Supplementary Material: Learning Representations from Audio-Visual Spatial Alignment

A Implementation details

- 2 In this section, we describe in detail the implementation of the proposed AVSA pre-training as well
- as the semantic segmentation and action recognition downstream tasks.

4 A.1 Audio-visual spatial alignment

- 5 The architecture of the video and audio encoder networks, f_v and f_a , are shown in Table 1. The
- 6 feature translation networks are described in Section 3.2 and depicted in Figure 3 of the main text.
- 7 These are transformer networks of base dimension 512 and expansion ration 4. In other words,
- 8 the output dimensionality of the linear transformations of parameters $W_{key}, W_{qr}, W_{val}, W_0$ and
- 9 W_2 are 512, and that of W_1 is 2048. Models are pre-trained to optimize loss (7) for AVC task or
- 10 (9) for AVTS and AVSA tasks. AVTS models are trained using negatives obtained from the same
- 11 viewpoint but different moments in time. AVSA models are obtained using negatives obtained from
- the same moment in time but different viewpoints. All models were trained using the Adam optimized.
- Pre-training hyper-parameters are summarized in Table 2.

14 A.2 Semantic segmentation

- For semantic segmentation, we used a lightweight FPN segmentation head. As originally proposed, lateral connections are implemented with a 1×1 convolution that maps all feature maps into a 128 dimensional space followed by a 3×3 convolution for increased smoothing. Since the FPN head is used to perform semantic segmentation of a single frame given a video clip with multiple
- frames, we perform global temporal pooling of the feature maps before feeding them to the lateral
- connections. Semantic segmentation predictions are then computed based on the features at all levels.
- First, features from low-resolution layers are upsampled through a sequence of 3×3 convolutions
- with dilation of 2 into 56×56 resolution and added together to perform pixel-wise classification. All
- 23 parameters of the FPN head are trained to minimize the softmax cross-entropy loss average across
- 24 all pixels. Since we are using the output of a state-of-the-art model as ground truth, we avoid using
- 25 low-confidence ground-truth labels. Thus, all pixels for which the state-of-the-art model was less
- than 75% confident were kept unlabeled. These low confidence regions were also ignored while
- 27 computing evaluation metrics. The model was trained using the Adam optimizer with batch size 20,
- learning rate 1e-4 and weight decay 5e-4 for 10 epochs. The learning rate was decayed at epochs
- 29 5 and 8. Video clips were extracted from random viewpoints within the 360° video, with random
- angular coverage between 45° and 90° for data augmentation. Color jittering and horizontal flipping
- 31 was also applied.

2 A.3 Action recognition

- 33 The video encoder network was evaluated on the task of action recognition using UCF and HMDB
- datasets. We augmented the video encoder with a linear classification layer after the global max-
- pooling operation, and finetune the whole network. We used Adam optimization for 100 epochs, with
- batch size 28, learning rate 10^{-4} decayed at epochs 40, 60 and 80. Performance is reported on first
- train/test split originally defined for the UCF and HMDB datasets.

B Ablations and parametric studies

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We assess different components of the proposed pre-trained mechanism through several ablation and parameteric studies shown in Table 3. All models are evaluated on AVC-Bin, AVSA-Bin, semantic segmentation, and action recognition tasks as introduced in §5.2–5.4 of main text (4 crops per video are used for AVC-Bin and AVSA-Bin). We report accuracies for the AVC-Bin, AVSA-Bin tasks using 4 viewpoints, mean IoU for the semantic segmentation task and clip level accuracy for action recognition on UCF.

45 **Influence of spatial audio** To demonstrate the value of spatial audio, we train the AVSA pretext task using different inputs to the audio network: single channel mono audio, two channel stereo audio, 46 and four channel ambisonic audio. The three versions of the audio input can be easily computed 47 from the full ambisonics signal. The mono version of audio is generated by taking the projection of 48 the ambisonic signal into the spherical harmonics at each viewing angle. To generate stereo, we use 49 a standard ambisonic binauralizer that models a human listener looking at each viewing angle. To 50 generate ambisonics, we simply rotate the original signal to align with each viewing angle. Assuming 51 a typical ambisonics format with 4 channels, this is done by applying a 3D rotation matrix to its 52 53 first-order spherical harmonic components (X, Y and Z channels), while keeping the zeroth-order 54 component (W channel) fixed.

