

Supplementary Material: Hierarchical Quantization Consistency for Fully Unsupervised Image Retrieval

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Abstract

We provide details of the datasets and evaluation protocol used in this work in Sec.1. Implementations details such as hyperparameters (e.g. learning rate and temperature parameters) and weighting parameters are given in Sec.2. Given the trained model, the details of inference step is described in Sec.2.2. In Sec.2.3, the pseudo code of the propose method is given. Additionally, we show the PR curves and P@1000 curves on NUS-WIDE and FLICKR25K for the completeness of evaluations. Lastly, we report the full results and ablations.

1 Dataset and Evaluation Protocol

CIFAR-10 consists of 60,000 images of 10 class, where each class has 5,000 images for training and 1,000 images for testing. We use 1,000 images per class as the query set, while the remaining images are used as the training set and the retrieval database.

NUS-WIDE is a multi-label large-scale dataset with around 270,000 images of 81 categories. We select images of the 21 most frequent categories for evaluation, where 100 images per categories are selected to form 21,000 images as the query set while the remaining images form the training set and the retrieval database.

FLICKR25K is a relatively small dataset with 25,000 images of 24 categories. We randomly select 2,000 images as the query set while the remaining images are used as the training set and the retrieval database. On the multi-label NUS-WIDE and FLICKR25K, if a query image and a database image share at least one label, then they are defined as the true match [9, 14].

2 Implementation Details

We implement our approach with Python and PyTorch. Following [9], we use the modified ResNet-18 [8, 9] as the backbone (feature extractor) for CIFAR-10 where the first convolu-

tional layer is modified with small kernel size and stride to adapt to the small 32×32 input image size, and use standard ResNet-50 [8] as the backbone for NUS-WIDE and FLICKR25K. We use strong random augmentation [9], including random cropping, horizontal flipping, color jitter, gray scaling and Gaussian blur, to generate augmented samples.

The number of codewords in each codebook is fixed to $K=2^4$, the dimension of each codeword is fixed to $D/M=16$ and the number of codebook is varying as $M=\{4, 8, 16\}$, so we can generate $\{M \cdot \log_2 K\}=\{16, 32, 64\}$ bits codes for image retrieval. We use Adam [10] as the optimizer with the initial learning rate of $5e-4$ for CIFAR-10 and $2e-4$ for NUS-WIDE and FLICKR25K, and set the weight decay of $1e-5$. We warm up the learning rate with 10 epochs and decay it with the cosine decay schedule [11] without restart. On CIFAR-10, we set the batch size $N_B=256$ with the original input image size of 32×32 , while on NUS-WIDE and FLICKR25K, $N_B=128$ with the input of 224×224 .

In part consistent quantization, we set $\lambda_{pn}=0.1$, $\lambda_{cd}=0.2$, $N_k=20$, $\tau_{pn}=0.5$. In global consistent quantization, we set $\tau_{sq}=0.2$ and $\tau_{ic}=0.5$ following [9], and use $\lambda_{cc}=0.4$ and $\tau_{cc}=0.2$. In fully unsupervised image retrieval, we train our model from scratch without using ImageNet pre-trained weights. Despite our approach is devised for deep fully unsupervised image retrieval, it is compatible with the deep pre-trained unsupervised setting, so we also report SSCQ-p that employs an ImageNet pre-trained VGG16 model as the backbone.

2.1 Details at Training Stage

During training, we add two loss terms, namely codewords diversity regularization and instance embedding contrastive loss. The former one is to stabilize the training process, while the latter one mimisc the instance quantization contrastive loss.

Codewords Diversity Regularization. Simply applying (??) may result in reduced diversity of the subspace features. To encourage diverse codeword distribution, we compute the similarity between sub-embedding representations and codewords in each codebook and encourage the mean probability distribution to be diverse, as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{cd} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{k=1}^K \hat{p}_{m,k} \cdot \log(\hat{p}_{m,k}), \quad (1)$$

where $\hat{p}_{m,k} = \frac{1}{2N_b} \sum_{i=1}^{2N_b} \frac{\exp(s(f_{i,m}, c_{m,k}))}{\sum_{t=1}^K \exp(s(f_{i,m}, c_{m,t}))}$ is the mean output probability over all samples in a mini-batch. Note that similar codewords diversity regularization has been used in previous quantization method [12], but here \mathcal{L}_{cd} in our approach is an auxiliary term based on entropy maximization [13, 15] for unsupervised part consistent quantization and is not directly computed using soft quantization code.

