for training and the generation of 100 images is shown in Table V.

As shown in Figure 4, the large DCGAN did not manage to capture the shape of important features in detail. Figure 5 shows linear interpolations between vectors in the latent space of the variational autoencoder (VAE) to demonstrate that this model works well. Figure 6 shows samples of the five different star classes generated by the cDCGAN.

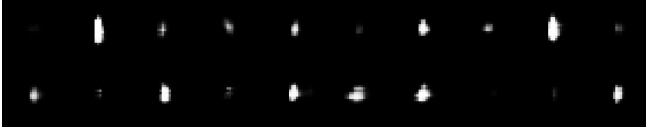


Figure 4. Random selection of stars generated by the large DCGAN.

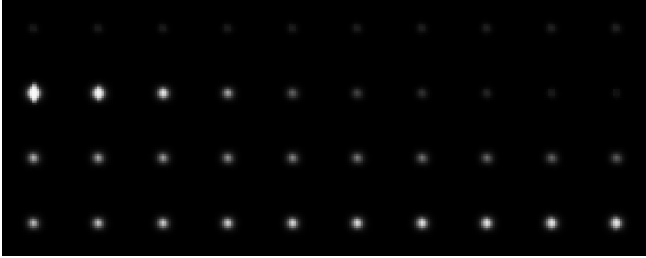


Figure 5. Linear interpolation between vectors in the latent space of the variational autoencoder on stars.

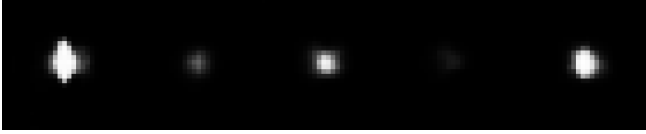


Figure 6. Samples of the five different star classes generated by the cDCGAN.

Model	MAE (loc.)	STD (loc.)	MAE (pub.)	MAE (priv.)
RF (simple baseline)	-	-	0.269	0.288
CNN (hard baseline)	0.174	0.279	0.168	0.188
RF (best)	-	-	0.095	0.105

Table II

MEAN ABSOLUTE ERROR (MAE) AND ITS STANDARD DEVIATION (STD) OF OUR MODELS APPROXIMATING THE SIMILARITY FUNCTION.

Approximator	Training time	Scoring time
RF (simple baseline)	40 min	2 min
CNN (hard baseline)	24 h	1 min
RF (best)	1.5 h	2 min

Table III

TRAINING AND SCORING TIME FOR OUR VARIOUS SIMILARITY FUNCTION APPROXIMATORS (INCLUDING PREPROCESSING). THE CNN IS TRAINED ON A GPU AND THE RF MODELS ON A CPU.

Model	RF MSS	RF STD	CNN MSS	CNN STD
AG	1.718	0.910	1.450	0.697
large DCGAN	1.069	0.717	1.154	0.773
VAE	1.690	0.555	2.031	0.662
cDCGAN (best)	3.018	1.220	2.746	1.048

Table IV

MEAN SIMILARITY SCORE (MSS) AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE SIMILARITY SCORE (STD) OF THE IMAGES GENERATED BY OUR MODELS AS ESTIMATED BY OUR CNN AND BEST RF MODEL. THE LARGE DCGAN IS CONSIDERED THE SIMPLE AND THE AG THE HARD BASELINE.

Generator	Training time	Generation time
AG (hard baseline)	-	<1 min
large DCGAN (simple baseline)	2.5 h	<1 min
VAE	2 min	<1 min
cDCGAN (best)	30 min	<1 min

Table V

TRAINING AND GENERATION TIME FOR OUR VARIOUS GENERATORS.

## IV. DISCUSSION

From Table II we can observe that our best RF model clearly outperforms the simple and the hard baseline. From our experiments we find that using the power spectrum of the images as input to our models consistently improves their accuracy. Presently, classification is mostly dominated by CNNs. Still, our RF model performed significantly better than our CNN. This is also the case for the training time as seen in Table III. We thus conclude that for sparse data of limited range, there are still methods beside neural networks that can be useful.

Table IV shows that the cDCGAN achieves the highest mean similarity score (MSS) of all models and also significantly outperforms the baselines in terms of MSS. However, the cDCGAN also reaches the highest standard deviation (STD). This is because we try to approximate the star distribution with “good” random numbers by choosing those that give the highest MSS. An additional neural network could have learnt to produce the “perfect” set of cosmology images by learning the star distribution on its own. The large DCGAN baseline is outperformed by both VAE and cDCGAN. This shows that we were indeed able to improve our results by focusing on the generation of key features only.

## V. SUMMARY

By extracting the most important features from our cosmology images and by designing generative models for only these, we were able to obtain highly realistic results.

For the approximation of the similarity function, we found that our cosmology images are best characterized by their power spectrum. Lastly, despite being more complex, a CNN does not always necessarily outperform simpler models such as random forests.

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