Efficient Conditional Pre-training for Transfer Learning

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Abstract

Almost all the state-of-the-art neural networks for computer vision tasks are trained by (1) pre-training on a large-scale dataset and (2) finetuning on the target dataset. This strategy helps reduce dependence on the target dataset and improves convergence rate and generalization on the target task. Although pre-training on large-scale datasets is very useful for new methods or models, its foremost disadvantage is high training cost. To address this, we propose efficient filtering methods to select relevant subsets from the pre-training dataset. Additionally, we discover that lowering image resolutions in the pre-training step offers a great trade-off between cost and performance. We validate our techniques by pre-training on ImageNet in both the unsupervised and supervised settings and finetuning on a diverse collection of target datasets and tasks. Our proposed methods drastically reduce pre-training cost and provide strong performance boosts. Finally, we improve the current standard of ImageNet pre-training by 1-3% by tuning available models on our subsets and pre-training on a dataset filtered from a larger scale dataset.

1. Introduction

Recent success of modern computer vision methods relies heavily on large-scale labelled datasets, which are often costly to collect [26, 14, 4]. Alternatives to large-scale labelled data include pre-training a network on the publicly available ImageNet dataset with labels [8] and performing transfer learning on target tasks [20, 43, 33, 18, 22]. On the other hand, unsupervised learning has received tremendous attention recently with the availability of extremely large-scale data with no labels, as such data is costly to obtain [26, 14, 15, 12, 2, 3, 4]. The explosion of data quantity and improvement of unsupervised learning with contrastive learning portends that the standard approach in future tasks will be to (1) learn weights a on a very large-scale dataset with unsupervised learning and (2) fine-tune them on a small-scale target dataset. A major problem with this approach is the large amount of computational resources required to train a network on a very large scale dataset [26]. For example, a recent contrastive learning method, MoCo-v2 [15, 14], uses 8 GPUs to train on ImageNet for 53 hours, which can cost thousands of dollars. Extrapolating, this forebodes pre-training costs on the order of millions of dollars on larger-scale datasets. Those without access to such computational power will require selecting relevant subsets of those datasets specific to their task.

Cognizant of these pressing issues, we propose novel methods to efficiently filter a user defined number of pre-training images conditioned on a target dataset. We also find that the use of low resolution images during pre-training provides a great cost to performance trade-off. Our approach consistently outperforms other methods by 2-9% and are both flexible, translating to both supervised and unsupervised settings, and adaptable, translating to a wide range of target tasks including image recognition, object detection and semantic segmentation. Our methods perform...
especially well in the more relevant unsupervised setting where pre-training on a 12% subset of data can achieve within 1-4% of full pre-training when considering target task performance. Next, we use our methods to improve standard ImageNet (1.28M images) pre-training. In this direction, we construct a large scale dataset (6.7M images) from multiple datasets and filter 1.28M images conditioned on a target task. Our results show that we improve standard ImageNet pre-training by 1-3% on downstream tasks. Thus, when needing to pre-train from scratch on large scale data for a specific application, our methods can replace the standard ImageNet pre-training with conditional pre-training.

2. Related Work

Active Learning Active Learning fits a function by selectively querying labels for samples where the function is currently uncertain. In a basic greedy setup, the samples with the highest entropies are chosen for annotation [40, 10, 1, 31]. Active learning typically assumes similar data distributions for candidate samples, whereas our data distributions can potentially have large shifts. Furthermore, active learning, due to its iterative nature, can be quite costly, hard to tune, and can require prior distributions [28].

Unconditional Transfer Learning Pre-training networks on ImageNet has been shown to be a very effective way of initializing weights for a target task with small sample size [20, 43, 33, 18, 22, 37, 35, 32]. However, all these studies use unconditional pre-training as they employ the weights pre-trained on the full source dataset, which can be computationally infeasible for future large scale datasets.

Conditional Transfer Learning [44, 7, 27], on the other hand, filter the pre-training dataset conditioned on target tasks. [7, 11] use greedy class-specific clustering based and learn image representations with an encoder trained on the massive JFT-300M dataset [19], which dramatically increases cost. [44] trains a number of expert models on many subsets of the pre-training dataset and uses their performance to weight source images, however this method is naturally quite computationally expensive. Many of these methods also require labelled pre-training data and are not well suited for target tasks such as object detection and semantic segmentation. Our methods differ from these works as we take into account pre-training dataset filtering efficiency, adaptability to different target tasks and settings, and target task performance.

