On Variational Generalization Bounds for Unsupervised Visual Recognition

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Abstract

Recent advancements in generalization bounds have led to the development of tight information theoretic and data-dependent measures. Although generalization bounds reduce bias in estimates, they often suffer from tractability during empirical evaluation. The lack of a uniform criterion for estimation of Mutual Information (MI) and selection of divergence measures in conventional bounds hinders utility to sparse distributions. To that end, we revisit generalization through the lens of variational bounds. We identify hindrances based on bias, variance and learning dynamics which prevent accurate approximations of data distributions. Our empirical evaluation carried out on large-scale unsupervised visual recognition tasks highlights the necessity for variational bounds as generalization objectives for learning complex data distributions. Approximated estimates demonstrate low variance and improved convergence in comparison to conventional generalization bounds. Lastly, based on observed hindrances, we propose a theoretical alternative which aims to improve learning and tightness of variational generalization bounds. The proposed approach is motivated by contraction theory and yields a lower bound on MI.

1 Introduction

Generalization bounds provide tight measures which facilitate the learning of distributions under sparse data. The work of Russo et. al. [1] has led to drastic improvements [2, 3] in bounding generalization error with information theoretic metrics. The surge of information theoretic metrics [2, 4] has further motivated improvements in bias reduction for control measurements [**?**]. While generalization bounds tighten the dynamics of sparse learning, a tighter approximation often hurts the performance in the presence of out-of distribution samples [5]. In many such scenarios, it is difficult to empirically evaluate the performance of the bound [6]. Additionally, the abundance of divergence metrics does not provide a selection criterion for an optimal information theoretic entity [7, 8]. This allows one to rethink the feasibility of conventional bounds in practical scenarios.

Variational bounds [9] are a class of probabilistic bounds which depict increasing potential for learning [5, 10, 11]. A typical variational bound utilizes a tractable data distribution which can be approximated with limited data samples. This property of variational measures motivates data-efficient learning [12]. Tractibility of variational bounds for information maximization and minimization allows multiple objective functions to be realisable in a given problem setting [9]. Variational bounds can then be flexibly modeled as lower and upper bounding measures of information [9]. However, large-scale utilization of multi-sample variational bounds is an open problem for unsupervised learning tasks [9]. Data-efficient learning in conjunction with tractable compatibility to data distributions presents variational bounds as suitable candidates for learning objective functions.

We revisit the regime of generalization bounds from the perspective of information theoretic and variational distributions. The work highlights the suitability of variational bounds in comparison to

Preprint.

conventional generalization bounds which emphasize only on the bias in data estimates. Variational objectives tackle high bias as well as high variance estimates. Our main contributions are threefold-

- We revisit generalization in light of variational learning and identify hindrances which prevent accurate approximations of data distributions.
- We empirically demonstrate the suitability of variational generalization bounds on unsupervised visual recognition tasks wherein the data distribution is inherently challenging to approximate. Our evaluation highlights the necessity for variational generalization bounds.
- We conjecture a theoretical alternative which aims to address the hindrances discovered in learning variational generalization bounds. The proposed approach is motivated by contraction theory and yields a lower bound on MI.

2 Related Work

Variational Bounds: A number of methods [9, 5, 13, 11, 12] introduce variational bounds for information-based learning. MINE [5] presents the estimation of MI utilizing gradient descent for high-dimensional random variables. Suitability of MINE leads to improved adversarial generative models and supervised classification tasks. InfoMAX [13], extends the MI framework by simultaneously estimating and maximizing information between output representations and input prior distributions. InfoMAX scales well to unsupervised learning scenarios and sparse latent distributions. While, MINE and InfoMAX highlight the practical utility of information estimation, they do so at the cost of large data requirements from the input distribution. CPC [11] and CPCv2 [12] aid data-efficient learning by introducing the InfoNCE bound. The InfoNCE objective eliminates the need for explicit estimation of MI by providing a lower bound on MI. InfoNCE being a multi-sample bound [9], scales well in the number of data samples in-distribution. However, the objective is hindered by large batch sizes and is not tight for large values of MI. The recently proposed interpolation bounds [9] extend the InfoNCE setup towards a continuum of bounds which trade-off bias with variance. Additionally, the bound is tight for varying batch sizes. Our work is orthogonal to the proposed interpolation scheme and extends it to the generalization setup.

Generalization Bounds: The pivotal work of [1] provides a lower-bound on MI based on information-theoretic measures [14, 7]. The MI bound [15] is further improved as a result of tight lower bounds on MI minimizing the generalization error [2, 4]. Additional measures such as data-dependent estimates [3] and the specific choice of distributions [16] extend the application of lower bounds to stochastic learning dynamics [4, 17] and differential privacy [1**?**]. The bounds are further sharpened using conditional MI [18] in a sample-based framework [19] which extends the data-dependent scheme of [3]. A more suitable application is the setting of adaptive control [6] which is based on high stochasticity stemming from continuous measurements. The bound provided in [6] aims to address this problem with the introduction of $alpha$ divergence metrics [8] which serve as a lower bound on MI. While the bound is proven to be theoretically tight, its application and empirical evaluation remain an open problem in literature. We aim to leverage the theoretical contributions of [6] in order to provide a variational alternative which can be empirically realised.

