

Supplementary Material

PADS: Policy-Adapted Sampling for Visual Similarity Learning

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1. Additional Ablation Experiments

We now conduct further ablation experiments for different aspects of our proposed approach based on the CUB200-2011[19] dataset. Note, that like in our main paper we did not apply any learning rate scheduling for the results of our approach to establish comparable training settings.

Performance with Inception-BN: For fair comparison, we also evaluate using Inception-V1 with Batch-Normalization [4]. We follow the standard pipeline (see e.g. [11, 13]), utilizing Adam [7] with images resized and random cropped to 224x224. The learning rate is set to 10^{-5} . We retain the size of the policy network and other hyperparameters. The results on CUB200-2011[19] and CARS196[8] are listed in Table 1. On CUB200, we achieve results competitive to previous state-of-the-art methods. On CARS196, we achieve a significant boost over baseline values and competitive performance to the state-of-the-art.

Validation set \mathcal{I}_{val} : The validation set \mathcal{I}_{val} is sampled from the training set \mathcal{I}_{train} , composed as either a fixed disjoint, held-back subset or repetitively re-sampled from \mathcal{I}_{train} during training. Further, we can sample \mathcal{I}_{val} across all classes or include entire classes. We found (Tab. 2 (d)) that sampling \mathcal{I}_{val} from each class works much better than doing it per class. Further, resampling \mathcal{I}_{val} provides no significant benefit at the cost of an additional hyperparameter to tune.

Composition of states s and target metric e : Choosing meaningful target metrics $e(\phi(\cdot; \zeta), \mathcal{I}_{val})$ for computing rewards r and a representative composition of the training state s increases the utility of our learned policy π_θ . To this end, Tab. 3 compares different combinations of state compositions and employed target metrics e . We observe that incorporating information about the current structure of the embedding space Φ into s , such as intra- and inter-class distances, is most crucial for effective learning and adaptation. Moreover, also incorporating performance metrics into s which directly represent the current performance of the model ϕ , e.g. Recall@1 or NMI, additional adds some useful information.

Frequency of updating π_θ : We compute the reward r for

an adjustment a to $p(I_n|I_a)$ every M DML training iterations. High values of M reduce the variance of the rewards r , however, at the cost of slow policy updates which result in potentially large discrepancies to updating ϕ . Tab. 4 (a) shows that choosing M from the range [30, 70] results in a good trade-off between the stability of r and the adaptation of $p(I_n|I_a)$ to ϕ . Moreover, we also show the result for setting $M = \infty$, i.e. using the initial distribution throughout training without adaptation. Fixing this distribution performs worse than the reference method Margin loss with static distance-based sampling[22]. Nevertheless, frequently adjusting $p(I_n|I_a)$ leads to significant superior performance, which indicates that our policy π_θ effectively adapts $p(I_n|I_a)$ to the training state of ϕ .

Importance of long-term information for states s : For optimal learning, s should not only contain information about the current training state of ϕ , but also about some history of the learning process. Therefore, we compose s of a set of running averages over different lengths \mathcal{R} for various training state components, as discussed in the implementation details of the main paper. Tab. 4 (b) confirms the importance of long-term information for stable adaptation and learning. Moreover, we see that the set of moving averages $\mathcal{R} = \{2, 8, 16, 32\}$ works best.

2. Curriculum Evaluations

In Fig. 1 we visually illustrate the fixed curriculum schedules which we applied for the comparison experiment in Sec. 5.3 of our main paper. We evaluated various schedules - Linear progression of sampling intervals starting at semi-hard negatives going to hard negatives, and progressively moving \mathcal{U} -dist[22] towards harder negatives. The schedules visualized were among the best performing ones to work for both CUB200 and CARS196 dataset.