3. Problem Definition and Setup

We assume a target task dataset represented as \( D_t = (X_t, Y_t) \) where \( X_t = \{x_1^t, x_2^t, \ldots, x_M^t\} \) represents a set of \( M \) images with their ground truth labels \( Y_t \). Our goal is to train a function \( f_t \) parameterized by \( \theta_t \) on the dataset \( D_t \) to learn \( f_t : x^t \mapsto y^t \). To transfer learn, we first pre-train \( \theta_t \) on a large-scale source dataset \( D_s \) and fine-tune \( \theta_t \) on \( D_t \). This strategy reduces the amount of labeled samples needed in \( D_t \) and boosts the accuracy in comparison to the randomly initialized weights [26, 36]. For the pre-training dataset, we can have either labelled or unlabelled setups: (1) \( D_s = (X_s, Y_s) \) and (2) \( D_s = (X_s) \) where \( X_s = \{x_1^s, x_2^s, \ldots, x_N^s\} \). However, it is tough to label vast amounts of publicly available images, and with the increasing popularity of unsupervised learning methods [4, 5, 3, 14, 15], it is easy to see that unsupervised pre-training on very large \( D_s \) with no ground-truth labels will be the standard and preferred practice in the future.

A major problem with learning \( \theta_t \) on a very large-scale dataset \( D_s \) is the computational cost, and using the whole dataset may be impossible for most. One way to reduce costs is to filter out images deemed less relevant for \( D_t \) to create a dataset \( D'_s \in D_s \) where \( X'_s = \{x_1^s, x_2^s, \ldots, x_{N'}^s\} \) represents a filtered version of \( D_s \) with \( N' \ll N \). Our approach conditions the filtering step on the target dataset \( D_t \). In this study, we propose flexible and adaptable methods to perform efficient conditional pre-training, which reduces the computational costs of pre-training and maintains high performance on the target task.

4. Methods

We investigate a variety of methods to perform efficient pre-training while maintaining high performance on the target dataset. We visualize our overall procedure in Figure 1 and explain our techniques below.

4.1. Conditional Data Filtering

We propose novel methods to perform conditional filtering efficiently. Our methods score every image in the source domain and select the best scoring images according to a pre-specified data budget \( N' \). Our methods are fast, requiring only one forward pass through \( D_s \) to get the filtered dataset \( D'_s \) and can work on both \( D_s = (X_s, Y_s) \) and \( D_s = (X_s) \). The fact that we consider data features not labels perfectly lends our methods to the latter, more relevant, unsupervised setting. This is in contrast to previous work such as [7, 11, 27] which do not consider efficiency and are designed primarily for the supervised setting and thus will be more difficult to apply to large scale datasets.

4.1.1. Conditional Filtering by Clustering

Selecting an appropriate subset \( D'_s \) of pre-training data \( D_s \) can be viewed as selecting a set of data that minimizes some distance metric between \( D'_s \) and the target dataset \( D_t \), as explored in [7, 11]. This is accomplished by taking feature representations \( Z_s \) of the set of images \( X_s \) and selecting pre-training image classes which are close (by some distance metric) to the representations of the target dataset classes. Building on this, we make several significant modifications...
to account for our goals of efficiency and application to unsupervised settings.

Training Only with Target Dataset. We do not train a network $f_h$ on a large scale dataset, i.e. JFT-300M [7], as this defeats the entire goal of pre-training efficiency. Therefore, we first train a model $f_h$ with parameters $\theta_h$ using the target dataset $D_t = (X_t, Y_t)$ and use the learned $\theta_h$ to filter the source dataset $D_s$.

Consider Source Images Individually. Selecting entire classes of pre-training data can be suboptimal when limited to selecting a small subset of the data. For example, if limited to 6% of ImageNet, (a reasonable budget for massive datasets), we can only select 75 of the 1000 classes, which may prohibit the model from having the breadth of data needed to learn transferable features. Instead, we treat each image $x^s_i$ from $D_s$ separately to flexibly over-represent relevant classes while not being forced to select full set of images from different classes. Additionally, very large scale datasets may not have class labels $Y_s$. For this reason, we develop methods that work with unsupervised learning, and treating source images independently accomplishes this.

Scoring and Filtering. Finally, we choose to perform K-Means clustering on the representations $Z_t$ learned by $f_h$ to get $K$ cluster centers $\{\hat{z}_k\}_{k=1}^K$. We then compute the distances between $X_s$ and $\{\hat{z}_k\}_{k=1}^K$ as

$$d_k(x^s_i, k) = ||f_h(x^s_i; \theta_h) - \hat{z}_k||_p$$

where $p$ is typically 1 or 2 (L1 or L2 distance). We can score $x^s_i$ by considering an Aggregation Operator ($AggOp$) of either average distance to the cluster centers

$$c^s_i = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K d_k$$

or minimum distance

$$c^s_i = \min_{k} (d_k).$$

To filter, we sort by $c^s_i$ in ascending order and select $N'$ images to create $D'_s \subset D_s$ and pre-train $\theta_h$ on it. Advantages of our Method Performing unsupervised clustering ensures that our method is not fundamentally limited to image recognition target tasks and also does not assume that source dataset images in the same class should be grouped together. Furthermore, our method requires only a single forward pass through the much smaller pre-training dataset. It attains our goals of efficiency and flexibility, in contrast to prior work such as [11, 7]. We outline the algorithm step-by-step in Algorithm 1 and lay out the method visually in the Appendix.

