Instance-Dependent Noisy Label Learning via Graphical Modelling

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Abstract

Noisy labels are unavoidable yet troublesome in the ecosystem of deep learning because models can easily overfit them. There are many types of label noise, such as symmetric, asymmetric and instance-dependent noise (IDN), with IDN being the only type that depends on image information. Such dependence on image information makes IDN a critical type of label noise to study, given that labelling mistakes are caused in large part by insufficient or ambiguous information about the visual classes present in images. Aiming to provide an effective technique to address IDN, we present a new graphical modelling approach called InstanceGM, that combines discriminative and generative models. The main contributions of InstanceGM are: i) the use of the continuous Bernoulli distribution to train the generative model, offering significant training advantages, and ii) the exploration of a state-of-the-art noisy-label discriminative classifier to generate clean labels from instance-dependent noisy-label samples. InstanceGM is competitive with current noisy-label learning approaches, particularly in IDN benchmarks using synthetic and real-world datasets, where our method shows better accuracy than the competitors in most experiments\textsuperscript{1}.

1. Introduction

The latest developments in deep neural networks (DNNs) have shown outstanding results in a variety of applications ranging from computer vision [31] to natural language processing [48] and medical image analysis [47]. Such success is strongly reliant on high-capacity models, which in turn, require a massive amount of correctly-annotated data for training [34, 67]. Annotating a large amount of data is, however, arduous, costly and time-consuming, and therefore is often done via crowdsourcing [56] that generally produces low-quality annotations. Although that brings down the cost and scales up the process, the trade-off is the mislabelling of the data, resulting in a deteriorating of deep models’ performance [3, 35] due to the memorisation effect [2, 35, 44, 70]. This has, therefore, motivated the research of novel learning algorithms to tackle the label noise problem where data might have been mislabelled.

Early work in label noise [17] was carried out under the assumption that label noise was instance-independent (IIN), i.e., mislabelling occurred regardless of the information about the visual classes present in images. In IIN, we generally have a transition matrix that contains a predefined probability of flipping between pairs of labels (e.g., any image showing a cat has a high priori probability of being mislabelled as a dog and low a priori probability of being mislabelled as a car). This type of noise can also be divided into two sub-types: symmetric, where a true label is flipped to another label with equal probability across all classes, and asymmetric, where a true label is more likely to be mislabelled into one of some particular classes [17]. Nevertheless, the IIN assumption is impractical for many real-world datasets because we can intuitively argue that mislabellings mostly occur because of insufficient or ambiguous information about the visual classes present in images. As a result, recent studies have gradually shifted their focus toward the more realistic scenario of instance-dependent noise (IDN), where label noise depends on both the true class label and the image information [62].

Many methods have been introduced to handle not only IIN, but also IDN problems. Those include, but are not limited to, sample selection [12, 27, 33, 61, 72] that detects clean and noisy labels and applies semi-supervised learning methods on the processed data, robust losses [1, 38, 46] that can work well with either clean or noisy labels, and probabilistic approaches [66] that model the data gener-
tion process, including how a noisy label is created. Despite some successes, most methods are often demonstrated in IIN settings with simulated symmetric and asymmetric noise. However, their performance is degraded when evaluated on IDN problems, which include real-world and synthetic datasets. Although there are a few studies focusing on the IDN setting [10, 26, 62, 66, 74], their relatively inaccurate classification results suggest that the algorithms can be improved further.

In this paper, we propose a new method to tackle the IDN problem, called InstanceGM. Our method is designed based on a graphical model that considers the clean label \( Y \) as a latent variable and introduces another latent variable \( Z \) representing the image feature to model the generation of a label noise \( \hat{Y} \) and an image \( X \). InstanceGM integrates generative and discriminative models, where the generative model is based on a variational auto-encoder (VAE) [28], except that we replace the conventional mean squared error (MSE) when modelling the likelihood of reconstructed images by a continuous Bernoulli distribution [40] that facilitates the training process since it avoids tuning additional hyper-parameters. For the discriminative model, to mitigate the problem of only using clean label data during the training process, which is a common issue present in the similar graphical model methods [66], we rely on DivideMix [33] that uses both clean and noisy-label data for training by exploring semi-supervised learning via MixMatch [5]. DivideMix is shown to be a reasonably effective discriminative classifier for our InstanceGM. In summary, the main contributions of the proposed method are:

- InstanceGM follows a graphical modelling approach to generate both the image \( X \) and its noisy label \( \hat{Y} \) with the true label \( Y \) and image feature \( Z \) as latent variables. The modelling is associated with the continuous Bernoulli distribution to model the generation of instance \( X \) to facilitate the training, avoiding tuning of additional hyper-parameters (see Remark 3).