Instance Embedding Contrastive Loss. Previous contrastive quantization based methods [9, 12] use contrastive learning for quantized representations. However, it is inevitable that quantized representations lose useful embedding representation information during the quantization process. This leads to sub-optimal performance when the feature extractor is trainable, as we found in this work. Cross-quantized learning is proposed in SPQ [8] to mitigating the effect. Unlike SPQ, we propose a much simpler alternative to maximizing

the similarity between embeddings and quantized representation. Similar to \mathcal{L}_{icz} , we add an instance contrastive loss \mathcal{L}_{icf} for the embedding representations f , as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{icf} = -\log \frac{\exp(s(f, f^+)/\tau_{ic})}{\sum_{j=1}^{2N_b} 1_{[f_j \neq f]} \exp(s(f, f_j)/\tau_{ic})}. \quad (2)$$

With Eq.(2), we can simultaneously optimize the quantized representations and the embedding representations.

2.2 Details at Inference Stage

Once the model is trained, it could be deployed for inference purpose. In inference, following the previous work [9, 24], we use hard quantization to generate the $(M \cdot \log_2 K)$ -bits code for each sample in the database by finding the most similar codeword $\{c_{m,k}\}_{k=1}^K$ from each codebook $\{C_m\}_{m=1}^M$ for each sub-embedding representation. Then, we use asymmetric distance [14] to measure the distance between each query sample and database samples. Specifically, given a query image, we extract its embedding representation and divide it into M sub-embedding representations. Next, we compute the Euclidean distance between each sub-embedding representation and all codewords in all codebooks to set up a query-specific look-up table. Finally, we can approximately calculate the distance between the query sample and each database sample by using the code to get the sub-vector distance from the query-specific look-up table and then summing up.

2.3 Summary of the Proposed Method

We summarize the training process of the proposed Self-Supervised Consistent Quantization in Algorithm 1.

3 Complete Evaluation Results

Complete evaluation results are shown in Table 1 on CIFAR-10, in Table 2 on NUS-WIDE, in Table 3 on FLICKR25K.

In Fig. 1, we report PR curves and P@1000 curves. It can be observed that our SSCQ (blue curve) consistently outperforms SPQ (green curve) under the fully unsupervised setting, while our SSCQ-p (orange curve) performs competitively against the state-of-the-art pre-trained methods. This further demonstrate that our approach is capable of learning effective embeddings and codes for image retrieval at different required recall rates and numbers of top returned samples.

4 Further Analysis and Discussion

Codeword Diversity Regularization Variants. In Fig. 2 (left), we test SSCQ with different codeword regularization strategies, where $\mathcal{L}_{cd-soft}$ and \mathcal{L}_{cd-ed} denote soft quantization and squared Euclidean distance in Eq.(1). $\mathcal{L}_{cd-spro}$ denotes squared probability [24] in Eq.(1). We observe that SSCQ with entropy maximization \mathcal{L}_{cd} achieves encouraging result.

Algorithm 1 Self-Supervised Consistent Quantization.**Input:** A baseline model, unlabeled training data \mathcal{X}