Algorithm 1 Clustering Based Filtering

1: procedure CLUSTERFILTER($D_s$, $D_t$, $N'$, $K$, $AggOp$)
2: $f_h \leftarrow TRAIN(D_t)$ \Comment{Train Feature Extractor}
3: $Z_t \leftarrow \{f_h(x^t_i)\}_{i=1}^M$ \Comment{Target Representations}
4: $\{\hat{z}_k\}_{k=1}^K \leftarrow K$-Means($Z_t$, $K$) \Comment{Cluster Target}
5: $d_k \leftarrow ||f_h(x^s_i) - \hat{z}_k||_2$ \Comment{Source Distances}
6: $c_s \leftarrow \{AggOp(\{d_k\}_{k=1}^K)\}_{i=1}^N$ \Comment{Score Source}
7: $D'_s \leftarrow BOTTOM(D_s, N', c_s)$ \Comment{Filter Source}
8: return $D'_s$ \Comment{Return the Filtered Subset}

Algorithm 2 Domain Classifier Filtering

1: procedure DOMAINCLSFILTER($D_s$, $D_t$, $N'$)
2: $f_h \leftarrow TRAIN(D_t)$ \Comment{Fit Model}
3: $X_h \leftarrow \{x^s_i\}_{i=1}^M \in D_s$ \Comment{Domain Labels}
4: $Y_h \leftarrow \{0\}_{i=1}^M, \{1\}_{i=1}^M$ \Comment{Training Data}
5: $D_h \leftarrow (X_h, Y_h)$ \Comment{Score}
6: $f_h(x; \theta_h) \leftarrow \text{argmin}_{\theta_h} \text{CELoss}(D_h)$ \Comment{Filter Source}
7: $D'_s \leftarrow TOP(D_s, N', c_s)$ \Comment{Return the Filtered Subset}

4.1.2 Conditional Filtering with Domain Classifier

In this section, we propose a novel domain classifier to filter $D_s$ with several desirable attributes. We outline the algo-
rithm step-by-step in Algorithm 2 and provide a depiction in the Appendix.

**Training.** In this method, we propose to learn \( \theta_h \) to ascertain whether an image belongs to \( D_s \) or \( D_t \). \( \theta_h \) is learned on a third dataset \( D_h = (X_h, Y_h) \) where \( X_h = \{x_s^i\}_{i=1}^M, \{x_t^i\}_{i=1}^M \) and \( M = |D_t| \), consisting of full set of \( D_t \) and a small random subset of \( D_s \). Each source image \( x_s^i \in X_s \) receives a negative label and each target image \( x_t^i \in X_t \) receives a positive label giving us the label set \( Y_h = \{ \{0\}_{i=1}^M, \{1\}_{i=1}^M \} \). We then learn \( \theta_h \) on \( D_h \) using cross entropy loss as

\[
\min_{\theta_h} \sum_{i=1}^{2M} y_h^i \log(f_h(x_h^i; \theta_h)) + (1 - y_h^i) \log(1 - f_h(x_h^i; \theta_h)).
\]  

(4)

**Scoring and Filtering.** Once we learn \( \theta_h \) we obtain the confidence score \( p(y_h = 1|x_s^i; \theta_h) \) for each image \( x_s^i \in X_s \). We then sort the source images \( X_s \) in descending order based on \( p(y_h = 1|x_s^i; \theta_h) \) and choose the top \( N' \) images to create the subset \( D_s' \subseteq D_s \).

**Interpretation.** Our method can be interpreted as selecting images from the pre-training dataset with high probability of belonging to the target domain. It can be shown [13] that the Bayes Optimal binary classifier \( f_h \) assigns probability

\[
p(y_h = 1|x_s^i; \theta_h) = \frac{p_t(x_s^i)}{p_s(x_s^i) + p_t(x_s^i)}
\]  

(5)

for an image \( x_s^i \in X_s \) to belong to the target domain, where \( p_t \) and \( p_s \) are the true data probability distributions for the target and source domains respectively.

### 4.2. Sequential Pre-training

Previously, we treated pre-training for different target tasks independently by pre-training a model from scratch on each conditionally filtered source dataset. In practice, we may be interested in many different target tasks over time, and performing separate pre-training from scratch for each one may hinder efficiency by re-learning basic image features. To avoid it, we propose sequential pre-training where we leverage previously trained models to more quickly pre-train on the next conditionally filtered source dataset.