- For the discriminative classifier of InstanceGM, we replace the commonly used co-teaching, which is a dual model that relies only on training samples classified as clean, with DivideMix [33] that uses all training samples classified as clean and noisy.

- InstanceGM shows state-of-the-art results on a variety of IDN benchmarks, including simulated and real-world datasets, such as CIFAR10 and CIFAR100 [30], Red Mini-ImageNet from Controlled Noisy Web Labels (CNWL) [65], ANIMAL-10N [53] and CLOTHING-1M [64].

2. Related work

As DNNs have been shown to easily fit randomly labelled training data [68], they can also overfit a noisy-label dataset, which eventually results in poor generalisation to a clean-label testing data [2, 35, 44, 70]. Several studies have, therefore, been conducted to investigate supervised learning under the label noise setting, including robust loss function [41, 58], sample selection [53, 55, 59], robust regularisation [14, 23, 43, 60] and robust architecture [11, 16, 29, 64]. Below, we review methods dealing with noisy labels, especially IDN, without the reliance on clean validation sets [22, 50, 57].

Let us start with methods designed to handle “any” type of label noise, including IDN and IIN. An important technique for both of these label noise types is sample selection [53, 55, 59], which aims to select clean-label samples automatically for training. Although it is well-motivated and often effective, it suffers from the cumulative error caused by mistakes in the selection process, mainly when there are numerous unclear classes in the training data. Consequently, sample selection methods often rely on multiple clean-label sample classifiers to increase their robustness against such cumulative error [33]. In addition, semi-supervised learning (SSL) [4, 12, 27, 33, 53, 72] have also been integrated with sample selection and multiple clean-label classifiers to enable the training from clean and noisy-label samples. In particular, SSL methods use clean and noisy samples by treating them as labelled and unlabelled data, respectively, with a MixMatch approach [5]. These methods above have been designed to handle “any” type of label noise, so they are usually assessed in synthetic IIN benchmarks and real-world IDN benchmarks.

Given that real-world datasets do not, in general, contain IIN, more recently proposed methods aim to address IDN benchmarks [6, 10, 37, 62, 66, 73]. In these benchmarks, the task of differentiating between hard clean-labelled samples and noisy-label samples pose a major challenge. Such issue is noted by Song et al. [54], who state that the model performance in IDN can degrade significantly compared to other types of noises.

One direct way of addressing IDN problems relies on a graphical model approach that has random variables representing the observed noisy label, the image, and the latent clean label. This model also has a generative process to produce an image given the (clean and noisy) label information [32]. Another approach examines a graphical model using a discriminative process [49], where the model attempts to explain the posterior probability of the observed noisy label by averaging the posterior probabilities of the clean class label. Yao et al. [66] developed a new causal model to address IDN that also uses the same variables as the methods above plus a latent image feature variable, which relies on generative models to produce the image from the clean
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3. Methodology

3.1. Problem definition

We denote $X$ as an observed random variable representing an image, $Y$ as a latent random variable corresponding to the clean label of $X$, $Z$ as a latent random variable denoting an image feature representation for $X$, and $\hat{Y}$ as the observed random variable for the noisy label. The training set is represented by $D = \{(x_i, \hat{y}_i)\}_{i=1}^{|D|}$, where the image is represented by $x \in \mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3}$ (with 3 color channels and size $H \times W$ pixels) and the noisy label $\hat{y} \in \mathcal{Y} \in \{0, 1\}^{3Y}$ denoted by a one-hot vector. In the conventional supervised learning, $\mathcal{D}$ is used to train a model $f_\theta : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \Delta^{3Y-1}$ (where $\Delta^{3Y-1}$ represents the probability simplex), parameterised by $\theta \in \Theta$, that can predict the labels of testing images. The aim is to exploit the noisy data $(X, \hat{Y})$ from a training set to infer a model $f_\theta$ that can accurately predict the clean labels $Y$ of data in a testing set.

3.2. Probabilistic noisy label modelling

We follow a similar approach presented in [66] to model the process that generates samples with noisy labels via the graphical model shown in Fig. 1, where the clean label $Y$ and image feature representation $Z$ are latent variables. Under this modelling assumption, a noisy-label sample $(x, \hat{y})$ can be generated as follows:

1. sample a clean label from its prior: $y \sim p(Y)$,
2. sample a representation from its prior: $z \sim p(Z)$,
3. sample an input data from its continuous Bernoulli distribution: $x \sim CB(X; \lambda(z, y))$,
4. sample the corresponding noisy label from its categorical distribution: $\hat{y} \sim Cat(\hat{Y}; \gamma(x, y))$.

