Global Convergence and Geometry of Contrastive Learning through Temperature Annealing

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Abstract

Contrastive learning with the InfoNCE loss critically depends on the temperature parameter, yet its principled scheduling remains poorly understood, with many analyses leaving it fixed. We present a theory for asymptotic global convergence in InfoNCE with temperature annealing by casting each local InfoNCE term as a Gibbs free-energy on a compact Reimaniann manifold with embeddings modeled under Langevin dynamics. Under mild smoothness and energy-barrier assumptions, and a strong structural condition on the similarity gaps and energy barriers, we prove that key results from classical simulated annealing hold. In particular, under sufficiently slow logarithmic inverse temperature schedules, embeddings converge in probability to the global minimizers of the limiting contrastive potential; conversely, inverse temperature schedules that grow asymptotically faster than a critical rate risk being trapped in suboptimal minima. A further geometric analysis discusses how manifold compactness, thermally driven exploration, and the Hessian sharpening jointly enable escape from local basins. Small-scale empirical evaluation on CIFAR-10 with ResNet-18 verifies that slow annealing schedules can avoid the pitfalls of fixed temperatures. Our results offer a principled foundation for designing and tuning temperature schedules in modern contrastive representation learning.

1 Introduction

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Contrastive learning has emerged as a crucial paradigm in representation learning. A common formulation in this domain is the Information Noise-Contrastive Estimation (InfoNCE) loss, which encourages an anchor embedding z to be close to its positive embedding z^+ while repelling negative embeddings z^- [1, 2]. Central to these formulations is the temperature parameter τ (or, equivalently, the inverse temperature $\beta=1/\tau$), which modulates the sharpness of the similarity distribution.

For a given anchor z_i , its positive z_j , and negatives $\{z_k : k \neq i\}$, the InfoNCE loss is defined as

$$\ell_{i,j} = -\log \frac{\exp(\beta \sin(z_i, z_j))}{\sum_{k \neq i} \exp(\beta \sin(z_i, z_k))}$$
(1)

where $sim(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a similarity function (such as cosine similarity). The overall contrastive loss is then defined as an average over a set \mathcal{P} of positive pairs:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{P}|} \sum_{(i,j)\in\mathcal{P}} \ell_{i,j}.$$
 (2)

A key observation is that as $\tau \to 0$ (i.e., $\beta \to \infty$), the loss increasingly penalizes mismatches and thus enforces stronger separation. However, if the temperature τ is dropped too rapidly, the optimizer

may "freeze" in a suboptimal local minimum. This tradeoff is reminiscent of simulated annealing, where a carefully controlled temperature schedule is essential for both exploration in the early stages 31 and eventual convergence to a global minimum. Despite the empirical use of fixed or heuristically 32 decayed temperatures in many contrastive learning frameworks [3, 4] and some initial studies on 33 adaptive schedules [5, 6], a theoretical understanding of how and why tuning temperature guarantees 34 convergence to high-quality representations has been lacking. 35

In this work, we address this gap by recasting InfoNCE into a local Gibbs-like form to apply 36 arguments analogous to simulated annealing. We model the evolution of embeddings via a stochastic 37 differential equation (SDE) with an inverse temperature schedule $\beta(t)$. We prove that if $\beta(t)$ increases 38 sufficiently slowly (logarithmically, $\beta(t) = c \ln(t + K)$ with $c \le c^*$), the dynamics converge to 39 a global optimum; conversely, if $\beta(t)$ grows too quickly $(c > c^*)$, convergence can fail. Here, 40 $c^* = 1/\Delta E_{\rm max}$ is the critical schedule constant derived from the maximum energy barrier required 41 to escape local minima [7]. A strong assumption on the similarity gap structure Δs_{\min} relative to 42 the maximum energy barrier $\Delta E_{\rm max}$ is required by our current proof technique. We discuss this condition and its potential relaxation in the proof. We then relate this to a geometric interpretation involving Riemannian structures, clarifying how curvature evolves under annealing. Finally, we 45 perform small-scale empirical validation on CIFAR-10 with finite-time schedules for illustration.

Contributions. Our main contributions are: 47

- We formulate InfoNCE annealing as an SDE on a compact Reimannian manifold and connect it to simulated annealing theory.
- We prove that under a logarithmic schedule $\beta(t) = c \ln(t+K)$ with $c \le c^*$ (where c^* is the critical schedule constant) and a specific landscape condition ($\Delta s_{\min} > \Delta E_{\max}$), the SDE dynamics converge in probability to the global minimizers of the limiting potential (Theorem 3.1).
- We provide a matching non-convergence result (Proposition 3.1), showing that if $\beta(t)$ grows too quickly (i.e., with $c > c^*$), the dynamics can get stuck in sub-optimal basins.
- We provide a geometric analysis on the hypersphere product manifold $\mathcal{M} = (\mathbb{S}^{d-1})^N$, including deriving the InfoNCE Hessian (Appendix B), showing at least linear $O(\beta)$ sharpening of the landscape away from optima, which aids convergence.
- We empirically check our theoretical insights on CIFAR-10 with a ResNet-18 backbone, illustrating that the shape of the annealing schedule impacts convergence speed of the loss function.

1.1 Related Work

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Contrastive learning has been extensively explored both empirically and theoretically in recent years. 63 Built on the Noise-Contrastive Estimation principle [2], early instance-discrimination approaches [8] 64 paved the way for contemporary methods such as SimCLR [3], MoCo [9], and BYOL [10]. These 65 frameworks typically use a fixed temperature parameter, but recent works have begun to investigate adaptive schedules or even eliminate it. For instance, Kukleva et al. [5] propose temperature schedules specifically tailored to long-tail data distributions, showing improved performance on underrepresented classes. Qiu et al. [6] develop an automatic temperature individualization strategy, arguing that different semantic classes require different scales of separation. Kim and Kim [11] go a 70 step further by proposing a temperature-free loss, eliminating the need for explicit hyperparameter tuning altogether.

On the theoretical side, prior works have analyzed the properties and generalization aspects of 73 contrastive objectives under fixed temperature assumptions [12]. In contrast, our work studies the 74 role of a time-varying temperature schedule, drawing inspiration from classical simulated annealing 75 results [13, 7]. This connection is further underpinned by stochastic approximation theory [14] and 76 perspectives that view stochastic gradient descent (SGD) as approximate Bayesian inference [15] or, 77 more broadly, a form of Langevin dynamics. 78

Our analysis is also informed by recent advances in understanding the geometry of parameter spaces in 79 deep learning. In particular, the notion that the Hessian of a loss function induces a natural Riemannian metric, central to natural gradient methods [16], and the related literature on Wasserstein gradient

flows [17, 18] provide valuable insights into the dynamics of contrastive learning. Additionally, recent 82 work by Wang et al. [19] explores how augmentations interact with the loss landscape in contrastive 83 training and the importance of carefully controlling temperature as a parameter of sharpness. 84

In summary, while prior literature has touched upon aspects of contrastive learning, temperature 85 tuning, and the geometry of deep networks, our work integrates these themes to answer the question: 86 "when and why does temperature scheduling yield global (or near-global) optima in contrastive 87 learning?". By modeling the training dynamics via a time-varying inverse temperature schedule and 88 SDEs, we connect classical annealing theory with the modern practice of contrastive learning to 89 provide asymptotic global convergence guarantees. Moreover, we reveal the underlying geometric 90 structure governing the evolution of embeddings under temperature change, complementing ongoing 91 efforts to bridge the gap between theory and practice [20]. 92

Problem Setup 2 93

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In this section, we formalize the problem and establish the notation that will be used throughout the 94 paper. The goal is to motivate a reformulation of the InfoNCE loss as a local Gibbs distribution, 95 which naturally leads to an annealing approach. 96

2.1 Data Generating Process and Latent Space 97

To motivate our manifold-based approach, one can conceptualize an underlying latent variable model. 98 Let $Z \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be the latent space. In many practical scenarios, it is convenient to assume that the latent space is a (d-1)-dimensional hypersphere, i.e., $Z=\mathbb{S}^{d-1}$, as embeddings can easily be L2-normalized to provide compactness. Let $X\subset \mathbb{R}^D$ denote the observation space, and assume 99 100 101 there exists a generative mapping $g:Z\to X$ from the latent space to the observation space that 102 allows us to use representations to encode data points. Furthermore, assume that q is invertible (or 103 approximately invertible) to ensure that latent representations can be recovered. 104

Further assume that the ground-truth latent $z \in Z$ follows a distribution p(z) (often uniform on 105 \mathbb{S}^{d-1}). Positive pairs in contrastive learning are generated by applying data augmentations. In 106 computer vision, these could be cropping, zooming, or rotating, for example. We model the effect of 107 augmentations as perturbations in the latent space. Specifically, we assume that positive samples z^+ 108 are drawn from a conditional distribution 109

$$p(z^+|z) \propto \exp\left(-(z^+-z)^\top \Lambda(z^+-z)\right),$$

where Λ is a diagonal matrix capturing different concentration parameters for each latent dimension. This formulation conveys that perturbations are close together on the manifold, which is precisely the intuition behind the InfoNCE loss function. The use of Λ allows for anisotropy: some latent 112 dimensions may be perturbed more strongly than others. 113

2.2 Contrastive Loss as a Local Gibbs Free Energy

Local Gibbs perspective. Define an "energy" for each anchor-candidate pair (i, k) where $k \neq i$: $E_i(k) = -\sin(z_i, z_k).$

The local partition function for anchor i over its candidates is $Z_i(\beta) = \sum_{k \neq i} \exp(-\beta E_i(k))$, 116 117

yielding a probability distribution over candidates:
$$p_i(k \mid \beta) = \frac{\exp(-\beta E_i(k))}{Z_i(\beta)} = \frac{\exp(\beta \sin(z_i, z_k))}{\sum_{l \neq i} \exp(\beta \sin(z_i, z_l))}.$$

This is precisely a Gibbs-Boltzmann distribution. The InfoNCE loss term relates directly to the 118 probability of selecting the positive sample j, as $\exp[-\ell_{i,j}] = p_i(j \mid \beta)$. As $\beta \to \infty$, this distribution 119 concentrates sharply on the candidate(s) k^* maximizing similarity (minimizing energy) with z_i . 120

Free-energy form. The loss term can be expressed in a form analogous to the Helmholtz free 121 energy (F = E - TS). Specifically, the loss scaled by temperature $(T = 1/\beta)$ reveals this structure:

$$\frac{\ell_{i,j}}{\beta} = \underbrace{-\sin(z_i, z_j)}_{\text{Energy } E_i(j)} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{\beta} \log Z_i(\beta)}_{\text{Entropic/Log-Partition}}.$$

The first term minimizes energy by pulling the positive z_i closer, while the second term penalizes configurations where z_i is highly similar to many negatives.