Formally, we assume that we have a large scale source dataset \( S \) (which can potentially grow over time) and want to perform tasks on \( P \) target datasets, which we receive sequentially over time as \( ((S, D_1, t_1), (S, D_2, t_2), \ldots, (S, D_P, t_P)) \). We receive our first target task with target dataset \( D_1 \) at time \( t_1 \), and we conditionally filter \( S \) into \( S_1' \) based on our data budget. Then, we pre-train a model from scratch on \( S_1' \) and finetune it on \( D_1 \) to get target model \( f_{t_1} \). Generally, when we receive \( D_t \) at time \( t_i \), we filter \( S \) conditioned on \( D_t \) to obtain \( S_i' \). Then, we take our last pre-training model, trained on \( S_{i-1}' \), and update its weights by pre-training on \( S_i' \) and finetune on \( D_i \) to obtain \( f_{t_i} \) to accomplish the current task. Subsequent tasks require smaller and smaller amounts of additional pre-training, thus drastically reducing the total number of pre-training epochs required to accomplish these tasks. We lay out this procedure step by step in Algorithm 3 and visual comparison between independent and sequential conditional pre-training is shown in Figure 2.

### 4.3. Adjusting Pre-training Spatial Resolution

To further increase the efficiency of pre-training, we propose lowering the spatial resolution of images \( X_s \) in the source dataset \( D_s \) while pre-training. We assume that an image is represented as \( x_s^i \in \mathbb{R}^{W_s \times H_s} \) or \( x_t^i \in \mathbb{R}^{W_t \times H_t} \), where \( W_s \) and \( W_t \) represent image width in source and target dataset whereas \( H_s \) and \( H_t \) represent image height in

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**Algorithm 3 Sequential Pre-training**

1. **procedure** \textsc{SequentialPre-Train}(\( T, T_{sem}, S, N' \))
2. \( f = \text{RAND()} \quad \triangleright \text{Randomly Initialize Model} \)
3. while True do
   4. \( T_{sem}.\text{wait}() \quad \triangleright \text{Wait for Task Semaphore} \)
   5. \( S, D_i = T_{sem}.\text{pop}() \quad \triangleright \text{Current Task from Queue} \)
   6. \( S_i' = \text{FILTER}(D_i, S, N') \)
   7. \( f = \text{TRAIN}(f, S_i') \quad \triangleright \text{Update Model} \)
   8. \( \text{TASK}(f, D_i, T_{i}) \quad \triangleright \text{Perform Current Task} \)

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Figure 2: Independent conditional pre-training (Left) and sequential conditional pre-training (Right) with \( P = 3 \) target tasks. Sequential pre-training reduces the number of epochs required to pre-train models to accomplish these tasks.
source and target dataset. Traditionally, after augmentations, we use $W_s, W_t = 224$ and $H_s, H_t = 224$. Here, we consider decreasing $W_s$ and $H_s$ on the pre-training task while maintaining $W_t, H_t = 224$ on the target task. Reducing image resolution while pre-training can provide significant speedups by decreasing FLOPs required by convolution operations, and our experiments show that downsizing image resolution by half $W_s, H_s = 112$ almost halves the pre-training time with negligible loss on the target dataset.

5. Experiments

5.1. Datasets

**Source Dataset** For our primary source dataset, we utilize ImageNet-2012 [8], with $\sim1.28M$ images over 1000 classes. While full ImageNet is commonly used to pre-train, we use it as a proxy for a larger scale dataset that must be filtered from to thoroughly test our methods’ finetuning performance under various settings. Thus, we experiment under two data budgets, limiting filtered subsets of ImageNet to 75K ($\sim6\%$) and 150K ($\sim12\%$) images. This is an appropriate proportion when dealing with pre-training datasets on the scale of tens of millions or more images. We also test our methods in larger scale settings and compile 6.71M images from the Places, OpenImages, ImageNet, and COCO datasets [25, 45, 24] and perform filtering on this source dataset to perform conditional pre-training.

**Image Recognition** For image recognition tasks, we utilize the Stanford Cars [41], the Caltech Birds [23], and a subset of the Functional Map of the World [6] (fMoW) datasets as target datasets. We provide basic details about these datasets in the Appendix. These datasets lend important diversity to validate the flexibility of our methods. Cars has a fairly small distribution shift from ImageNet, and pre-training on ImageNet performs well on it, but Birds contains a larger shift and pre-training datasets emphasizing natural settings such as iNat perform better [7, 39]. Finally, fMoW, consisting of overhead satellite images, contains images very dissimilar to ImageNet. Additionally, Birds and Cars are fine grained tasks, discriminating between different species of birds or models of cars, respectively. In contrast, fMoW contains more general categories, i.e., buildings and landmarks [37, 30, 34, 38].

