

# Conditional Coupled Generative Adversarial Networks for Zero-Shot Domain Adaptation

Jinghua Wang and Jianmin Jiang

Research Institute for Future Media Computing,

College of Computer Science & Software Engineering, Shenzhen University, Shenzhen, China

wang.jh@szu.edu.cn, jianmin.jiang@szu.edu.cn

## Abstract

*Machine learning models trained in one domain perform poorly in the other domains due to the existence of domain shift. Domain adaptation techniques solve this problem by training transferable models from the label-rich source domain to the label-scarce target domain. Unfortunately, a majority of the existing domain adaptation techniques rely on the availability of target-domain data, and thus limit their applications to a small community across few computer vision problems. In this paper, we tackle the challenging zero-shot domain adaptation (ZSDA) problem, where target-domain data is non-available in the training stage. For this purpose, we propose conditional coupled generative adversarial networks (CoCoGAN) by extending the coupled generative adversarial networks (CoGAN) into a conditioning model. Compared with the existing state of the arts, our proposed CoCoGAN is able to capture the joint distribution of dual-domain samples in two different tasks, i.e. the relevant task (RT) and an irrelevant task (IRT). We train CoCoGAN with both source-domain samples in RT and dual-domain samples in IRT to complete the domain adaptation. While the former provide high-level concepts of the non-available target-domain data, the latter carry the sharing correlation between the two domains in RT and IRT. To train CoCoGAN in the absence of target-domain data for RT, we propose a new supervisory signal, i.e. the alignment between representations across tasks. Extensive experiments carried out demonstrate that our proposed CoCoGAN outperforms existing state of the arts in image classifications.*

## 1. Introduction

Most machine learning techniques assume that the training and testing data are from the same domain and follow the same distribution. In the real world, however, data samples often originate from different domains. For example,

the image of an object can be captured by either a RGB sensor or a depth sensor. Though the data in two domains may share the high-level concepts, they are significantly different from each other due to the existence of domain shift. As a result, the models learned in one domain perform poorly in the other [15]. Domain adaptation aims to overcome this problem by learning transferable knowledge from the source domain to the target domain.

In general, domain adaptation techniques assume that the labels of data samples are shared by the source domain and the target domain [7]. Under such an assumption, many different strategies can be made applicable for domain adaptation. Motivated by the theoretical analysis [2], some researchers reduce the domain divergence and improve the performance in target domain either by minimizing the discrepancy of representations between domains [44, 28, 29] or by adversarial training [10, 41, 43, 38, 27]. Self-ensembling techniques are proposed to obtain consistent predictions in two different domains [24, 8, 42]. The encoder-decoder frameworks are also reported in the literature for many domain adaptation tasks [4, 13].

Although the above methods are successful in various tasks, none of them is applicable in zero-shot domain adaptation (ZSDA) cases where the target-domain data for the task of interest are non-available. A typical ZSDA example is the personalization procedure of a spam filter before the user start to use the email system, where the target-domain represents a unique distribution of emails received by the user. In present, the challenging ZSDA receives increasing attentions over recent years, and the existing methods either learn domain-invariant features [33, 12, 26, 35] or represent the unseen target domain parametrically [52, 23].

To achieve more effective ZSDA, we propose a new method to learn target-domain models not only based on the source-domain samples for the task of interest, but also gain supervision from the dual-domain samples in an irrelevant task. For simplicity, we denote the relevant task (task of interest) as RT and the irrelevant task as IRT. We also denote the source-domain sample set as  $X_s^r$  in RT and  $X_s^{ir}$  in

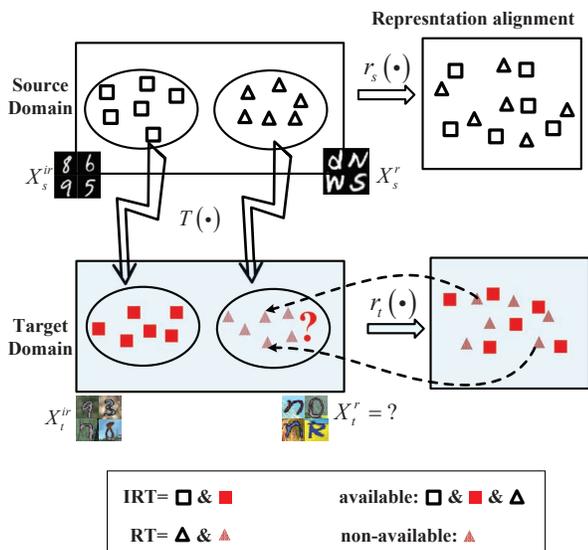


Figure 1. Illustration of an example of ZSDA task, where the RT and IRT are letter image analysis and digit image analysis, respectively. The source domain consists of gray-scale images and the target domain consists of color images. We first impose the alignment in the source domain based on the available data, then use the alignment in the target domain to guide the training procedure so that CoCoGAN can search the data space to generate proper target-domain samples of RT.

IRT. Similarly, we use  $X_t^r$  and  $X_t^{ir}$  to represent the target-domain sample set in RT and IRT, respectively. In this work, we assume that the transformation from the source domain to the target domain is shared by both RT and IRT. Mathematically, if  $X_t^r = T_r(X_s^r)$  and  $X_t^{ir} = T_{ir}(X_s^{ir})$ , we assume  $T_r = T_{ir}$ . Thus, while the high-level concepts of the non-available  $X_t^r$  are carried by  $X_s^r$ , the correlation between two domains can be learned in IRT where the dual-domain samples are available. Fig. 1 illustrates an example of ZSDA, where the source domain consists of gray-scale images and the target domain consists of color images (obtained using the method in [9]). The RT and IRT are letter image analysis and digit image analysis, respectively.

Our conditional coupled generative adversarial network (CoCoGAN) captures the joint distribution of dual-domain samples in both RT and IRT by extending the coupled generative adversarial networks (CoGAN) [27] into a conditional model with a binary conditioning variable. The proposed CoCoGAN consists of two GANs, i.e.  $GAN_s$  for the source domain and  $GAN_t$  for the target domain. The difficulty in training the CoCoGAN for a ZSDA task lies in the non-availability of  $X_t^r$ . Consequently, the  $GAN_t$  tends to be biased towards IRT in the target domain. We solve this problem by introducing a new supervisory signal, i.e. the alignment between sample representations across tasks in a

given domain. Based on the conjugation between the two branches in CoCoGAN, we impose representation alignment in source domain based on the available data, and expect that the representations of the generated  $X_t^r$  are aligned with the representations of the available  $X_t^{ir}$  in target domain, as shown in Fig. 1. Specifically, we search the target domain by updating the parameter of  $GAN_t$  to generate a proper non-available  $X_t^r$  as such that their representations are indistinguishable from the representations of the available  $X_t^{ir}$ .

