10707
Deep Learning: Spring 2021

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Lecture 19:
Evaluating representations, overview of self-supervised learning

Part 1: Choosing and evaluating representations

Desiderata for representations

What do we want out a representation?

Many possible answers here. First, a few uncontroversial desiderata:

Interpretability: if the derived features are semantically meaningful, and interpretable by a human, they can be easily evaluated.
(e.g. noisy-OR: "features" are diseases a patient has)

Sparsity of a representation is an important subcase: "explanatory" features for sample can be examined if there are a small number of them.

Downstream usability: the features are "useful" for downstream tasks. Some examples:

Improving label efficiency: if, for a task, a linear (or otherwise "simple") classifier can be trained on features and it works well, smaller # of labeled samples are needed.

Desiderata for representations

Obvious issue: interpretability and "usefulness" are not easily mathematically expressed. We need some "proxies" that induce such properties.

This is a lot more contraversial – here we survey some general desiderata, proposed as early as *Bengio-Courville-Vincent '14:*

Hierarchy/compositionality: video/images/text/ are expected to have hierarchical structure – depth helps induce such structure.

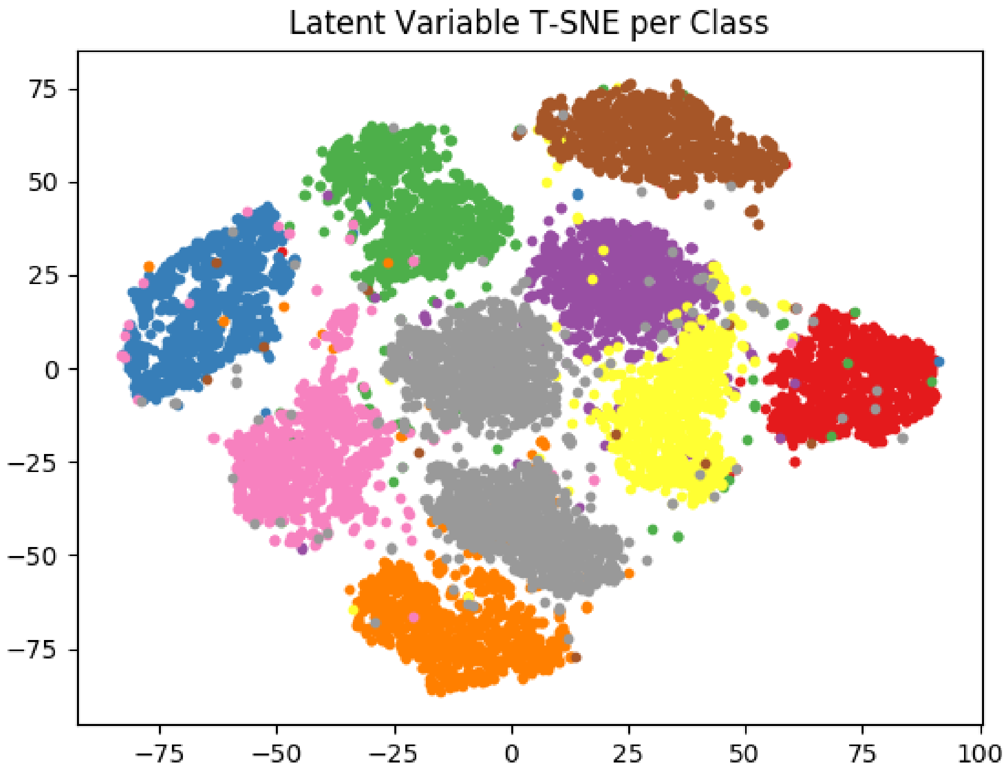
Semantic clusterability: features of the same "semantic class" (e.g. images in the same category) are clustered.

Linear interpolation: in representation space, linear interpolations produce meaningful data points (i.e. "latent space is convex"). Sometimes called *manifold flattening*.

Disentangling: features capture "independent factors of variation" of data. (*Bengio-Courville-Vincent '14).* Has been very popular in modern unsupervised learning, though many potential issues with it.

Semantic clustering

Semantic clusterability: features of the same “semantic class” (e.g. images in the same category) are clustered together.



The intuition:

If semantic classes are linearly (or other simple function) separable, and labels on downstream tasks depend linearly on semantic classes – can afford to learn a simple classifier !!

t-SNE projection of VAE-learned features of the 10 MNIST classes.
Image from https://pyro.ai/examples/vae.html

Semantic clustering

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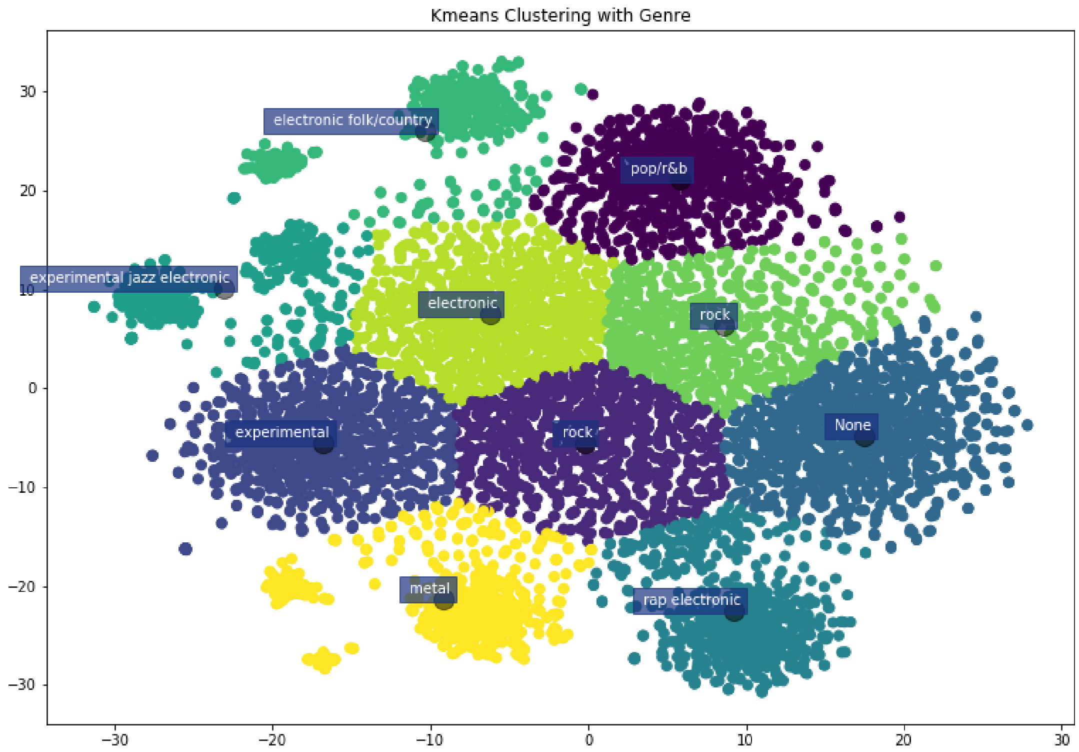
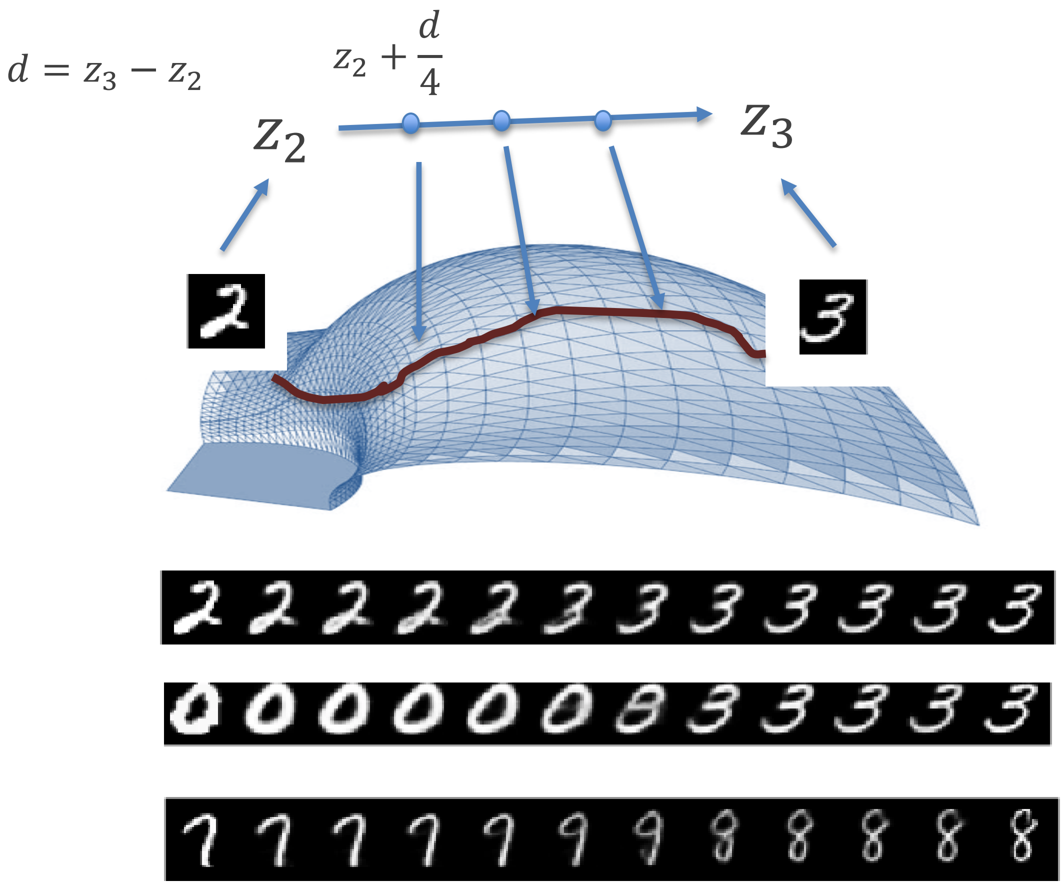


t-SNE projection of word embeddings for artists (clustered by genre). Image from https://medium.com/free-code-camp/learn-tensorflow-the-word2vec-model-and-the-tsne-algorithm-using-rock-bands-97c99b5dcb3a

Linear interpolation

Linear interpolation: in representation space, linear interpolations produce meaningful data points. (i.e. “latent space is convex”)



Interpolations for a VAE trained on MNIST.