Connection to Annealing. The overall contrastive objective $\mathcal{L}(Z,\beta) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{P}|} \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{P}} \ell_{i,j}$ is a sum 125 of local free energies. Note, the dynamics of training are driven by the gradient of \mathcal{L} , not the scaled 126 version \mathcal{L}/β . This local-free-energy view suggests training as a time-varying Gibbs sampler: growing $\beta = \beta(t)$ while injecting Langevin-like noise via small Gaussian perturbations to the gradient yields precisely the SDE of Section 3, allowing us to import classical simulated annealing convergence 129 130

2.3 Modeling Assumptions

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For our theoretical analysis, we impose several key assumptions regarding the similarity function, the 132 latent space structure, and the modeled training dynamics. The precise mathematical formulations 133 required for the convergence proofs are detailed in Appendix A.1 (Assumptions A1-A7). Here we 134 provide an overview: 135

- 1. Bounded Similarity: We assume sim(z, z') is bounded. For instance, if we use cosine similarity, we have $\sin(z,z') \in [-1,1]$. This boundedness guarantees that the exponential terms in the InfoNCE loss, $\exp(\beta \sin(z, z'))$, remain finite for all β , thereby ensuring that each local Gibbs distribution is well-defined.
- 2. **Embedding Manifold:** We assume the full state of N embeddings, $Z = (z_1, \ldots, z_N)$, lies on a general compact, connected Riemannian manifold M. This compactness is crucial for guaranteeing that energy barriers are finite. For our specific geometric analysis in Section 4 and to connect with common practice of ℓ_2 -normalization, we will consider the important special case where this manifold is the product of unit hyperspheres, $\mathcal{M} = (\mathbb{S}^{d-1})^N$ to explicitly discuss the geometry.
- 3. Smoothness: We further assume $sim(\cdot, \cdot)$ is sufficiently smooth (specifically C^2 , see Assumption A3) and is itself Lipschitz continuous. In other words, small changes in the embeddings lead to bounded changes in the similarity and its gradients. This property is crucial for applying gradient-based convergence analyses and controlling the log-sum-exp partition terms.
- 4. **Anisotropy in the Positive Conditional:** As discussed, we model augmentations via an anisotropic conditional distribution $p(z^+|z)$, parameterized by a diagonal matrix Λ with strictly positive entries. This ensures each latent dimension can be perturbed differently, aligning with the diversity of real-world augmentations (e.g. some dimensions may be more "sensitive" to transformations than others).
- 5. Langevin Dynamics: Training dynamics are modeled using Langevin dynamics to approximate the discrete-time process of training with mini-batch SGD or its variants. This perspective is a standard and powerful technique in theoretical machine learning. However, this modeling choice inherently abstracts away certain details of practical optimization, such as the precise covariance structure of mini-batch gradient noise (often anisotropic and data-dependent) compared to the assumed Brownian motion, as well as the specific update rules and momentum/adaptive aspects of optimizers like Adam [21].
- 6. Structural Landscape Condition: Our main convergence proof requires a technical condition on the structure of the loss landscape, relating the geometry of similarity scores to the energy barriers of the system. We formalize this via a minimum similarity gap, denoted Δs_{\min} , which assumes a minimum separation between the most similar negative example and the next-most similar one (see Assumption A7 for the precise definition).

These assumptions collectively enable us to recast the InfoNCE loss in a local Gibbs framework and apply classical simulated annealing arguments for global convergence. In practice, many are often 169 met or closely approximated via normalization techniques (for bounding norms), careful choice of 170 $sim(\cdot, \cdot)$, and standard data-augmentation pipelines.

Temperature Annealing and Convergence 172

Section 2 established that the InfoNCE objective $\mathcal{L}(Z,\beta)$ can be viewed as a sum of local free 173 174 energies, where the inverse temperature β controls the sharpness of the underlying local Gibbs distributions. This perspective naturally motivates using techniques from simulated annealing, where 175 β is increased over time, to guide the system towards a global minimum asymptotically. Our main 176 goal in this section is to formalize this connection and state the resulting convergence guarantees. We model the embedding evolution via continuous-time stochastic gradient flow and then present the key 178 theorems regarding convergence under specific annealing schedules.

3.1 Modeling the Stochastic Gradient Flow

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While practical training uses discrete updates, it is standard and conceptually simpler for theoretical 181 analysis to consider the continuous-time limit. We model the evolution of the full embedding state 182 $Z_t \in \mathcal{M}$ using the overdamped Langevin diffusion on the manifold \mathcal{M} (Assumption A2), driven 183 by the InfoNCE loss potential $\mathcal{L}(Z, \bar{\beta}(t))$ and subject to thermal noise scaled by the time-varying temperature $\beta(t) = 1/\tau(t)$: 185

$$dZ_t = -\operatorname{grad} \mathcal{L}(Z_t, \beta(t)) dt + \sqrt{2/\beta(t)} d\mathbf{W}_t^{\mathcal{M}}.$$
 (3)

Here, grad is the Riemannian gradient on \mathcal{M} and $\mathbf{W}_t^{\mathcal{M}}$ is standard Brownian motion on \mathcal{M} (Assumption A1). This SDE models the exploration-exploitation dynamics inherent in annealing.

Equilibrium at Fixed Temperature. Before considering time-varying $\beta(t)$, we recall the equilib-188 rium behavior for a fixed inverse temperature $\beta > 0$. As formally stated and proven in Appendix A.4, 189 under Assumptions A2 and A3, the SDE (3) with constant β admits a unique stationary Gibbs-190 Boltzmann distribution: 191

$$\pi_{\beta}(dZ) = \frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}_{\beta}} \exp[-\beta \mathcal{L}(Z,\beta)] d\mu(Z). \tag{4}$$

As $\beta \to \infty$, this distribution concentrates its mass on the global minimizers of the potential $\mathcal{L}(Z,\beta)$ 192 (or its limiting form $U_0(Z)$), as formally characterized in Appendix A.5. 193

Time-Varying Annealing Schedule. Simulated annealing leverages this concentration property by 194 slowly increasing $\beta(t)$. If $\beta(t)$ increases slowly enough, the system can escape local minima while 195 the temperature is high (β is small) and then "freeze" into the global minimum as the temperature drops $(\beta \to \infty)$. The critical question is how slowly $\beta(t)$ must increase.

3.2 Convergence Guarantees for Annealing Schedules

Classical simulated annealing theory provides precise conditions on the schedule $\beta(t)$ for guaranteed 199 convergence. Adapting these results to our specific time-inhomogeneous SDE (3) yields the following 200 key results. 201

Theorem 3.1 (Global Convergence for Logarithmic Annealing). Under Assumptions A1 through 202 A7 (detailed in Appendix A.1), let Z_t be the solution to the SDE (3). If the landscape satisfies 203 the structural condition $\Delta s_{\min} > \Delta E_{\max}$ (where $\Delta E_{\max} = 1/c^*$ is from Assumption A5), and the 204 schedule (Assumption A6) uses a coefficient c chosen such that $1/\Delta s_{\min} < c \le c^*$, then Z_t converges 205 in probability to the set U^* of global minimizers of $U_0(Z)$: for any $\epsilon > 0$, 206

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(Z_t \in \mathcal{N}(U^*, \epsilon)) = 1.$$

Here, $\mathcal{N}(U^*, \epsilon) = \{Z \in \mathcal{M} \mid \inf_{Y \in U^*} d(Z, Y) < \epsilon\}$ denotes an ϵ -neighborhood of the set U^* under the Riemannian metric $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ of the manifold \mathcal{M} . This theorem provides the central guarantee: a sufficiently slow logarithmic inverse temperature schedule ensures the SDE dynamics find the optimal configuration corresponding to perfect contrastive separation. Conversely, annealing inverse 210 temperature too quickly violates the conditions needed to guarantee escape from all local minima. Proposition 3.1 (Non-Convergence for Rapid Annealing). Let Assumptions A1 through A5 hold. If

the logarithmic annealing schedule $\beta(t)$ grows too quickly, specifically $\lim\inf_{t\to\infty}\frac{\beta(t)}{\ln t}=c'>c^*$,

then there exists a set of initial conditions with positive measure from which the process Z_t defined by the SDE (3) converges to a suboptimal local minimum basin of $U_0(Z)$ with positive probability. That is for any sufficiently small $\epsilon > 0$:

$$\limsup_{t\to\infty} \mathbb{P}\big(Z_t \notin \mathcal{N}(U^*,\epsilon)\big) > 0.$$

This result highlights the precarious choice of annealing rate; faster schedules risk premature convergence to suboptimal representations. The proofs in Appendix A detail how these results adapt classical annealing arguments [22, 7, 23] to handle the specific time-varying potential $\mathcal{L}(Z, \beta(t))$.

220 3.3 Connection to Discrete Optimization

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While our main theoretical results concern the continuous-time SDE (3), practical training uses discrete updates (e.g., SGD/Adam). A corresponding annealed SGD update can be formulated as:

$$Z_{k+1} = \Pi_{\mathcal{M}} \Big[Z_k - \eta_k \, \widehat{\nabla} \mathcal{L}(Z_k, \beta_k) + \sqrt{2 \, \eta_k / \beta_k} \, \xi_k \Big],$$

where η_k is the learning rate, $\beta_k = \beta(t_k)$ the discrete annealing schedule, and $\xi_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0,I)$. Classical stochastic approximation theory (e.g., [24, 25, 26]) provides conditions under which such discrete recursions track their limiting SDEs. These typically involve standard learning rate decay (e.g., $\sum_k \eta_k = \infty$, $\sum_k \eta_k^2 < \infty$), appropriate scaling of the injected noise (e.g., such that $\eta_k \beta_k \to 0$), and regularity of the gradient noise. Although a full adaptation for our specific manifold InfoNCE setting is beyond this paper's scope (see Section 6.1), these established results offer strong theoretical guidance for designing effective discrete annealing schedules that approximate the SDE dynamics analyzed herein.