We highlight our contributions in three-folds. Firstly, we propose a new network structure, i.e. CoCoGAN, by extending the CoGAN into a conditioning model. The proposed CoCoGAN is able to capture the joint distribution of data samples in two different tasks. Secondly, we propose a method to train the CoCoGAN for ZSDA tasks by introducing representation alignment across tasks as the supervisory signal. Thirdly, in comparison with the work [35], our new method solves the ZSDA tasks without relying on the correspondences between samples in the IRT, and thus has more potential applications.

## 2. Related Work

Domain shift refers to the fact that data samples follow different distributions across domains. As a result, a solution learned in one domain often performs poorly in another. Domain adaptation techniques solve this problem by learning transferable solutions from a label-rich source domain to a label-scarce target domain, and achieve success in a range of learning tasks, such as image classification [11, 22, 32, 47, 36] and semantic segmentation [53].

The most popular strategy for domain adaptation is to eliminate the domain shift and learn invariant features by either minimizing a well defined criteria or adversarial learning. For fine-grained recognition, Gebru et al. [11] minimize a multi-task objective consisting of label prediction loss and attribute consistent loss. Hu et al. [19] learn a deep metric network to minimize both the distribution divergence between domains and the marginal Fisher analysis criterion. Long et al. [28] propose a deep adaptation network to learn domain-invariant features by minimizing the maximum mean discrepancy (MMD) metric. Tzeng et al. [46] introduce a domain confusion loss and an adaptation layer to learn representations which are not only domain invariant but also semantically meaningful. Other domain adaptation methods also adopt the MMD metric [29, 50]. Motivated by the success of generative adversarial networks (GAN) [14], Tzeng et al. [45] propose a general framework, i.e. adversarial discriminative domain adaptation (ADDA), to combine discriminative modeling, untied weight sharing, and a GAN loss. In order to transform data from one domain to another in the pixel space, Bousmalis et al. [3] propose to decouple the processes of domain adaptation and task-

specific classification based on adversarial learning. Yoo et al. [54] propose an image-conditional model for transformation from source domain to target domain in semantic level and apply it to fashion analysis tasks. Shrivastava et al. [40] adopt GAN for simulated+unsupervised (S+U) learning to improve the realism of the generated images.

All of the above methods rely on the availability of target-domain data in their training stages, which are factually not always the case in real-world. For example, we may feel disappointed to see that a computer vision system working well with an existing low-resolution camera underperforms when it is replaced by a high-resolution camera. Zero-shot domain adaptation (ZSDA) refers to such a task, where the target-domain data are non-available in the training stage.

Over the past years, many methods are proposed to tackle the ZSDA problem. Khosla et al. [20] exploit dataset bias and learn a set of visual world weights which are common to all datasets. Later, Li et al. [25] use the neural network structure to implement the similar idea. Yang and Hospedales [52] predict and describe the unseen target domain by a continuous parametrized vector. Kodirov et al. [21] solve the domain shift problem with a regularized sparse coding framework. Kumagai and Iwata [23] introduce the concept of latent domain vectors to characterize different domains and use them to infer the models for unseen domains.

Researchers also propose ZSDA techniques to learn domain-invariant features, which are applicable in not only the source domain but also the unseen target domain. Muandet et al. [33] propose domain-invariant component analysis (DICA) to learn an invariant transformation by maximizing the similarity between different domains. Ghifary et al. [12] propose multi-task autoencoder (MTAE) to learn transformation from an image to its correspondence in the other domains, and thus obtain domain-invariant features. Li et al. [26] propose a conditional invariant adversarial network to minimize the discrepancy of conditional distributions across domains. The work that most related with ours is by Peng et al. [35] which learns knowledge from the dual-domain images in an irrelevant task. However, the work [35] relies on the correspondences between dual-domain data samples in IRT to train the model. In contrast, our method does not rely on such information thanks to the capability of our CoCoGAN in capturing the joint distribution of dual-domain images.

### 3. Coupled Generative Adversarial Networks

The coupled generative adversarial networks (CoGAN) [27] consists of two GANs, denoted as  $\text{GAN}_1$  and  $\text{GAN}_2$ , each of which corresponds to a domain. These two GANs have sharing layers to deal with the high-level semantic concepts, and individual layers to deal with low-level features

for different domains. This setting allows the two generators (or discriminators) to decode (or encode) the same high-level concepts by different ways in two domains.

The CoGAN captures the joint distribution of multi-domain images, and thus can generate tuples of images, such as the RGB image and the depth image of the same scene. Different from the traditional methods that learn the joint distribution based on tuples of images, CoGAN is able to learn the joint distribution based on the images individually drawn from marginal distributions. In other words, the training procedure does not rely on the correspondence between data samples in the two domains.

With  $\text{GAN}_i$  ( $i = 1, 2$ ) consisting of generator  $g_i$  and discriminator  $f_i$ , the training procedure of CoGAN optimizes the following minimax objective function

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{g_1, g_2} \min_{f_1, f_2} V(f_1, f_2, g_1, g_2) \equiv \\ E_{x_1 \sim p_{x_1}} [-\log f_1(x_1)] + E_{z \sim p_z} [-\log(1 - f_1(g_1(z)))] \\ + E_{x_2 \sim p_{x_2}} [-\log f_2(x_2)] + E_{z \sim p_z} [-\log(1 - f_2(g_2(z)))] \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

subject to two constraints:

- 1)  $\theta_{g_1^j} = \theta_{g_2^j} \quad 1 \leq j \leq s_g$
- 2)  $\theta_{f_1^{n_1-k}} = \theta_{f_2^{n_2-k}} \quad 0 \leq k \leq s_f - 1$

where  $\theta_{g_i^j}$  denotes the parameter of the  $j$ th layer in the generator  $g_i$  ( $i = 1, 2$ ),  $\theta_{f_i^{n_i-k}}$  denotes the parameter of the  $(k + 1)$ th layer from the last in the discriminator  $f_i$  ( $i = 1, 2$ ), and  $n_i$  denotes the number of layers in the discriminator  $f_i$ . While the first constraint indicates that the two generators have  $s_g$  sharing bottom layers, the second constraint indicates that the two discriminators have  $s_f$  sharing top layers. With these two weight-sharing constraints, the two GANs can deal with high-level concepts in the same way, which is essential to learn the joint distribution of data samples (i.e.  $p_{x_1, x_2}$ ) based on the samples drawn individually from the marginal distributions (i.e.  $p_{x_1}$  and  $p_{x_2}$ ).