Unsupervised Visual Recognition: One of the main applications of information-theoretic bounds is unsupervised learning for visual recognition tasks [10]. The information maximization framework [13] reduces local sparsity and motivates the learning of richer representations [11]. Multi-sample bounds such as InfoNCE in CPC [11] and CPCv2 [12] contrast augmented representations with actual input samples in order to maximize MI among local pixels. MOCO [20, 21] extends the setup of InfoNCE further with the pretext contrast as a dictionary-lookup task. InfoNCE bound is combined with a momentum encoder which maximizes MI as a slow moving average of input and augmented samples. SimCLR [22] builds on the MOCO framework by maximizing the internal agreement between representations. While unsupervised representation learning methods adopt lower bounds on MI, they do so at the cost of large batch sizes. Since the InfoNCE bound is lose at small batch sizes, large architectures lean towards pretraining alternatives [23] rather than improving lower bounds. The work of [10] adapts InfoNCE bound based on parameteric and non-parameteric learning of visual instance discrimination. The multi-sample classification is casted to a binary discrimination setup, hence providing improved generalization and consistent performance. Based on this insight, we adopt the instance discrimination setup of [10] for our experiments.

3 Preliminaries

We review the information-theoretic setup for generalization and variational bounds. Let X and Y be a pair of random variables denoting the input and output data distributions $p(x)$ and $p(y)$ respectively. The mutual information $I(X;Y)$ between X and Y is a reparameterization-invariant measure of dependency consisting of the joint distribution $p(x,y)$and can be mathematically expressed as follows,

$$I(X;Y) = \mathbb{E}_{p(x,y)}[\log \frac{p(x|y)}{p(x)}] = \mathbb{E}_{p(x,y)}[\log \frac{p(y|x)}{p(y)}] \tag{1}$$

Equation 1 can be further simplified by exapnding the expectation,

$$I(X;Y) = \sum_y p(x|y)p(y) \log \frac{p(x|y)}{p(x)} = \mathbb{E}_{p(y)}[D_{KL}(p(x|y)||p(x))] \tag{2}$$

D_{KL} in Equation 2 denotes the Kullback-Liebler (KL) Divergence [24] which is a divergence metric. D_{KL} belongs to the general class of $\phi-$divergence metrics $D_\phi(P(x)||Q(y))$ which quantify the similarity between any two data distributions $P(x)$ and $Q(y)$. The general form of a ϕ-divergence, with ϕ being a convex and lower semi-continuous function such that $\phi(1) = 0$, is expressed in Equation 3. Utilizing $\phi(t) = t \log t$ in Equation 3 yields $D_\phi(P(x)||Q(y)) = D_{KL}(P(x)||Q(y))$.

$$D_\phi(P(x)||Q(y)) = \sum_y Q(y)\phi(\frac{P(x)}{Q(y)}) \tag{3}$$

Generalization bounds make use of random variables with a cumulant-generation [25] function $\psi(\lambda) = \log \mathbb{E}[e^{\lambda x}]$ such that $\lambda \geq 0$. A random variable is called σ-sub-Gaussian if the argument of the log cumulant-generation function satisfies $\mathbb{E}[e^{\lambda x}] \leq e^{\frac{\lambda^2}{\sigma}^2}$ 2 for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ with σ^2 as the variance proxy or variance factor of the distribution.

4 When Do Bounds Hurt Learning?

The work of [9] throws light on the behavior of tractable distributions with high dimensional random variables. Based on the empirical characteristics of these bounds, one can identify the hindrances faced in generalization of the leanring algorithm (see Figure 1).

High Variance: Normalized upper and lower bounds aid in tractability of variational distributions when the data to be learned is long-tailed. However, these bounds demonstrate high variance as a result of large MI estimates. A suitable alternative to normalized bounds is to adopt the framework of structured bounds. These bounds leverage the structure of the problem and yield a known conditional distribution $p(y|x)$ which is tractable as per the problem setting. Structured bounds are conveniently applicable to representation learning [11, 9] but do not necessarily scale to high-dimensional scenarios. Another alternative which provisions a conitional tractable distribution are reparameterization bounds. These bounds make use of an additional functional, known as the *critic*, which converts lower bounds on MI into upper bounds on KL divergence. The critic functional need not explicitly learn the mapping between x and y. However, reparameterization is only made feasible if the conditional distribution $p(y|x)$ is tractable.

High Bias: Unnormalized upper and lower bounds demonstrate high bias and hurt tractability of complex distributions. Primary reasons for instability in bounds is lack of a partition functional which normalizes MI estimates. [9] argues that requirement of a partition function presents high bias as a result of exponential distributions which may not be tractable. However, the work does not provide empirical evidence on their tractability which leaves the suitability of a normalization constant an pen question. A suitable alternative to address biased estimates is the adoption of density ratios which train the critic functional using a divergence metric. The Jensen-Shanon Divergence (JSD) is one such scheme which yields a lower-biased estimate of optimal critic. While training critics is theoretically suitable, empirical evaluations [9] demonstrate unstable convergence of exponential gradients.