4 Geometric Structure of Contrastive Embeddings

Having established the connection to simulated annealing and the convergence guarantees under the SDE model in Section 3, we now delve deeper into the geometric aspects of the process. Specifically, we examine how constraining embeddings to the hypersphere \mathbb{S}^{d-1} influences the dynamics and how the geometry interacts with the annealing schedule $\beta(t)$. This geometric perspective provides further intuition for why annealing helps escape local minima.

4.1 Spherical Geometry and Embedding Constraints

Having established our convergence results on a general compact Riemannian manifold, we now specialize our analysis to provide concrete geometric intuition. As outlined in Section 2.3, we focus on the important case where embeddings z_i are constrained to the unit hypersphere, $||z_i|| = 1$, so $z_i \in \mathbb{S}^{d-1}$. The full state space is thus the product manifold $\mathcal{M} = (\mathbb{S}^{d-1})^N$.

Manifold Properties. Equipped with the product Riemannian metric (derived from the standard round metric on each \mathbb{S}^{d-1} factor), \mathcal{M} possesses several crucial properties relevant to the dynamics and analysis. As a product of compact spaces, \mathcal{M} is compact. This guarantees that the loss function $\mathcal{L}(Z,\beta)$ and its limiting form $U_0(Z)$ attain their minima, that energy barriers between basins are finite, and that the SDE dynamics do not diverge to infinity. Furthermore, each \mathbb{S}^{d-1} factor has positive sectional curvature (+1). While the product manifold structure is more complex, this underlying curvature influences geodesic paths and the behavior of gradient flows. Finally, \mathcal{M} is geodesically complete, ensuring that gradient flows (the noiseless dynamics) are well-defined for all time. These geometric properties underpin the applicability of standard results for diffusions on compact manifolds used in our proofs.

4.2 InfoNCE Dynamics as a Riemannian System

We now consider the InfoNCE objective $\mathcal{L}(Z,\beta)$ as a potential function defined on the Riemannian manifold \mathcal{M} .

Riemannian Gradient and SDE. The driving force for the dynamics must respect the manifold constraint, meaning the drift vector must lie in the tangent space $T_Z\mathcal{M}$ at each point $Z \in \mathcal{M}$. This is achieved using the Riemannian gradient, grad \mathcal{L} , which is the orthogonal projection of the standard Euclidean gradient $\nabla \mathcal{L}$ onto the tangent space:

$$\operatorname{grad}_{z_i}\mathcal{L} \ = \ \Pi_{T_{z_i}\mathbb{S}^{d-1}}\big[\nabla_{z_i}\mathcal{L}(Z,\beta)\big] \quad \text{where} \quad \Pi_{T_{z_i}\mathbb{S}^{d-1}}(u) := u - \langle u, z_i \rangle z_i.$$

The SDE governing the annealing process (Assumption A1, Eq. (3)) uses this Riemannian gradient: $dZ_t = -\operatorname{grad} \mathcal{L}(Z_t, \beta(t)) dt + \sqrt{2/\beta(t)} d\mathbf{W}_t^{\mathcal{M}}.$

This ensures that the trajectory Z_t remains on the manifold \mathcal{M} throughout the annealing process.

Landscape Curvature and Sharpening. While $\mathcal{L}(Z,\beta)$ is generally non-convex, its local curvature plays a role in annealing. As shown by the Hessian calculation (Appendix B, Eq. (9)), the curvature around local minima increases as β grows. Specifically, away from the global optimum, the dominant term scales Hessian eigenvalues linearly with β , causing minima basins to become "sharper". This sharpening effect aids the annealing process: as $\beta(t)$ increases (temperature drops), the system is more strongly drawn towards minima, and once it finds the global minimum (facilitated by noise at higher temperatures), the increasing sharpness helps to "lock" it in place, making escape increasingly unlikely.

4.3 Geometric Interpretation of Annealing Escape

Theorem 3.1 guarantees convergence under slow cooling. From a geometric viewpoint on \mathcal{M} , this convergence arises from the interplay between the manifold structure, the noise, and the time-varying potential:

- Finite Geodesic Barriers: The compactness of \mathcal{M} ensures finite energy barriers (thus finite ΔE_{\max}) between local minima of the limiting potential $U_0(Z)$.
- Noise-Driven Exploration: At high temperatures (low $\beta(t)$), the diffusion term $\sqrt{2/\beta(t)} \, \mathrm{d} \mathbf{W}_t^{\mathcal{M}}$ is large, allowing the process Z_t to explore widely across the manifold \mathcal{M} and traverse these finite barriers, even if they correspond to "long" paths along the curved sphere surface.
- Slow Cooling Enables Escape: The logarithmic schedule (Assumption A6) ensures the noise term diminishes slowly enough $(\tau(t) \sim 1/\ln t)$ relative to the landscape's energy barriers, providing time for the diffusion to find paths connecting different basins and escape suboptimal minima before the noise becomes too weak (as formalized by Proposition 3.1).
- Landscape Sharpening: As discussed, the increasing curvature for large $\beta(t)$ helps the system settle definitively into the global minimum once found.

Therefore, the combination of manifold compactness, sufficient noise maintained by slow cooling, and landscape sharpening ensures that suboptimal minima can be escaped and the global optimum attained almost surely.

4.4 Comparison to Fixed Temperature Geometric Analysis

Prior works analyzing contrastive learning geometrically often assume a fixed temperature τ (e.g., [27]). While gradient flow on \mathbb{S}^{d-1} can still be considered, the fixed temperature creates a potential issue: if τ is too small (high β), the system might freeze in the first minimum it finds (poor exploration); if τ is too large (low β), the landscape might be too flat, leading to poor separation between positives and negatives even at equilibrium. The annealing approach, by effectively scanning through temperatures via increasing $\beta(t)$, dynamically adjusts the exploration-exploitation balance and avoids these fixed- τ pitfalls, robustly navigating the landscape towards the global optimum.

5 Empirical Validation

To validate our theory that an improperly chosen fixed temperature can drive the optimizer into suboptimal frozen minima, we conduct small-scale empirical validation comparing temperature annealing approaches against standard baselines on the CIFAR-10 dataset [28]. Our goal is to assess the finite-time performance of different schedule shapes within a practical training setup.

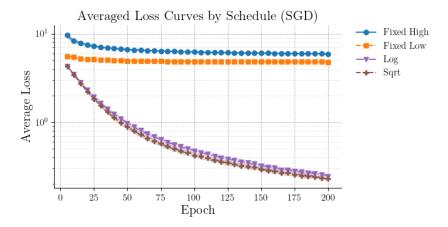


Figure 1: Average InfoNCE loss per epoch during pre-training on CIFAR-10. Curves show mean over 3 seeds.

5.1 Experimental Setup

We perform contrastive pre-training on CIFAR-10 using a ResNet-18 backbone [4] with a 2-layer MLP projection head (d=128, L2-normalized), employing SimCLR-style augmentations. We compare four inverse temperature schedules over T=200 epochs: fixed baselines fixed_low ($\beta=1.0$) and fixed_high ($\beta=1000000.0$), and annealing schedules log and sqrt interpolating between $\beta_{\rm low}=1.0$ and $\beta_{\rm high}=1000000.0$. For fair comparison over this finite horizon, bounded schedules allow assessment of the shape's impact within a practical range. To best mirror the theory, we use the SGD optimizer (lr 3×10^{-4}) with gradient clipping (norm 1.0) and batch size 128. Representation quality is measured by linear probe accuracy (logistic regression) on frozen backbone features. Results are averaged over seeds. Full experimental details, including schedule definitions, are provided in Appendix C.

The results comparing the final linear probe accuracy across different temperature schedules are presented in Table 1. The evolution of the average contrastive loss during pre-training is shown in Figure 1.

Table 1: CIFAR-10 Linear Probe Accuracy (%) after contrastive pretraining over 200 epochs (3 seeds, mean, min, max). Schedules anneal between $\beta_{\rm low}=1.0$ and $\beta_{\rm high}=1000000.0$.

Schedule	Mean Acc (%)	Min Acc (%)	Max Acc (%)
Fixed High	39.49	38.68	40.16
Fixed Low	37.02	36.46	37.27
Log	46.83	45.95	47.38
Sqrt	46.71	45.82	47.52

5.2 Discussion and Practical Guidelines

The results demonstrate two distinct failure modes for fixed-temperature schedules, as predicted. The fixed_low schedule plateaus early due to insufficient landscape sharpening leading to poor separation in the embedding space. The fixed_high schedule "freezes" almost immediately in a poor local minimum, leading to high final loss and poor accuracy.

In contrast, both the log and sqrt annealing schedules navigate the landscape better. By starting at a high temperature (low β) to enable exploration and gradually cooling (increasing β), they avoid the pitfalls of the fixed schedules and converge to a significantly better solution, achieving a 7-point accuracy improvement. This provides strong empirical evidence for the practical necessity of the annealing principle for non-adaptive optimizers, directly validating the core message of our theoretical analysis. While the log and sqrt shapes perform comparably in this finite setting, they can be clearly

superior to the fixed-temperature baselines in even smaller dataset like CIFAR-10; larger datasets will only have more complex loss landscapes.

However, annealing schedules offer potential benefits beyond marginal accuracy gains. They provide 328 a principled way to balance exploration and exploitation, avoiding potential optimization issues or 329 representation degradation sometimes associated with overly aggressive fixed high temperatures [3, 330 27] where setting τ too small causes all features to map to the same point, i.e., representation collapse. 331 The logarithmic schedule, in particular, is theoretically grounded and demonstrated competitive 332 performance in the finite setting. However, in practice, literature has noted that in most applications, 333 the logarithmic schedule is too slow and that a square root schedule empirically outperforms log-334 cooling: it drops temperature fast enough to converge in reasonable time yet remains slow enough to 335 escape poor local minima [29, 30] and may serve as an effective practical alternative to fixed high 336 inverse temperatures. 337

Finally, note that every schedule has a hyperparameter in terms of the c factor. Preliminary exploration of schedule sensitivity to annealing rate is presented in Appendix D. A further discussion of the interaction between momentum-based optimizers as annealing can be found in Appendix E.