Remark 1 Conventionally, the process of generating data $x$ in step 3 above is often modelled as a Bernoulli distribution or multivariate normal distribution, corresponding to the binary cross-entropy (BCE) or MSE reconstruction losses, respectively. Such modelling, however, leads to a pervasive error [40] since the image pixels are in $[0, 1]$ instead of $\{0, 1\}$ (Bernoulli distribution) or $(-\infty, +\infty)$ (multivariate normal distribution). We therefore adopt the continuous Bernoulli distribution [40] which has a support in $[0, 1]$ to correctly model this image generation process.

Note that the parameters of the continuous Bernoulli and categorical distributions are conditioned on $Z, X$ and $Y$, and modelled as the outputs of two DNNs:

$$\lambda = f_{\theta_x}(z, y) \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma = f_{\theta_y}(x, y),$$

where $f$ denotes the neural network, and $\theta_x, \theta_y$ represent the network parameters. Following the convention in machine learning, we call $f_{\theta_x}(\cdot)$ the decoder and $f_{\theta_y}(\cdot)$ the noisy label classifier.

To solve the label noise problem that has data generated from the process above, we need to infer the posterior $p(Z, Y|X, \hat{Y})$. However, due to the complexity of the graphical model in Fig. 1, exact inference for the posterior $p(Z, Y|X, \hat{Y})$ is intractable, and therefore, the estimation must rely on an approximation. Motivated by [66], we employ variational inference to approximate the true posterior $p(Z, Y|X, \hat{Y})$ by a variational “posterior” $q(Z, Y|X, \hat{Y})$. Such posterior can be obtained by minimising the following Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence:

$$\min_q KL \left[ q(Z, Y|X, \hat{Y}) \| p(Z, Y|X, \hat{Y}) \right],$$

where the variational posterior $q(Z, Y|X, \hat{Y})$ can be factorised following the product rule of probability. We assume that the posterior of the clean label $Y$ is independent from the noisy label $Y$, given the instance $X$: $q(Y|X, \hat{Y}) = q(Y|X)$. In addition, the variational posterior of feature representation is independent from the noisy label given the clean label and input data: $q(Z|X, \hat{Y}, Y) = q(Z|X, Y)$. The variational posterior of interest can, therefore, be written as:

$$q(Z, Y|X, \hat{Y}) = q(Z|X, \hat{Y}, Y) q(Y|X, \hat{Y}) = q(Z|X, Y) q(Y|X).$$

Figure 1. The proposed graphical model of the generation process that produces the observable (shaded nodes) data $X$ and noisy label $\hat{Y}$ from hidden (non-shaded nodes) data representation $Z$ and clean label $Y$. label and image feature, and to produce the noisy label from the image feature and clean label. That approach [66], however, did not produce competitive results compared with state of the art. We argue that the model’s poor performance is mostly due to the co-teaching [17] that is trained with a small set of samples classified as clean, which can inadvertently contain noisy-label samples – this is an issue that can cause a cumulative error, particularly in IDN problems.

Our work is motivated by the graphical model approaches mentioned above, that aim to address IDN problems. The main difference in our approach is the use of a more effective clean sample identifier that replaces co-teaching [66] by DivideMix [33], which considers the whole training set, instead of only the samples classified as clean. Moreover, we propose a more effective training of the image generative model based on the continuous Bernoulli distribution [40].
The objective function in (2) can then be expanded as:

\[
L^{(vi)} = \mathbb{E}_{q(Z|X,Y)}q(Y|X) \left[ - \ln p(X|Z,Y) \right] + \mathbb{E}_{q(Y|X)} \left[ - \ln p(\hat{Y}|X,Y) \right] + \text{KL} [q(Y|X) || p(Y)] + \mathbb{E}_{q(Y|X)} \left[ \text{KL} [q(Z|X,Y) || p(Z)] \right].
\] (4)

**Remark 2** The objective function \( L^{(vi)} \) in (4) shares similarity with the loss in variational auto-encoder [28]. In particular, the first two terms in (4) are analogous to the reconstruction loss, while the remaining terms are analogous to the KL loss that regularises the deviation between the posterior \( q \) and its prior.