### 4. Approach

Motivated by the success of conditioning methods in various computer vision tasks [31, 18, 48, 34, 5, 51], we extend CoGAN into a conditioning model and propose conditional coupled generative adversarial networks (CoCoGAN). In order to train the CoCoGAN when the target-domain data for the task of interest are non-available and make it applicable to ZSDA tasks, we propose a new supervisory signal, i.e. the alignment between representations across tasks.

Our method involves two tasks, i.e. the relevant task (RT) and the irrelevant task (IRT). For each task, the data

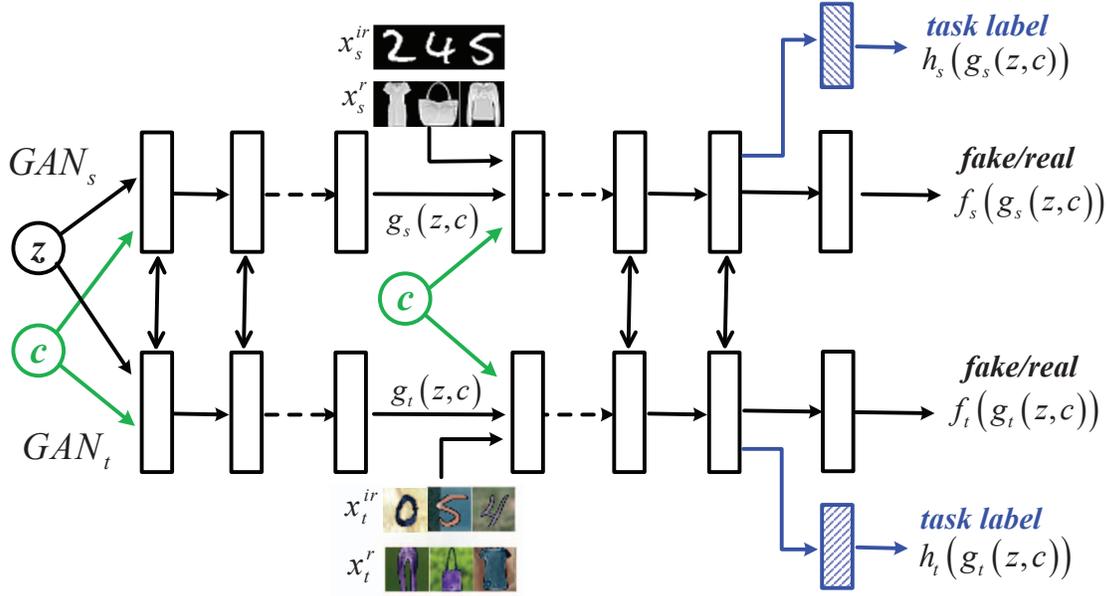


Figure 2. Illustration of the proposed CoCoGAN. The CoCoGAN extends CoGAN with a binary conditioning variable  $c$ , which chooses RT/IRT for the network to deal with. The  $GAN_s$  process the source-domain data and the  $GAN_t$  process the target-domain data. The double-headed arrows connect the sharing layers between the two branches. We maximize the loss of RT/IRT task label classifiers to obtain aligned representations across tasks.

are from two domains, i.e. the source domain and the target domain. Let  $x_s^r$  and  $x_t^r$  be the samples from the source domain and the target domain for RT, and let  $x_s^{ir}$  and  $x_t^{ir}$  be the samples for IRT. We also use  $X_s^r$ ,  $X_t^r$ ,  $X_s^{ir}$  and  $X_t^{ir}$  to denote the sample sets, i.e.  $X_s^r = \{x_s^r\}$  etc. Given  $X_s^r$ ,  $X_s^{ir}$  and  $X_t^r$ , the ZSDA task aims to learn a machine learning model for the non-available  $X_t^{ir}$ .

#### 4.1. CoCoGAN

As shown in Fig. 2, our CoCoGAN extends the CoGAN to a conditional model by a binary conditioning variable  $c$ , which chooses a task for the CoGAN to deal with. It deals with data samples in IRT if  $c = 0$ , and deals with data samples in RT if  $c = 1$ . Our CoCoGAN uses a pair of GANs to capture the joint distribution of data samples across two domains. Specifically, the  $GAN_s$  ( $GAN_t$ ) processes source-domain (target-domain) samples with generator  $g_s$  ( $g_t$ ) and discriminator  $f_s$  ( $f_t$ ). The two generators  $g_s$  and  $g_t$  try to confuse the discriminators  $f_s$  and  $f_t$  by synthesizing pairs of samples that are similar to the real images as much as possible. In Fig. 2, we use double-headed arrows to connect the sharing layers, which allow us to learn the correspondences between dual-domain images.

When  $X_s^r$ ,  $X_t^r$ ,  $X_s^{ir}$  and  $X_t^{ir}$  are available, we can sim-

ply optimize the following objective function to train the CoCoGAN:

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{g_s, g_t} \min_{f_s, f_t} V(f_s, f_t, g_s, g_t) \equiv \\ E_{x_s \sim p_{x_s}} [-\log f_s(x_s, c)] + E_{z \sim p_z} [-\log(1 - f_s(g_s(z, c)))] \\ + E_{x_t \sim p_{x_t}} [-\log f_t(x_t, c)] + E_{z \sim p_z} [-\log(1 - f_t(g_t(z, c)))] \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

subject to two constraints:

- 1)  $\theta_{g_s^j} = \theta_{g_t^j} \quad 1 \leq j \leq s_g$
- 2)  $\theta_{f_s^{n_1-k}} = \theta_{f_t^{n_2-k}} \quad 0 \leq k \leq s_f - 1$

The source-domain sample  $x_s$  is drawn from the sample set  $X_s^{ir}$ , if  $c = 0$ ; and drawn from  $X_s^r$ , if  $c = 1$ . Similarly, the target-domain sample  $x_t$  is drawn from the sample set  $X_t^{ir}$ , if  $c = 0$ ; and drawn from  $X_t^r$ , if  $c = 1$ . Given the data samples from two domains in the two tasks, we can easily train the CoCoGAN to capture the joint distribution of the dual-domain data samples.

#### 4.2. Representation Alignment

In a ZSDA task, however, it is difficult to train the CoCoGAN due to the non-availability of  $X_t^{ir}$ . If we simply optimize the objective function (2) with the available data, i.e.

$X_s^r$ ,  $X_s^{ir}$  and  $X_t^{ir}$ , the  $\text{GAN}_t$  tends to be biased towards the IRT in the target domain and cannot well capture the distribution of the non-available target-domain data inside RT. To overcome such a problem, we propose an additional supervisory signal to train the CoCoGAN for ZSDA tasks, i.e. the alignment of data sample representations across tasks. In other words, we expect the representations from two different tasks are non-distinguishable from each other in a given domain.