41 6 Conclusion

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Our main theoretical contribution is the proof (Theorem 3.1) that a logarithmic annealing schedule, 342 $\beta(t) = c \ln(t + K)$ where c does not exceed the critical schedule constant c^* of the limiting loss 343 landscape, guarantees convergence in probability of the SDE dynamics to the globally optimal 344 representations U^* . This optimal state corresponds to configurations with maximal anchor-positive similarity. Furthermore, our geometric analysis clarified the mechanisms underlying convergence on 346 the compact manifold \mathcal{M} . We discussed how finite geodesic energy barriers, exploration driven by 347 thermal noise (scaled by $1/\beta(t)$), the landscape sharpening captured by the Hessian analysis ($O(\beta)$ 348 scaling, Appendix B), and the slow decay of noise under the logarithmic schedule collectively enable 349 the system to escape local minima and reach the global optimum. 350

Our empirical validation on CIFAR-10, though limited in scale, supported the theory by demonstrating the failure of fixed low temperatures and the robustness achieved by schedules that anneal towards a sufficiently high β .

354 6.1 Limitations and Future Research Directions

The work rests on assumptions such as exact Langevin dynamics (Assumption A1), hyperspherical embeddings (Assumption A2), and a uniform similarity gap (Assumption A7) that only approximately hold in practice. Furthermore, the structural condition $\Delta s_{\min} > \Delta E_{\max}$ required by our current proof technique is notably very strong. While we have outlined potential relaxations for this worst-case requirement in Appendix A.2, future work might also consider an average-case analysis, aiming for convergence to high-quality representations with high probability, which could still offer significant empirical benefits.

Moreover, our convergence results are inherently asymptotic, and finite-time behavior (e.g., rates of convergence as a function of dimension, dataset size, or the barrier constant c^*) remains largely unexplored. Empirically, our validation on CIFAR-10 with ResNet-18 and the SGD optimizer serves as an initial proof of concept; scaling to larger datasets and architectures, potentially with unbounded annealing schedules, would be necessary to fully assess the practical benefits in diverse settings.

Looking ahead, several research directions are promising. Bridging the gap between continuous-time theory and discrete-time training by deriving comparable finite-time convergence results for practical optimizers like SGD or Adam, when coupled with appropriate step-size and annealing schedules, would enhance the direct applicability of these findings. Developing methods for estimating or bounding the critical schedule constant c^* could inform more principled schedule design. Additionally, adaptive schemes that adjust the temperature τ in response to estimated curvature might offer faster practical convergence. Finally, extending this framework beyond the spherical manifold to other embedding geometries, such as hyperbolic spaces or Stiefel manifolds, or to alternative contrastive loss formulations, promises to disentangle the properties of InfoNCE from those of the manifold.

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484 A Proofs of Theoretical Results

485 A.1 Assumptions for Convergence Theorems

Assumption A1 (Langevin Dynamics Model). The evolution of the embedding vector $Z_t \in \mathcal{M}$ is modeled by the overdamped Langevin diffusion process on the manifold \mathcal{M} , governed by the SDE:

$$dZ_t = -\operatorname{grad} \mathcal{L}(Z_t, \beta(t)) dt + \sqrt{2/\beta(t)} d\mathbf{W}_t^{\mathcal{M}},$$
 (5)

- where grad is the Riemannian gradient on \mathcal{M} , $\mathcal{L}(Z,\beta)$ is the InfoNCE loss, $\beta(t)$ is the time-varying inverse temperature, and $\mathbf{W}_t^{\mathcal{M}}$ is standard Brownian motion on \mathcal{M} .
- 490 **Assumption A2** (Manifold). The embeddings $Z = (z_1, ..., z_N)$ are constrained to a compact, 491 connected, Riemannian manifold without boundary.
- Assumption A3 (Smoothness & Boundedness). The similarity function $\sin(z,z')$ is C^2 -smooth with respect to its arguments $z,z'\in\mathbb{S}^{d-1}$, and is bounded, i.e., $|\sin(z,z')|\leq S_{\max}<\infty$ for all z,z'. This ensures the InfoNCE loss $\mathcal{L}(Z,\beta)$ is C^2 -smooth on \mathcal{M} for finite β .
- Assumption A4 (Limiting Potential & Minima). The limiting potential function

$$U_0(Z) = \lim_{\beta \to \infty} \mathcal{L}(Z, \beta) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{P}|} \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{P}} \left[-\sin(z_i, z_j) + \max_{k \neq i} \sin(z_i, z_k) \right]$$

- exists, is C^1 -smooth on \mathcal{M} , and possesses a non-empty set $U^* \subset \mathcal{M}$ of global minimizers. Assume U_0 has a finite number of critical points on \mathcal{M} .
- Assumption A5 (Energy Barriers). Let c^* be the critical schedule constant determined by the energy barriers of the potential $U_0(Z)$ on the manifold \mathcal{M} . Specifically, $c^*=1/\Delta E_{\max}$ where ΔE_{\max} represents the maximum required "escape cost" for the diffusion process to reach U^* from any starting point (related to Hajek's constants or Freidlin-Wentzell theory in terms of the maximum energy to escape any local basins). Assume $0 < \Delta E_{\max} < \inf$ so that $0 < c^* < \infty$. (This is
- the solution A2 and A4).
- Assumption A6 (Annealing Schedule). The inverse temperature $\beta(t)$ is C^1 , non-decreasing for $t \ge t_0$, satisfies $\beta(t) \to \infty$ as $t \to \infty$, and follows a logarithmic-type schedule with $\beta(t) = c \ln(t+K)$ for some $t_0, K \ge 0$ and a constant $0 < c \le c^*$.
- Assumption A7 (Similarity Gaps Technical). For any $z_i \in \mathbb{S}^{d-1}$, assume there exists a minimum similarity gap $\Delta s_{\min} > 0$ such that if $s_{ik^*} = \max_{k \neq i} s_{ik}$, then $s_{ik^*} s_{ik} \geq \Delta s_{\min}$ for all $k \neq i, k^*$.
- 509 (This technical assumption simplifies the analysis of gradient convergence rate; see Remark after 510 Proof of Theorem 3.1).

511 A.2 Proof of Theorem 3.1 (Global Convergence)

Theorem (Global Convergence). Under Assumptions A1 through A7, let Z_t be the solution to the SDE (3). If the landscape satisfies the structural condition $\Delta s_{\min} > \Delta E_{\max}$ (where $\Delta E_{\max} = 1/c^*$ is from Assumption A5), and the schedule (Assumption A6) uses a coefficient c chosen such that $1/\Delta s_{\min} < c \le c^*$, then Z_t converges in probability to the set U^* of global minimizers of $U_0(Z)$, i.e., for any $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(Z_t \in \mathcal{N}(U^*, \epsilon)) = 1.$$

Proof. The proof adapts classical results for simulated annealing via diffusion processes on compact manifolds [22, 31], specifically relating the required annealing rate to energy barriers [7]. The key challenge is the time-dependence of the potential $\mathcal{L}(Z,\beta(t))$, making the underlying Markov process time-inhomogeneous. Our strategy is to show that this time-dependence vanishes quickly enough for standard asymptotic SA theory (applied to the limiting potential $U_0(Z)$) to hold.

Decomposition of Drift and Limiting Potential: The SDE (5) describes dynamics under the drift $-\operatorname{grad} \mathcal{L}(Z_t,\beta(t))$. Let $U_0(Z)$ be the limiting potential defined in Assumption A4. We can write the drift as $-\operatorname{grad} U_0(Z_t) - \delta \mathbf{F}(Z_t,t)$, where $\delta \mathbf{F}(Z,t) = \operatorname{grad} \mathcal{L}(Z,\beta(t)) - \operatorname{grad} U_0(Z)$. We aim to show that the process asymptotically behaves like annealing under the fixed potential $U_0(Z)$.

Convergence of the Gradient Perturbation δF : We analyze the convergence of grad $\mathcal{L}(Z,\beta)$ 526 to grad $U_0(Z)$ as $\beta \to \infty$. The difference arises from the expectation term $\mathbb{E}_{k \sim p_i(k|\beta)}[\nabla_{z_i} s_{ik}]$ 527 in the gradient of \mathcal{L} compared to the term $\nabla_{z_i}(\max_{k\neq i} s_{ik}) = \nabla_{z_i} s_{ik^*(i)}$ in the gradient of U_0 528 (using Assumption A7 for uniqueness of $k^*(i)$ and differentiability). The probability $p_{ik}(\beta) =$ $\exp(\beta s_{ik})/(\sum_{l} \exp(\beta s_{il}))$ concentrates exponentially fast on the maximizer $k^*(i)$ as $\beta \to \infty$: 530 $|p_{ik}(\beta) - \delta_{k,k^*(i)}| \leq Ne^{-\beta(s_{ik^*} - s_{ik})}$, where N is the number of negatives. Using Assumption 531 A7 $(s_{ik^*} - s_{ik} \ge \Delta s_{\min} \text{ for } k \ne k^*)$, we have $|p_{ik}(\beta) - \delta_{k,k^*(i)}| \le Ne^{-\beta \Delta s_{\min}}$. Let $G_{\max} = 1$ 532 $\sup_{Z\in\mathcal{M},i,k}\|\nabla_{z_i}s_{ik}\|<\infty$ (which exists by Assumption A3 on the compact manifold A2). Then, 533 for some constant C_1 : 534

$$\|\mathbb{E}_{k \sim p_i(k|\beta)} [\nabla_{z_i} s_{ik}] - \nabla_{z_i} s_{ik^*(i)}\| \le (N-1)(Ne^{-\beta \Delta s_{\min}}) G_{\max} = C_1 e^{-\beta \Delta s_{\min}}.$$

The norm of the overall gradient perturbation is bounded (for some constant C_2):

$$\|\delta \mathbf{F}(Z,\beta)\| = \|\operatorname{grad} \mathcal{L}(Z,\beta) - \operatorname{grad} U_0(Z)\| \le C_2 \beta e^{-\beta \Delta s_{\min}}$$

(The extra factor of β comes from the definition $\nabla \ell_i = \beta(\mathbb{E}[\nabla s_{ik}] - \nabla s_{ij})$). Substituting the annealing schedule $\beta(t) = c \ln(t+K)$ from Assumption A6 (where $0 < c \le c^*$):

$$\|\delta \mathbf{F}(Z_t, t)\| \le C_2 \beta(t) e^{-\beta(t)\Delta s_{\min}} \le C_3 \ln(t + K)(t + K)^{-c\Delta s_{\min}},$$

for some constant C_3 . Since c>0 and $\Delta s_{\min}>0$ (from Assumptions A6 and A7 respectively), this upper bound decays faster than any inverse polynomial t^{-p} (for $p< c\Delta s_{\min}$). The term $(t+K)^{-c\Delta s_{\min}}$ ensures that $\|\delta \mathbf{F}(Z_t,t)\|$ decays to 0 as $t\to\infty$, with the overall rate being superpolynomial if $c\Delta s_{\min}$ is sufficently large relative to the $\ln(t+K)$ factor. For the integrability condition (6) discussed next, the requirement is that $c\Delta s_{\min}>1$.