**Object Detection and Image Segmentation** [14, 15] show that unsupervised ImageNet pre-training is most effective when paired with more challenging low level downstream tasks. Therefore, we also perform experiments in the object detection and semantic segmentation setting to validate the flexibility and adaptability of our methods. To this end, we utilize the Pascal VOC 2007 [9] dataset with unsupervised ImageNet pre-training of the backbone.

5.2. Analyzing Source Dataset Filtering Methods

Here, we make some important points about our filtering methods and refer the reader to the Appendix for specific implementation details.

**Domain Classifier Accuracy** We typically train the domain classifier to 92-95% accuracy. We empirically find this is the sweet spot as classifiers with 88-90% accuracy, perhaps due to not learning relevant features, and 98+% accuracy, perhaps due to over-discriminating minor differences between domains such as noise or color/contrast, do not perform as well.

**Efficiency and Adaptability Comparison.** The domain classifier trains a simple binary classifier and bypasses full representation learning on a target dataset, computing distances, or clustering. However, this difference in efficiency is small compared to pre-training cost. More importantly, when the target task is not image level classification, the
representation learning step for clustering based filtering must be modified in a non-trivial manner. This can involve a global pooling over spatial feature maps while performing object detection or an entirely different setup like unsupervised learning. The domain classifier is more adaptable than clustering as it does not require modification for any type of target task.

**Qualitative Analysis.** In Figures 3 and 4, we visualize some of the highest scoring filtered images for all our methods on image classification tasks and verify that our filtering methods do select images with relevant features to the target task. Unsurprisingly, more interpretable images are selected for Birds and Cars, as there are no satellite images in ImageNet. Nevertheless, we see that the selected images for fMoW still contain relevant features such as color, texture, and shapes.

### 5.3. Transfer Learning for Image Recognition

#### 5.3.1 Supervised Pre-training Results

We present target task accuracy for all our methods on Cars, Birds, and fMoW along with approximate pre-training and filtering time in Table 1.

| Pre-train. Sel. Method | Target Dataset | Cost (hrs) |
|------------------------|----------------|------------|
|                         | Cars           | Birds      | fMoW      |
| 224 x 224              | 50-55          | 112 x 112  |
| Supervised Pre-train.  | 50-55          | 112 x 112  |
| Pre-train. Sel. Method | 90-110         | 0          |
| 0%                     | Random Init.   | 52.89      | 42.17     | 43.35     | 0          |
| 100%                   | Entire Dataset | 82.63      | 74.87     | 59.05     | 160-180   |

| Pre-train. Sel. Method | Target Dataset | Cost (hrs) |
|------------------------|----------------|------------|
|                         | Cars           | Birds      | fMoW      |
| 124 x 124              | 50-55          | 112 x 112  |
| Supervised Pre-train.  | 50-55          | 112 x 112  |
| Pre-train. Sel. Method | 90-110         | 0          |
| 0%                     | Random Init.   | 52.89      | 42.17     | 43.35     | 0          |
| 100%                   | Entire Dataset | 83.78      | 73.47     | 57.39     | 90-110    |

Table 1: Target task accuracy and approximate filtering and pre-training cost (time in hrs on 1 GPU) on 3 visual categorization datasets obtained by pre-training on different subsets of the source dataset (ImageNet) with different filtering methods at different resolutions. **Left:** Pre-training with 224 × 224 pixels images, **Right:** Pre-training with 112 × 112 pixels images.

Unsurprisingly, filtering provides the most gains on Cars and Birds where the target dataset has a smaller shift. On fMoW, it is very hard to detect similar images to ImageNet, as the two distributions have very little overlap. Nevertheless, in this setting, our filtering methods can still select enough relevant features to provide a 1-2% boost.

**Comparison of Filtering Methods.** While all our methods perform well, we see that the domain classifier is less variable than clustering and always outperforms random selection. On the other hand, average clustering performs well on Cars or fMoW, but does worse than random on Birds and vice versa for min clustering. These methods rely on computing high dimensional vector distances to assign a measure of similarity, which may explain their volatility since such high dimensional distances are not considered in supervised pre-training.

#### 5.3.2 Unsupervised Pre-training Results

We observe promising results in the supervised setting, but a more realistic and useful setting is the unsupervised setting due to the difficulties inherent in labeling large-scale data. Thus, we use MoCo-v2 [15], a state of the art unsupervised learning method, to pre-train on ImageNet and present results for Cars, Birds, and fMoW in Table 2.

**Effect of Image Resolution.** We find that in the unsupervised setting, with 150K pre-training images, lower resolution pre-training largely maintains or even improves performance as the target distribution shifts. Unsupervised pre-training relies more on high level features and thus may be better suited than supervised methods for lower resolution pre-training, since higher resolution images may be needed to infer fine grained label boundaries.