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1: for sampled mini-batch  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^{N_b}$  do
2:   Generate two augmented samples for each  $x$ 
3:   Extract embedding representation  $f$  of all samples
4:   Extract quantized representation  $z$  of all samples
5:   Compute  $\mathcal{L}_{icz}$  for  $z$ 
6:   Compute  $\mathcal{L}_{icf}$  for  $f$ 
7:   /* Part consistent quantization */
8:   Compute  $\mathcal{L}_{pn}$  for  $z$ 
9:   /* Global consistent quantization */
10:  Compute  $\mathcal{L}_{cc}$  for fused  $\phi(f, z)$ 
11:  /* Codeword diversity loss*/
12:  Compute  $\mathcal{L}_{cd}$  for  $f_m$  and  $c_{m,k}$ 
13:  /* Unified learning objective */
14:  Optimize the model with  $\mathcal{L}$ 
15: end for
16: end for

```

Output: A trained model for image retrieval.

Representation Fusion Variants. In Fig. 2 (right), we report the performance using different embedding and quantized representations fusion strategies, including concatenation, summation, cross consistent contrastive regularization, and quantized representations only. We observe that SSCQ with \mathcal{L}_{cc-con} and \mathcal{L}_{cc-sum} yield better results than using \mathcal{L}_{cc-cro} and \mathcal{L}_{cc-qua} as [22].

Temperature Parameter Sensitivity. We evaluate the performance of our SSCQ with the temperature parameters. SSCQ is robust to the values of τ_{cc} , τ_{pn} and τ_{sq} , and performs competitively. Since τ_{ic} relates to the basic component of contrastive quantization, it is more sensitive and gives competitive result when set at 0.5. Detailed evaluations can be found in the *supp. mat.* for the completeness.

Effect of N_k in \mathcal{L}_{pn} . Most hyper-parameters are set following SPQ [9], while N_k and weighting parameters are empirically selected. In Table 4, we report the performance using different values for N_k on CIFAR-10.

Qualitative Visualizations. In Fig. 3, the tSNE visualizations show that the class-wise distribution has a better separability after applying part loss. We also visualize some retrieval results of our SSCQ and SPQ [9] in Fig. 4. We can see that both SSCQ and SPQ can retrieve visually similar images from the database, but SSCQ is capable of exploring more discriminative information and results in more relevant retrieval results with higher accuracy.