Application of Time-Inhomogeneous Simulated Annealing Results: For the dynamics of SDE (5) to be governed by the limiting potential $U_0(Z)$, convergence results in time-inhomogeneous simulated annealing (e.g., [23, 24]) typically require that the perturbation term $\delta \mathbf{F}(Z,t)$ diminishes sufficiently rapidly. A common strong sufficient condition is the integrability of its supremum norm:

$$\int_{t_0}^{\infty} \sup_{Z} \|\delta \mathbf{F}(Z, t)\| dt < \infty.$$
 (6)

From the decay bound $\|\delta \mathbf{F}(Z_t,t)\| \le C_3 \ln(t+K)(t+K)^{-c\Delta s_{\min}}$, this integral converges if and only if $c\Delta s_{\min} > 1$, or equivalently, $c > 1/\Delta s_{\min}$. Let this be Condition (I).

Independently, classical simulated annealing theory [7] for a fixed potential $U_0(Z)$ establishes that for an inverse temperature schedule $\beta(t) = c \ln(t+K)$, convergence to the global minimizers of $U_0(Z)$ occurs if and only if $c \le 1/\Delta E_{\rm max}$, where $\Delta E_{\rm max}$ is the maximum energy barrier of $U_0(Z)$. From Assumption A5, our critical schedule constant c^* is defined as $c^* = 1/\Delta E_{\rm max}$. Thus, the condition for convergence of the underlying SA process on $U_0(Z)$ is $c \le c^*$. This is Condition (II), and it is satisfied by Assumption A6.

Conclusion: For the SDE (5) to converge to the minimizers of $U_0(Z)$, our proof strategy requires both the perturbation $\delta \mathbf{F}$ to be negligible in the limit (Condition I: $c > 1/\Delta s_{\min}$) and the annealing 556 schedule for the limiting system $U_0(Z)$ to be sufficiently slow (Condition II: $c \leq c^*$, which is 557 $c \le 1/\Delta E_{\rm max}$). Therefore, under the stated assumptions, if a constant c exists such that 558

$$\frac{1}{\Delta s_{\min}} < c \le c^*$$
 (i.e., $\frac{1}{\Delta s_{\min}} < c \le \frac{1}{\Delta E_{\max}}$),

the SDE dynamics converge in probability to U^* . The existence of such a c requires $1/\Delta s_{\min} < c^*$, 559 which, by substituting $c^* = 1/\Delta E_{\text{max}}$ (from Assumption A5), implies $\Delta s_{\text{min}} > \Delta E_{\text{max}}$. This constitutes a strong technical condition relating the landscape's similarity gaps to its energy barriers, 561 necessary for this specific proof pathway. 562

Remark 1 (On the Structural Condition $\Delta s_{\min} > \Delta E_{\max}$). The proof of Theorem 3.1, as presented, 563 relies on satisfying both $c>1/\Delta s_{\min}$ (Condition I, for integrability of $\sup_{Z}\|\delta \mathbf{F}(Z,t)\|$) and 564 $c \le c^* (= 1/\Delta E_{\text{max}})$ (Condition II, for classical SA convergence on $U_0(Z)$). The theorem statement 565 explicitly includes the necessary prerequisite $\Delta s_{\min} > \Delta E_{\max}$ for such a value of c to exist. This 566 condition relates the minimum similarity gap (Assumption A7) to the maximum energy barrier of 567 $U_0(Z)$ (related to Assumption A5). 568

This is a strong technical assumption on the landscape, arising because our proof uses the common, strong requirement of absolute integrability for the norm of the perturbation gradient $\delta \mathbf{F}$ (cf. [23, 24]). It is plausible that this constraint could be relaxed. More advanced results in timeinhomogeneous simulated annealing might establish convergence under weaker conditions on the decay of $\|\delta \mathbf{F}(Z,t)\|$. For instance, some frameworks only require the perturbation to vanish uniformly, i.e., $\lim_{t\to\infty} \sup_{z} \|\delta \mathbf{F}(z,t)\| = 0$ (which holds in our case if $c\Delta s_{\min} > 0$, given Assumptions A6 and A7), or satisfy other relative decay rates, when the primary SA condition ($c < c^*$) is met (see e.g., general principles in Holley & Stroock [32], detailed analyses in Kushner & Yin [24], or Catoni [33] for trapping bounds under uniform perturbation decay). A detailed adaptation of such theorems is a promising direction for future work to potentially remove or weaken the $\Delta s_{\min} > \Delta E_{\max}$ 578 requirement.

Remark 2 (Relaxing A7). Assumption A7 provides a simple way to establish the superpolynomial decay of the gradient perturbation $\delta \mathbf{F}$. This assumption might be relaxed. Even without a uniform gap, under the smoothness condition A3, the convergence $\lim_{\beta\to\infty} \operatorname{grad} \mathcal{L}(Z,\beta) = \operatorname{grad} U_0(Z)$ still holds pointwise. Arguments based on uniform convergence or dominated convergence might establish that $\int_{t_0}^{\infty} \sup_{Z} \|\delta \mathbf{F}(Z,t)\| dt < \infty$ still holds, ensuring the validity of step 3 without requiring Assumption A7. However, Assumption A7 yields a more direct rate calculation.

A.3 Proof of Proposition 3.1 (Non-Convergence for Rapid Annealing)

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Proposition (Non-Convergence for Rapid Annealing). Let Assumptions A1 through A5 hold. If the logarithmic annealing schedule $\beta(t)$ grows too quickly, specifically $\liminf_{t\to\infty} \frac{\beta(t)}{\ln t} = c' > c^*$, then there exists a set of initial conditions with positive measure from which the process Z_t defined by the 588 SDE (3) converges to a suboptimal local minimum basin of $U_0(Z)$ with positive probability. That is *for any sufficiently small* $\epsilon > 0$:

$$\limsup_{t\to\infty} \mathbb{P}\big(Z_t \notin \mathcal{N}(U^*,\epsilon)\big) > 0.$$

Proof. The proof adapts classical arguments from simulated annealing theory, particularly the neces-592 sity of a sufficiently slow cooling rate for convergence [7], to the current diffusion setting. We show that if the inverse temperature schedule $\beta(t)$ increases asymptotically faster than the critical rate (i.e., temperature cools too quickly), the integral representing an upper bound on the expected number of 595 escapes over certain energy barriers converges. This implies trapping with positive probability via a 596 Borel-Cantelli argument [33]. 597

Critical Annealing Rate: Classical simulated annealing theory [7] establishes that for a schedule $\beta(t) \propto c \ln(t)$ for large t, convergence to the global minimizers U^* of $U_0(Z)$ is guaranteed only if $c \leq 1/\Delta E_{\max}$, where ΔE_{\max} is the maximum energy barrier of $U_0(Z)$. With $c^* = 1/\Delta E_{\max}$ (from Assumption A5), this means convergence requires the asymptotic rate coefficient of $\beta(t)/\ln t$ to be

no more than c^* . The condition assumed in this proposition, $\liminf_{t\to\infty}\frac{\beta(t)}{\ln t}=c'>c^*$, directly violates this necessary condition for guaranteed convergence, indicating that the system cools too 602 603 604

Escape Rates and Energy Barriers: Let U_{local} be a suboptimal local minimum of $U_0(Z)$. Let 605 ΔE_{trap} be the height of an energy barrier that must be overcome to escape the basin of U_{local} . 606 We will specifically consider $\Delta E_{trap} = \Delta E_{max}$, the largest such barrier relevant for reaching U^* 607 from any non-global state. The instantaneous escape rate from this basin across such a barrier 608 scales as $k(t) \propto \exp(-\beta(t)\Delta E_{trap})$ according to Arrhenius-type laws derived from large deviation 609 theory [34]. 610

Trapping under Rapid Annealing (Fast Cooling): The proposition assumes $\liminf_{t\to\infty}\frac{\beta(t)}{\ln t}=c'>c^*$. By definition of $c^*=1/\Delta E_{\max}$ (Assumption A5), this means $c'>1/\Delta E_{\max}$. Since $c'>1/\Delta E_{\max}$, we can choose a small $\epsilon_0>0$ such that the rate $c_{eff}:=c'-\epsilon_0$ satisfies $c_{eff}>0$ 612 $1/\Delta E_{\text{max}}$. By the definition of \liminf , there exists a time t_0 such that for all $t \geq t_0$:

$$\frac{\beta(t)}{\ln t} \ge c_{eff}.$$

Consider the barrier $\Delta E = \Delta E_{\text{max}}$. Then, for $t \geq t_0$:

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$$\beta(t)\Delta E_{\max} \ge c_{eff}\Delta E_{\max} \ln t.$$

Let $p_0 = c_{eff} \Delta E_{\rm max}$. Since $c_{eff} > 1/\Delta E_{\rm max}$ and $\Delta E_{\rm max} > 0$, we have $p_0 > 1$. The integral of an upper bound on the escape rate factor is then: 616 617

$$\int_{t_0}^{\infty} K_0 \exp(-\beta(t)\Delta E_{\max})dt \le K_0 \int_{t_0}^{\infty} \exp(-c_{eff}\Delta E_{\max} \ln t)dt = K_0 \int_{t_0}^{\infty} t^{-p_0}dt,$$

where K_0 is a constant related to the attempt frequency. Since $p_0 > 1$, this integral converges. 618

Trapping via Borel-Cantelli: The convergence of the integral $\int_{t_0}^{\infty} K_0 \exp(-\beta(t)\Delta E_{\max})dt$ pro-619 vides an upper bound on the expected number of escapes. To apply Borel-Cantelli, let time $t \geq t_0$ be 620 partitioned by a sequence $t_k \to \infty$ (e.g., $t_k = k$). Let E_k be the event that an escape over the barrier 621 ΔE_{\max} occurs within the time interval $[t_k, t_{k+1})$. The probability of such an escape can be bounded 622 by integrating the instantaneous rate: 623

$$\mathbb{P}[E_k] \le \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} K_0 \exp(-\beta(s)\Delta E_{\max}) ds \le K_0 \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} s^{-p_0} ds.$$