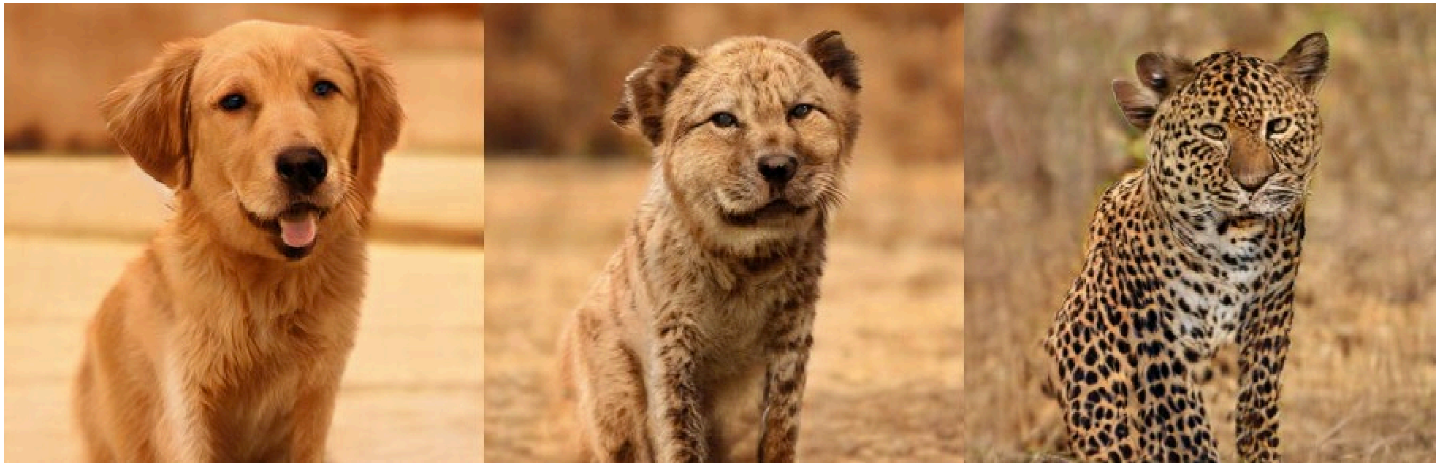
The intuition:

The data manifold is complicated/curved.

The latent variable manifold is a convex set – moving in straight lines keeps us on it.

Linear interpolation

Linear interpolation: in representation space, linear interpolations produce meaningful data points. (i.e. "latent space is convex")



Interpolations for a BigGAN, image from https://thegradient.pub/bigganex-a-dive-into-the-latent-space-of-biggan/

Disentangled representations

Disentangling: features capture "independent factors of variation" of data. (*Bengio-Courville-Vincent '14).* Has been very popular in modern unsupervised learning, though many potential issues with it.

For concreteness, let's assume that we have a latent variable model for data with latent variables $\boldsymbol{z}$, observables $\boldsymbol{x}$, and joint distribution $p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})$

There are (at least) two ways to formalize this (literature is not always clear on which one is aimed for!):

Prior disentangling: $p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{z})$ is a product distribution, i.e. $p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{z}) = \Pi_i p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{z}_{\boldsymbol{i}})$

Classical example: ICA (independent component analysis)

Posterior disentangling: fit a variational posterior $q_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ s.t. $q_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})$ is (on average over $\mathbf{x}$) a product distribution

In other words, $\int_x q_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x})\, p(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x}$ – usually called the *aggregate posterior* – is close to a product distribution.

Disentangled representations

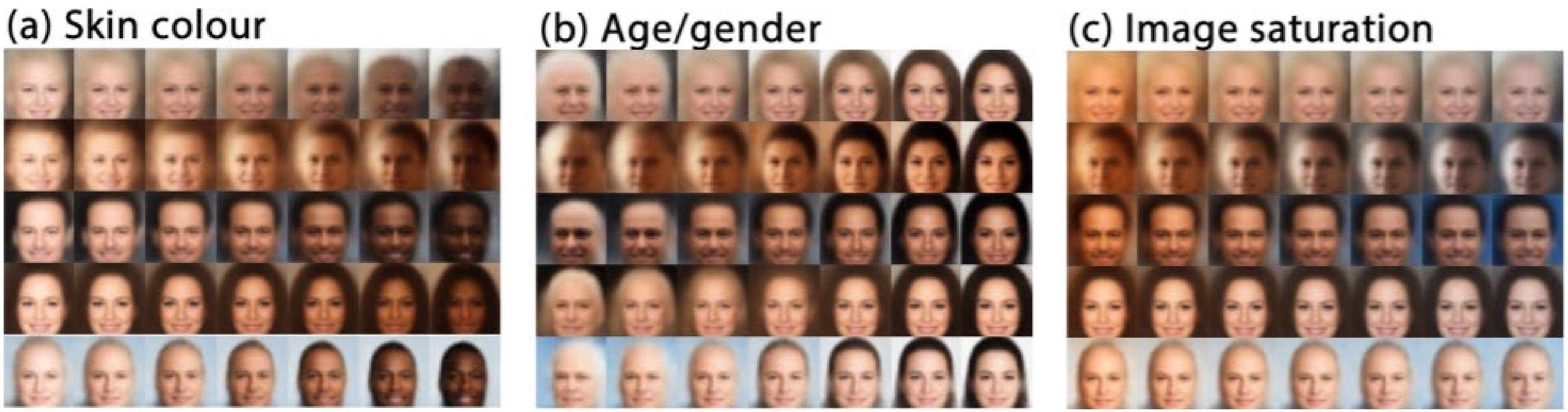


Figure 4: **Latent factors learnt by β-VAE on celebA:** traversal of individual latents demonstrates that β-VAE discovered in an unsupervised manner factors that encode skin colour, transition from an elderly male to younger female, and image saturation.

Posterior disentangling in β −VAE. To produce plots, infer latent variable for an image, then change a single latent variable gradually.

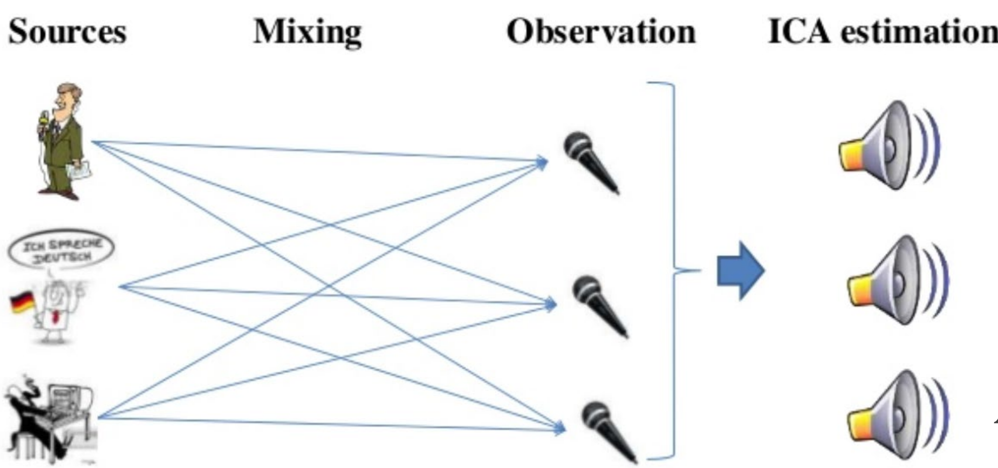
Image from Higgins et al. ‘17.

Prior disentangling

Prior disentangling: $p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{z})$ is a product distribution, i.e. $p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{z}) = \Pi_i p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{z_i})$

Classical example: ICA (independent component analysis), also called the "cocktail party problem".

Assume data is generated as $x = Az,\ z \in \mathbb{R}^d, A \in \mathbb{R}^{d\times d}$



If z has an independent, *non-Gaussian* prior, model is identifiable and efficiently learnable.
(See, e.g. *Frieze-Jerum-Kannan '96, Anandkumar et al '12*)

Other examples: noisy-OR networks (diseases are independent), general Bayesian nets, viewing top variables as z's, GANs, …

Posterior disentanglement in VAEs

Recall the "regularization" view of the VAEs objective:

$$\underbrace{\sum_x \mathbb{E}_{q(h^L|x)} \log p(x|h^L)}_{\text{"Reconstruction" error}} - \underbrace{KL(q(h^L|x)||p(h^L))}_{\text{"Regularization towards prior"}}$$

Consider a prior which is a product distribution (e.g. standard Gaussian):

The KL term implicitly penalizes distributions for which

$$\sum_x KL(q(h^L|x)||p(h^L)) \approx \mathbb{E}_{x\sim p^*} KL(q(h^L|x)||p(h^L))$$

is large – i.e. the aggregated posterior is far from a product distribution.

Posterior disentanglement in VAEs

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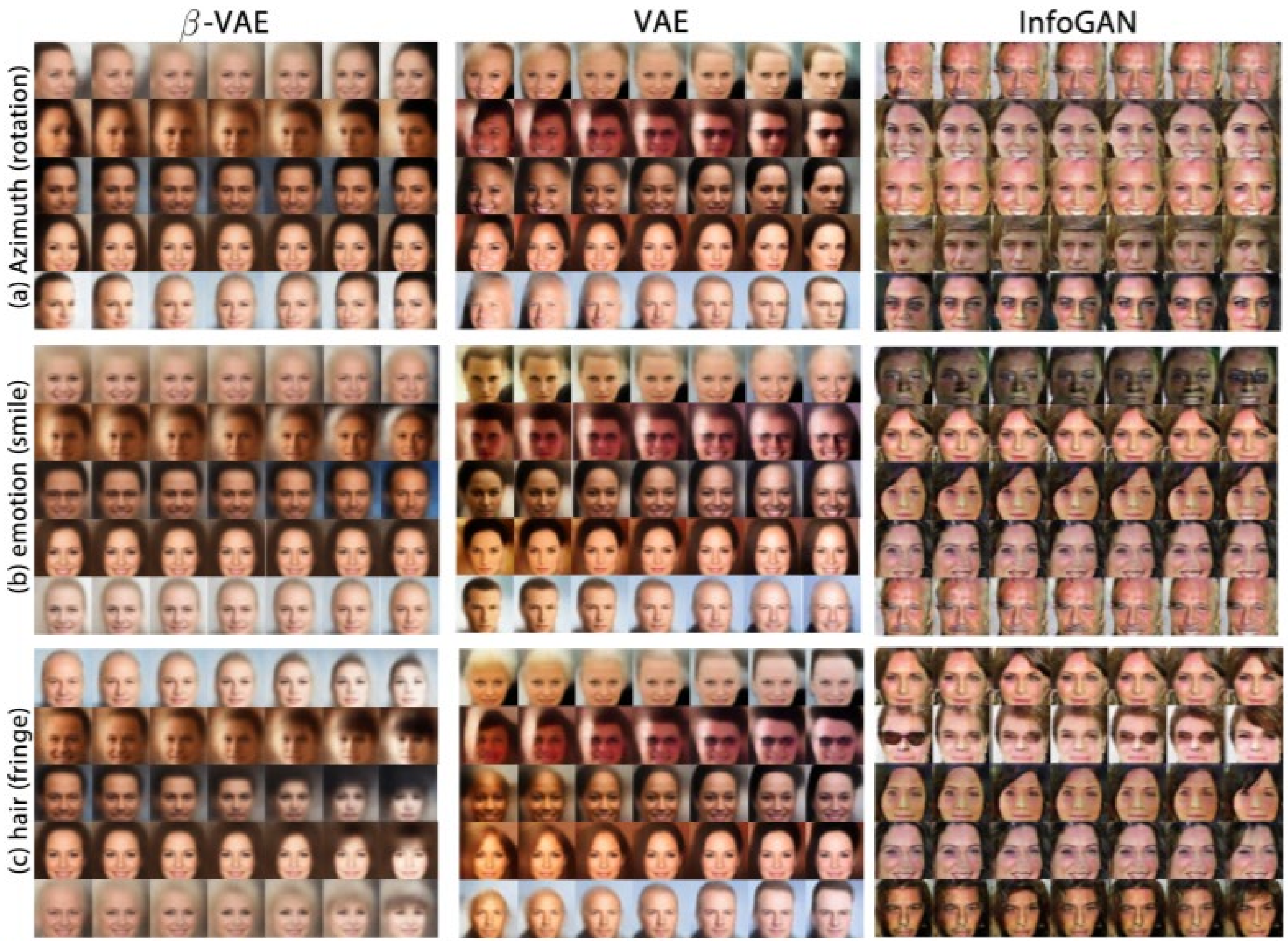
The idea of *Higgins et al '17*: introduce a "weighting" factor to put more weight on reconstruction or disentanglement:

β – VAE objective: $\sum_x \ \mathbb{E}_{q(h^L|x)} \ \log p(x|h^L) - \beta \ KL(q(h^L|x)||p(h^L))$

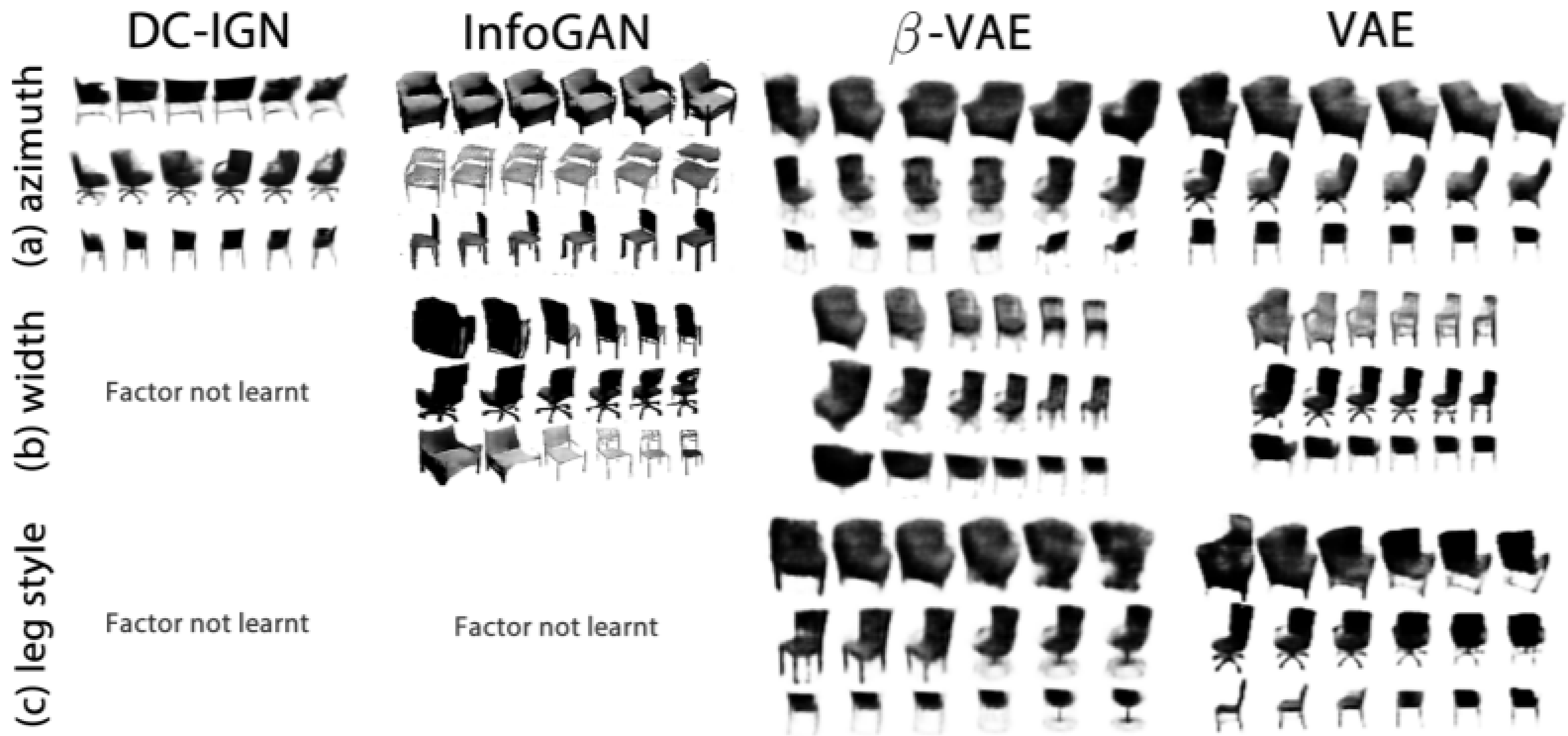
β large: more weight on disentanglement

Posterior disentanglement in VAEs



Comparing disentangling of different types of generative models.
Image from Higgins et al. '17.

Posterior disentanglement in VAEs



Comparing disentangling of different types of generative models.
Image from Higgins et al. '17.

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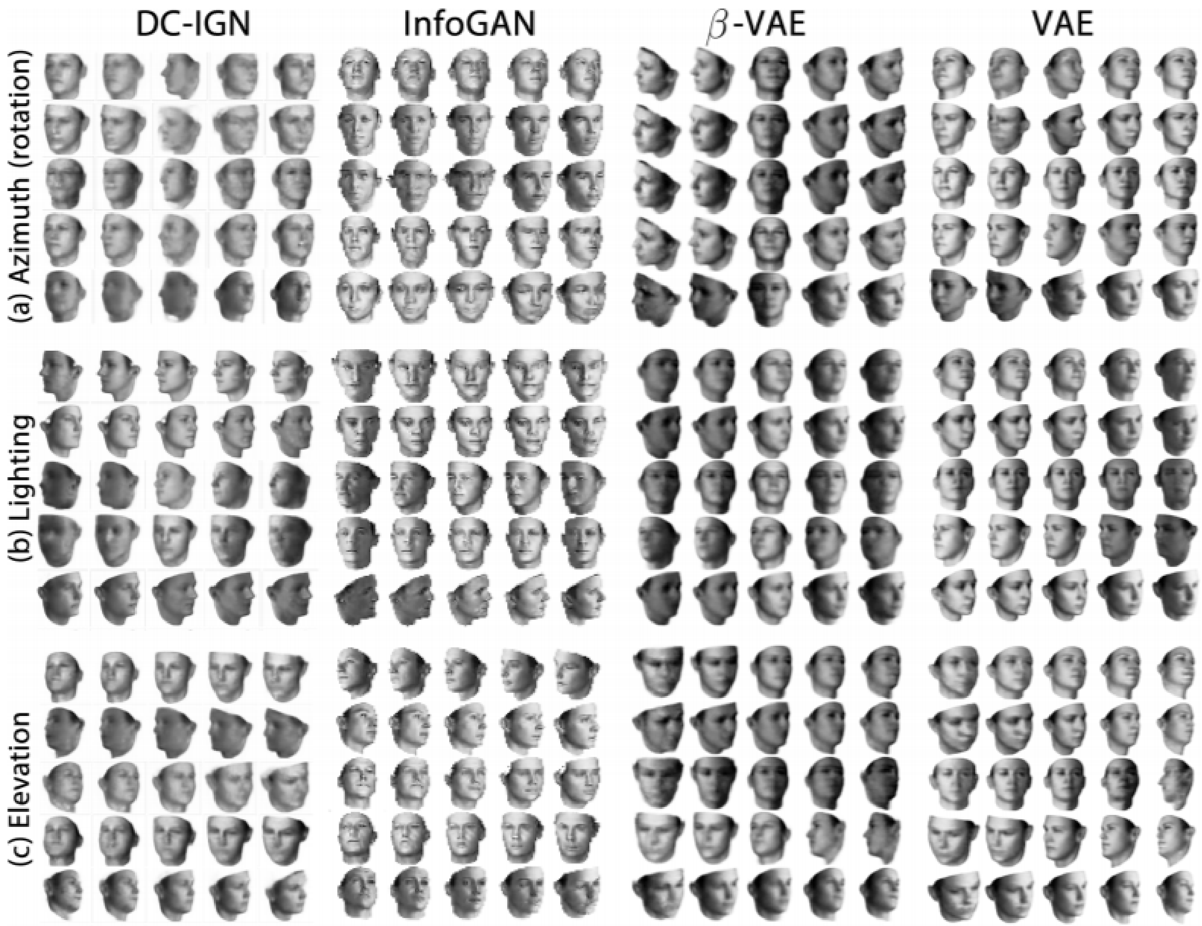


Comparing disentangling of different types of generative models.
Image from Higgins et al. '17.

Measuring disentanglement

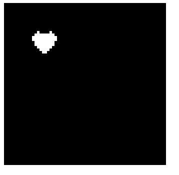
Metrics are typically defined *assuming access* to a dataset with "ground-truth" variation factors. Example: dSprites dataset

dSprites is a dataset of 2D shapes procedurally generated from 6 ground truth independent latent factors. These factors are *color*, *shape*, *scale*, *rotation*, *x* and *y* positions of a sprite.

All possible combinations of these latents are present exactly once, generating N = 737280 total images.

Latent factor values

- Color: white
- Shape: square, ellipse, heart
- Scale: 6 values linearly spaced in [0.5, 1]
- Orientation: 40 values in [0, 2 pi]
- Position X: 32 values in [0, 1]
- Position Y: 32 values in [0, 1]



Measuring disentanglement

Metrics are typically defined *assuming access* to a dataset with K "ground-truth" variation factors.

BetaVAE metric: based on "linear separability" of factors

Generate a **training set** of samples as follows:

Sample a **batch** of B samples as follows:

Pick a **ground-truth variation factor k** uniformly at random from [K].

Generate two sets of "ground truth" latent factors $\boldsymbol{v_1}, \boldsymbol{v_2} \in \mathbb{R}^K$, s.t. $(\boldsymbol{v_1})_{\mathrm{k}} = (\boldsymbol{v_2})_{\mathrm{k}}$, and other coords are independently, randomly sampled.

Generate **images** $\boldsymbol{x_1}, \boldsymbol{x_2}$ from $\boldsymbol{v_1}, \boldsymbol{v_2}$.

Infer latent vars $\boldsymbol{z_1}, \boldsymbol{z_2}$ using model we are evaluating. (e.g. encoder in VAE)

Calculate average $\boldsymbol{z_{avg}}$ of $|\boldsymbol{z_1} - \boldsymbol{z_2}|$ in batch, add $(\boldsymbol{z_{avg}}, \mathrm{k})$ to training set.

Train linear predictor on training set, evaluate it's test performance.

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Train linear predictor on above training set, and evaluate it's test performance.

Intuition: averaging should make coords in $\boldsymbol{z_{avg}}$ different from k smaller, thus linear classifier should "focus" on k.

Many variants of this exist. (e.g. FactorVAE, mutual information gap, etc.)

Measuring disentanglement

Locatello et al '19, "Challenging Common Assumptions in the Unsupervised Learning of Disentangled Representations" (Best paper award at ICML '19): A large-scale study of disentanglement measures, as well as gen. models.

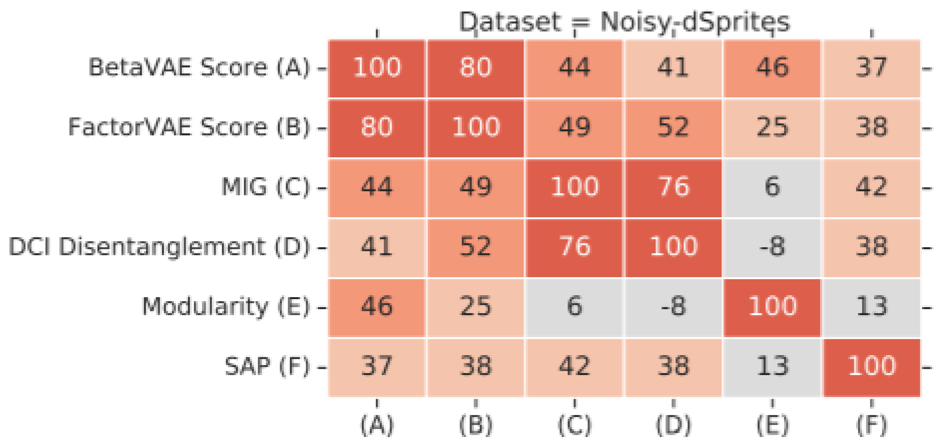

Figure 2. Rank correlation of different metrics on Noisy-dSprites. Overall, we observe that all metrics except Modularity seem mildly correlated with the pairs BetaVAE and FactorVAE, and MIG and DCI Disentanglement strongly correlated with each other.