Dataset		CUB200-2011[19]				CARS196[8]			
Approach	Dim	R@1	R@2	R@4	NMI	R@1	R@2	R@4	NMI
HTG[24]	512	59.5	71.8	81.3	-	76.5	84.7	90.4	-
HDML[25]	512	53.7	65.7	76.7	62.6	79.1	87.1	92.1	69.7
HTL[1]	512	57.1	68.8	78.7	-	81.4	88.0	92.7	-
DVML[9]	512	52.7	65.1	75.5	61.4	82.0	88.4	93.3	67.6
A-BIER[12]	512	57.5	68.7	78.3	-	82.0	89.0	93.2	-
MIC[14]	128	66.1	76.8	85.6	69.7	82.6	89.1	93.2	68.4
D&C[15]	128	65.9	76.6	84.4	69.6	84.6	90.7	94.1	70.3
Margin[22]	128	63.6	74.4	83.1	69.0	79.6	86.5	90.1	69.1
Reimpl. Margin[22], IBN	512	63.8	75.3	84.7	67.9	79.7	86.9	91.4	67.2
Ours(Margin[22] + PADS, IBN)	512	66.6	77.2	85.6	68.5	81.7	88.3	93.0	68.2
Significant increase in network parameter:									
HORDE[5]+Contr.[2]	512	66.3	76.7	84.7	-	83.9	90.3	94.1	-
SOFT-TRIPLE[13]	512	65.4	76.4	84.5	-	84.5	90.7	94.5	70.1
Ensemble Methods:									
Rank[20]	1536	61.3	72.7	82.7	66.1	82.1	89.3	93.7	71.8
DREML[23]	9216	63.9	75.0	83.1	67.8	86.0	91.7	95.0	76.4
ABE[6]	512	60.6	71.5	79.8	-	85.2	90.5	94.0	-

Table 1: Comparison to the state-of-the-art DML methods on CUB200-2011[19] and CARS196[8] using the Inception-BN Backbone (see e.g. [11, 13]) and embedding dimension of 512.

Validation Set:	\mathcal{I}_{val}^{By}	\mathcal{I}_{val}^{Per}	$\mathcal{I}_{val}^{By, R}$	$\mathcal{I}_{val}^{Per, R}$
Recall@1	62.6	65.7	63.0	65.8
NMI	67.7	69.2	67.8	69.6

Table 2: Composition of \mathcal{I}_{val} . Superscript *By/Per* denotes usage of entire classes/sampling across classes. *R* denotes re-sampling during training with best found frequency of $\frac{1}{50}$ epochs.

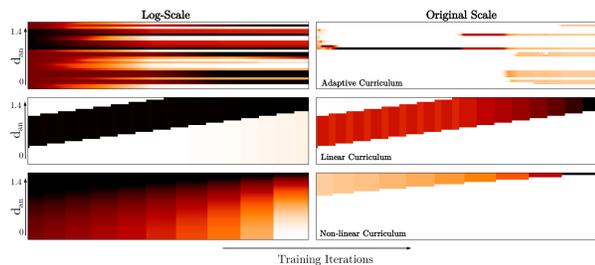


Figure 1: Visual comparison between fixed sampling curriculums and a learned progression of $p(I_n|I_a)$ by PADS. Left: log-scale over $p(I_n|I_a)$, right: original scale. Top row: learned sampling schedule (PADS); middle row: linear shift of a sampling interval from semihard[16] negatives to hard negatives; bottom row: shifting a static distance-based sampling[22] to gradually sample harder negatives.

Reward metrics e	NMI	R@1	R@1 + NMI
Composition of state s			
Recall, Dist., NMI	63.9 68.5	65.5 68.9	65.6 69.2
Recall, Dist.	65.0 68.5	65.7 69.2	64.4 69.4
Recall, NMI	63.7 68.4	63.9 68.2	64.2 68.5
Dist., NMI	65.3 68.8	65.3 68.7	65.1 68.5
Dist.	65.3 68.8	65.5 69.1	64.3 68.6
Recall	64.2 67.8	65.1 69.0	64.9 68.4
NMI	64.3 68.7	64.8 69.2	63.9 68.4

Table 3: Comparison of different compositions of the training state s and reward metric e . *Dist.* denotes average intra- and inter-class distances. Recall in state composition denotes all Recall@k-values, whereas for the target metric only Recall@1 was utilized.

M	10	30	50	70	100	∞	[22]
R@1	64.4	65.7	65.4	65.2	65.1	61.9	63.5
NMI	68.3	69.2	69.2	68.9	69.0	67.0	68.1

(a) Evaluation of the policy update frequency M .

\mathcal{R}	2	2, 32	2, 8, 16, 32	2, 8, 16, 32, 64
R@1	64.5	65.4	65.7	65.6
NMI	68.6	69.1	69.2	69.3

(b) Evaluation of various sets \mathcal{R} of moving average lengths.

Table 4: Ablation experiments: (a) evaluates the influence of the number of DML iterations M performed before updating the policy π_θ using a reward r and, thus, the update frequency of π_θ . (b) analyzes the benefit of long-term learning progress information added to training states s by means of using various moving average lengths \mathcal{R} .