Table 3a shows substantial improvement ($\sim 7\%$) in AVC and AVSA tasks by using full ambisonics for each crop over mono audio, suggesting that the latter may not be sufficient to encode spatial information of sound sources. Using stereo audio which retains partial spatial information also improves over mono input, but with a smaller margin. For semantic tasks (segmentation and action recognition on UCF), learning with ambisonics also proved to be more effective.

Influence of number of viewpoints As more viewpoints are extracted from each sample, the difficulty of the AVSA task increases since more options are provided for matching. To investigate whether the increased difficulty correlates with the quality of the learned representation, we vary the number of viewpoints during AVSA pre-training.

Table 3b shows the AVC and AVSA performance increases monotonically as more viewpoints are used. However, these gains not always translates into better performance on semantic tasks. Semantic segmentation achieved the best performance by training to discriminate 2 or 4 viewpoints, while action recognition peaked at 4 viewpoints.

Influence of type of negative crops The AVSA pretext tasks uses a combination of easy and hard (spatial) negatives: Easy negatives are clips from different video *instances*. Hard (spatial) negatives are sampled from different viewpoints, but the same moment in time. We also trained a network with hard spatio-temporal negatives, which can be sampled from any viewpoint and moment in time within the video. Table 3c shows the performance of models trained with different kinds of negatives crops. As can be seen, the combination of instance-based and spatial negatives (as used by the AVSA approach) yields better performance than using instance-based negatives alone (as used by AVC approaches). This shows the use of spatial negatives is complementary to AVC. However, the results are mixed when combining AVSA with temporal negatives (as used by AVTS approaches), producing slightly better semantic segmentations, but worse UCF performance.

Influence of curriculum learning Prior work indicates that curriculum learning can benefit training by starting from easier sub-tasks and progressively increase the difficulty of the task being learned. To test this hypothesis in the AVSA context, we evaluate our network trained with and without the curriculum learning strategy (first optimizing for easy negatives, i.e. AVC, then optimizing for easy and hard negatives combined). We also compare to baselines where the model is only optimized for easy or hard negatives.

Table 3d shows that training on hard negatives directly leads to the best AVC and AVSA performance.

However, the learned representations significantly overfit to the pretext task, and do not transfer well to semantic tasks, as seen by the low performance on semantic segmentation and action recognition.

Using a combination of easy and hard negatives proved to be beneficial for these two downstream tasks, with the curriculum learning strategy achieving the best results.

Influence of modeling spatial context We propose to use a transformer network to leverage the rich spatial context of spatial audio and 360° video while translating features across the two modalities. To assess the importance of modeling spatial context, we evaluate models trained with and without

the transformer networks. We further vary the depth of transformer module in search of a good trade-off between model complexity and quality of learned representations.

Table $\frac{3}{6}$ shows that modeling spatial context is not required to predict whether audio and video clips originate from the same sample (achieving lower AVC accuracy). However, the ability to perform spatial alignment is significantly impacted without the transformer network, showing that it is harder to perform spatial alignment without combining information from multiple viewpoints. The lack of spatial context also impacted both semantic segmentation and action recognition on UCF. For semantic tasks, a transformer of depth D=2 provided a good trade-off between model complexity and model performance.