A Failure to Learn: Biased and noisy estimates are the key hindrances in learning tractable distributions. To that end, [9] aptly proposes a continuum of multi-sample interpolation bounds which trade-off bias with variance. A simpler form of critic when applied to non-linear interpolation in InfoNCE samples yields a continuum of lower bounds on MI. The new bound can be manually

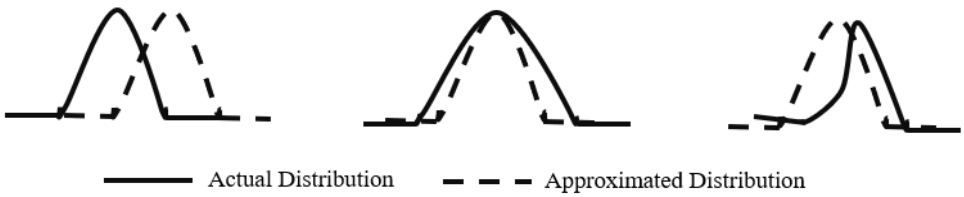

Figure 1: **Left** Conventional lose bounds suffer from high bias which hurts generalization of the learnt distribution, **Center** Learnt distribution is additionally hampered with noisy approximations, **Right** Biased estimates in conjunction with noisy dynamics hurt the completeness of learnt distribution.

tuned using γ which trades off bias with variance. Nonlinear interpolation bounds proposed in conjunction with MI saturate at $\log \frac{K}{\gamma}$ with K being the number of samples in the batch. Saturation of interpolation hurts the completeness of distribution and the bound fails to learn large MI estimates with inceasing batch sizes.

5 Variational Bounds for Generalization

This section provides insights into variational bounds as generelization measures of MI. Learning of variational bounds is discussed from the multi-sample and interpolation perspective. Nonlinear interpolation bounds give rise to the trade-off between bias and variance in estimates. Following generalization through this lens, we formulate an alternate approach with bias reduction as a contraction mapping. We extend our theoretical claims to previously discussed generalization bounds and discuss their formulations.

5.1 Learning Variational Bounds

InfoNCE: The InfoNCE objective is based on multi-sample unnormalized bounds. These bounds formulate multi-sample MI $I(X_1; Y)$ which is bounded by the optimal choice of critic $f(x, y)$. One such formulation is based on MINE [5] as presented in Equation 4.

$$I(X_1, Y) \geq 1 + \mathbb{E}_{p(x_{1:K})p(y|x_1)}[\log \frac{e^{f(x_1,y)}}{m(y; x_{1:K})}] - \mathbb{E}_{p(x_{1:K})p(y)}[\log \frac{e^{f(x_1,y)}}{m(y; x_{1:K})}] \tag{4}$$

Here $m(y; x_{1:K})$ is a Monte-Carlo estimate of the partition function $Z(y)$ and is mathematically expressed in Equation 5.

$$m(y; x_{1:K}) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} e^{f(x_k,y)} \tag{5}$$

One can recover the InfoNCE bound (I_{NCE}) upon averaging over all K replicates in the last term of Equation 4 which yields 1. I_{NCE} can then be expressed as a lower bound on MI in Equation 6.

$$I(X; Y) \geq \mathbb{E}[\frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \log \frac{e^{f(x_k,y_k)}}{\frac{1}{K} \sum_{j=1}^{K} e^{f(x_k,y_j)}}] \triangleq I_{NCE} \tag{6}$$

Nonlinear Interpolation: The multi-sample framework of MINE can be further extended using a simpler formulation. A nonlinear interpolation between MINE and I_{NCE} bridges the gap between low-bias and high-variance estimates of MINE with high-bias and low-variance estimates of I_{NCE}. The nonlinear interpolation bound (I_{IN}) is expressed in Equation 7.

$$I_{IN} \triangleq 1 + \mathbb{E}_{p(x_{1:K})p(y|x_1)}[\log \frac{e^{f(x_1,y)}}{\gamma m(y; x_{1:K}) + (1-\gamma) q(y)}] - \mathbb{E}_{p(x_{1:K})p(y)}[\log \frac{e^{f(x_1,y)}}{\gamma m(y; x_{1:K}) + (1-\gamma) q(y)}] \tag{7}$$

While I_{NCE} is upper bounded by $\log K$, I_{IN} is upper bounded by $\log \frac{K}{\gamma}$. The control in bias-variance trade-off improves accuracy of estimates. However, the significance of γ remains an open question in the case of higher-order divergence metrics and large value of MI in practical settings.