Usefulness of disentanglement?

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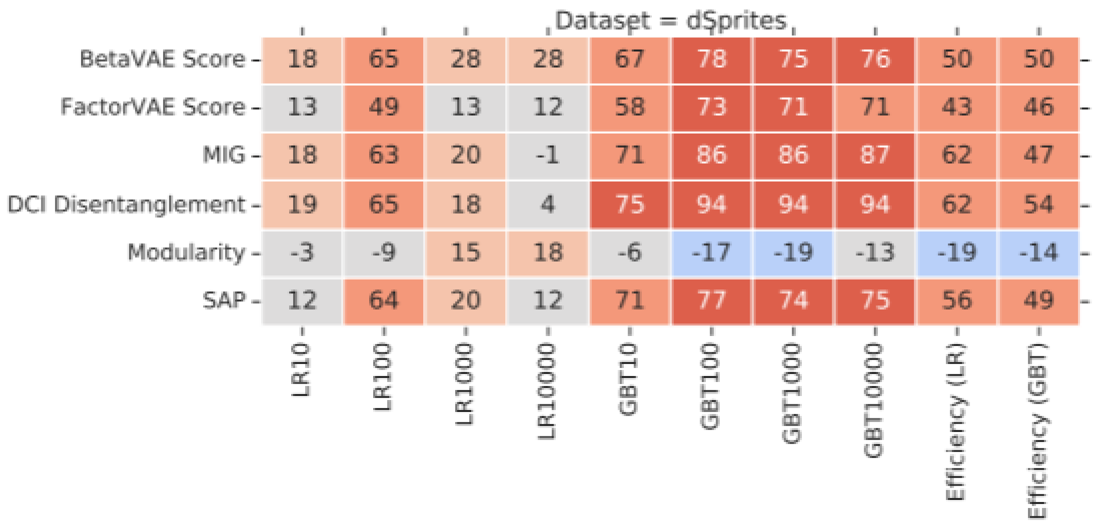

Figure 5. Rank correlations between disentanglement metrics and downstream performance (accuracy and efficiency) on dSprites.

Downstream classification task: predict **true** ground-truth factors (w/ multiclass logistic regression)

Carefull to extrapolate too much – task/setup is a little contrived.

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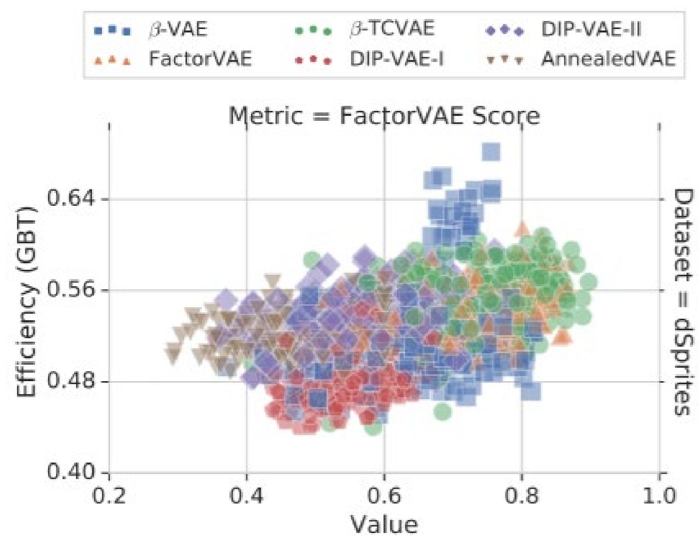

Figure 6. Statistical efficiency of the FactorVAE Score for learning a GBT downstream task on dSprites.

Statistical efficiency measure: average accuracy based on 100 samples divided by the average accuracy based on 10 000 samples

Issue of ill-posedness?

Locatello et al '19, "Challenging Common Assumptions in the Unsupervised Learning of Disentangled Representations" (Best paper award at ICML '19):

Similar issues plague disentangling that do "flat minima": a model can be re-parametrized, s.t. the distribution over the data is unchanged, but it can be arbitrarily more "entangled".

Thus, some kind of inductive bias both on model class and data seems necessary.

As a simple example: consider $\boldsymbol{z} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \boldsymbol{I})$, let $\boldsymbol{z}' = \boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{z}$, for any non-identity orthogonal matrix U.

Then, under any "intuitive" understanding of entangling, $\boldsymbol{z}'$ seems entangled with $\boldsymbol{z}$ – small changes of coordinates of z cause global changes in $\boldsymbol{z}'$.

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Similar issues plague disentangling that do "flat minima": a model can be re-parametrized, s.t. the distribution over the data is unchanged, but it can be arbitrarily more "entangled".

Theorem 1. *For $d > 1$, let $\mathbf{z} \sim P$ denote any distribution which admits a density $p(\mathbf{z}) = \prod_{i=1}^{d} p(\mathbf{z}_i)$. Then, there exists an infinite family of bijective functions $f : \operatorname{supp}(\mathbf{z}) \to \operatorname{supp}(\mathbf{z})$ such that $\frac{\partial f_i(\mathbf{u})}{\partial u_j} \neq 0$ almost everywhere for all i and j (i.e., $\mathbf{z}$ and $f(\mathbf{z})$ are completely entangled) and $P(\mathbf{z} \leq \mathbf{u}) = P(f(\mathbf{z}) \leq \mathbf{u})$ for all $\mathbf{u} \in \operatorname{supp}(\mathbf{z})$ (i.e., they have the same marginal distribution).*

***Reparametrization**:*
z'=f(z) is "entangled" wrt to z

Part 2: Self-supervised/predictive learning

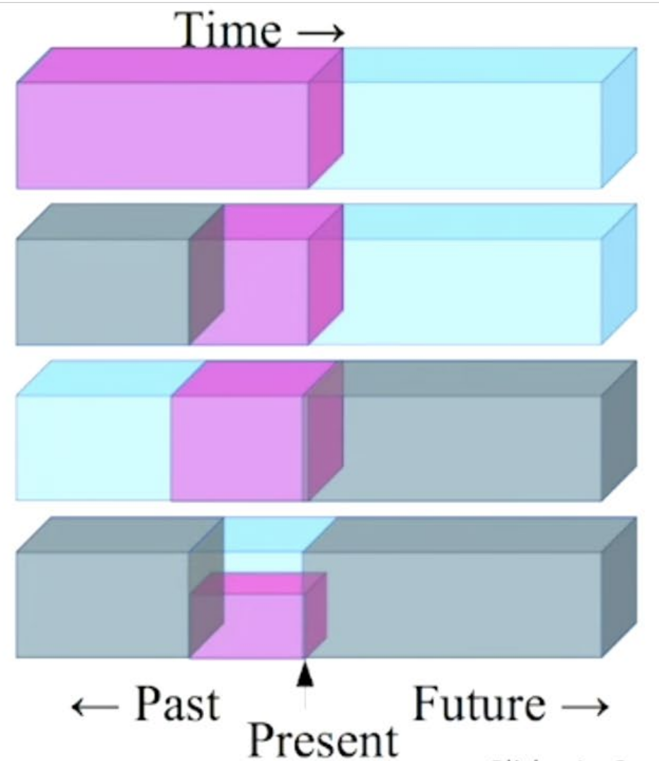
Self-supervised/predictive learning

Given unlabeled data, design supervised tasks that induce a good representation for downstream tasks.

No good mathematical formalization, but the intuition is to “force” the predictor used in the task to learn something “semantically meaningful” about the data.

Self-supervised/predictive learning

- Predict any part of the input from any other part.
- Predict the future from the past.
- Predict the future from the recent past.
- Predict the past from the present.
- Predict the top from the bottom.
- Predict the occluded from the visible
- Pretend there is a part of the input you don't know and predict that.



Slide: LeCun

Figure by Yann LeCun

Self-supervised/predictive learning

- "Pure" Reinforcement Learning (cherry)
  - The machine predicts a scalar reward given once in a while.
  - **A few bits for some samples**
- Supervised Learning (icing)
  - The machine predicts a category or a few numbers for each input
  - Predicting human-supplied data
  - **10→10,000 bits per sample**
- Unsupervised/Predictive Learning (cake)
  - The machine predicts any part of its input for any observed part.
  - Predicts future frames in videos
  - **Millions of bits per sample**

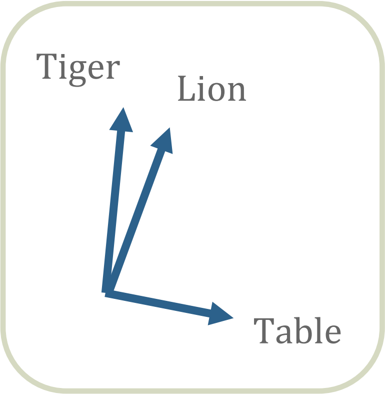
- (Yes, I know, this picture is slightly offensive to RL folks. But I'll make it up)

Figure by Yann LeCun

Part I:
Predictive learning in NLP

Word embeddings

Semantically meaningful **vector representations** of words



Example: Inner product (possibly scaled, i.e. cosine similarity) correlates with word similarity.

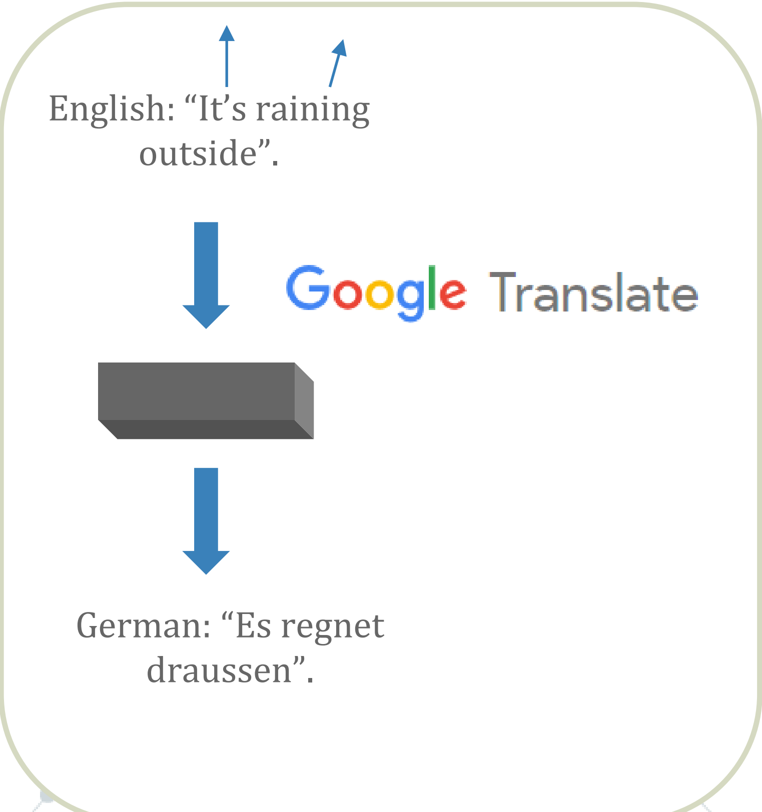
Word embeddings

Semantically meaningful **vector representations** of words

Example: Can use embeddings to do sentiment classification by training a simple (e.g. linear) classifier

Word embeddings

Semantically meaningful **vector representations** of words



Example: Can train a “simple” network that if fed word embeddings for two languages, can effectively translate.