3. Comparison of RL Algorithms

We evaluate the applicability of the following RL algorithms for optimizing our policy π_θ (Eq. 4 in the main paper):

Approach	R@1	NMI
Margin[22]	63.5	68.1
REINFORCE	64.2	68.5
REINFORCE, EMA	64.8	68.9
REINFORCE, A2C	65.0	69.0
PPO, EMA	65.4	69.0
PPO, A2C	65.7	69.2
Q-Learn	63.2	67.9
Q-Learn, PR/2-Step	64.9	68.5

Table 5: Comparison of different RL algorithms. For policy-based algorithms (REINFORCE, PPO) we either use Exponential Moving Average (EMA) as a variance-reducing baseline or employ Advantage Actor Critic (A2C). In addition, we also evaluate Q-Learning methods (vanilla and Rainbow Q-Learning). For the Rainbow setup we use Priority Replay and 2-Step value approximation. Margin loss[22] is used as a representative reference for static sampling strategies.

- REINFORCE algorithm[21] with and without Exponential Moving Average (EMA)
- Advantage Actor Critic (A2C)[18]
- Rainbow Q-Learning[3] without extensions (vanilla) and using Priority Replay and 2-Step updates

- Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO)[17] applied to REINFORCE with EMA and to A2C.

For a comparable evaluation setting we use the CUB200-2011[19] dataset without learning rate scheduling and fixed 150 epochs of training. Within this setup, the hyperparameters related to each method are optimized via cross-validation. Tab. 5 shows that all methods, except for vanilla Q-Learning, result in an adjustment policy π_θ for $p(I_n|I_a)$ which outperforms static sampling strategies. Moreover, policy-based methods in general perform better than Q-Learning based methods with PPO being the best performing algorithm. We attribute this to the reduced search space (Q-Learning methods need to evaluate in state-actions space, unlike policy-methods, which work directly over the action space), as well as not employing replay buffers, i.e. not acting off-policy, since state-action pairs of previous training iterations may no longer be representative for current training stages.

4. Qualitative UMAP Visualization

Figure 2 shows a UMAP[10] embedding of test image features for CUB200-2011[19] learned by our model using PADS. We can see clear groupings for birds of the same and similar classes. Clusterings based on similar background is primarily due to dataset bias, e.g. certain types of birds occur only in conjunction with specific backgrounds.

5. Pseudo-Code

Algorithm 1 gives an overview of our proposed PADS approach using PPO with A2C as underlying RL method. Before training, our sampling distributions $p(I_n|I_a)$ is initialized with an initial distribution. Further, we initialize both the adjustment policy π_θ and the pre-update auxiliary policy π_θ^{old} for estimating the PPO probability ratio. Then, DML training is performed using triplets with random anchor-positive pairs and sampled negatives from the current sampling distribution $p(I_n|I_a)$. After M iterations, all reward and state metrics $\mathcal{E}, \mathcal{E}^*$ are computed on the embeddings $\phi(\cdot; \zeta)$ of \mathcal{I}_{val} . These values are aggregated in a training reward r and input state s . While r is used to update the current policy π_θ , s is fed into the updated policy to estimate adjustments a to the sampling distribution $p(I_n|I_a)$. Finally, after M^{old} iterations (e.g. we set to $M^{old} = 3$) π_θ^{old} is updated with the current policy weights θ .

6. Typical image retrieval failure cases

Fig. 3 shows nearest neighbours for good/bad test set retrievals. Even though the nearest neighbors do not always share the same class label as the anchor, all neighbors are very similar to the bird species depicted in the anchor images. Failures are due to very subtle differences.

Algorithm 1: Training one epoch via PADS by PPO

Input : $\mathcal{I}_{\text{train}}, \mathcal{I}_{\text{val}}$, Train labels $\mathcal{Y}_{\text{train}}$, Val. labels \mathcal{Y}_{val} , total iterations n_e