ϕ-divergence: Generalized divergence metrics facilitate tighter bounds by utilizing α-MI as the dependence measure. [6] presents a tight bound which is based on random variables with cumulant-generation functions. If $X_i - Y_i$ has a cumulant generation function $\leq \psi_i(\lambda)$ over domain $[0, b_i)$ where $0 \leq b_i \leq \infty$ and $\psi_i(\lambda)$ is convex and i denotes the iterates of the variables X and Y, one can define the expected cumulant-generation function $\bar{\psi}_i(\lambda)$ as in Equation 8 to obtain the bound expressed in Equation 9. Here, $\bar{\psi}^{*-1}$ denotes the inverse of the convex conjugate of $\bar{\psi}$.

$$\bar{\psi}(\lambda) = \mathbb{E}_i[\psi_i(\lambda)],\ \lambda \in [0, \min_i b_i) \tag{8}$$

$$\mathbb{E}[X_i - Y_i] \leq \bar{\psi}^{*-1}(I(X;Y)) \tag{9}$$

The bound of [6] generalizes the work of [1] as it is applicable to long-tailed distributions and variables which may not necessarily obey the sub-Gaussianity assumption. Based on Equation 9, [6] formulates the α-MI bound which improves the bound presented in [1]. Suppose $||X_i - Y_i||_\beta \leq \sigma_i$ where $1 \leq \beta \leq \infty$, if $\alpha \triangleq$ conjugate of β such that $\frac{1}{\alpha} + \frac{1}{\beta} = 1$, then the improved α-MI bound can be expressed as in Equation 10.

$$|\mathbb{E}[X_i - Y_i]| \leq ||\sigma||_\beta I_\alpha(X;Y)^\alpha \tag{10}$$

While the bound in Equation 10 is generalizable to variables with no moment-generating functions, its tightness remains an open question. [6] prove the tightness of Equation 10 using extreme value theory. The bound is tight for $n^{\frac{1}{\beta}}$ with n being the number of data samples. However, tightness holds under the condition that β is bounded such that $2 \leq \beta \leq \infty$. For large values of β, $n^{\frac{1}{\beta}}$ tends to diminish which renders the estimation of $I_\alpha(X;Y)$ intractable. Moreover, ϕ-divergences are originally defined as power functions over β while the bound makes use of an affine transformation. The alternate formulation may not hold in the more generalized-case. This poses a hindrance for α-MI bounds to be used as substitutes to pre-existing methods.

5.2 Improving Bounds on MI

The bound expressed in Equation 9 can be improved by using the multi-sample InfoNCE bound. This arises as a direct consequence of the fact that $I(X;Y) \geq I_{NCE}$. We formalize this finding in Proposition 1 and defer all proofs to Appendix.

Proposition 1. *If $X_i - Y_i$ has the expected cumulant-generation function $\bar{\psi}_i(\lambda)$ and the inverse of the convex conjugate of $\bar{\psi}$ denoted by $\bar{\psi}^{*-1}$ exists, then the improved bound utilizing I_{NCE} can be expressed as follows,*

$$\mathbb{E}[X_i - Y_i] \leq \bar{\psi}^{*-1}(I_{NCE}) \tag{11}$$

While Proposition 1 presents an improvement over the original bound, the expression makes use of I_{NCE} which demonstrates high bias and saturation at $logK$. This motivates the need for a bound which can retain the tightness of I_{NCE} and at the same time trade off bias with variance.

To address the improvement of generlization bound, we turn our attention to non-linear interpolation bound I_{IN} introduced in the previous section. Interpolation aids in the trade off between bias and variance and improves the bound's stability at larger batch sizes. More specifically, I_{IN} saturates at $\log \frac{K}{\gamma}$. However, the tightness of I_{IN} with respect to I_{NCE} cannot be validated as a result of nonlinear iterates during interpolation. For $\gamma \neq 1$, $I_{IN} \neq I_{NCE}$ which poses a hindrance in the comparison of I_{IN} to I_{NCE}. However, a lower bound on I_{IN} can yield a lower bound on I_{NCE} with high probability since $I_{IN} = I_{NCE}$ at $\gamma = 1$. Thus, obtaining a tractable lower bound on I_{IN} would further improve generlization and strengthen the claim of Proposition 1.

One can leverage contraction theory [26, 27] to highlight mathematical properties which would aid in extracting a tractable bound. Such a mapping guarantees convergence in asymptotically-stable nonlinear systems [27] and provides a dynamical framework for assessing stability of bounds [28]. A contraction mapping between any two functions $f_1(w)$ and $f_2(w)$ implies that the norm

distance between $f_1(w)$ and $f_2(w)$ decays at a constant (in some cases geometric [26]) rate. Given a contraction operator τ when iteratively applied on $f_1(w)$ and $f_2(w)$, the mapping $\tau f_1(w) - \tau f_2(w)$ is a contraction if the inequality in Equation 12 is satisfied.