Since $p_0 > 1$, the sum $\sum_k \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} s^{-p_0} ds = \int_{t_0}^{\infty} s^{-p_0} ds < \infty$. Thus, $\sum_k \mathbb{P}[E_k] < \infty$. By the 624 Borel-Cantelli lemma, this implies that $\mathbb{P}(E_k \text{ i.o.}) = 0$, meaning that almost surely, only a finite 625 number of escapes over the barrier ΔE_{\max} (or any barrier ΔE_{trap} for which $c'\Delta E_{trap} > 1$) will 626 occur. Therefore, if the process Z_t is in a basin requiring an escape over such a barrier after the 627 (random) time of the last likely escape, it will remain trapped with positive probability. 628

Effect of Time-Varying Potential: The preceding argument for trapping is based on the limiting potential $U_0(Z)$. For this to hold for the SDE (5) driven by $\mathcal{L}(Z,\beta(t))$, the perturbation term 630 $\delta \mathbf{F}(Z,t) = \operatorname{grad} \mathcal{L}(Z,\beta(t)) - \operatorname{grad} U_0(Z)$ must not prevent trapping. As shown in the proof of 631 Theorem 3.1 (Section A.2), $\|\delta \mathbf{F}(Z_t,t)\| \leq C_3 \ln(t+K)(t+K)^{-c'\Delta s_{\min}}$ uniformly in Z. For 632 classical trapping arguments to apply robustly, results for time-inhomogeneous diffusions (e.g., Gidas, 633 1985 [23]; Kushner & Yin, 2003 [24]) require the influence of $\delta \mathbf{F}$ to be subdominant. A strong 634 condition ensuring this is the integrability of its norm, $\int_{t_0}^{\infty} \sup_{Z} \|\delta \mathbf{F}(Z,t)\| dt < \infty$, which holds if 635 $c'\Delta s_{\min} > 1$. If this condition is met, the system's dominant behavior is governed by annealing on 636 $U_0(Z)$ with the rapidly cooling schedule $\beta(t) \approx c' \ln t$. 637

Conclusion: If the annealing schedule coefficient c' in $\beta(t) \approx c' \ln t$ exceeds the critical schedule constant c^* (i.e., $\beta(t)$ grows too quickly, $c' > 1/\Delta E_{\rm max}$), then the integrated escape probability over critical energy barriers (such as $\Delta E_{\rm max}$) converges. Provided the perturbation $\delta {\bf F}$ due to the time-varying potential is sufficiently well-behaved (e.g., its norm is integrable, which occurs if $c'\Delta s_{\min}>1$), a Borel-Cantelli argument implies that trapping in suboptimal local minima of $U_0(Z)$ occurs with positive probability. Thus, Z_t may fail to converge in probability to the global minimum set U^* . 644

Remark 3 (Super-logarithmic schedules and Rapid Annealing). Proposition 3.1 shows that if the 645 coefficient c' in $\beta(t) \approx c' \ln t$ satisfies $c' > c^*$, the process may become trapped. This highlights that 646 an inverse temperature schedule growing asymptotically faster than the critical logarithmic rate leads 647 to issues. Indeed, schedules where $\beta(t)$ grows even faster than logarithmically (e.g., polynomially 648 like $\beta(t) \propto t^a$ for a > 0, or linearly $\beta(t) \propto t$) would also violate the convergence condition $c \leq c^*$ 649 established for logarithmic schedules in Theorem 3.1. Such aggressive increases in $\beta(t)$ (representing 650 very rapid cooling) quench thermal noise too quickly, preventing the necessary exploration to escape 651 local minima. Our convergence guarantees in Theorem 3.1 are specific to the logarithmic schedule 652 form in Assumption A6 where $\beta(t)$ grows sufficiently slowly. 653

654 A.4 Proof of Proposition 3.2 (Stationary Distribution at Fixed Temperature)

Proposition (Stationary Distribution at Fixed Temperature). For any fixed $\beta > 0$, let Assumptions A2 and A3 hold. Consider the time-homogeneous SDE corresponding to Eq. (5) with fixed β :

$$dZ_t = -\operatorname{grad} \mathcal{L}(Z,\beta) dt + \sqrt{2/\beta} d\mathbf{W}_t^{\mathcal{M}}.$$
 (7)

This process admits a unique stationary probability distribution $\pi_{\beta}(dZ)$ on \mathcal{M} , given by the Gibbs-Boltzmann distribution:

$$\pi_{\beta}(dZ) = \frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}_{\beta}} \exp(-\beta \mathcal{L}(Z, \beta)) d\mu(Z),$$

where $d\mu$ is the Riemannian volume measure on \mathcal{M} and $\mathcal{Z}_{\beta} = \int_{\mathcal{M}} \exp(-\beta \mathcal{L}(Z,\beta)) d\mu(Z)$ is the normalization constant (partition function).

Proof. The proof relies on standard results concerning the existence, uniqueness, and form of stationary distributions for non-degenerate diffusion processes on compact Riemannian manifolds [31, 35, 36].

Properties of the SDE and Manifold: The state space $\mathcal{M}=(\mathbb{S}^{d-1})^N$ is a compact, connected, smooth Riemannian manifold without boundary (Assumption A2). The drift term b(Z)= -grad $\mathcal{L}(Z,\beta)$ is smooth (C^1) due to Assumption A3. The diffusion tensor associated with $\sqrt{2/\beta}\,\mathrm{d}\mathbf{W}_t^{\mathcal{M}}$ is $D=(1/\beta)g^{-1}$, where g^{-1} is the inverse metric tensor. Since $\beta>0$ and the metric is positive definite, the diffusion is uniformly elliptic (non-degenerate).

Existence and Uniqueness of Stationary Distribution: Uniformly elliptic diffusion processes with smooth drift on compact, connected manifolds are known to be strong Feller and topologically irreducible [31]. By standard ergodic theory for Markov processes, a strong Feller, topologically irreducible diffusion on a compact manifold admits a unique invariant probability measure (stationary distribution) π_{β} . The process is ergodic with respect to π_{β} .

Identification of the Stationary Distribution: The SDE (7) is a form of Langevin dynamics on the manifold $\mathcal M$ with potential energy function $V(Z)=\mathcal L(Z,\beta)$ and constant temperature $T=1/\beta$. It is a well-established result that the unique stationary distribution for such dynamics, satisfying detailed balance, is the Gibbs-Boltzmann distribution [36, 35]:

$$\pi_{\beta}(dZ) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{V(Z)}{T}\right) d\mu(Z) = \exp\left(-\frac{\mathcal{L}(Z,\beta)}{1/\beta}\right) d\mu(Z) = \exp(-\beta \mathcal{L}(Z,\beta)) d\mu(Z).$$

The normalization constant $\mathcal{Z}_{\beta} = \int_{\mathcal{M}} \exp(-\beta \mathcal{L}(Z,\beta)) d\mu(Z)$ ensures $\int_{\mathcal{M}} \pi_{\beta}(dZ) = 1$. Finiteness of \mathcal{Z}_{β} is guaranteed because $\mathcal{L}(Z,\beta)$ is continuous (by Assumption A3) on the compact manifold \mathcal{M} (Assumption A2), hence bounded, making its exponential bounded and integrable over the finite volume of \mathcal{M} .

A.5 Proof of Proposition 3.3 (Characterization of Global Minima)

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Proposition (Characterization of Global Minima). Let $S_{\max} = \sup_{z,z' \in \mathbb{S}^{d-1}} \sin(z,z')$. Assume this supremum is attainable (which holds if \sin is continuous and \mathbb{S}^{d-1} is compact). Under Assumption A4, a configuration $Z^* \in \mathcal{M}$ belongs to the set U^* of global minimizers of the limiting potential $U_0(Z)$ if and only if for every positive pair $(i,j) \in \mathcal{P}$, the maximum possible similarity is achieved, i.e., $\sin(z_i^*, z_j^*) = S_{\max}$.

688 *Proof.* Recall the definition of the limiting potential from Assumption A4:

$$U_0(Z) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{P}|} \sum_{(i,j)\in\mathcal{P}} \underbrace{\left[-\sin(z_i, z_j) + \max_{k\neq i} \sin(z_i, z_k)\right]}_{T_{ij}(Z)}.$$

We seek configurations Z^* that minimize $U_0(Z)$. Since U_0 is an average, minimizing U_0 is equivalent to minimizing each term $T_{ij}(Z)$ simultaneously for all $(i,j) \in \mathcal{P}$, if possible.

Consider a single term $T_{ij}(Z)$. Let $S_{ij}=\sin(z_i,z_j)$ and $S_{ik}=\sin(z_i,z_k)$. We know $S_{ik}\leq S_{\max}$ for all i,k by definition of S_{\max} . The term $\max_{k\neq i}S_{ik}$ considers all similarities involving anchor z_i except potentially S_{ii} (if i could be a negative for itself, which is usually excluded). Importantly, the positive sample z_j is included among the candidates $k\neq i$. Therefore, $\max_{k\neq i}S_{ik}\geq S_{ij}$. This implies $T_{ij}(Z)=-S_{ij}+\max_{k\neq i}S_{ik}\geq -S_{ij}+S_{ij}=0$. So, each term $T_{ij}(Z)$ is non-negative.

The minimum possible value for $T_{ij}(Z)$ is 0. This minimum is achieved if and only if $-S_{ij}+\max_{k\neq i}S_{ik}=0$, which requires $\max_{k\neq i}S_{ik}=S_{ij}$. Since we also know $\max_{k\neq i}S_{ik}\leq S_{\max}$, achieving the minimum value of 0 requires $S_{ij}=S_{\max}$. If $S_{ij}=S_{\max}$, then automatically $\max_{k\neq i}S_{ik}$ must also be equal to S_{\max} (as it's bounded by S_{\max} but must be $\geq S_{ij}$). Thus, $T_{ij}(Z)$ achieves its minimum value of 0 if and only if $\sin(z_i,z_j)=S_{\max}$.

The overall potential $U_0(Z)$ is minimized when all terms $T_{ij}(Z)$ are simultaneously minimized, i.e., when $T_{ij}(Z^*)=0$ for all $(i,j)\in\mathcal{P}$. This occurs if and only if $\mathrm{sim}(z_i^*,z_j^*)=S_{\max}$ for all $(i,j)\in\mathcal{P}$. The minimum value of $U_0(Z)$ is therefore 0.