Generally, the CoCoGAN aims to discover the correlation between the source domain and the target domain by capturing the joint distribution of the dual-domain samples for both IRT and RT. We can consider  $\text{GAN}_s$  and  $\text{GAN}_t$  as conjugate in the two domains, as they are expected to generate sample pairs  $(x_s, x_t)$  with correspondence, i.e.,  $x_t = T(x_s)$ . Here,  $T(\cdot)$  is the transformation from the source domain to the target domain. In order to gain the ability to generate sample pairs  $(x_s, x_t) = (x_s, T(x_s))$  with sharing high-level concepts (such as class label and semantic attributes), the processing procedure of  $\text{GAN}_s$  in the source domain and that of  $\text{GAN}_t$  in the target domain should have the same semantic meanings. Thus, the representation extraction procedures, i.e.  $r_s(\cdot)$  in  $g_s$  and  $r_t(\cdot)$  in  $g_t$ , should produce two representation sets with the same semantic meaning in a given task, which is denoted as  $r_s(x_s, c) \simeq r_t(x_t, c)$  ( $c = 0$  or  $1$ ) in this paper. In other words, the representation of  $X_s^{ir}$  and that of  $X_t^{ir}$  share the semantic meanings in an ideal CoCoGAN, i.e.

$$r_s(X_s^{ir}, c = 0) \simeq r_t(T(X_s^{ir}), c = 0) \equiv r_t(X_t^{ir}, c = 0) \quad (3)$$

Similarly, we also expect the representation of the non-available  $X_t^r$  share the semantic meanings with that of  $X_s^r$ , i.e.

$$r_s(X_s^r, c = 1) \simeq r_t(T(X_s^r), c = 1) \equiv r_t(X_t^r, c = 1) \quad (4)$$

Thus, if we explicitly align  $r_s(X_s^{ir}, c = 0)$  and  $r_s(X_s^r, c = 1)$  in the source domain, we can expect the alignment between  $r_t(X_t^{ir}, c = 0)$  and  $r_t(X_t^r, c = 1)$  in the target domain. In other words, if  $r_s(\cdot)$  encodes samples for two different tasks with the same representation space in the source domain, then  $r_t(\cdot)$  (i.e. the conjugation of  $r_s(\cdot)$ ) should achieve the same goal in the target domain.

Based on the above analysis, we first explicitly impose representation alignment across tasks in the source domain, and then take the representation alignment in the target domain as the supervisory signal to train the CoCoGAN. In this way, the generator  $g_t$  in  $\text{GAN}_t$  searches in the target domain to produce the samples whose representations are aligned with  $X_t^{ir}$  in the target domain.

### 4.3. Training

As shown in Fig. 2, we propose a binary RT/IRT task classifier for each tasks, i.e.  $h_s(\cdot)$  for the source domain and

$h_t(\cdot)$  for the target domain, to identify the involving task of the input. We maximize the loss of these classifiers in order to achieve representation alignment. In other words, we expect that the representation of a sample in RT is indistinguishable from that of a sample in IRT if they belong to the same domain. Our objective functions for the tasks classifiers are given as follows

$$\max_{h_s} L_s \equiv E_{x_s \sim p_{x_s}} [\ell(h_s(x_s))] + E_{z \sim p_z} [\ell(h_s(g_s(z, c)))] \quad (5)$$

$$\max_{h_t} L_t \equiv E_{x_t \sim p_{x_t}} [\ell(h_t(x_t))] + E_{z \sim p_z} [\ell(h_t(g_t(z, c)))] \quad (6)$$

The loss function  $\ell(\cdot)$  for the task classification (i.e. RT/IRT) is the logistic function. Both of the two task classifiers are implemented with convolutional neural networks.

In order to jointly optimize the Eq. (2), (5), and (6), we alternatively optimize the following two objective functions:

$$(\hat{f}_s, \hat{f}_t, \hat{h}_s, \hat{h}_t) = \underset{f_s, f_t, h_s, h_t}{\operatorname{argmin}} V(f_s, f_t, \hat{g}_s, \hat{g}_t) - (L_s + L_t) \quad (7)$$

$$(\hat{g}_s, \hat{g}_t) = \underset{g_s, g_t}{\operatorname{argmax}} V(\hat{f}_s, \hat{f}_t, g_s, g_t) \quad (8)$$

While Eq. (7) updates the discriminators and the task classifiers with the fixed generators, Eq. (8) updates the generators with the fixed discriminators. With the updates in Eq. (7), the representations are more discriminative in the real/fake classification task and less discriminative in the RT/IRT classification task. With the updates in Eq. (8), the generators generate sample pairs which are more similar to the real data samples. We use the standard stochastic gradient method to optimize both Eq. (7) and Eq. (8).

## 5. Experiments

### 5.1. Datasets

We evaluate our method on four datasets, including MNIST [30], Fashion-MNIST [49], NIST [16], and EMNIST [6].

The MNIST ( $D_M$ ) is proposed for handwritten digit image analysis. This dataset has 60000 training and 10000 testing grayscale images. Every sample belongs to one of the 10 classes, i.e. from 0 to 9. The image size is  $28 \times 28$ .

The Fashion-MNIST ( $D_F$ ) is a dataset for fashion image analysis. It has the same size with MNIST, i.e. 60000 for training and 10000 for testing. The image size is also  $28 \times 28$ . The images are manually labeled by fashion experts with one of the following 10 silhouette codes, i.e. *T-shirt, trouser, pullover, dress, coat, sandals, shirt, sneaker, bag, and ankle boot*.

NIST ( $D_N$ ) is a handwritten letter image dataset. In our experiment, we use the images of both uppercase and lowercase letters. In total, we have 387361 training and 23941

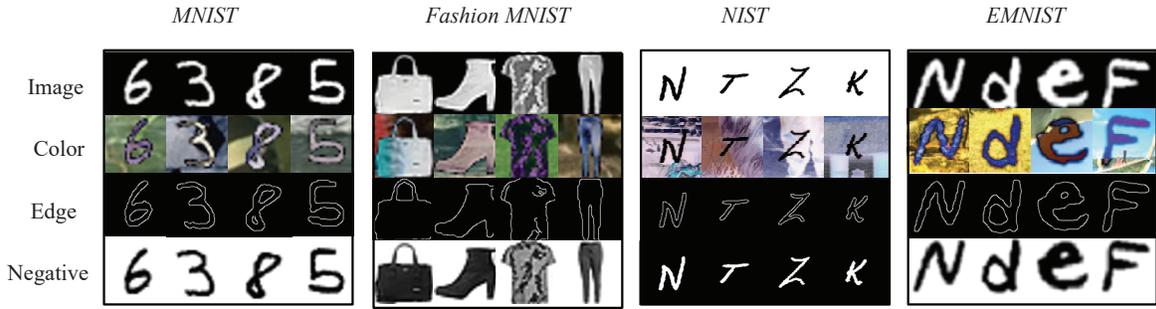


Figure 3. The example images of 4 datasets and their counterparts in 3 different domains. The first row shows the original images. We use the method in [9] to obtain the second row, a Canny detector to obtain the third row, and the negation procedure to obtain the fourth row.

testing images from 52 different classes. The image size is  $128 \times 128$ . This dataset is imbalanced and there are large differences in the occurrence frequencies for the 52 classes.