**Impact of Filtering.** We find that our filtering techniques consistently provide up to a 2.5% performance increase over random selection, with a relatively small increase in cost. Unsurprisingly, filtering provides the most gains on Cars and Birds where the target dataset has a smaller shift. On fMoW, it is very hard to detect similar images to ImageNet, as the two distributions have very little overlap. Nevertheless, in this setting, our filtering methods can still select enough relevant features to provide a 1-2% boost.

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Cognizant of the inefficiencies of independent pre-training conditionally on the target tasks, we assume a practical scenario where over time we receive three tasks, $D_1$, $D_2$, $D_3$ representing Cars/Birds/fMoW respectively, with $S$ being ImageNet. We use the domain classifier to filter 150K images, obtain $S'_1$, $S'_2$, $S'_3$, and sequentially pre-train $f_p$ for 100, 40, and 20 epochs respectively with MoCo-v2. In contrast, during independent pre-training we pre-train a separate $f_p$ for 100 epochs for each target task.

We present results in Figure 5. Naturally, for Cars the results do not change, but since learned features are leveraged, not discarded, for subsequent tasks, we observe gains of up to 1% on Birds and 2% on fMoW over Table 2 while using 160 total pre-training epochs vs 300 for independent pre-training. Our sequential pre-training method augments the effectiveness of our filtering methods in settings with many target tasks over time and drastically reduces the number of epochs required. We leave the application of this technique for object detection and segmentation as future work.

5.4. Transfer Learning for Low Level Tasks

Previously we explored image level classification target tasks for conditional pre-training. In this section, we perform experiments on transfer learning for object detection and semantic segmentation on the Pascal VOC 2007 dataset.

We present results in Table 3. For filtering, we use the domain classifier with no modifications and for clustering, we use MoCo-v2 on Pascal VOC 2007 to learn representations. We refer the reader to the Appendix for more experimental details.

Effect of Image Resolution. Overall, pre-training on low resolution images produces no overall decrease in performance, with the corresponding 30-50% reduction in train-
ImageNet pre-training performance on downstream tasks, we can improve training on three target tasks. By fine-tuning ImageNet on a smaller scale dataset like Pascal VOC 2007. The domain classifier may be more challenging on smaller scale datasets like Pascal VOC 2007. The domain classifier, on the other hand, avoids these challenges and does not have to change when the target task is changed.

**Adaptability Comparison** Relative to prior work [7, 44], our clustering method is more adaptable and can efficiently be used for detection/segmentation as well as image classification. However, the representation learning step for clustering must be changed for such target tasks, which can hinder downstream performance as a representation learning technique like MoCo-v2 may be more challenging on smaller scale datasets like Pascal VOC 2007. The domain classifier, on the other hand, avoids these challenges and does not have to change when the target task is changed.

**Performance Comparison** We observe that all of our proposed filtering techniques yield consistent gains of up to 9% over random filtering, confirming their applicability to lower level tasks. In the segmentation setting, pre-training on a 12% subset can match full pre-training performance. Clustering produces meaningful gains, but the domain classifier outperforms it in almost every object detection scenario and the majority of segmentation metrics. This is especially pronounced with a larger pre-training subset, showing the domain classifier can filter more relevant images.

### Table 4: Image classification results for ImageNet+ pre-training on three target tasks.

| ImageNet+        | 224x224 | 112x112 |
|------------------|---------|---------|
| Pre-train. Sel. Method | Cars | Birds | fMow | Cars | Birds | fMow |
| ImageNet         | 83.52  | 67.49  | 56.11 | 84.09 | 66.57 | 56.83 |
| ImageNet+Domain Cls. | 84.33 | 69.78  | 57.95 | 84.56 | 69.88 | 58.04 |

### Table 3: Comparison of different source dataset filtering methods and pre-training image resolutions on transfer learning on Pascal-VOC object detection (**Left**) and semantic segmentation (**Right**) tasks. For object detection and semantic segmentation, we use unsupervised pre-training method MoCo-v2 [15].

### Table 5: Results on large scale pre-training (MoCo-v2) and finetuning on the Stanford Cars dataset, with pre-training resolutions of both 112 × 112 pixels and 224 × 224 pixels. Conditionally filtering 1.28M images out of the POIC dataset with the domain classifier improves accuracy on the Stanford Cars dataset over random filtering and ImageNet (1.28M images) pre-training.

| POIC-Random@224 | POIC-Ours@112 | POIC-Ours@224 | ImageNet@224 |
|------------------|---------------|---------------|--------------|
| Accuracy         | 82.96         | 84.29         | 84.51        | 83.52        |
| Cost (hrs)       | 210-220       | 130-140       | 230-240      | 210-220      |

### 5.5. Improving ImageNet Pre-training

Thus far, we have used ImageNet as a proxy for a very large scale dataset to show the promise of our methods in pre-training on task-conditioned subsets. Since pre-trained models on ImageNet (1.28M images) are readily available, we now motivate practical use of our method by showing how they can outperform full ImageNet pre-training.