704 B Hessian of the InfoNCE Loss

We derive the Hessian matrix of the InfoNCE loss for a single anchor embedding z_i with respect to that anchor. This is similar to Ziyin et al. [37] but here the temperature parameter is left explicit. Let z_j be the positive sample and $\{z_k\}$ be the set of all samples available to anchor z_i (including z_j). Let $s_{ik} = \sin(z_i, z_k)$ denote the similarity function, and $\beta = 1/\tau$ be the inverse temperature.

The InfoNCE loss for anchor z_i is given by:

$$l_i(z_i) = -\log \frac{\exp(\beta s_{ij})}{\sum_k \exp(\beta s_{ik})}$$
$$= \log \left(\sum_k \exp(\beta s_{ik})\right) - \beta s_{ij}$$

Let $Z_i = \sum_k \exp(\beta s_{ik})$ be the partition function and $p_{ik} = \frac{\exp(\beta s_{ik})}{Z_i}$ be the softmax probability distribution over samples k induced by anchor i. The loss can be written as $l_i = \log Z_i - \beta s_{ij}$.

Let $\nabla = \nabla_{z_i}$ denote the gradient operator with respect to z_i . The gradient of the similarity is $\nabla s_{ik} = \frac{\partial \sin(z_i, z_k)}{\partial z_i}$.

714 The gradient of the loss is:

$$\nabla l_i = \nabla (\log Z_i) - \beta \nabla s_{ij}$$

$$= \frac{1}{Z_i} \nabla Z_i - \beta \nabla s_{ij}$$

$$= \frac{1}{Z_i} \sum_k \exp(\beta s_{ik}) \beta \nabla s_{ik} - \beta \nabla s_{ij}$$

$$= \beta \sum_k p_{ik} \nabla s_{ik} - \beta \nabla s_{ij}$$

$$= \beta (\mu_i - \nabla s_{ij})$$

where $\mu_i = \sum_k p_{ik} \nabla s_{ik} = \mathbb{E}_{k \sim p_i} [\nabla s_{ik}]$ is the expected similarity gradient under the distribution p_i .

The Hessian matrix $\mathbf{H} = \nabla (\nabla l_i)^T$ is obtained by differentiating the gradient:

$$\mathbf{H} = \nabla[\beta(\mu_i^T - (\nabla s_{ij})^T)] = \beta[\nabla \mu_i^T - \nabla(\nabla s_{ij})^T]$$
(8)

Let $\mathbf{H}_{ik} = \nabla(\nabla s_{ik})^T$ be the Hessian of the similarity function s_{ik} with respect to z_i . The second term is simply $-\beta \mathbf{H}_{ij}$. For the first term, we use the product rule and the gradient of the softmax probabilities $\nabla p_{ik} = \beta p_{ik} (\nabla s_{ik} - \mu_i)$:

$$\nabla \mu_i^T = \nabla \left(\sum_k p_{ik} (\nabla s_{ik})^T \right)$$

$$= \sum_k [(\nabla p_{ik}) (\nabla s_{ik})^T + p_{ik} \nabla (\nabla s_{ik})^T]$$

$$= \sum_k [\beta p_{ik} (\nabla s_{ik} - \mu_i) (\nabla s_{ik})^T + p_{ik} \mathbf{H}_{ik}]$$

$$= \beta \sum_k p_{ik} (\nabla s_{ik}) (\nabla s_{ik})^T - \beta \mu_i \sum_k p_{ik} (\nabla s_{ik})^T + \sum_k p_{ik} \mathbf{H}_{ik}$$

$$= \beta \left(\sum_k p_{ik} (\nabla s_{ik}) (\nabla s_{ik})^T - \mu_i \mu_i^T \right) + \sum_k p_{ik} \mathbf{H}_{ik}$$

$$= \beta \operatorname{Cov}_{k \sim p_i} [\nabla s_{ik}] + \mathbb{E}_{k \sim p_i} [\mathbf{H}_{ik}]$$

where $\operatorname{Cov}_{k \sim p_i}[\nabla s_{ik}]$ is the covariance matrix of the similarity gradients under p_i , and $\mathbb{E}_{k \sim p_i}[\mathbf{H}_{ik}]$ is the expected Hessian of the similarity function.

Substituting back into the expression for H:

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$$\mathbf{H} = \beta [(\beta \operatorname{Cov}_{k \sim p_i} [\nabla s_{ik}] + \mathbb{E}_{k \sim p_i} [\mathbf{H}_{ik}]) - \mathbf{H}_{ij}]$$

$$= \beta^2 \operatorname{Cov}_{k \sim p_i} [\nabla s_{ik}] + \beta (\mathbb{E}_{k \sim p_i} [\mathbf{H}_{ik}] - \mathbf{H}_{ij})$$
(9)

Equation (9) shows that the Hessian of the InfoNCE loss consists of two terms. The first term involves the covariance of the similarity gradients and scales quadratically with β . The second term involves the expected Hessian of the similarity function (minus the Hessian for the positive pair) and scales linearly with β .

Analyzing the asymptotic behavior as $\beta \to \infty$ requires considering the limiting behavior of the distribution p_i . As β increases, p_{ik} concentrates its mass on the sample(s) k^* maximizing the similarity s_{ik} . Consequently, the covariance term $\mathrm{Cov}_{k \sim p_i}[\nabla s_{ik}]$ vanishes because the expectation is taken over a distribution collapsing to one (or a few) points. Simultaneously, the expected Hessian $\mathbb{E}_{k \sim p_i}[\mathbf{H}_{ik}]$ converges to \mathbf{H}_{ik^*} .

Therefore, the asymptotic scaling of the Hessian depends on whether the positive sample j is the most similar sample k^* :

• If $k^* \neq j$ (i.e., a negative sample is most similar to the anchor z_i , indicating a suboptimal configuration), the second term dominates:

$$\mathbf{H} \approx \beta (\mathbf{H}_{ik^*} - \mathbf{H}_{ij})$$
 as $\beta \to \infty$ (if $k^* \neq j$)

In this regime, the Hessian norm scales linearly, $||\mathbf{H}|| \sim O(\beta)$. This implies that away from the optimum, the local minima sharpen linearly with β .

• If $k^*=j$ (i.e., the positive sample is the most similar, corresponding to configurations near an optimum where the gradient $\nabla l_i \approx 0$), the second term vanishes. The scaling is then determined by the $\beta^2 \text{Cov}[\cdot]$ term. While the covariance vanishes, a more detailed analysis of the rate at which it vanishes relative to β^2 would be needed to determine the precise scaling at the optimum. However, the dominant scaling away from the optimum is linear.

This linear sharpening $(O(\beta))$ of the loss landscape curvature as temperature decreases contributes to the convergence behavior observed during annealing, complementing the theoretical escape guarantees provided by the slow decay of noise.

C Experimental Setup Details

This appendix provides supplementary details for the empirical validation experiments presented in Section 5, conducted on the CIFAR-10 dataset. The code used to run these experiments as well as our generated results is available on our GitHub repository. ¹

751 C.1 Dataset and Augmentations

We use the standard CIFAR-10 dataset [28], which consists of 50,000 training images and 10,000 test images across 10 classes, each of size 32x32 pixels.

Contrastive Pre-training Augmentations: Following a SimCLR-style [3] approach adapted for CIFAR-10 resolution, we generate two distinct augmented views (v_1, v_2) from each input image x during pre-training using the following sequence of transformations from 'torchvision.transforms':

```
T.Compose([
757
        T.RandomCrop(32, padding=4),
        T.RandomHorizontalFlip(p=0.5),
759
        T.RandomApply([
760
            T.ColorJitter(brightness=0.8, contrast=0.8,
761
                            saturation=0.8, hue=0.2)
762
        ], p=0.8),
763
        T.RandomGrayscale(p=0.2),
764
765
        T.ToTensor(),
        T.Normalize(mean=[0.4914, 0.4822, 0.4465],
766
                        std=[0.2023, 0.1994, 0.2010])
767
   ])
768
```

The pair (v_1, v_2) constitutes a positive example for the InfoNCE loss.

Linear Probe Transforms: For evaluating the learned representations via linear probing, both the training set (used to train the linear classifier) and the test set (used for final accuracy evaluation) are processed using only basic normalization:

```
773 T.Compose([
774 T.ToTensor(),
775 T.Normalize(mean=[0.4914, 0.4822, 0.4465],
776 std=[0.2023, 0.1994, 0.2010])
777 ])
```

78 C.2 Model Architecture

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The model used for contrastive pre-training comprises a ResNet backbone and an MLP projection head:

- Backbone: A standard ResNet-18 architecture [4], implemented via torchvision.models.resnet18, initialized with random weights (weights=None). The final fully connected classification layer (fc) is replaced by an nn.Identity() layer. The output feature dimension from the backbone is 512.
- Projection Head: A 2-layer MLP maps the 512-dimensional backbone features to the final 128-dimensional embedding space. It consists of a linear layer (512 → 512), followed by a ReLU activation, and a final linear layer (512 → 128).
- Output Normalization: The 128-dimensional output vector from the projection head is L2-normalized to lie on the unit hypersphere S¹²⁷ before being used in the contrastive loss calculation.

 $^{^{}m l}$ https://anonymous.4open.science/r/contrastive-learning-temperature-schedules-E4D4

C.3 Training Hyperparameters

- 792 Contrastive pre-training was performed using the following settings:
- Optimizer: SGD.

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- Learning Rate: 3×10^{-4} .
- Weight Decay: 1×10^{-6} .
- **Batch Size:** B = 128.
- **Epochs:** T = 200.
- **Gradient Clipping:** Gradients were clipped to have a maximum L2 norm of 1.0 before the optimizer step using torch.nn.utils.clip_grad_norm_.
 - Loss Function: InfoNCE loss between paired views (Eq. 1, calculated using the stable implementation in the supplementary code).
- **Random Seeds:** Experiments were run with 3 different random seeds (3333, 3334, 3335). Results in the main paper report the mean and standard deviation across these seeds.