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| Type | Method | 16 bits | 32 bits | 64 bits |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Shallow + pre-trained | LSH [10] | 13.2 | 15.8 | 16.7 |
| | SpectralH [23] | 27.2 | 28.5 | 30.0 |
| | PQ [10] | 23.7 | 25.9 | 27.2 |
| | ITQ [7] | 30.5 | 32.5 | 34.9 |
| | OPQ [8] | 29.7 | 31.4 | 32.3 |
| Deep pre-trained unsupervised | DeepBit [16] | 22.0 | 24.9 | 27.7 |
| | SAH [5] | 41.8 | 45.6 | 47.4 |
| | GreedyHash [20] | 44.8 | 47.3 | 50.1 |
| | SSDH [24] | 36.2 | 40.2 | 44.0 |
| | TBH [19] | 53.2 | 57.3 | 57.8 |
| | CIBHash [18] | 59.4 | 63.7 | 65.2 |
| | Bi-half [14] | 56.1 | 57.6 | 59.5 |
| | MeCoQ [21] | 68.2 | 69.7 | 71.1 |
| | SSCQ-p (ours) | 76.1 | 76.8 | 78.1 |
| Deep fully unsupervised | SGH [3] | 43.5 | 43.7 | 43.3 |
| | HashGAN [4] | 44.7 | 46.3 | 48.1 |
| | BinGAN [25] | 47.6 | 51.2 | 52.0 |
| | SPQ [9] | 76.8 | 79.3 | 81.2 |
| | SSCQ (ours) | 78.3 | 81.3 | 82.9 |

Table 1: Comparison with the classic and state-of-the-art unsupervised methods on CIFAR-10 in terms of mAP (%). Some results are cited from [4, 21].

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| Type | Method | 16 bits | 32 bits | 64 bits |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Shallow + pre-trained | LSH [10] | 38.5 | 41.4 | 43.9 |
| | SpectralH† [23] | 48.9 | 53.0 | 62.7 |
| | PQ [10] | 65.4 | 67.4 | 68.6 |
| | ITQ† [7] | 68.0 | 70.9 | 72.8 |
| | OPQ [8] | 65.7 | 68.4 | 69.1 |
| Deep pre-trained unsupervised | DeepBit [16] | 39.2 | 40.3 | 42.9 |
| | GreedyHash [20] | 63.3 | 69.1 | 73.1 |
| | SSDH [24] | 58.0 | 59.3 | 61.0 |
| | CIBHash† [18] | 79.5 | 81.2 | 81.7 |
| | Bi-half [14] | 76.9 | 78.3 | 79.9 |
| | MeCoQ† [21] | 77.2 | 81.5 | 82.3 |
| | SSCQ-p (ours) | 80.3 | 81.9 | 82.6 |
| Deep fully unsupervised | SGH [9] | 59.3 | 59.0 | 60.7 |
| | HashGAN [4] | 68.4 | 70.6 | 71.7 |
| | BinGAN [25] | 65.4 | 70.9 | 71.3 |
| | SPQ† [9] | 75.7 | 79.4 | 80.2 |