$$\tau f_1(w) - \tau f_2(w) \leq ||f_1(w) - f_2(w)||, \ \forall w \tag{12}$$

Equation 12 is a generalization of the fixed-point theory in Banach metric spaces [27] which provides suitable conditions for assessing stability of nonlinear systems. The key component of evaluating a nonlinear system is motivated by its convergence towards a fixed point in the Banach metric space. Convergence towards a fixed point indicates stability of the overall mapping. We borrow from this insight in order to form a contraction on nonlinear interpolation bounds which can be interpreted as a continuum in a nonlinear space. Upon realizing input samples as points in this continuous nonlinear space, a simple yet elegant formulation of a contraction mapping can be achieved. To utilize a contraction mapping on I_{IN}, we seek a contraction operator $\mathcal{T}$ which is tractable. A suitable choice is the alternate Boltzmann (mellowmax) operator introduced in [29]. The Mellowmax operator $\mathcal{T} f(w) = \log \sum_w \exp f(w)$ which may be interpreted as an energy-based function. Retaining properties of the Boltzmann distribution, mellowmax is an asymptotically stable formulation of the Gibbs distribution. Mellowmax has been suitably adopted in control and learning settings [28, 30] wherein the probability distribution forms a continuum over the input space. Additionally, the exponent in $\mathcal{T}$ is tractable as it is followed by the $\log$ which prevents the arguments from exploding. Proposition 2 depicts the contraction property of $\mathcal{T}$.

Proposition 2. *Given a function $f(w) : w \to \mathbb{R}$, the operator $\mathcal{T} f(w) = \log \sum_w \exp f(w)$ forms a contraction on $f(w)$.*

We leverage the result of Proposition 2 to obtain a tractable lower bound on I_{IN}. This requires summing over interpolating samples $1 : K$ of the distribution. The novel bound I_N obtained by operating $\mathcal{T}$ on interpolation terms is expressed in Proposition 3. Note that the sum in the first interpolation term requires computation of the inner expectation which now depends on the distribution conditioned on each iterate. This facilitates tractability since the estimates obtained as a result of individual conditioning would be accurate in comparison to estimates based on a single sample.

Proposition 3. *If the operator $\mathcal{T} f(w) = \log \sum_w \exp f(w)$ is a contraction mapping $\forall w$, then the nonlinear interpolation bound I_{IN} can be further simplified as expressed in Equation 13.*

$$I_{IN} \geq I_N \triangleq 1 + \log \sum_{i=1}^{K} \exp \mathbb{E}_{p(x_{1:K})p(y|x_i)}[\log \frac{e^{f(x_i,y)}}{\gamma m(y; x_{1:K}) + (1-\gamma) q(y)}]$$
$$\log \sum_{i=1}^{K} \exp \mathbb{E}_{p(x_{1:K})p(y)}[\log \frac{e^{f(x_i,y)}}{\gamma m(y; x_{1:K}) + (1-\gamma) q(y)}] \tag{13}$$

Equation 13 is a lower bound on I_{IN} which indicates that the novel bound I_N is also a lower bound on I_{NCE} with high probability since $I_{IN} = I_{NCE}$ at $\gamma = 1$. Thus, one can safely make the following claim,

$$I(X;Y) \geq I_{NCE} \geq I_N \tag{14}$$

Equation 14 can be further used to validate the suitability of the novel bound I_N as a replacement to I_{NCE} in Proposition 1. This leads us to formulate the new generalization bound presented in 4.

Proposition 4. *Since $I_{NCE} \geq I_N$ with high probability, the generalization bound in Proposition 1 can be simplified as follows,*

$$\mathbb{E}[X_i - Y_i] \leq \bar{\psi}^{*-1}(I_N) \leq \bar{\psi}^{*-1}(I_{NCE}) \tag{15}$$

Proposition 3 and Proposition 4 obtained as a result of Equation 12 highlight the main finding of our work. Theoretically, I_N retains the properties of I_{IN} and would depict convergence analogous to I_{IN} in settings with large batch sizes. Additionally, the bias-variance trade off arising as a virtue of nonlinear interpolation presents I_N as a suitable replacement to I_{NCE} in Proposition 1. On the other hand, an empirical comparison of stability between I_{NCE} and I_N may be difficult observe. This arises as a direct consequence of interpolation combined with dimensional contraction which may lead I_N to collapse for some iterates. Although theoretical in nature, our findings motivate empirical validation and application of the proposed bound.

6 Experiments

Our experiments to evaluate the suitability of variational bounds in the generalization setup. More specfically, we aim to answer the following two questions; (1) Which variational bounds are suitable for generalization settings? and (2) How do these bounds scale to large number of samples in data distribution?

6.1 Setup

Our experiments consist of unsupervised instant discrimination tasks [10] which involve the recognition of images based on MI. The setup consists of three standard benchmarks; MNIST, FashionMNIST and CIFAR10, and two large-scale datasets; EMNIST (Letters) and CIFAR100. In order to study the effect of deep architectures we employ ResNET-18 and ResNet-34 modules. The comparison consists of 4 different MI objectives with InfoNCE (as expressed in I_{NCE}) and Donsker-Vardhan (DV) loss (based on [13]) as conventional objectives and Jensen-Shannon Divergence (JSD) and Reverse KL (RKL) as ϕ-divergence measures. Each objective maximizes similarity between logits and feature representations. The fully-supervised Cross-Entropy (CE) is additionally considered as a baseline. Objectives on the standard benchmarks are trained and evaluated for 200 epochs while large-scale datasets make use of 600 epochs. We direct the curious reader to Appendix for experiment details and hyperparameters.