EMNIST ( $D_E$ ) is an extension of NIST. To be different from the NIST, we merge the uppercase and lowercase letters to form a balanced 26-class dataset. This subset has 124800 training and 20800 testing images. The image size is  $28 \times 28$ .

All these four different datasets consist of gray-scale images, and we consider them in the gray domain ( $G$ -domain). In order to evaluate our method, we create three more domains via transformations, i.e. the colored domain ( $C$ -domain), the edge domain ( $E$ -domain), and the negative domain ( $N$ -domain). Firstly, we transform the gray-scale images into color images using the method proposed in [9]. For a given image  $I \in R^{m \times n}$ , we randomly crop a patch  $P \in R^{m \times n}$  from a color image in BSDS500 [1], and combine them together by  $I_c = |I - P|$  in each channel. Secondly, we transform a gray-scale image  $I$  into an edge image  $I_e$  with a canny detector. Thirdly, we obtain the negative of each image by  $I_n = 255 - I$ . Fig. 3 shows example images in four different domains.

## 5.2. Implementation details

We denote our method as *CoCoGAN*, and compare it with two baselines. The first baseline is *ZDDA* [35], which is the only work that adopts deep learning technique for ZSDA. To verify the effectiveness of the alignment between representations as the supervisory signal, we take the *CoCoGAN* without any task classifier as the second baseline, and denote it as *CoCoGAN w/o T* in this work.

Our *CoCoGAN* is implemented with convolutional neural networks and its two branches (i.e.  $GAN_s$  and  $GAN_t$ ) have the same network structure. The generator has 7 transposed convolutional layers to decode the random vector  $z$  into a realistic sample for RT if  $c = 1$  and for IRT if  $c = 0$ . For representation learning from the real and generated images, the discriminators have 5 convolutional layers with

stride 2, which are denoted as  $r_s(\cdot)$  in the source domain and  $r_t(\cdot)$  in the target domain. In addition, the discriminators have two convolutional layers for fake/real classification. Thus, both the generators and the discriminators have 7 layers. The binary classifiers, i.e.  $h_s(\cdot)$  and  $h_t(\cdot)$ , use two fully connected layers to classify  $r_s(x_s)$  and  $r_t(x_t)$  into RT or IRT.

In the training stage, we partition the sample set of IRT into two non-overlapping halves in each domain, i.e.  $X_s^{ir} = X_{s1}^{ir} \cup X_{s2}^{ir}$  and  $X_t^{ir} = X_{t1}^{ir} \cup X_{t2}^{ir}$ , where  $X_{s1}^{ir} \cap X_{s2}^{ir} = \emptyset$ ,  $X_{t1}^{ir} \cap X_{t2}^{ir} = \emptyset$ ,  $X_{s1}^{ir} = T(X_{s1}^{ir})$ , and  $X_{t2}^{ir} = T(X_{s2}^{ir})$ . We use the first half in the source domain (i.e.  $X_{s1}^{ir}$ ) to train  $GAN_s$  and use the second half in the target domain (i.e.  $X_{t2}^{ir}$ ) to train  $GAN_t$ . Thus, there is no correspondence between the source-domain samples and the target-domain samples. Compared with our proposed, the *ZDDA* [35] instead needs the correspondence between data samples in the training procedure. We use the sample set with correspondence to train *ZDDA*, i.e.  $X_{s1}^{ir} \cup X_{t1}^{ir}$  or  $X_{s2}^{ir} \cup X_{t2}^{ir}$ .

We use the trained *CoCoGAN* for image classification in the target domain of RT and obtain the classifier using the following three steps. Firstly, we generate a set of sample pairs with correspondence  $(\tilde{x}_s^r, \tilde{x}_t^r)$  using the source-domain generators  $g_s$  and the target-domain generator  $g_t$ . Secondly, we train a label predictor  $C_s(x_s^r)$  for the source-domain samples in RT based on the available  $X_s^r$  and their labels, and use this predictor to obtain the sharing labels of the generated samples, i.e.  $label_{\tilde{x}_t^r} = label_{\tilde{x}_s^r} = C_s(\tilde{x}_s^r)$ . Thirdly, we train a label classifier for the target-domain samples in RT based on the generated samples and their labels.

## 5.3. Results

In order to evaluate the proposed *CoCoGAN*, we have five different pairs of source domain and target domain. On one hand, we take  $G$ -domain as the source domain and take the other three domains as the target domain. Thus, the source and target domain pairs

Table 1. The classification accuracies of the proposed method and the baselines with 5 different settings of (source domain, target domain) pairs. We remove the task classifiers in both source domain and target domain from the *CoCoGAN* to create the baseline *CoCoGAN w/o T*

A. (source domain, target domain)= (*G-domain*, *C-domain*)

RT	MNIST ( $D_M$ )			Fashion-MNIST ( $D_F$ )			NIST ( $D_N$ )		EMNIST ( $D_E$ )	
	$D_F$	$D_N$	$D_E$	$D_M$	$D_N$	$D_E$	$D_M$	$D_F$	$D_M$	$D_F$
ZDDA	73.2	92.0	94.8	51.6	43.9	65.3	34.3	21.9	71.2	47.0
CoCoGAN w/o T	68.3	81.6	74.7	39.7	48.2	55.8	35.2	38.8	46.7	41.8
CoCoGAN	78.1	92.4	95.6	56.8	56.7	66.8	41.0	44.9	75.0	54.8

B. (source domain, target domain)= (*G-domain*, *E-domain*)

RT	MNIST ( $D_M$ )			Fashion-MNIST ( $D_F$ )			NIST ( $D_N$ )		EMNIST ( $D_E$ )	
	$D_F$	$D_N$	$D_E$	$D_M$	$D_N$	$D_E$	$D_M$	$D_F$	$D_M$	$D_F$
ZDDA	72.5	91.5	93.2	54.1	54.0	65.8	42.3	28.4	73.6	50.7
CoCoGAN w/o T	67.1	74.8	81.5	47.5	50.2	56.1	41.2	30.9	63.6	51.9
CoCoGAN	79.6	94.9	95.4	61.5	57.5	71.0	48.0	36.3	77.9	58.6