| | SSCQ (ours) | 78.7 | 79.9 | 80.8 |

Table 2: Comparison with the classic and state-of-the-art unsupervised methods on NUS-WIDE in terms of mAP (%). Some results are cited from [21]. † Reproduced results.

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| Type | Method | 16 bits | 32 bits | 64 bits |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Shallow + pre-trained | LSH [10] | 58.8 | 60.4 | 64.2 |
| | SpectralH [23] | 59.2 | 60.6 | 63.2 |
| | ITQ [7] | 68.4 | 69.5 | 70.3 |
| Deep pre-trained unsupervised | GreedyHash [20] | 70.5 | 72.3 | 75.1 |
| | SSDH [24] | 78.7 | 79.4 | 79.5 |
| | CIBHash [18] | 77.0 | 78.5 | 79.8 |
| | Bi-half [14] | 81.1 | 82.4 | 82.9 |
| | MeCoQ [21] | 80.4 | 81.7 | 81.7 |
| | SSCQ-p (ours) | 81.9 | 82.6 | 82.8 |
| Deep fully unsupervised | SPQ [9] | 71.8 | 74.0 | 74.5 |
| | SSCQ (ours) | 73.8 | 75.9 | 76.7 |

Table 3: Comparison with the classic and state-of-the-art unsupervised methods on FLICKR25K in terms of mAP (%).

| N_k | 0 | 1 | 10 | 20 | 50 |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|
| mAP(%) | 80.1 | 80.7 | 81.4 | 81.3 | 80.5 |

Table 4: Effect of N_k in loss \mathcal{L}_{pn} on CIFAR-10 (32 bits).

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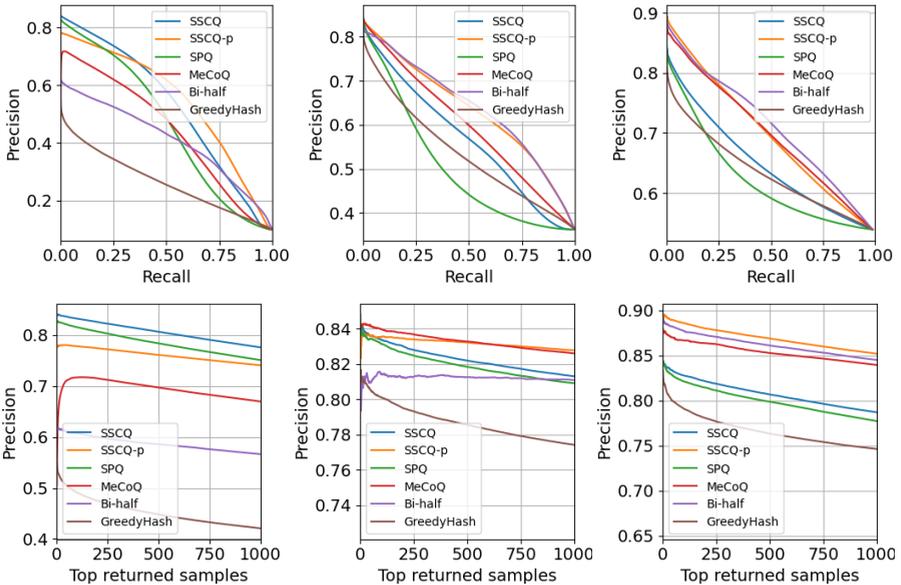


Figure 1: PR curves (*Top*) and P@1000 curves (*Bottom*) on CIFAR-10, NUS-WIDE and FLICKR25K (32 bits).

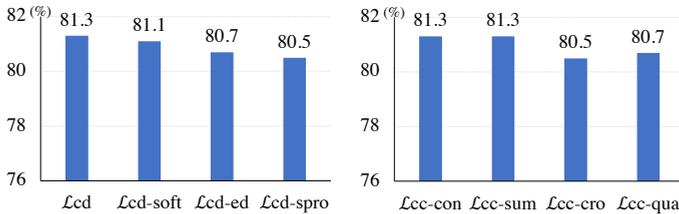


Figure 2: Evaluating (*Left*) codeword diversity regularization variants and (*Right*) representation fusion variants on CIFAR-10 (32 bits).

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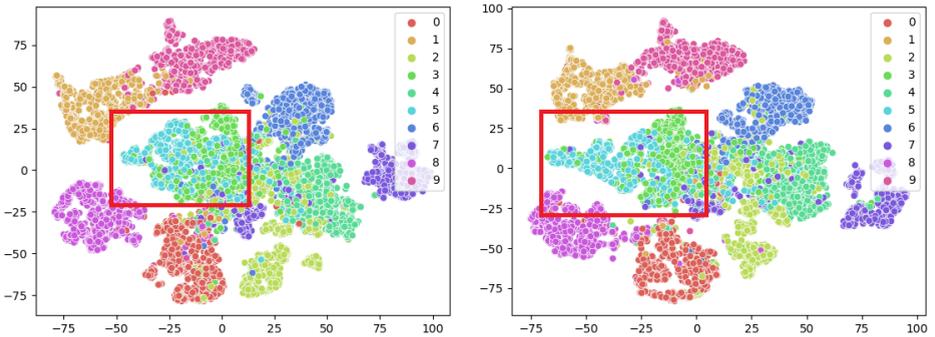


Figure 3: tSNE on CIFAR-10 validation queries for $\mathcal{L}_{icz} + \mathcal{L}_{icf}$ (left) and $\mathcal{L}_{icz} + \mathcal{L}_{icf} + \mathcal{L}_{pn}$ (right). *Cat* (class 3) and *Dog* (class 5) show better separability after applying part loss as highlighted in the red bounding box.

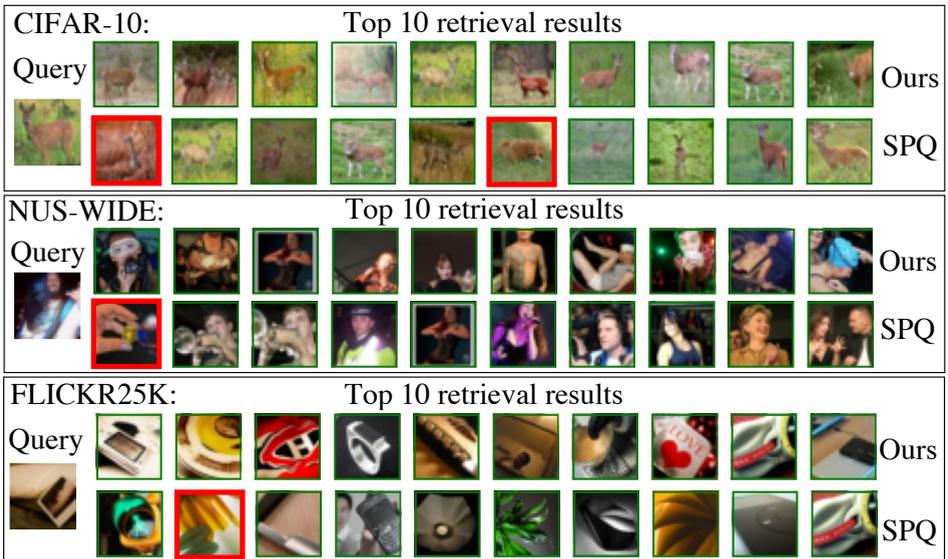


Figure 4: Retrieval results of our approach and SPQ on CIFAR-10, NUS-WIDE and FLICKR25K (32 bits). False retrieval results are denoted in red bounding boxes.