6.2 Unsupervised Instant Discrimination

Architecture	Datasets	CE		JSD		DV		InfoNCE		RKL	
		Gen. Error	Top1 Acc.	Gen. Error	Top1 Acc.	Gen. Error	Top1 Acc.	Gen. Error	Top1 Acc.	Gen. Error	Top1 Acc.
ResNet-18	MNIST	0.02	95.55	0.08	92.04	6.27	32.16	0.13	**92.34**	**0.06**	90.86
	FashionMNIST	0.11	95.13	**0.06**	**92.41**	3.64	29.44	0.11	92.24	**0.06**	92.25
	EMNIST	0.15	81.02	0.04	80.40	-	31.57	0.07	**81.13**	**0.03**	80.65
	CIFAR10	0.10	80.57	**0.04**	71.18	1.17	31.29	0.07	70.09	0.05	71.36
	CIFAR100	0.17	52.02	**0.05**	40.59	1.67	10.06	0.13	**41.24**	0.08	39.28
ResNet-34	MNIST	0.12	96.59	0.05	92.82	2.85	24.40	**0.04**	**93.10**	0.06	92.97
	FashionMNIST	0.09	96.37	**0.04**	93.32	9.10	28.96	0.13	93.08	0.08	**93.47**
	EMNIST	0.09	83.43	**0.03**	80.66	-	16.97	0.07	**83.16**	0.04	83.10
	CIFAR10	0.13	81.81	**0.04**	71.65	1.23	27.24	0.08	71.87	0.06	**72.42**
	CIFAR100	0.13	52.45	0.08	37.92	1.89	7.41	0.15	39.75	**0.07**	**42.04**

Table 1: Summary of results based on Generalization Error (Gen. Error) and Top1 Accuracy (Acc) for all objectives on standard and large-scale benchmarks using ResNet-18 and ResNet-34 models. Highlighted entries depict best performing objectives in the unsupervised setting. ϕ-divergence measures such as JSD and RKL depict improved generalization and performance comparable to conventional MI-based InfoNCE and fully-supervised CE. The DV objective on the other hand, demonstrates instability as a result of exponential estimates. For complete results on bias and variance refer to Appendix.

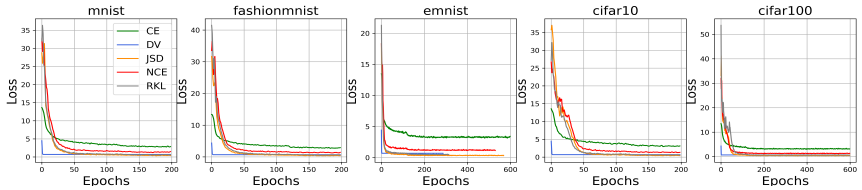

Figure 2: Validation Loss for variational objectives on standard and large-scale benchmarks for the ResNet-18 model. ϕ-divergence measures demonstrate improved stability and generalization in comparison to conventional InfoNCE and fully-supervised CE which depict high bias. Conventional DV, on the other hand, presents high variance and unstable convergence as a result of exponential estimates of the partition function.

Table 1 presents the summary of results obtained from our empirical study of objectives. We compare generalization and performance of objectives based on Generalization Error (Gen. Error) and Top1 Classification Accuracy (Acc.) on standard and large-scale benchmarks using ResNet-18 and ResNet-34 models. Empirical evaluation of objectives depicts improved generalization of ϕ-divergence based objectives in comparison to conventional InfoNCE and the fully-supervised setting of CE. JSD is

found to be stable and best minimized the generalization error on 6 out of the 10 scenarios. RKL, on the other hand, yields competitive generalization and stability in comparison to JSD. InfoNCE demonstrates high bias among MI-based objectives. This is found to be consistent with the claims of [9] which highlight the necessity for accurate multi-sample objectives. DV objective depicts instability in convergence arising from high bias and variance in its estimates. The claims of [9] and [13] support this empirical result. Large values of exponential estimates in conjunction with the requirement of a partition function pose hindrance to generalization. This hampers the utility of DV as an unsupervised learning objective.