C. (source domain, target domain)= (*G-domain*, *N-domain*)

RT	MNIST ( $D_M$ )			Fashion-MNIST ( $D_F$ )			NIST ( $D_N$ )		EMNIST ( $D_E$ )	
	$D_F$	$D_N$	$D_E$	$D_M$	$D_N$	$D_E$	$D_M$	$D_F$	$D_M$	$D_F$
ZDDA	77.9	82.4	90.5	61.4	47.4	62.7	37.8	38.7	76.2	53.4
CoCoGAN w/o T	62.7	67.3	72.8	51.8	47.5	51.2	39.3	36.7	60.8	39.1
CoCoGAN	80.3	87.5	93.1	66.0	52.2	69.3	45.7	53.8	81.1	56.5

D. (source domain, target domain)= (*C-domain*, *G-domain*)

RT	MNIST ( $D_M$ )			Fashion-MNIST ( $D_F$ )			NIST ( $D_N$ )		EMNIST ( $D_E$ )	
	$D_F$	$D_N$	$D_E$	$D_M$	$D_N$	$D_E$	$D_M$	$D_F$	$D_M$	$D_F$
ZDDA	67.4	85.7	87.6	55.1	49.2	59.5	39.6	23.7	75.5	52.0
CoCoGAN w/o T	54.7	69.0	63.5	43.4	40.6	51.6	21.4	30.9	49.5	48.2
CoCoGAN	73.2	89.6	94.7	61.1	50.7	70.2	47.5	57.7	80.2	67.4

E. (source domain, target domain)= (*N-domain*, *G-domain*)

RT	MNIST ( $D_M$ )			Fashion-MNIST ( $D_F$ )			NIST ( $D_N$ )		EMNIST ( $D_E$ )	
	$D_F$	$D_N$	$D_E$	$D_M$	$D_N$	$D_E$	$D_M$	$D_F$	$D_M$	$D_F$
ZDDA	78.5	90.7	87.6	56.6	57.1	67.1	34.1	39.5	67.7	45.5
CoCoGAN w/o T	66.1	75.9	76.3	49.9	53.1	58.7	35.6	33.7	53.0	32.5
CoCoGAN	80.1	92.8	93.6	63.4	61.0	72.8	47.0	43.9	78.8	58.4

are (*G-domain*, *C-domain*), (*G-domain*, *E-domain*), and (*G-domain*, *N-domain*). On the other hand, we also take *G-domain* as the target domain and transfer knowledge from the other two domains, where the dual-domain pairs are (*C-domain*, *G-domain*) and (*N-domain*, *G-domain*).

The four datasets in Sec. 5.1 involves three different tasks, i.e. digit image classification, fashion image classification, and letter image classification. Given the RT, we can take any of the other two as the IRT. The NIST and the EMNIST share the task since both of them consist of letter images. Thus, we do not take (*NIST*, *EMNIST*) or (*EMNIST*, *NIST*) as valid (*RT*, *IRT*) pair in our experiments.

Tab. 1 lists the classification accuracies of different set-

tings. As seen, our method performs significantly better than ZDDA [35]. Taking NIST classification in Tab. (1)-D as an example, our proposed CoCoGAN outperforms ZDDA by 7.9% when the IRT is digit image analysis and by 34.0% when the IRT is fashion image analysis. The comparative results demonstrate that our proposed indeed obtain discriminative representations from the target-domain data of RT based on the representation extraction procedure learned in CoCoGAN. In addition, our method has more potential applications than ZDDA, whose performance is heavily relied on the correspondence between dual-domain samples in the IRT.

Our proposed CoCoGAN beats the baseline *CoCoGAN w/o T* by 15.6% on average, indicating the effectiveness of

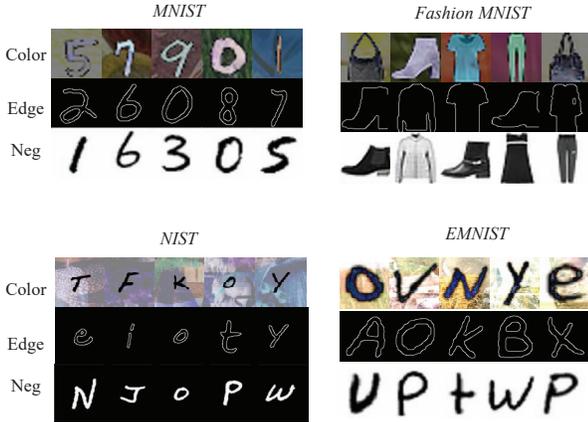


Figure 4. The generated non-available target-domain images by CoCoGAN in the  $C$ -domain,  $E$ -domain, and  $N$ -domain. These images are in the same style with the real images.

the task label classifiers in adapting the  $GAN_t$  towards the RT. Without the task label classifiers, the non-sharing layers in both generator  $g_t$  and discriminator  $f_t$  are trained solely by the samples in IRT, and thus not suitable for the non-available target-domain data in RT. In order to make them applicable to the target-domain data in RT, our CoCoGAN updates the parameter of these non-sharing layers based on the correlation between the two domains, i.e. the representation alignment across tasks in this work. It is these supervisory signals that guide the generators to decode and the discriminator to encode the low-level features of those non-available samples properly.

Our method also beats many existing methods which rely on the availability of the target-domain data samples in the training procedure. Taking  $C$ -domain as the source domain and  $G$ -domain as the target domain, our method achieves the accuracy of 94.7% on MNIST, yet the accuracies of the existing techniques are: 86.7% in [39], 89.5% in [17], and 94.2% in [37], respectively.