Word embeddings via predictive learning

Basic task: predict the next word, given a few previous ones.

I	am	running	a	little	????

Late: 0.9
Early: 0.05
Tired: 0.04
Table: 0.01

In other words, optimize for

$$\max_{\theta} \sum_{t} \log \; p_{\theta}(x_t | x_{t-1}, x_{t-2}, \dots, x_{t-L})$$

Word embeddings via predictive learning

Basic task: predict the next word, given a few previous ones.

$$\max_\theta \sum_t \log p_\theta(x_t | x_{t-1}, x_{t-2}, \dots, x_{t-L})$$

Inspired by classical assumptions in NLP that the underlying distribution is Markov – that is, x_t only depends on the previous few words.

(Of course, this is violated if you wish to model long texts like paragraphs/books.)

The main problem: The trivial way of parametrizing $p_\theta(x_t | x_{t-1}, x_{t-2}, \dots, x_{t-L})$ is a “lookup table” with V^L entries.

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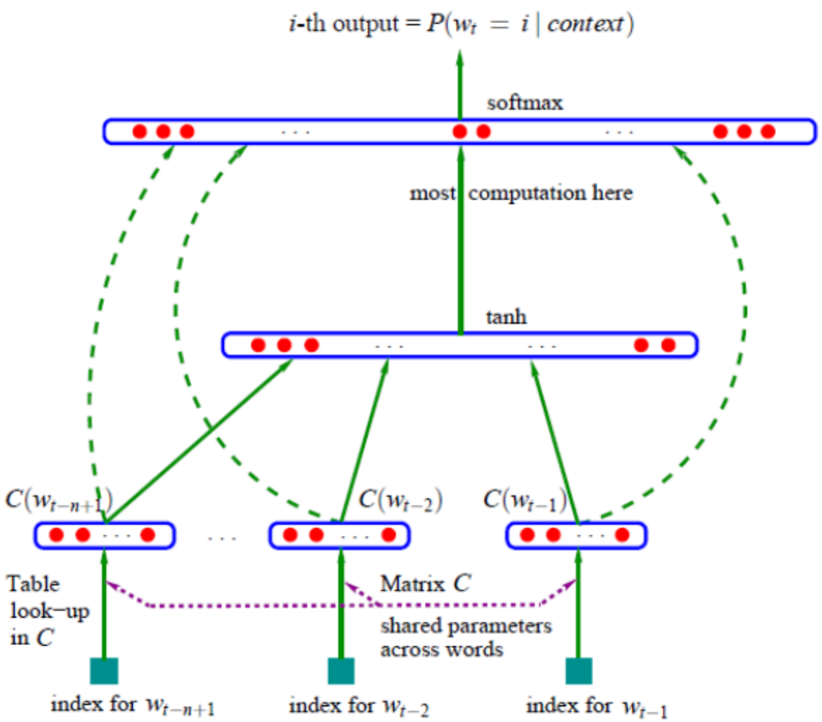
Basic task: predict the next word, given a few previous ones.

$$\max_{\theta} \sum_{t} \log p_{\theta}(x_t | x_{t-1}, x_{t-2}, \ldots, x_{t-L})$$



[*Bengio-Ducharme-Vincent-Janvin '03*]: A neural parametrization of the above probabilities.

Main ingredients:

Embeddings: A word embedding $C(w)$ for all words w in dictionary.

Non-linear transforms: Potentially deep network taking as inputs i, $C(x_{t-1}), C(x_{t-2}), \ldots, C(x_{t-L})$, and outputting some vector o. Can be recurrent net too.

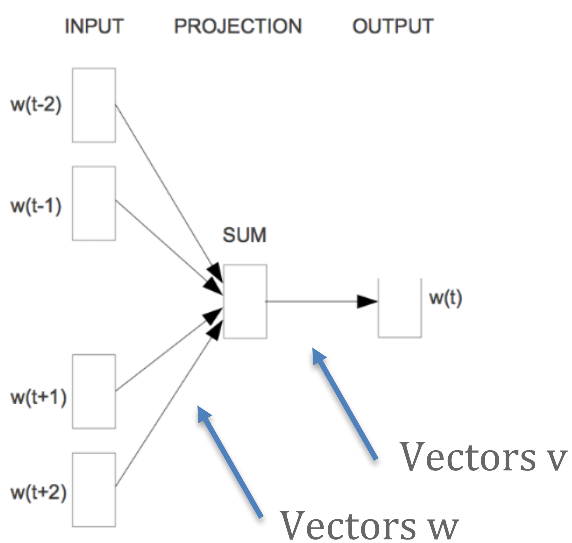
Softmax: Softmax distribution for x_t with parameters given by o.

Word embeddings via predictive learning

Related: predict *middle* word in a sentence, given *surrounding* ones

$$\max_\theta \sum_t \log p_\theta(x_t | x_{t-L}, \dots, x_{t-1}, x_{t+1}, \dots, x_{t+L})$$

CBOW (Continuous Bag of Words): proposed by *Mikolov et al.* '13



Parametrization is chosen s.t.

$$p_\theta(x_t | x_{t-L}, \dots, x_{t-1}, x_{t+1}, \dots, x_{t+L}) \propto$$

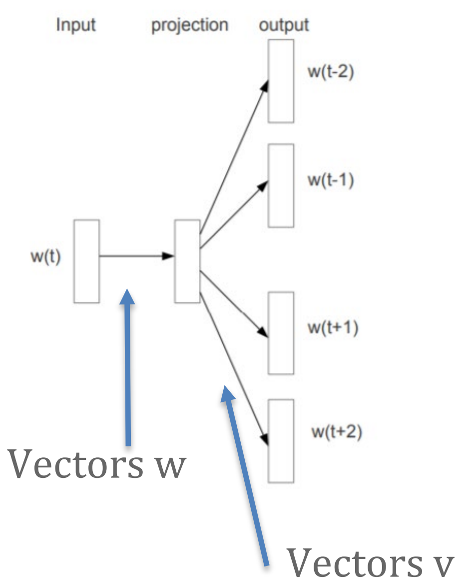
$$\exp\left(v_{x_t}, \sum_{i=t-L}^{t+L} w_{t_i} \right)$$

Word embeddings via predictive learning

Related: predict surrounding words, *given* middle word

$$\max_{\theta} \sum_{t} \sum_{i=t-L, i\neq t}^{t+L} \log \; p_{\theta}(x_i | x_t)$$

Skip-Gram: (also) proposed by *Mikolov et al.* '13



Parametrization is s.t. $p_{\theta}(x_i | x_t) \propto \exp\left(v_{x_i}, w_{x_t}\right)$

In practice, lots of other tricks are tacked on to deal with the slowest part of training: the softmax distribution (partition function sums over entire vocabulary).
Common ones are *negative sampling, hierarchical softmax*, etc.

Word embeddings via predictive learning

Related: predict surrounding words, *given* middle word

$$\max_{\theta} \sum_{t} \sum_{i=t-L, i\neq t}^{t+L} \log\ p_\theta(x_i|x_t)$$

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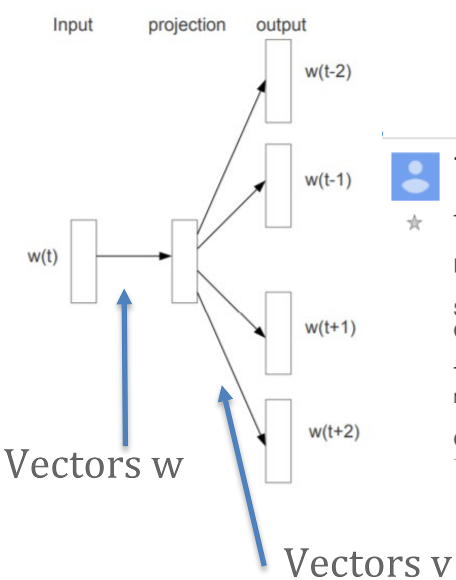


Tomas Mikolov 10/7/13

There are quite a few differences between the skip-gram and the CBOW models. However, if you have a lot of training data, their performance should be comparable.

If you want to see a list of advantages of each model, then my current experience is:

Skip-gram: works well with small amount of the training data, represents well even rare words or phrases
CBOW: several times faster to train than the skip-gram, slightly better accuracy for the frequent words

This can get even a bit more complicated if you consider that there are two different ways how to train the models: the normalized hierarchical softmax, and the un-normalized negative sampling. Both work quite differently.

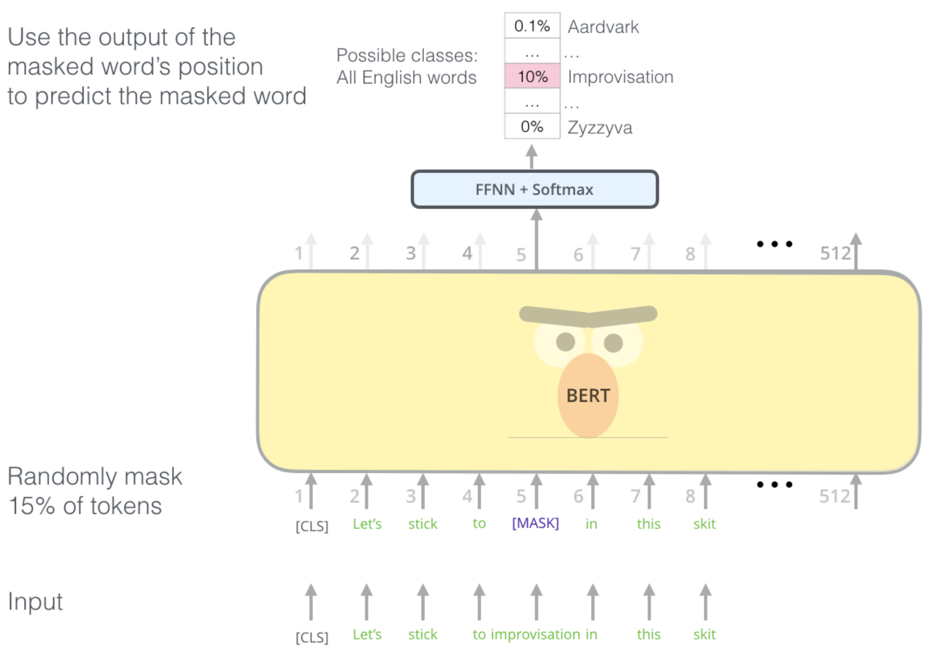
Overall, the best practice is to try few experiments and see what works the best for you, as different applications have different requirements.

- show quoted text -

Word embeddings via predictive learning

Related: predict random *15%* of the words, given the rest

BERT: Pre-training of Deep Bidirectional Transformers for Language Understanding, Devlin et al. '18.



Pretty much all-across-the-board best-performing representations for most downstream tasks. (Pre fine-tuning, of course.)

Evaluating word embeddings

First variant (predict next word, given previous ones) can be used as a **generative model** for text. (Also called *language model*.) The other ones cannot.