To optimise the objective in (4), both the posteriors \( q(Z|X,Y) \) and \( q(Y|X) \) and priors \( p(Z) \) and \( p(Y) \) must be specified. We assume \( q(Z|X,Y) \) to be a multivariate normal distribution with a diagonal covariance matrix and \( q(Y|X) \) to be a categorical distribution:

\[
q(Z|X = x, \hat{Y} = \hat{y}) = \mathcal{N}(Z; \mu(x, \hat{y}), \text{diag}(\sigma^2(x, \hat{y})))
\]

\[
q(Y|X = x) = \text{Cat}(Y; \rho(x)),
\] (5)

where the parameters of these distributions are modelled as the outputs of two DNNs. Hereafter, we call the network that models \( q(Y|X) \) the clean label classifier, and the model \( q(Z|X, \hat{Y}) \), the encoder.

For the priors, we follow the convention in generative models, especially VAE, to assume \( p(Z) \) as a standard normal distribution, while \( p(Y) \) is a uniform distribution.

Given such assumptions, we can minimise the loss function \( L^{(vi)} \) in (4) w.r.t. the parameters of the two classifiers, the encoder and decoder in (5) and (1). The obtained clean label classifier that models \( q(Y|X) \) will then be used as the final classifier to evaluate data in the testing set.

**Remark 3** Optimising the objective function in (4) often requires the definition of hyper-parameters to weight the KL divergences [15]. However, such weighting mechanism depends on the estimation of the KL divergences weights that is usually achieved with a grid-search using a validation set, making solutions dependent on the dataset. The reason for such weighting mechanism lies at the log-likelihoods used as reconstruction losses. For example, \( -\ln p(X|Z,Y) \) is simply replaced by the corresponding loss functions, such as MSE, without taking the normalisation constants of those likelihood functions into account, resulting in an incorrect balance between reconstruction loss and regularisation. In

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2 Except for black and white images.
In this paper, we propose the use of the correct form of the log-likelihood, namely the continuous Bernoulli distribution for \( p(X|Z, Y) \) and categorical distribution for \( p(Y|X, Y) \), with their normalisation constants. Hence, we no longer need the weighting of the KL divergences, making our proposed method simpler to train.\(^3\)

### 3.3. Practical implementation

In practice, the small loss hypothesis is often used to effectively identify the clean samples in a training set\([17,33]\). However, naively implementing such hypothesis using a single model might accumulate error due to sample selection bias. One way to avoid such scenario is to train two models simultaneously where each model is updated using only the clean samples selected by the other model. In this paper, we integrate a similar approach into our modelling presented in Section 3.2 to solve the label noise problem.

\(^3\)More detailed information mentioned in Appendix B
sonable efficacy for IDN problems, as shown in Table 1.

Remark 4 Other instance-dependent methods similar to DivideMix [33], such as Contrast-to-Divide [72], ELR+ [35], can also be integrated into our proposed framework. The reason that DivideMix is used is due to its remarkable performance, especially on the IDN setting, and its publicly available implementation.

In general, the loss function for training the proposed model consists of two losses: one is the loss $L^{(vi)}$ from the graphical modelling in (4), and the other is the loss to train DivideMix [33, Eq. (12)], denoted as $L^{(dm)}$. The whole loss is represented as:

$$ L = L^{(vi)} + L^{(dm)} \tag{6} $$

and the training procedure is summarised in Algorithm 1 and depicted in Fig. 2.

4. Experiments

In this section, we show the results of extensive experiments on two standard benchmark datasets with IDN, CIFAR10 [30] and CIFAR100 [30] at various noise rates\(^4\), and three real-world datasets, ANIMAL-10N [53], Red Mini-Imagenet from CNWL [24] and CLOTHING-1M [64]. In Section 4.1, we explain all datasets mentioned above. In Section 4.2, we discuss all models and their parameters. We compare our approach with state-of-the-art models in IDN benchmarks and real-world datasets in Section 4.3.

4.1. Datasets

In both CIFAR10 and CIFAR100, there are $50k$ training images and $10k$ testing images with each images of size $32 \times 32 \times 3$ pixels, where CIFAR10 consists of 10 classes, CIFAR100 has 100 classes and both datasets are class-balanced. As CIFAR10 and CIFAR100 datasets do not include label noise by default, we added IDN with noise rates in $\{0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.45, 0.5\}$ following the setup proposed by Xia et al. [62].