One can compare the suitability of variational objectives across different architectures in order to best evaluate performance. JSD depicts consistent performance across ResNet-18 and ResNet-34 architectures. Additionally, JSD scales well to large-scale datasets and maintains a minimum generalization error. RKL, on the other hand, demonstrates suitable for ResNet-18 but falls short of optimum generalization on the deeper ResNet-34 model. Surprisingly, RKL depicts accurate recognition performance at test time which is indicative of its potential as an unsupervised objective. While JSD and RKL generalize well, they present high bias in their estimates. This is indicative of a moderately accurate performance at execution time. InfoNCE, on the other hand, depicts low variance in its estimates which results in the most accurate performance in the unsupervised setting. Additionally, the performance of InfoNCE is matched for shallow as well as deeper architectures. However, saturation of I_{NCE} at large batch sizes and samples leads to a lose bound. This is indicative of its performance on large-scale datasets which consist of a larger number of negative samples and classes. The claim is further strengthened in [9] wherein MI estimates may take large values and lead to sub-optimal convrgence.

To better understand convergence and tightness of variational bounds, once can gain visual insights into their behavior during learning. Figure 2 presents comparison of validation loss during training for all objectives on standard and large-scale benchmarks utilizing the ResNet-18 architecture. Insights obtained from Figure 2 validate our claims on generalization drawn from Table 1. Unsupervised variational objectives demonstrate improved generalization as a result of minimimum validation error in comparison to the fully-supervised CE objective. Moreover, consistency of these objectives across all datasets validates stability in convergence. Out of unsupervised objectives, JSD and RKL demonstrate equivalent errors with JSD slightly outperforming the latter. Suitability of JSD on standard and large-scale datasets further validates its robustness to large sample sizes. This is not found consistent in InfoNCE which depicts slightly higher errors and delayed convergence on EMNIST and CIFAR100 datasets. Furthermore, instability of DV bound is validated as a result of no loss signal in the gradient. We direct the reader to Appendix for complete results.

7 Discussion

Generalization bounds present significant promise for yielding accurate learning algorithms. However, these bounds are often held intractable during empirical evaluation. To this end, we have revisited the generalization from the perspective of variational bounds of MI. Firstly, we identified failure modes which hinder a bound to learn data as a result of bias and variance in estimates. Based on these estimates, we formulate a theoretical alternative which is based on contraction theory and nonlinear interpolation bounds. The novel I_N bound is a lower bound on nonlinear interpolation bound I_{IN}, and hence the InfoNCE bound I_{NCE} with high probability. We then carry out empirical evaluations of variational bounds under the generalization setup in order to identify potential generalization candidates. Our study highlights the suitability of phi-divergences in α-MI as suitable alternatives for generalization. Specifically, JSD and RKL demonstrate improved generalization on datasets with small and large sample sizes. Their performance is additionally found consistent on deeper architectures.

While our study establishes a suitable link between generalization and variational bounds, it presents three main shortcomings. Firstly, tightness and validity of our novel I_N bound is demonstrated theoretically. In the near future we would like to empirically evaluate the suitability of the bound and its corresponding claims. Secondly, our empirical evaluation consists of datasets with well-suited classes. A more thorough approach of evaluating generalization bounds could include unbalanced and larger number of classes as found in the ImageNet benchmark. Lastly, evaluation of bounds on a more diverse set of architectured would yield insights towards their stability and failure modes. We leave these for our future work.

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A Proofs

Proposition 1. *If $X_i - Y_i$ has the expected cumulant-generation function $\bar{\psi}_i(\lambda)$ and the inverse of the convex conjugate of $\bar{\psi}$ denoted by $\bar{\psi}^{*-1}$ exists, then the improved bound utilizing I_{NCE} can be expressed as follows,*

$$\mathbb{E}[X_i - Y_i] \leq \bar{\psi}^{*-1}(I_{NCE})$$

Proof. The proof is straightforward and based on original generalization bound in **??**. The result is obtained by following the steps of Theorem 2 [6] and replacing $I(X_i; Y_i)$ with I_{NCE} in the last step as follows,

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[X_i - Y_i] &\leq \inf_{\lambda \in [0, \min_i b_i)} \frac{\bar{\psi}(\lambda) + I(X_i; Y_i)}{\lambda} \\
\mathbb{E}[X_i - Y_i] &\leq \inf_{\lambda \in [0, \min_i b_i)} \frac{\bar{\psi}(\lambda) + I_{NCE}}{\lambda}; \quad since I_{NCE} \leq I(X_i; Y_i) \\
&= \bar{\psi}^{*-1}(I_{NCE})
\end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof. □

Proposition 2. *Given a function $f(w) : w \to \mathbb{R}$, the operator $\mathcal{T} f(w) = \log \sum_w \exp f(w)$ forms a contraction on $f(w)$.*

Proof. Let us first define a norm on the functions $||f_1(w) - f_2(w)|| \equiv \max_w |f_1(w) - f_2(w)|$. Suppose $\epsilon = ||f_1(w) - f_2(w)||$,

$$\begin{aligned}
\log \sum_w \exp\left(f_1(w)\right) &\leq \log \sum_w \exp\left(f_2(w) + \epsilon\right) \\
= \log \sum_w \exp\left(f_1(w)\right) &\leq \log \exp\left(\epsilon\right) \sum_w \exp\left(f_2(w)\right) \\
= \log \sum_{w=1} \exp\left(f_1(w)\right) &\leq \epsilon + \log \sum_w \exp\left(f_2(w)\right) \\
= \log \sum_w \exp\left(f_1(w)\right) - \log \sum_w \exp\left(f_2(w)\right) &\leq ||f_1(w) - f_2(w)|| \qquad (16)
\end{aligned}$$