In former case, a natural measure is the cross-entropy

$$- \mathbb{E}_{x_1,x_2,\dots,x_T} \log p_\theta(x_{\leq T}) = \mathbb{E}_{x_1,x_2,\dots,x_T} \sum_t \log \; p_\theta(x_t | x_{<t})$$

For convenience, we often take exponential of this (called *perplexity*)

If we do not have a generative model, we have to use **indirect** means.

Evaluating word embeddings

Intrinsic tasks: Test performance of word embeddings on tasks measuring their "semantic" properties. Examples include solving "which is the most similar word" queries, analogy queries (i.e. "man is to woman as king is to ??"

Extrinsic tasks: How well can we "finetune" the word embeddings to solve some (supervised) downstream task. "Finetune" usually means train a (relatively small) feedforward network. Examples of such tasks include:

Part-of-Speech Tagging (determine whether a word is noun/verb/…),
Named Entity Recognition (recognizing named entities like persons, places) – e.g. label a sentence as Picasso$_{\text{[person]}}$ died in France$_{\text{[country]}}$, many others.

Semantic similarity

Observation: similar words tend to have larger (renormalized) inner products (also called cosine similarity).

Precisely, if we look at the word embeddings for words i,j

$$\left\langle \frac{w_i}{||w_i||}, \frac{w_j}{||w_j||} \right\rangle = \cos(w_i, w_j)$$ tends to be larger for similar words i,j

Example: the nearest neighbors to “Frog” look like

0. *frog*
1. frogs
2. toad
3. litoria
4. leptodactylidae
5. rana
6. lizard
7. eleutherodactylus


3. litoria


4. leptodactylidae

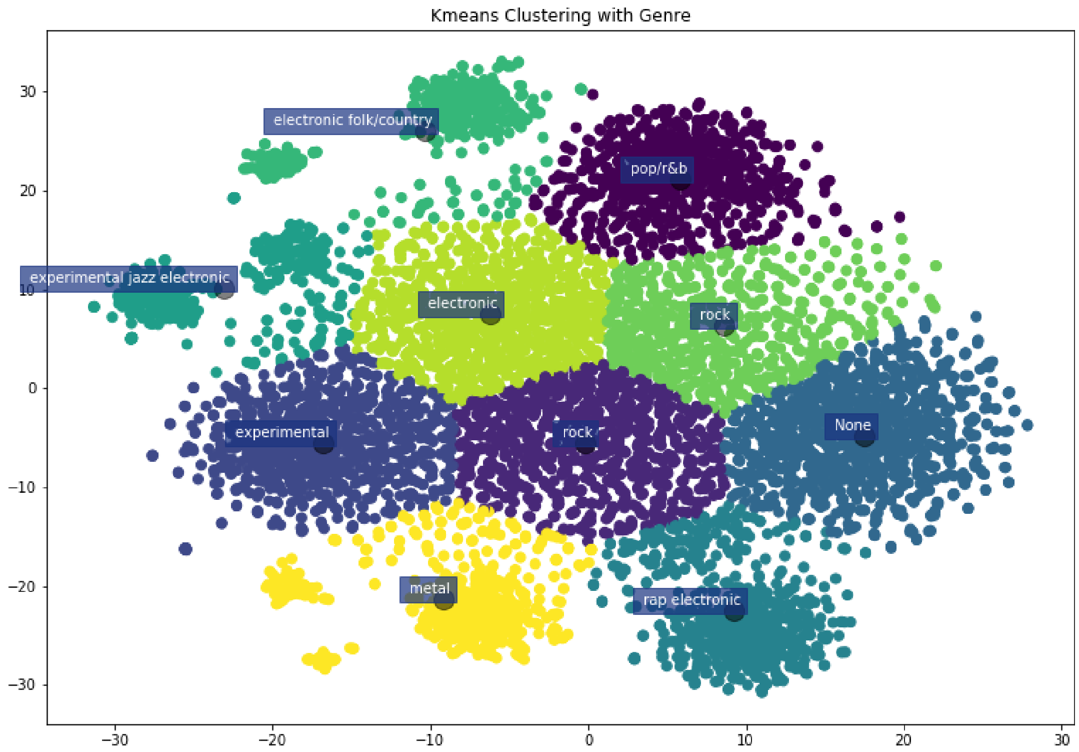

5. rana


7. eleutherodactylus

To solve semantic similarity query like “which is the most similar word to”, output the word with the highest cosine similarity.

Semantic clustering

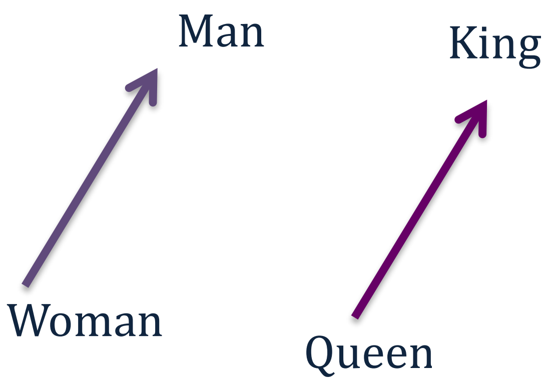
Consequence: clustering word embeddings should give “semantically” relevant clusters.



t-SNE projection of word embeddings for artists (clustered by genre). Image from https://medium.com/free-code-camp/learn-tensorflow-the-word2vec-model-and-the-tsne-algorithm-using-rock-bands-97c99b5dcb3a

Analogies

Observation: You can solve *analogy* queries by linear algebra.



Precisely, w = queen will be the solution to:

$$\operatorname{argmin}_w \|v_w - v_{\text{king}} - (v_{\text{woman}} - v_{\text{man}})\|^2$$

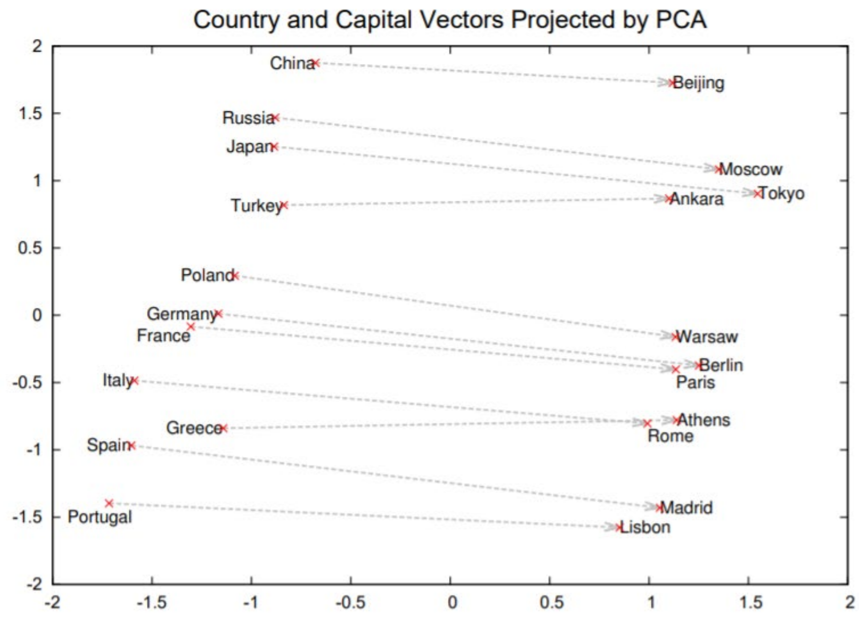


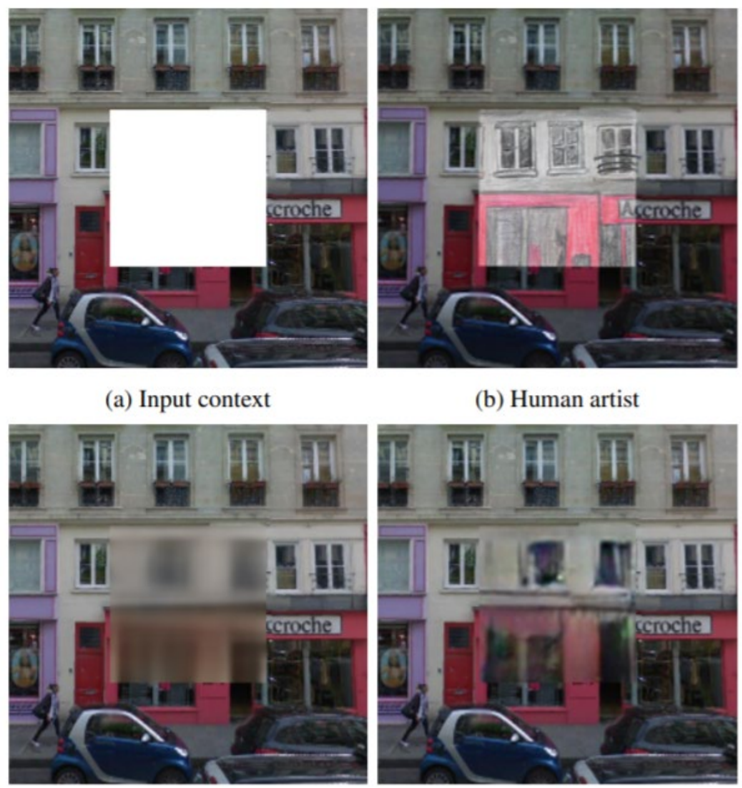
Figure 2: Two-dimensional PCA projection of the 1000-dimensional Skip-gram vectors of countries and their capital cities. The figure illustrates ability of the model to automatically organize concepts and learn implicitly the relationships between them, as during the training we did not provide any supervised information about what a capital city means.

Part II:
Predictive learning in vision

Inpainting

The most obvious analogy to word embeddings: predict parts of image from remainder of image.

Pathak et al. '16: Context Encoders: Feature Learning by Inpainting



(a) Input context

(b) Human artist

(c) Context Encoder ($L2$ loss)

(d) Context Encoder ($L2$ + Adversarial loss)

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The most obvious analogy to word embeddings: predict parts of image from remainder of image.

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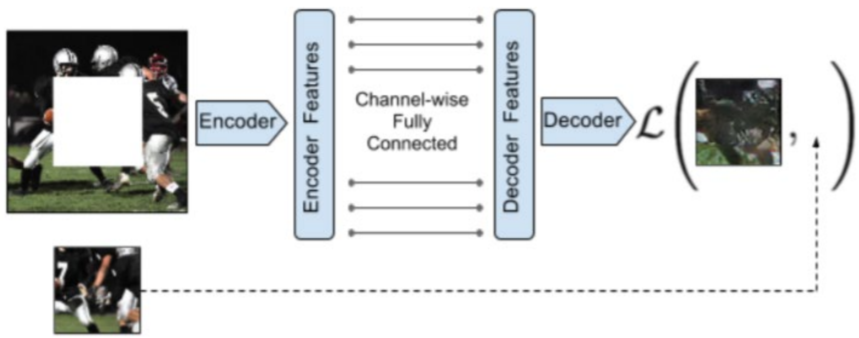

Figure 2: Context Encoder. The context image is passed through the encoder to obtain features which are connected to the decoder using channel-wise fully-connected layer as described in Section 3.1. The decoder then produces the missing regions in the image.

Architecture:
An encoder E takes a part of image, constructs a representation.

A decoder D takes representation, tries to reconstruct missing part.

Much trickier than in NLP:

As we have seen, meaningful losses for vision are much more difficult to design.

Choice of region to mask out is much more impactful.