Table 2. Taking  $G$ -domain as the source domain, the average overlap ratios between the generated target-domain images and the ones obtained by the procedure described in Sec. 5.1

A. The overlap ratios in $E$ -domain				
	$D_M$	$D_F$	$D_N$	$D_E$
CoCoGAN w/o T	0.816	0.707	0.727	0.749
CoCoGAN	0.873	0.786	0.803	0.812

B. The overlap ratios in $N$ -domain				
	$D_M$	$D_F$	$D_N$	$D_E$
CoCoGAN w/o T	0.804	0.772	0.704	0.733
CoCoGAN	0.863	0.824	0.844	0.812

In order to show the capability of the proposed CoCoGAN in capturing the joint distribution of dual-domain images, we visualize some generated samples in Fig. 4. We also use the method proposed in [27] to evaluate the correspondence between the generated sample pairs with three steps. The first step generates a set of sample pairs  $(\tilde{x}_s^r, \tilde{x}_t^r)$  based on the trained CoCoGAN by changing the random variable  $z$ . The second step produces the target-domain correspondence, i.e.  $T(\tilde{x}_s^r)$ , for the source-domain sample  $\tilde{x}_s^r$  by using the method described in Sec. 5.1. The third step calculates the overlap ratio between  $\tilde{x}_t^r$  and  $T(\tilde{x}_s^r)$ . Taking the gray-scale images as the source domain, Tab. 2 lists the average overlap ratios in the edge domain and the negative domain. The higher the overlap ratio, the more accurate the correspondence between the generated sample pairs. As generating a color image involves a random patch sampling process, this metric becomes meaningless in color domain. As seen in the Tab 2, our proposed CoCoGAN achieves higher overlap ratios than the baseline *CoCoGAN w/o T*, indicating the proposed supervisory signal improves the correspondence between the dual-domain samples.

## 6. Conclusion

Zero-shot domain adaptation refers to the problem where the target-domain data are not available in the training stage. We propose a so-called CoCoGAN to solve this problem by extending the CoGAN into a conditioning model. Essentially, our CoCoGAN consists of two GANs in order to capture the joint distribution of data samples across two domains and two tasks. The model for the unseen target-domain data in RT is learned based on the source-domain data in RT and the dual-domain data in an IRT. While the former provide the high-level concepts of the unseen target-domain data, the latter carry the sharing correlation between the two domains in RT and IRT. To train the CoCoGAN in the absence of the target-domain data, we introduce a new supervisory signal, i.e. the alignment between representations across tasks. In comparison with the existing methods such as [35], our method does not rely on the correspondences between samples in IRT, and thus has more potential applications. Extensive experiments are carried out on four publicly available datasets, and the results validate the effectiveness of our proposed method in generating the non-available data samples and extracting their representations.

## Acknowledgment

The authors wish to acknowledge the financial support from: (i) Natural Science Foundation China (NSFC) under the Grant No. 61620106008 and No. 61802266; and (ii) Shenzhen Commission for Scientific Research & Innovations under the Grant No. JCYJ20160226191842793.

## References

- [1] Pablo Arbelaez, Michael Maire, Charless Fowlkes, and Jitendra Malik. Contour detection and hierarchical image segmentation. *IEEE Trans. Pattern Anal. Mach. Intell.*, 33(5):898–916, 2011.
- [2] Shai Ben-David, John Blitzer, Koby Crammer, Alex Kulesza, Fernando Pereira, and Jennifer Vaughan. A theory of learning from different domains. *Machine Learning*, 79:151–175, 2010.
- [3] Konstantinos Bousmalis, Nathan Silberman, David Dohan, Dumitru Erhan, and Dilip Krishnan. Unsupervised pixel-level domain adaptation with generative adversarial networks. In *CVPR*, pages 95–104, 2017.
- [4] Minmin Chen, Zhixiang Xu, Kilian Q. Weinberger, and Fei Sha. Marginalized denoising autoencoders for domain adaptation. In *Proceedings of the 29th International Conference on International Conference on Machine Learning, ICML 12*, pages 1627–1634, 2012.
- [5] Grigorios G. Chrysos, Jean Kossaifi, and Stefanos Zafeiriou. Roc-GAN: Robust conditional GAN. In *ICLR*, 2019.
- [6] Gregory Cohen, Saeed Afshar, Jonathan Tapson, and André van Schaik. EMNIST: an extension of MNIST to handwritten letters. *arXiv*, 2017.
- [7] Gabriela Csurka. Domain adaptation for visual applications: A comprehensive survey. *CoRR*, abs/1702.05374, 2017.
- [8] Geoff French, Michal Mackiewicz, and Mark Fisher. Self-ensembling for visual domain adaptation. In *ICLR*, 2018.
- [9] Yaroslav Ganin and Victor Lempitsky. Unsupervised domain adaptation by backpropagation. In *ICML*, pages 1180–1189, 2015.
- [10] Yaroslav Ganin, Evgeniya Ustinova, Hana Ajakan, Pascal Germain, Hugo Larochelle, François Laviolette, Mario Marchand, and Victor Lempitsky. Domain-adversarial training of neural networks. *J. Mach. Learn. Res.*, 17(1):2096–2030, 2016.
- [11] Timnit Gebru, Judy Hoffman, and Fei Fei Li. Fine-grained recognition in the wild: A multi-task domain adaptation approach. In *ICCV*, pages 1358–1367, 2017.
- [12] Muhammad Ghifary, W. Bastiaan Kleijn, Mengjie Zhang, and David Balduzzi. Domain generalization for object recognition with multi-task autoencoders. In *ICCV*, 2015.
- [13] Muhammad Ghifary, W. Bastiaan Kleijn, Mengjie Zhang, David Balduzzi, and Wen Li. Deep reconstruction-classification networks for unsupervised domain adaptation. In *ECCV*, 2016.
- [14] Ian Goodfellow, Jean Pouget-Abadie, Mehdi Mirza, Bing Xu, David Warde-Farley, Sherjil Ozair, Aaron Courville, and Yoshua Bengio. Generative adversarial nets. In *NIPS*, pages 2672–2680, 2014.
- [15] Arthur Gretton, Alex Smola, Jiayuan Huang, Marcel Schmittfull, Karsten Borgwardt, and Bernhard Schölkopf. *Covariate shift and local learning by distribution matching*, pages 131–160. MIT Press, Cambridge, MA, USA, 2009.
- [16] Patrick Grother and Kayee Hanaoka. Nist special database 19 handprinted forms and characters database. In *National Institute of Standards and Technology*, 2016.
- [17] Philip Haeusser, Thomas Frerix, Alexander Mordvintsev, and Daniel Cremers. Associative domain adaptation. In *ICCV*, pages 2784–2792, 2017.
- [18] Seunghoon Hong, Dingdong Yang, Jongwook Choi, and Honglak Lee. Inferring semantic layout for hierarchical text-to-image synthesis. In *CVPR*, pages 7986–7994, 2018.
- [19] Junlin Hu, Jiwen Lu, and Yap-Peng Tan. Deep transfer metric learning. In *CVPR*, pages 325–333, 2015.
- [20] Aditya Khosla, Tinghui Zhou, Tomasz Malisiewicz, Alexei A. Efros, and Antonio Torralba. Undoing the damage of dataset bias. In *ECCV*, 2012.
- [21] Elyor Kodirov, Tao Xiang, Zhenyong Fu, and Shaogang Gong. Unsupervised domain adaptation for zero-shot learning. In *ICCV*, pages 2452–2460, 2015.
- [22] Piotr Koniusz, Yusuf Tas, and Fatih Porikli. Domain adaptation by mixture of alignments of second- or higher-order scatter tensors. In *CVPR*, 2017.
- [23] Atsutoshi Kumagai and Tomoharu Iwata. Zero-shot domain adaptation without domain semantic descriptors. *CoRR*, 2018.
- [24] Samuli Laine and Timo Aila. Temporal ensembling for semi-supervised learning. In *ICLR*, 2017.
- [25] Da Li, Yongxin Yang, Yi Zhe Song, and Timothy M. Hospedales. Deeper, broader and artier domain generalization. In *ICCV*, 2017.
- [26] Ya Li, Xinmei Tian, Mingming Gong, Yajing Liu, Tongliang Liu, Kun Zhang, and Dacheng Tao. Deep domain generalization via conditional invariant adversarial networks. In *ECCV*, 2018.
- [27] Ming-Yu Liu and Oncel Tuzel. Coupled generative adversarial networks. In *NIPS*, pages 469–477, 2016.
- [28] Mingsheng Long, Yue Cao, Jianmin Wang, and Michael I. Jordan. Learning transferable features with deep adaptation networks. In *ICML*, pages 97–105, 2015.
- [29] Mingsheng Long, Han Zhu, Jianmin Wang, and Michael I. Jordan. Unsupervised domain adaptation with residual transfer networks. In *NIPS*, pages 136–144, 2016.
- [30] Yann Lécun, Leon Bottou, Yoshua Bengio, and Patrick Haffner. Gradient-based learning applied to document recognition. *Proceedings of the IEEE*, 1998.
- [31] Mehdi Mirza and Simon Osindero. Conditional generative adversarial nets. *CoRR*, 2014.
- [32] Saeid Motiian, Marco Piccirilli, Donald A. Adjeroh, and Gianfranco Doretto. Unified deep supervised domain adaptation and generalization. In *ICCV*, 2017.
- [33] Krikamol Muandet, David Balduzzi, and Bernhard Schölkopf. Domain generalization via invariant feature representation. In *ICML*, 2013.
- [34] Deepak Pathak, Philipp Krähenbühl, Jeff Donahue, Trevor Darrell, and Alexei Efros. Context encoders: Feature learning by inpainting. 2016.
- [35] Kuan Chuan Peng, Ziyang Wu, and Jan Ernst. Zero-shot deep domain adaptation. In *ECCV*, 2018.
- [36] Fan Qi, Xiaoshan Yang, and Changsheng Xu. A unified framework for multimodal domain adaptation. In *ACM Multimedia*, pages 429–437, 2018.