Video Network

Layer	X_s	X_t	C	K_s	K_t	S_s	S_t
video	112	8	3	-	-	-	-
conv1	56	8	64	7	3	2	1
block2.1	56	8	64	3	3	1	1
	56	8	64	3	3	1	1
block2.2	56	8	64	3	3	1	1
	56	8	64	3	3	1	1
block3.1	28	4	128	3	3	2	2
	28	4	128	3	3	1	1
block3.2	28	4	128	3	3	1	1
	28	4	128	3	3	1	1
block4.1	14	2	256	3	3	2	2
	14	2	256	3	3	1	1
block4.2	14	2	256	3	3	1	1
	14	2	256	3	3	1	1
block5.1	7	1	512	3	3	2	2
	7	1	512	3	3	1	1
block5.2	7	1	512	3	3	1	1
	7	1	512	3	3	1	1
max pool	1	1	512	7	1	1	1

Audio Network								
Layer	X_f	X_t	C	K_f	K_t	S_f	S_t	
audio	129	100	N	-	-	-	-	
conv1	65	50	64	7	7	2	2	
block2.1	65	50	64	3	3	1	1	
block2.2	65	50	64	3	3	1	1	
block3.1	33	25	128	3	3	2	2	
block3.2	33	25	128	3	3	1	1	
block4.1	17	13	256	3	3	2	2	
block4.2	17	13	256	3	3	1	1	
block5.1	17	13	512	3	3	1	1	
block5.2	17	13	512	3	3	1	1	
max pool	1	1	512	17	13	1	1	

Table 1: Architecture details of R(2+1)D video network and Conv2D audio network. The video network is based of R(2+1)D convolutions, and the audio on 2D convolutions. Both video and audio networks use ReLU activations and batch normalization at each layer. X_s spatial activation size, X_t temporal activation size, X_f frequency activation size, C number of channels, C spatial kernel size, C temporal kernel size, C spatial stride, C temporal stride,

Method	bs	nv	lr	wd	сj	hf	hfov _{min}	hfov _{max}	in	sn	tn	τ
AVC	112	1	1e-4	1e-5	√	0.5	25	90	✓			0.07
AVTS	28	4	1e-4	1e-5	✓	0.5	25	90	✓		\checkmark	0.07
AVSA	28	4	1e-4	1e-5	✓	0.5	25	90	✓	\checkmark		0.07

Table 2: Pre-training optimization hyper-parameters. AVSA models are initialized by the AVC model obtained at epoch 100. bs-batch size; nv-number of viewpoints; lr-learning rate; wd-weight decay; cj-color jittering; hf-horizontal flip probability; hfov_{min}/hfov_{max}-minimum/maximum horizontal field-of-view in degrees; in/sn/tn-instance/spatial/temporal negatives; τ -InfoNCE temperature.

	AVC@4	AVSA@4	Segm	UCF
Mono	82.39	62.95	34.21	64.90
Stereo	84.47	71.11	34.54	64.68
Ambisonics	89.83	69.97	35.83	68.52

	AVC@4	AVSA@4	Segm	UCF
1 Viewpoint	84.60	61.77	35.37	64.71
2 Viewpoints	87.70	63.71	36.63	66.64
4 Viewpoints	89.83	69.97	35.83	68.52
8 Viewpoints	91.65	74.64	34.84	66.44

(b) Number of viewpoints.

	AVC@4	AVSA@4	Segm	UCF
Instance	83.87	61.20	34.05	64.09
+ Spatial	89.83	69.97	35.83	68.52
+ Spatial + Temporal	89.65	72.81	36.11	65.77

	AVC@4	AVSA@4	Segm	UCF
Easy Only	83.87	61.20	34.05	64.09
Hard Only	93.22	77.71	20.97	59.15
No Curriculum	91.93	71.77	35.29	65.49
Curriculum	89.83	69.97	35.83	68.52

(c) Negative crop type.

(d) Curriculum learning.

	AVC@4	AVSA@4	Segm	UCF
Direct Prediction	91.67	68.87	34.50	65.59
Transformer (Depth=1)	90.64	72.95	35.77	66.97
Transformer (Depth=2)	89.83	69.97	35.83	68.52
Transformer (Depth=4)	89.86	70.09	35.97	66.88

(e) Modeling spatial context.

 Table 3: Ablation studies.