Parameter : Reward metrics \mathcal{E} , State metrics \mathcal{E}^* + running average lengths \mathcal{R} , Num. of bins K , multiplier $\{\alpha, \beta\}$, $p_{\text{init}}(I_n|I_a)$, num. of iterations before updates M, M^{old}

```
// Initialization
```

```
 $p(I_n|I_a) \leftarrow p_{\text{init}}(I_n|I_a)$   
 $\pi_\theta \leftarrow \text{InitPolicy}(K, \alpha, \beta)$   
 $\pi_\theta^{\text{old}} \leftarrow \text{Copy}(\pi_\theta)$ 
```

```
for  $i$  in  $n_e/M$  do
```

```
  // Update DML Model
```

```
  for  $j$  in  $M$  do
```

```
    // within batch  $\mathcal{B} \in \mathcal{I}_{\text{train}}$ 
```

```
     $I_a, I_p \leftarrow \mathcal{B}$ 
```

```
     $I_n \sim p(I_n|I_a)$ 
```

```
     $\zeta \leftarrow \text{TrainDML}(\{I_a, I_p, I_n\}, \phi(\cdot; \zeta))$ 
```

```
  end
```

```
  // Update policy  $\pi_\theta$ 
```

```
   $E_i \leftarrow \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{I}_{\text{val}}, \mathcal{Y}_{\text{val}}, \phi(\cdot; \zeta))$ 
```

```
   $E_i^* \leftarrow \mathcal{E}^*(\mathcal{I}_{\text{val}}, \mathcal{Y}_{\text{val}}, \phi(\cdot; \zeta))$ 
```

```
   $s_i \leftarrow \text{GetState}(E_i^*, \mathcal{R}, p(I_n|I_a))$ 
```

```
   $r \leftarrow \text{GetReward}(E_i, E_{i-1})$ 
```

```
   $l_\pi \leftarrow \text{PPOLoss}(\pi_\theta, \pi_\theta^{\text{old}}, s_{i-1}, a_{i-1})$ 
```

```
   $\theta \leftarrow \text{UpdatePolicy}(l_\pi, \pi_\theta)$ 
```

```
   $a_i \sim \pi_\theta(a_i|s_i)$ 
```

```
   $p(I_n|I_a) \leftarrow \text{Adjust}(p(I_n|I_a), a_i)$ 
```

```
  if  $i \bmod M^{\text{old}} == 0$  then
```

```
    |  $\pi_\theta^{\text{old}} \leftarrow \text{Copy}(\pi)$ 
```

```
  end
```

```
end
```

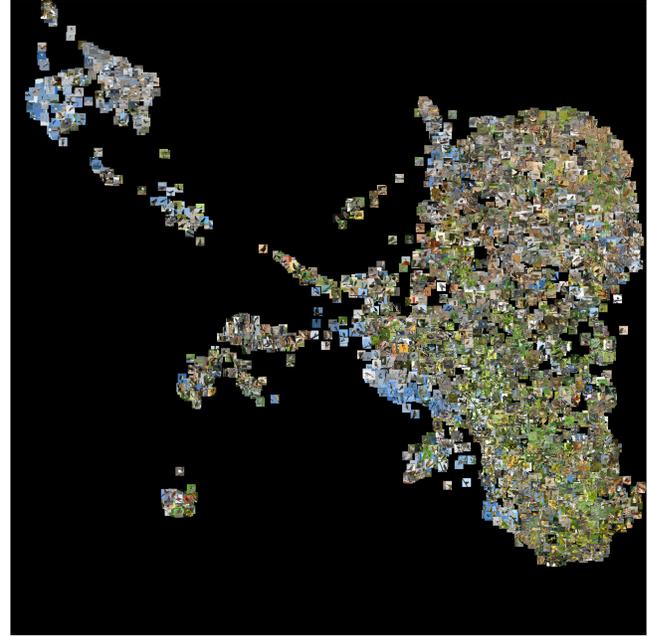


Figure 2: UMAP embedding based on the image embeddings $\phi(\cdot; \zeta)$ obtained from our proposed approach on CUB200-2011[19] (Test Set).

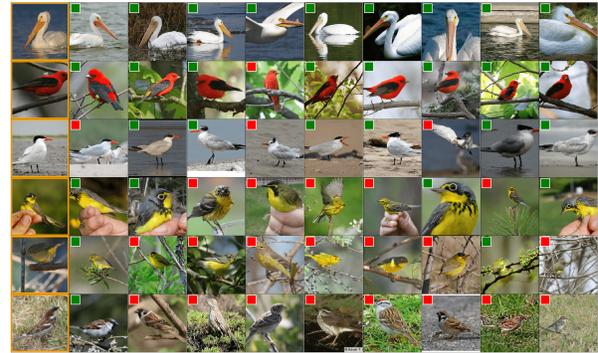


Figure 3: Selection of good and bad nearest neighbour retrieval cases on CUB200-2011 (Test). Orange bounding box marks query images, green/red boxes denote correct/incorrect retrievals.

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