- [37] Kuniaki Saito, Yoshitaka Ushiku, and Tatsuya Harada. Asymmetric tri-training for unsupervised domain adaptation. In *ICML*, pages 2988–2997, 2017.
- [38] Swami Sankaranarayanan, Yogesh Balaji, Carlos D. Castillo, and Rama Chellappa. Generate to adapt: Aligning domains using generative adversarial networks. In *CVPR*, pages 8503–8512, 2018.
- [39] Ozan Sener, Hyun Song, Ashutosh Saxena, and Silvio Savarese. Learning transferable representations for unsupervised domain adaptation. In *NIPS*, 2016.
- [40] Ashish Shrivastava, Tomas Pfister, Oncel Tuzel, Josh Susskind, Wenda Wang, and Russell Webb. Learning from simulated and unsupervised images through adversarial training. In *CVPR*, pages 2242–2251, 2017.
- [41] Kihyuk Sohn, Sifei Liu, Guangyu Zhong, Xiang Yu, Ming-Hsuan Yang, and Manmohan Krishna Chandraker. Unsupervised domain adaptation for face recognition in unlabeled videos. In *ICCV*, 2017.
- [42] Antti Tarvainen and Harri Valpola. Mean teachers are better role models: Weight-averaged consistency targets improve semi-supervised deep learning results. In *NIPS*, pages 1195–1204, 2017.
- [43] Luan Tran, Kihyuk Sohn, Xiang Yu, Xiaoming Liu, and Manmohan Krishna Chandraker. Joint pixel and feature-level domain adaptation in the wild. *CoRR*, 2018.
- [44] Eric Tzeng, Judy Hoffman, Trevor Darrell, and Kate Saenko. Simultaneous deep transfer across domains and tasks. *ICCV*, pages 4068–4076, 2015.
- [45] Eric Tzeng, Judy Hoffman, Kate Saenko, and Trevor Darrell. Adversarial discriminative domain adaptation. *CVPR*, pages 2962–2971, 2017.
- [46] Eric Tzeng, Judy Hoffman, Ning Zhang, Kate Saenko, and Trevor Darrell. Deep domain confusion: Maximizing for domain invariance. *CoRR*, abs/1412.3474, 2014.
- [47] Jindong Wang, Wenjie Feng, Yiqiang Chen, Han Yu, Meiyu Huang, and Philip S. Yu. Visual domain adaptation with manifold embedded distribution alignment. In *ACM Multimedia*, 2018.
- [48] Ting-Chun Wang, Ming-Yu Liu, Jun-Yan Zhu, Andrew Tao, Jan Kautz, and Bryan Catanzaro. High-resolution image synthesis and semantic manipulation with conditional gans. In *CVPR*, 2018.
- [49] Han Xiao, Kashif Rasul, and Roland Vollgraf. Fashion-mnist: a novel image dataset for benchmarking machine learning algorithms. *CoRR*, abs/1708.07747, 2017.
- [50] Hongliang Yan, Yukang Ding, Peihua Li, Qilong Wang, Yong Xu, and Wangmeng Zuo. Mind the class weight bias: Weighted maximum mean discrepancy for unsupervised domain adaptation. In *CVPR*, pages 945–954, 2017.
- [51] Dingdong Yang, Seunghoon Hong, Yunseok Jang, Tiangchen Zhao, and Honglak Lee. Diversity-sensitive conditional generative adversarial networks. In *ICLR*, 2019.
- [52] Yongxin Yang and Timothy Hospedales. Zero-shot domain adaptation via kernel regression on the grassmannian. 2015.
- [53] Zhang Yang, Philip David, and Boqing Gong. Curriculum domain adaptation for semantic segmentation of urban scenes. In *ICCV*, 2017.
- [54] Donggeun Yoo, Namil Kim, Sunggyun Park, Anthony S. Paek, and In-So Kweon. Pixel-level domain transfer. In *ECCV*, 2016.