**ImageNet+** Here, we take a model pre-trained on ImageNet (1.28M images) and help it focus on specific examples to our task by tuning its weights for a small number of epochs on our conditionally filtered subset of ImageNet before transfer learning. We apply this method to Cars/Birds/fMoW and pre-trained ImageNet weights with MoCo-v2 for 20 additional epochs on 150K domain classifier filtered ImageNet subsets. We present results in Table 4 and report improvements by up to 1-3% over full ImageNet pre-training with minimal extra cost.

**Large Scale Filtering** Here, we envision a scenario in which a user wants to pre-train a model from scratch for a specific application with access to larger scale data than full ImageNet. To this end, we assemble a large scale dataset, which we call POIC, consisting of 6.71M images from the Places, OpenImages, ImageNet, and COCO datasets [25, 45, 24]. Next, we filter a subset of 1.28M images out of the POIC dataset using the domain classifier conditioned on the Cars dataset. We pre-train the weights using an unsupervised learning method, MoCo-v2, and present our results on the Cars dataset in Table 5. Our filtering methods improve on the current default of 224 resolution
ImageNet pre-training by 1-1.5% with good cost tradeoffs. Interestingly, a random subset of the large scale dataset performs worse than ImageNet, showing that our filtering method is crucial to select relevant examples. Here we are forced to use a 19% subset, but previous experiments showed larger relative gains for 6% in comparison to 12% subsets, so access to even larger scale data (≥6.7M), which should be common in the future, could further improve results. This shows promise that our methods can leverage exponentially growing data scale to replace ImageNet pre-training for specific target tasks.

6. Conclusion

In this work, we proposed filtering methods to efficiently pre-train on large scale datasets conditioned on transfer learning tasks including image recognition, object detection and semantic segmentation. To further improve pre-training efficiency, we proposed decreased image resolution for pre-training and found this shortens pre-training cost by 30-50% with similar transfer learning accuracy. Additionally, we introduced sequential pre-training to improve the efficiency of conditional pre-training with multiple target tasks. Finally, we demonstrated how our methods can improve the standard ImageNet pre-training by focusing models pre-trained on ImageNet on relevant examples and filtering an ImageNet-sized dataset from a larger scale dataset.

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A. Method Visualization

We present visual depictions for clustering based filtering in Figure 6 and for the domain classifier in Figure 7.

B. Additional Methods

B.1. Active Learning

Active learning is a research field concentrating on understanding which samples in a pool of samples should be given priority for annotation. One of the most common and
Figure 6: Schematic overview of clustering based filtering. We first train a model on the target domain to extract representations, which we use to cluster the target domain. We score source images with either average or min distance to cluster centers and then filter.

Figure 7: Depiction of the Domain Classifier. We train a simple binary classifier to discriminate between source and target domain and then use the output probabilities on source images to filter.

simple active learning method relies on training a model on a labeled dataset and finding the entropy of the unseen samples by running them through the trained model. Next, top N unseen samples w.r.t their entropy (assigned by the current model) are listed in descending order. Usually, there is a single data distribution for labelled and unlabelled data, however, for our task we consider two data distributions: pre-training and target, which can be similar or completely different. For this reason, we apply two variations of active learning to conditional pre-training. First, we train a network \( f_t \) on the target dataset \( D_t \) and run images \( x_s \) in source dataset through the network \( f_t \) to get the entropy of the predictions. Next, we list the images \( x_s \) by ascending or descending entropy and choose the top \( N \) images. Choosing high entropy samples can be interpreted as standard active learning, and we call the method that chooses low entropy images Inverse Active Learning.

B.2. Experimental Setup

For classification tasks, we train the linear classification layer from scratch and finetune the pre-trained backbone weights. We give basic details about our classification datasets in Table 6.

| Dataset               | #classes | #train  | #test  |
|-----------------------|----------|---------|--------|
| Stanford Cars [41]    | 196      | 8143    | 8041   |
| Caltech Birds [23]    | 200      | 6000    | 2788   |
| Functional Map of the World [6] | 62     | 18180   | 10609  |

Table 6: We use three challenging visual categorization datasets to evaluate the proposed pre-training strategies on target classification tasks.

**Methods** We experiment with clustering based filtering, using \( K = 200 \) clusters and both average and min distance to cluster centers, as well as our domain classifier method, using ResNet-18 [17] as our classifier. Furthermore, we combine our filtering methods with downsizing pre-training image resolution from 224x224 to 112x112 using bilinear interpolation. We always perform filtering on 224 resolution source images, but use it to pre-training at both resolutions to assess flexibility, as we want robust methods that do not need to be specifically adjusted to the pre-training setup.