Inpainting

The most obvious analogy to word embeddings: predict parts of image from remainder of image.

Pathak et al. ’16: Context Encoders: Feature Learning by Inpainting

If reconstruction loss is l_2: tendency to produce blurry images.

Remember: one of the usefulness of GANs is to provide a better loss for images.

(c) Context Encoder ($L2$ loss)

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Pathak et al. '16: Context Encoders: Feature Learning by Inpainting

If reconstruction loss is l_2: tendency to produce blurry images.

Remember: one of the usefulness of GANs is to provide a better loss for images.

Composition of encoder+decoder

Mask

$$\mathcal{L}_{rec}(x) = \|\hat{M} \odot (x - F((1-\hat{M}) \odot x))\|_2^2,$$

DC-GAN objective

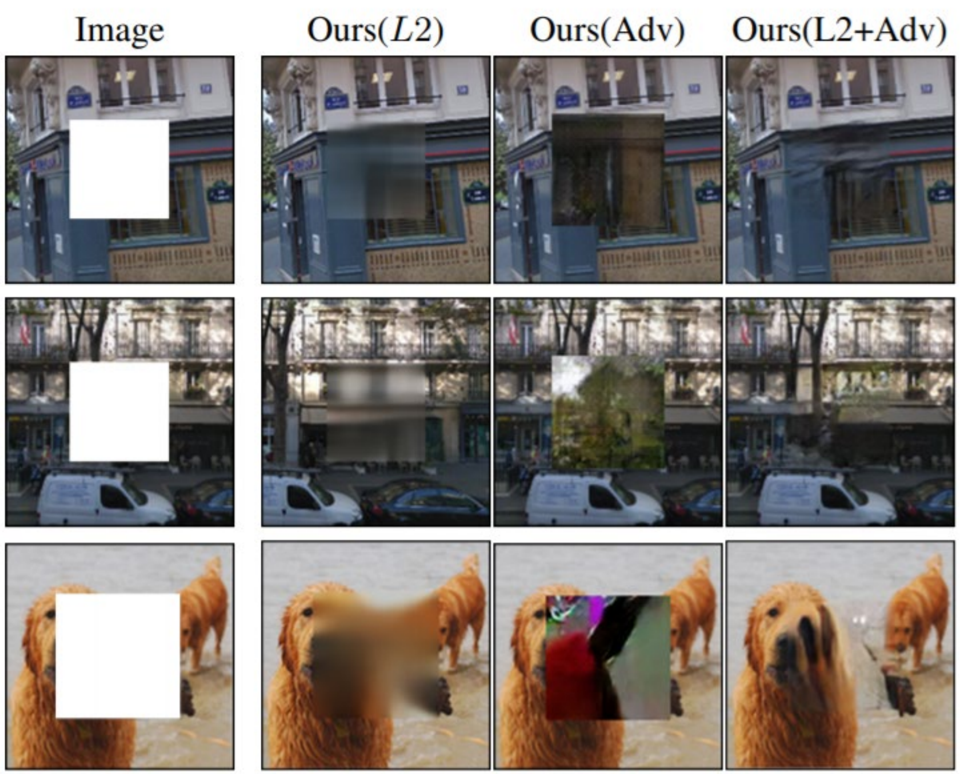
$$\mathcal{L}_{adv} = \max_D \quad \mathbb{E}_{x \in \mathcal{X}}[\log(D(x)) + \log(1 - D(F((1-\hat{M}) \odot x)))],$$

$$\mathcal{L} = \lambda_{rec}\mathcal{L}_{rec} + \lambda_{adv}\mathcal{L}_{adv}.$$

Inpainting

The most obvious analogy to word embeddings: predict parts of image from remainder of image.

Pathak et al. '16: Context Encoders: Feature Learning by Inpainting



Inpainting

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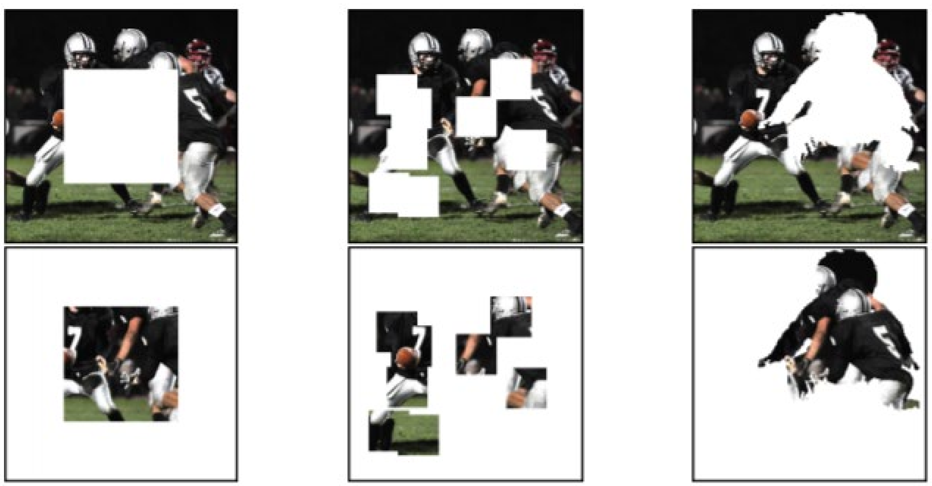
Pathak et al. '16: Context Encoders: Feature Learning by Inpainting

How to choose the region?



(a) Central region (b) Random block (c) Random region

Figure 3: An example of image x with our different region masks $\hat{M}$ applied, as described in Section 3.3.

Task should be "solvable", but not "too easy".

Fixed (central region): tends to produce less generalizeable representations

Random blocks: slightly better, but square borders still hurt.

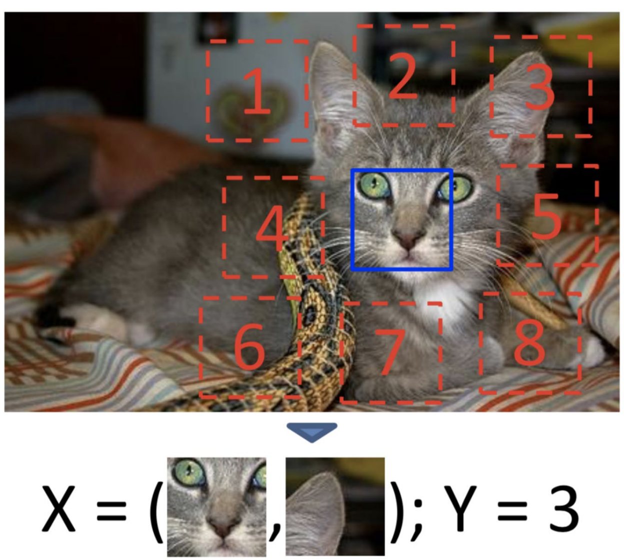
Random silhouette (fully random doesn't make sense – prediction task is too ill-defined) – even better!

Jigsaw puzzles

In principle, what we want is a task “hard enough”, that any model that does well on it, should learn something “meaningful” about the task.

Doersch et al. ’16: Unsupervised Visual Representation Learning by Context Prediction

Task: Predict ordering of two randomly chosen pieces from the image.



Representation: penultimate layer of a neural net used to solve task.

Intuition: understanding relative positioning of pieces of an image requires some understanding of how images are composed.

Jigsaw puzzles

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Doersch et al. '16: Unsupervised Visual Representation Learning by Context Prediction

Quite finnicky: one needs to make sure the predictor cannot take any obvious "shortcuts".

Boundary texture continuity is a big clue: include gaps in tiles.

Long lines spanning tiles are a clue: jitter location of tiles.

Chromatic aberration (some cameras tend to focus different wavelengths at different position – e.g. green shifts towards center of image): randomly drop 2 of the 3 channels.

Predicting rotations

In principle, what we want is a task "hard enough", that any model that does well on it, should learn something "meaningful" about the task.

Gidaris et al. '18: Unsupervised representation learning via predicting image rotations

Task: predict one of 4 possible rotations of an image.

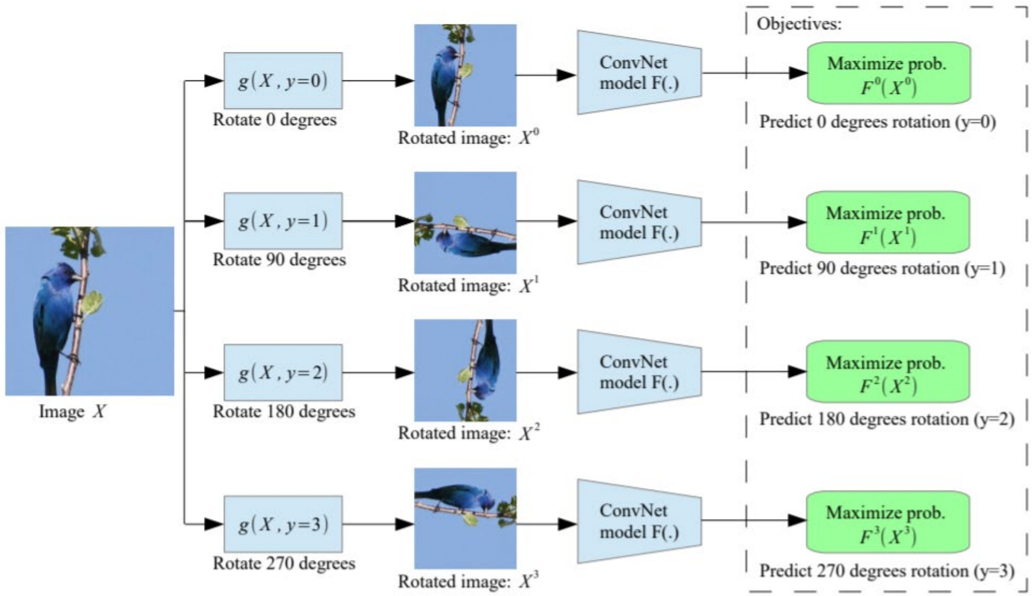

Figure 2: Illustration of the self-supervised task that we propose for semantic feature learning. Given four possible geometric transformations, the 0, 90, 180, and 270 degrees rotations, we train a ConvNet model $F(.)$ to recognize the rotation that is applied to the image that it gets as input. $F^y(X^{y^*})$ is the probability of rotation transformation y predicted by model $F(.)$ when it gets as input an image that has been transformed by the rotation transformation y^*.

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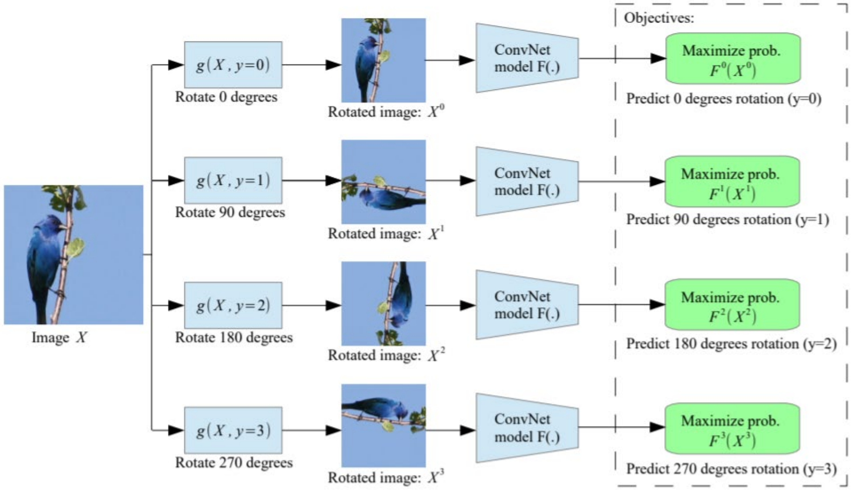

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Representation: penultimate layer of a neural net used to solve task.