Red Mini-Imagenet from CNWL [24] is a real-world dataset where images and their corresponding labels are crawled from internet at various controllable label noise rates. This dataset is proposed to study real-world noise in controlled settings. In this work, we focus on Red Mini-ImageNet since it shows a realistic type of label noise. Red Mini-ImageNet has 100 classes, with each class containing 600 images sampled from the ImageNet dataset [51]. The images are resized to $32 \times 32$ pixels from the original size of $84 \times 84$ to have a fair comparison with [12, 65]. The noise rates vary from 0% to 80%, but we use the rates 20%, 40%, 60% and 80% to be consistent with the literature [12, 65, 66].

ANIMAL-10N is another real-world dataset proposed by Song et al. [53], which contains 10 animals with 5 pairs having similar appearances (e.g., wolf and coyote, hamster and guinea pig, etc.). The estimated rate of label noise is 8%. There are $50k$ training images $10k$ test images. No data augmentation is used, hence the setup is identical to the one proposed in [53].

CLOTHING-1M [64] is a real-world dataset that comprises 1 million training apparel images taken from 14 categories of online shopping websites. The labels in this dataset are generated from surrounding texts, with an estimated noise of 38.5%. Due to the inconsistency in image sizes, we follow the standard setup in the literature [12, 18, 33] and resize the images to $256 \times 256$ pixels. This dataset additionally includes $50k, 14k,$ and $10k$ manually validated clean training, validation, and testing data, respectively. During training, the clean training and validation sets are not used and only the clean testing set is used for assessment.

4.2. Implementation

All the methods are implemented in PyTorch [45], and run on NVIDIA RTX A6000. For the baseline model DivideMix, all the default hyperparameters are considered as mentioned in original paper by Li et al. [33]. All hyperparameter values mentioned below are from CausalNL [66] and DivideMix [33] unless otherwise specified. The size of the latent representation $Z$ is fixed at 25 for CIFAR10, CIFAR100 and Red Mini-Imagenet, 64 for ANIMAL-10N, and 100 for CLOTHING-1M. For CIFAR10, CIFAR100 and Red Mini-ImageNet, we used non-pretrained PreAct-ResNet-18 (PRN18) [21] as an encoder. VGG-19 is used as an encoder for ANIMAL-10N, following SELFIE [53] and PLC [71]. For CLOTHING-1M, we used ImageNet-pretrained ResNet-50. Clean data is not used for training.

The training of the model used stochastic gradient descent (SGD) for DivideMix stage with momentum of 0.9, batch size of 64 and an L2 regularisation whose parameter is $5 \times 10^{-4}$. Additionally, Adam is used to train the VAE part of the model. The training runs for 300 epochs for CIFAR10 ($\sim 30$ hrs), CIFAR100, Red Mini-Imagenet and ANIMAL-10N. The learning rate is 0.02 which is reduced to 0.002 at half of the number of training epochs. The WarmUp stage lasts for 10 epochs for CIFAR10, 30 for CIFAR100, ANIMAL-10N and Red Mini-Imagenet. For CLOTHING-1M, the WarmUp stage lasts 1 epoch with batch size of 32, and training runs for 80 epochs and learning rate of 0.01 decayed by a factor of 10 after the 40th epoch .

For CIFAR10, CIFAR100 [30], Red Mini-Imagenet [24] and ANIMAL-10N [53], the encoder has a similar architecture as CausalNL [66], with 4 hidden convolutional layers and feature maps containing 32, 64, 128 and 256

\(^4\)Performance degradation at high IDN is presented in Appendix C.

\(^5\)Implementation details are present in Appendix A.
Table 1. Test accuracy (%) of different methods on CIFAR10 and CIFAR100 [30] under various IDN noise rates. Most results are extracted from [66], while results with * are reported in their respective papers. Results taken from kMEIDTM [10] are presented with †.