**Supervised Pre-training.** For supervised pre-training, in all experiments, we utilize the ResNet-34 model [17] on 1 Nvidia-TITAN X GPU. We perform standard cropping/flipping transforms for ImageNet and the target data. For pre-training, we pretrain on the given subset of ImageNet for 90 epochs, utilizing SGD with momentum .9, weight decay of 1e-4, and learning rate .01 with a decay of 0.1 every 30 epochs. We finetune for 90 epochs with a learning rate decay of 0.1 every 30 epochs for all datasets. For Cars and Birds, we utilize SGD with momentum .9 [29], learning rate 0.1, and weight decay of 1e-4. For iMoW, we utilize the Adam optimizer [21] with learning rate 1e-4.

**Unsupervised Pre-training.** For unsupervised pre-
training, we utilize the state of the art MoCo-v2 [15] technique using a ResNet-50 model [17] in all experiments. We train on 4 Nvidia GPUs. MoCo [14, 15] is a self-supervised learning method that utilizes contrastive learning, where the goal is to maximize agreement between different views of the same image (positive pairs) and to minimize agreement between different images (negative pairs). Our choice to use MoCo is driven by (1) performance, and (2) computational cost. Compared to other self-supervised frameworks, such as SimCLR [3], which require a batch size of 4096, MoCo uses a momentum updated queue of previously seen samples and achieves comparable performance with a batch size of just 256 [14].

We keep the same data augmentations and hyperparameters used in [15]. We finetune the MoCo pre-trained backbone on our target tasks for 100 epochs using a learning rate of 0.001, batch size of 64, SGD optimizer for Cars and Birds, and Adam optimizer for fMoW.

B.3. Low Level Tasks

Object Detection. We use a standard setup for object detection with a Faster R-CNN detector with a R50-C4 backbone as in [14, 16, 42]. We pre-train the backbone with MoCo-v2 on the full or filtered subset of ImageNet. We finetune the final layers for 24k iterations (~23 epochs) on trainval2007 (~5k images). We evaluate on the VOC test2007 set with the default metric AP50 and the more stringent metrics of COCO-style [25] AP and AP75. For filtering, we use the domain classifier with no modifications and for clustering we use MoCo-v2 on Pascal VOC to learn representations.

Semantic Segmentation. We use PSAnet [?] network with ResNet-50 backbone to perform semantic segmentation. We train PSAnet network with a batch size of 16 and a learning rate of 0.01 for 100 epochs and use SGD optimizer. Similar to object detection, we pre-train the backbone with MoCo-v2 on the full or filtered subset of ImageNet and then we finetune the network using VOC train2012. We evaluate on the VOC test2012 set with the following three metrics: (a) mIOU: standard segmentation metric, (b) mAcc: mean classwise pixel accuracy, (c) allAcc: total pixel accuracy. For filtering, we use the domain classifier with no modifications and for clustering we use MoCo-v2 on Pascal VOC to learn representations.

C. Additional Results

C.1. Active Learning

We utilize our Active Learning based methods using the same supervised pre-training and finetuning setup described previously. We present our results updated with Active Learning in Table 7.

Least vs Most Confident Samples. We see that at 224×224 pixels resolution pre-training, standard active learning seems to be applicable to the transfer learning setting as selecting samples with high entropy generally does better than the inverse. However, at lower resolution (112×112 pixels) pre-training, active learning does worse than inverse active learning and random in most cases, suggesting a lack of robustness for the active learning method since filtering is performed at 224×224 pixels resolution.

Performance Comparison. As alluded to, active learning methods perform noticeably worse in the lower resolution setting for all datasets, suggesting that filtering and pre-training conditions must be similar to maintain good performance, unlike domain classifier and clustering. In general, we see that for Cars and Birds, even at 224×224 pixels resolution pre-training, active learning performance lags behind our clustering and domain classifier methods and struggles to improve over the simple random baseline in several settings. In contrast, for an out of distribution dataset like fMoW, active learning does well in the 224×224 pixels resolution pre-training setting. Since active learning directly considers label distribution when filtering, it may be more prone to overfitting compared to the other methods. This can degrade its performance when relevant features are shared between the pre-training and target datasets and thus focusing only on features, not labels, when filtering may be more effective. However, in fMoW, there is very little overlap in relevant features with ImageNet, bridging the gap between active learning, and domain classifier and clustering.

Adaptability Comparison. Active learning is noticeably less flexible than other methods as it relies on a notion of confidence that can be hard to construct and quantify for target tasks besides classification. As said, it is also much more sensitive to filtering and pre-training resolution, making it a less robust method. In general, we see that our clustering and domain classification methods can outperform a non-trivial baseline like active learning in flexibility, adaptability, and performance.
Table 7: Results on supervised pre-training and classification tasks, including Active Learning.