Intuition: a rotation is a global transformation. ConvNets are much better at capturing local transformations (as convolutions are local), so there is no obvious way to "cheat".

Predicting rotations

In principle, what we want is a task "hard enough", that any model that does well on it, should learn something "meaningful" about the task.

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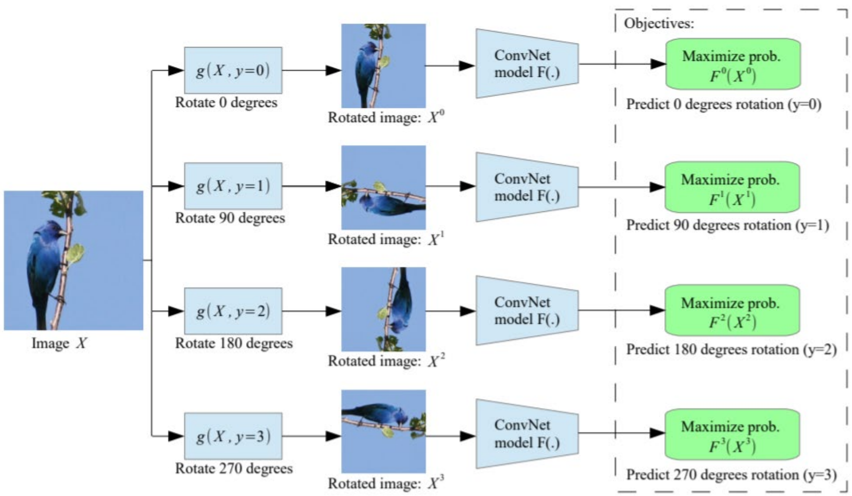

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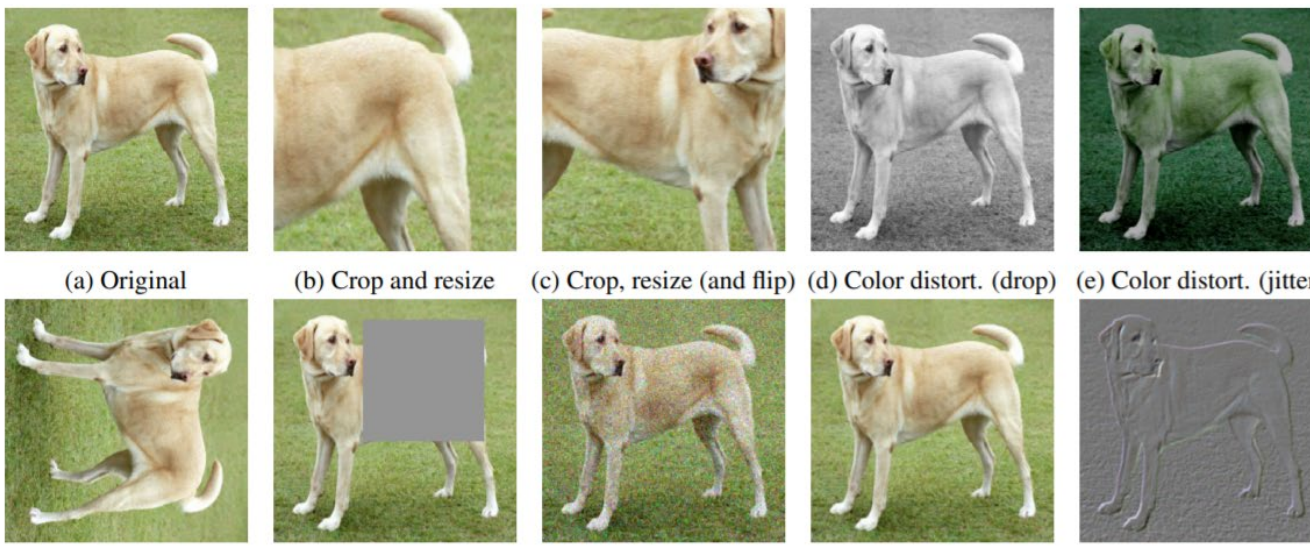
Less finicky to get right: no obvious artifacts the model can make use of to cheat.
The 90 deg. rotations also don't introduce any additional artifacts due to discretization.

Contrastive divergence

Another natural idea: if features are "semantically" relevant, a "distortion" of an image should produce similar features. Some instances of distortions:



(a) Original (b) Crop and resize (c) Crop, resize (and flip) (d) Color distort. (drop) (e) Color distort. (jitter)

(f) Rotate $\{90°, 180°, 270°\}$ (g) Cutout (h) Gaussian noise (i) Gaussian blur (j) Sobel filtering

Figure 4. Illustrations of the studied data augmentation operators. Each augmentation can transform data stochastically with some internal parameters (e.g. rotation degree, noise level). Note that we *only* test these operators in ablation, the *augmentation policy used to train our models* only includes *random crop (with flip and resize)*, *color distortion*, and *Gaussian blur*. (Original image cc-by: Von.grzanka)

Contrastive divergence

Another natural idea: if features are "semantically" relevant, a "distortion" of an image should produce similar features. Some instances of distortions:

Contrastive divergence framework:

For every training sample, produce multiple *augmented* samples by applying various transformations.

Train an encoder E (i.e. map that produces features) to predict whether two samples are augmentations of the same base sample.

A common way is to train E to make $\langle E(x), E(x')\rangle$ big if x, x' are two augmentations from same sample, small otherwise, e.g.

$$l_{x,x'} = -\log\left(\frac{\exp(\tau\langle E(x), E(x')\rangle}{\sum_{x,x'} \exp(\tau\langle E(x), E(x')\rangle)}\right)$$

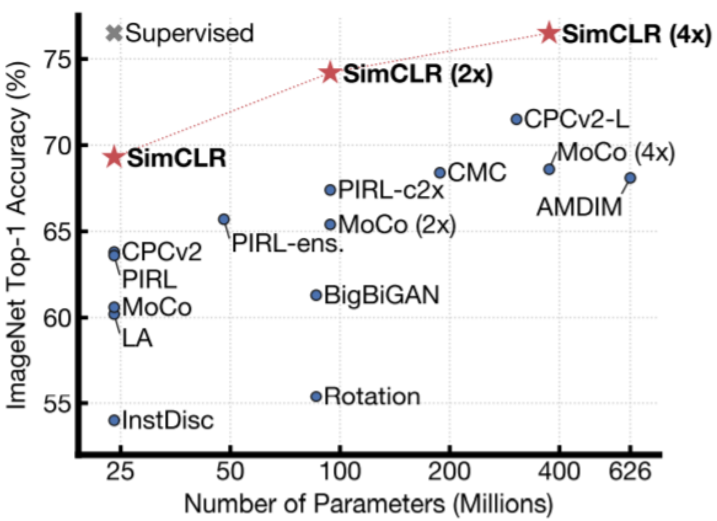
$$\min \sum_{x,x' \text{ augments of each other}} l_{x,x'}$$

Contrastive divergence

Another natural idea: if features are "semantically" relevant, a "distortion" of an image should produce similar features. Some instances of distortions:

Many works follow this framework, starting with Oord '18: Representation Learning with Contrastive Predictive Learning.

Current state of the art for self-supervised learning is in fact using this framework: *Chen, Kornblith, Norouizi, Hinton '20: A Simple Framework for Contrastive Learning of Visual Representations*



Several tricks needed to gain this improvement.

Most important one seems to be that augmentations that work best are compositions of a geometric one (e.g. crop/rotation/..) and an appearance one (color distortion/blur/..)

Troubling fact: architecture of classifier matters

Kolesnikov et al. ’19: Revisiting Self-Supervised Visual Representation Learning

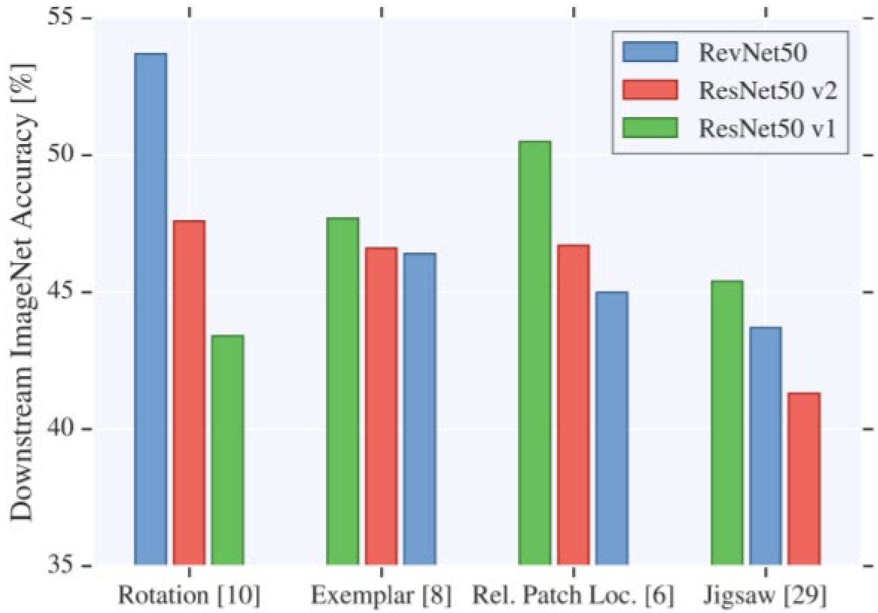


Figure 1. Quality of visual representations learned by various self-supervised learning techniques significantly depends on the convolutional neural network architecture that was used for solving the self-supervised learning task. In our paper we provide a large scale in-depth study in support of this observation and discuss its implications for evaluation of self-supervised models.

Troubling fact: architecture of classifier matters

Kolesnikov et al. '19: Revisiting Self-Supervised Visual Representation Learning

Table 1. Evaluation of representations from self-supervised techniques based on various CNN architectures. The scores are accuracies (in %) of a linear logistic regression model trained on top of these representations using *ImageNet* training split. Our validation split is used for computing accuracies. The architectures marked by a "(-)" are slight variations described in Section 3.1. Sub-columns such as 4× correspond to widening factors. Top-performing architectures in a column are bold; the best pretext task for each model is underlined.

Model	Rotation				Exemplar			RelPatchLoc		Jigsaw	
	4×	8×	12×	16×	4×	8×	12×	4×	8×	4×	8×
RevNet50	**47.3**	**50.4**	**53.1**	**53.7**	**42.4**	45.6	46.4	40.6	45.0	40.1	43.7
ResNet50 v2	43.8	47.5	47.2	47.6	**43.0**	45.7	46.6	42.2	46.7	38.4	41.3
ResNet50 v1	41.7	43.4	43.3	43.2	**42.8**	**46.9**	**47.7**	**46.8**	**50.5**	**42.2**	**45.4**
RevNet50 (-)	45.2	**51.0**	**52.8**	**53.7**	38.0	42.6	44.3	33.8	43.5	36.1	41.5
ResNet50 v2 (-)	38.6	44.5	47.3	48.2	33.7	36.7	38.2	38.6	43.4	32.5	34.4
VGG19-BN	16.8	14.6	16.6	22.7	26.4	28.3	29.0	28.5	29.4	19.8	21.1