Similarly, using ϵ with $\log \sum_w \exp\left(f_1(w)\right)$,

$$\begin{aligned}
\log \sum_w \exp\left(f_1(w) + \epsilon\right) &\geq \log \sum_w \exp\left(f_2(w)\right) \\
= \log \exp\left(\epsilon\right) \sum_w \exp\left(f_1(w)\right) &\geq \log \sum_w \exp\left(f_2(w)\right) \\
= \epsilon + \log \sum_w \exp\left(f_1(w)\right) &\geq \log \sum_w \exp\left(f_2(w)\right) \\
= ||f_1(w) - f_2(w)|| \geq \log \sum_w \exp\left(f_2(w)\right) - \log \sum_w \exp\left(f_1(w)\right) &\qquad (17)
\end{aligned}$$

Results in Equation 16 and Equation 17 prove that $\mathcal{T}$ is a contraction. □

Proposition 3. *If the operator $\mathcal{T} f(w) = \log \sum_w \exp f(w)$ is a contraction mapping $\forall w$, then the nonlinear interpolation bound I_{IN} can be further simplified as expressed in Equation 13.*

$$\begin{aligned}
I_{IN} \geq I_N \triangleq 1 + \log \sum_{i=1}^{K} \exp \mathbb{E}_{p(x_{1:K})p(y|x_i)} [\log \frac{e^{f(x_i, y)}}{\gamma m(y; x_{1:K}) + (1-\gamma) q(y)}] \\
\log \sum_{i=1}^{K} \exp \mathbb{E}_{p(x_{1:K})p(y)} [\log \frac{e^{f(x_i, y)}}{\gamma m(y; x_{1:K}) + (1-\gamma) q(y)}]
\end{aligned}$$

Proof. From Equation 7, we have the following,

$$\begin{aligned}
I_{IN} \triangleq 1 + \mathbb{E}_{p(x_{1:K})p(y|x_1)} [\log \frac{e^{f(x_1, y)}}{\gamma m(y; x_{1:K}) + (1-\gamma) q(y)}] \\
- \mathbb{E}_{p(x_{1:K})p(y)} [\log \frac{e^{f(x_1, y)}}{\gamma m(y; x_{1:K}) + (1-\gamma) q(y)}]
\end{aligned}$$

For notational convenience, we relabel the two interpolation terms as follows,

$$\mathcal{P}(x) = \mathbb{E}_{p(x_{1:K})p(y|x_1)}[\log \frac{e^{f(x_1,y)}}{\gamma m(y; x_{1:K}) + (1-\gamma)q(y)}]$$
$$\mathcal{Q}(x) = \mathbb{E}_{p(x_{1:K})p(y)}[\log \frac{e^{f(x_1,y)}}{\gamma m(y; x_{1:K}) + (1-\gamma)q(y)}]$$

Using the result from Proposition 2 and applying $\mathcal{T}$ to the two interpolation terms in the expressions gives us the following,

$$\mathcal{T}\mathcal{P}(x) - \mathcal{T}\mathcal{Q}(x) \leq \max_x |\mathcal{P}(x) - \mathcal{Q}(x)|$$
$$\mathcal{T}\mathcal{P}(x) - \mathcal{T}\mathcal{Q}(x) \leq \mathcal{P}(x) - \mathcal{Q}(x)$$

Using the above result in I_{IN} yields the lower bound I_N and completes the proof. □

Proposition 4. *Since $I_{NCE} \geq I_N$ with high probability, the generalization bound in Proposition 1 can be simplified as follows,*

$$\mathbb{E}[X_i - Y_i] \leq \bar{\psi}^{*-1}(I_N) \leq \bar{\psi}^{*-1}(I_{NCE})$$

Proof. We follow the steps of Proposition 1 to obtain the lower bound with I_{NCE} and replace it with I_N as follows,

$$\mathbb{E}[X_i - Y_i] \leq \inf_{\lambda \in [0, \min_i b_i)} \frac{\bar{\psi}(\lambda) + I(X_i; Y_i)}{\lambda}$$
$$\mathbb{E}[X_i - Y_i] \leq \inf_{\lambda \in [0, \min_i b_i)} \frac{\bar{\psi}(\lambda) + I_{NCE}}{\lambda}; \quad since I_{NCE} \leq I(X_i; Y_i)$$
$$\mathbb{E}[X_i - Y_i] \leq \inf_{\lambda \in [0, \min_i b_i)} \frac{\bar{\psi}(\lambda) + I_N}{\lambda}; \quad since I_N \leq I_{NCE}$$
$$= \bar{\psi}^{*-1}(I_N)$$

This completes the proof.

□

B Additional Results

C Implementation Details

C.1 Note on Experiment Setup

C.2 Hyperparameters