C.4 Temperature Annealing Schedules

- In our empirical validation (Section 5), we compare several fixed and annealing schedules for the inverse temperature $\beta(t)$, where $t \in \{0, 1, \dots, T-1\}$ is the training epoch index and T is the total number of epochs.
- All annealing schedules are designed to interpolate between a starting inverse temperature β_{low} and
- a target final inverse temperature $\beta_{
 m high}$. This approach, while deviating from purely asymptotic
- schedules, allows for a controlled comparison of different schedule shapes over a finite training
- 811 horizon commonly used in practice, ensuring numerical stability and a common target sharpness
- level. We use $\beta_{\rm low} = 1.0$ and $\beta_{\rm high} = 1000000.0$.
- For the annealing schedules (log, linear, sqrt), we introduce a common scaling hyperparameter
- 814 c_{factor} (referred to as 'c_factor' in the code configuration) which multiplies the change from β_{low} .
- That is, if $\beta_{\text{base}}(t)$ is the base interpolated value for a schedule (progressing from β_{low} to β_{high}),
- the actual beta used is $\beta(t) = \text{clip}(\beta_{\text{low}} + (\beta_{\text{base}}(t) \beta_{\text{low}}) \cdot c_{\text{factor}}, \beta_{\text{low}}, \beta_{\text{high}})$. Unless otherwise
- specified (e.g., in sensitivity analysis in Appendix D), we use $c_{\text{factor}} = 0.01$.
- 818 The specific schedules tested are:
 - fixed_low: Constant inverse temperature.

$$\beta(t) = \beta_{\text{low}} = 1.0$$

• fixed_high: Constant inverse temperature.

$$\beta(t) = \beta_{\text{high}} = 10000000.0$$

• log: Logarithmic increase based on the theoretical schedule, scaled to reach $\beta_{\rm high}$ at epoch T-1.

$$\begin{split} c &= \frac{\beta_{\text{high}} - \beta_{\text{low}}}{\log(T+1)} \quad (\text{for } T > 0) \\ \beta_{\text{base}}(t) &= \beta_{\text{low}} + c \cdot \log(t+2) \\ \beta(t) &= \text{clip}(\beta_{\text{low}} + (\beta_{\text{base}}(t) - \beta_{\text{low}}) \cdot c_{\text{factor}}, \;\; \beta_{\text{low}}, \;\; \beta_{\text{high}}) \end{split}$$

• linear: Linear increase in inverse temperature β .

$$\begin{split} & \operatorname{progress} = (t+1)/T \\ & \beta_{\operatorname{base}}(t) = \beta_{\operatorname{low}} + (\beta_{\operatorname{high}} - \beta_{\operatorname{low}}) \cdot \operatorname{progress} \\ & \beta(t) = \operatorname{clip}(\beta_{\operatorname{low}} + (\beta_{\operatorname{base}}(t) - \beta_{\operatorname{low}}) \cdot c_{\operatorname{factor}}, \ \beta_{\operatorname{low}}, \ \beta_{\operatorname{high}}) \end{split}$$

• sqrt: Increase in β proportional to the square root of time progress.

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{progress} = \sqrt{t+1}/\sqrt{T} \\ & \beta_{\text{base}}(t) = \beta_{\text{low}} + (\beta_{\text{high}} - \beta_{\text{low}}) \cdot \text{progress} \\ & \beta(t) = \text{clip}(\beta_{\text{low}} + (\beta_{\text{base}}(t) - \beta_{\text{low}}) \cdot c_{\text{factor}}, \ \beta_{\text{low}}, \ \beta_{\text{high}}) \end{aligned}$$

The use of bounded schedules allows a controlled comparison focused on the impact of the annealing shape over a finite, practical training for small-scale validation, rather than aiming to demonstrate asymptotic convergence which would require unbounded schedules.

828 C.5 Linear Probe Evaluation

After pre-training for 200 epochs, the ResNet-18 backbone weights are frozen. Features (512-dimensional) are extracted for all images in the CIFAR-10 training and test sets using the frozen backbone. A linear classifier is trained on the extracted training features and corresponding labels. We use sklearn.linear_model.LogisticRegression with its default parameters ('solver='liblinear', 'C=1.0', 'max_iter=1000'). The reported linear probe accuracy is the classification accuracy achieved by this trained classifier on the extracted test set features.

835 C.6 Software and Hardware

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Experiments were implemented using Python 3.11 and PyTorch 2.6.0 with CUDA 12.4. Training was performed on L4 GPUs accessed via Google Colaboratory with an average training time of 40 seconds per epoch, respectively. Exact figures are reported in the generated data.

D Preliminary Experiments on the Sensitivity to Annealing Rate

The theoretical annealing schedules ensuring convergence, such as $\beta(t) = c \ln(t+K)$ (Theorem 3.1), depend on two key parameters: an offset K and a rate constant c>0. The choice of the offset K (e.g., K=2 in $\ln(t+2)$ for 0-indexed time t) primarily ensures a positive starting β and has negligible impact on the asymptotic convergence properties.

However, the choice of the annealing rate constant c is more critical theoretically and practically. Classical simulated annealing theory relates the minimum required value of c to the maximum energy barrier ($\Delta E_{\rm max}$) that must be overcome to escape local minima [7]. Specifically, convergence is guaranteed if $c \leq 1/\Delta E_{\rm max}$. In the context of complex, high-dimensional loss landscapes encountered in representation learning, estimating these energy barriers is generally intractable, making the optimal theoretical choice of c unknown a priori.

Nevertheless, we can empirically investigate the sensitivity of finite-time performance to the relative rate of annealing. We reuse the common scaling hyperparameter c_{factor} which scales the progression from $\beta_{\text{low}} = 1.0$ towards $\beta_{\text{high}} = 100.0$ for the bounded log and linear schedules. We ran preliminary experiments on CIFAR-10 for a shorter duration of 100 epochs using a single seed (seed 1000) for different values of $c_{\text{factor}} \in \{0.5, 1.0, 2.0, 4.0\}$ and the Adam optimizer.

Table 2 shows the final linear probe accuracy, and Figure 2 shows the corresponding loss curves.

Table 2: CIFAR-10 probe accuracy (%) vs. scaling constant c for log and linear after contrastive pretraining over 100 epochs.

Schedule / c	0.5	1.0	2.0	4.0
Log	49.46	49.18	49.58	50.09
Linear	47.12	47.96	48.94	48.96

For both schedule shapes, using a small scaling factor ($c_{\rm factor}=0.5$), which corresponds to undercooling (reaching a final β lower than $\beta_{\rm high}$), generally yields slower loss reduction and lower accuracy compared to $c_{\rm factor}=1.0$. This aligns with the main finding that reaching a sufficiently high β is important. Increasing the rate ($c_{\rm factor}=2.0,4.0$) causes the schedules to reach $\beta_{\rm high}$ much earlier. For the log schedule, faster rates (c=2.0,4.0) resulted in slightly higher accuracy in this run, while for linear, performance seemed to plateau or slightly decrease at the fastest rate (c=4.0).

Overall, these results indicate relative robustness to the specific annealing rate within a reasonable range ($c_{\rm factor} \in [1.0, 4.0]$) for these bounded schedules over 100 epochs, although extreme undercooling (c=0.5) is detrimental. A default value like $c_{\rm factor}=1.0$ provides a sensible middle ground, ensuring the target $\beta_{\rm high}$ is reached while allowing sufficient time for exploration. While excessively high rates (very large $c_{\rm factor}$) could potentially lead to issues analogous to a fixed high β start (e.g.,

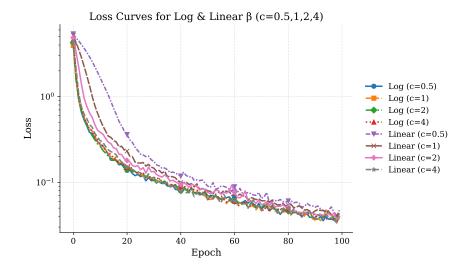


Figure 2: InfoNCE loss per epoch during pre-training on CIFAR-10 (single seed, 100 epochs) for log and linear schedules with varying rate scaling factors c_{factor} .

getting trapped or representation collapse), our tests did not show catastrophic failure for $c_{\rm factor}$ up to 4.0.

Ultimately, the precise optimal schedule rate, c^* , is tied to the height of the unknown energy barriers of the specific loss landscape. Further investigation with unbounded schedules over much longer training horizons would be needed to fully probe the asymptotic behavior and confirm the robustness conjecture for different schedule shapes and rates. This connection between landscape geometry (barrier heights) and optimal annealing rates remains an important direction for future research. Indeed, it could potentially inform adaptive temperature schemes by estimating this height retroactively.

E Interaction Between Momentum-Based Optimizers and Annealing

Momentum-based optimizers like Adam implicitly have mechanisms to traverse the loss landscape better, helping them escape from local minima. However, our main theoretical analysis and empirical validation focus on the overdamped Langevin SDE and its discrete-time analogue, vanilla SGD. To provide insight into the significant role of the optimizer, we present a direct comparison of performance on the fixed_low temperature schedule.

The setup was identical to the SGD experiments for the fixed_low schedule ($\beta = 1.0$) as described in Section 5 and Appendix C, with the sole exception being the use of the Adam optimizer (learning

The setup was identical to the SGD experiments for the fixed_low schedule ($\beta = 1.0$) as described in Section 5 and Appendix C, with the sole exception being the use of the Adam optimizer (learning rate 3×10^{-4} , $\beta_1 = 0.9$, $\beta_2 = 0.999$, weight decay 10^{-6}). The results are averaged over a different set of 3 random seeds (42, 42, 44).

E.1 Results and Discussion.

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The performance difference between the optimizers under the same challenging fixed_low schedule is substantial, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Comparison of final linear probe accuracy (%) on the fixed_low ($\beta = 1.0$) schedule using SGD versus Adam. Results are averaged over 3 seeds.

Optimizer	Mean Acc (%)	Min Acc (%)	Max Acc (%)
SGD	37.02	36.46	37.27
Adam	43.83	43.40	44.12

Even without any temperature annealing, simply switching from SGD to Adam yields a significant \approx 6.8-point accuracy improvement. This illustrates that momentum and adaptive learning rates provide their own powerful mechanisms for navigating and escaping the local minima of the InfoNCE landscape, especially in a low- β regime where the landscape is less sharp.

This finding helps contextualize our main theoretical results. While our work proves that annealing is a necessary principle for guaranteed global convergence in the foundational SGD-like setting, it also highlights that the choice of optimizer is a critical factor. A full theoretical treatment of annealing for momentum-based optimizers, likely requiring an analysis of underdamped Langevin SDEs, is a challenging but important direction for future research. Such an analysis could clarify whether momentum allows for faster annealing schedules or alters the fundamental escape dynamics.

NeurIPS Paper Checklist

1. Claims

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