| Model | IDN - CIFAR10 | IDN - CIFAR100 |
|-------|--------------|---------------|
|       | 0.20 | 0.30 | 0.40 | 0.45 | 0.50 | 0.20 | 0.30 | 0.40 | 0.45 | 0.50 |
| CE [66] | 75.81 | 69.15 | 62.45 | 51.72 | 39.42 | 30.42 | 24.15 | 21.45 | 15.23 | 14.42 |
| Mixup [69] | 73.17 | 70.02 | 61.56 | 56.45 | 48.95 | 32.92 | 29.76 | 25.92 | 23.13 | 21.31 |
| Forward [46] | 74.64 | 69.75 | 60.21 | 48.81 | 46.27 | 36.38 | 33.17 | 26.75 | 21.93 | 19.27 |
| T-Revision [63] | 76.15 | 70.36 | 64.09 | 52.42 | 49.02 | 37.24 | 36.54 | 27.23 | 25.53 | 22.54 |
| Reweight [36] | 76.58 | 72.77 | 59.50 | _ | 56.32 | 65.33 | 59.73 | _ | 56.80 | 59.73 |
| PTD-R-V [62] | 76.23 | 70.12 | 62.58 | 51.54 | 45.46 | 36.73 | 31.91 | 28.39 | 24.12 | 20.23 |
| Decoupling [42] | 78.71 | 75.17 | 61.73 | 58.61 | 50.43 | 36.53 | 30.93 | 27.85 | 23.81 | 19.59 |
| Co-teaching [17] | 80.96 | 78.56 | 73.41 | 71.60 | 45.92 | 37.96 | 33.43 | 28.04 | 25.60 | 23.97 |
| MentorNet [25] | 81.03 | 77.22 | 71.83 | 66.18 | 47.89 | 38.91 | 34.23 | 27.53 | 24.15 | 21.31 |
| CausalNL [66] | 81.79 | 80.75 | 77.98 | 79.53 | 78.63 | 41.47 | 40.98 | 34.02 | 33.34 | 32.13 |
| HOC [74] | 90.03 | | 85.49 | _ | _ | 68.82 | 62.29 | _ | _ | _ |
| CAL [73] | 92.01 | | 84.96 | _ | _ | 69.11 | 63.17 | _ | _ | _ |
| kMEIDTM [10] | 92.26 | 90.73 | 85.94 | _ | 73.77 | 69.16 | 66.76 | 63.46 | 59.18 | 59.18 |
| DivideMix [33] | 94.80 | 94.60 | 94.53 | 94.08 | 93.04 | 77.07 | 76.33 | 70.80 | 57.78 | 58.61 |
| InstanceGM | 96.68 | 96.52 | 96.36 | 96.15 | 95.90 | 79.69 | 79.21 | 78.47 | 77.49 | 77.19 |

Table 2. Test accuracy (%) for Red Mini-Imagenet (CNWL) [24]. Other model results are as presented in FaMUS [65] and PropMix [12]. We presented our proposed results with our proposed InstanceGM and with inclusion of self-supervision [8] in proposed algorithm (InstanceGM-SS).

| Method | Noise rate |
|--------|------------|
|        | 0.2 | 0.4 | 0.6 | 0.8 |
| CE [65] | 47.36 | 42.70 | 37.30 | 29.76 |
| MixUp [69] | 49.10 | 46.40 | 40.58 | 33.58 |
| DivideMix [33] | 50.96 | 46.72 | 43.14 | 34.50 |
| MentorMix [24] | 51.02 | 47.14 | 43.80 | 33.46 |
| FaMUS [65] | 51.42 | 48.06 | 45.10 | 35.50 |
| InstanceGM | 58.38 | 52.24 | 47.96 | 39.62 |

With self-supervised learning

| Model | 0.2 | 0.4 | 0.6 | 0.8 |
|-------|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| PropMix [12] | 61.24 | 56.22 | 52.84 | 43.42 |
| InstanceGM-SS | 60.89 | 56.37 | 53.21 | 44.03 |

features. In the decoding stage, we use 4 hidden layer transposed-convolutional network and the feature maps have 256, 128, 64 and 32 features. In Red Mini-Imagenet, we use a similar architecture as CIFAR100 with and without self-supervision [8]. For CLOTHING-1M [64], we use encoder networks with 5 convolutional layers, and the feature maps contain 32, 64, 128, 256 and 512 features. The decoder networks have 5 transposed-convolutional layers and the feature maps have 512, 256, 128, 64 and 32 features.

4.3. Comparison with Baselines and Measurements

In this section, we compare our proposed InstanceGM on baseline IDN benchmark datasets in Section 4.3.1, and we also validate our proposed model on various real-world noisy datasets in Section 4.3.2.

4.3.1 Instance-Dependent Noise Benchmark Datasets

The comparison between our InstanceGM and recently proposed approaches on CIFAR10 and CIFAR100 IDN benchmarks is shown in Table 1. Note that the proposed approach achieves considerable improvements in both datasets at various IDN noise rates ranging from 20% to 50%. Given that CausalNL represents the main reference for our method, it is important to compare the performance of the two approaches. For CIFAR10, our method is roughly 15% better in all noise rates, and for CIFAR100, our method is between 38% and 45% better. Compared to the current state-of-the-art methods in this benchmark (kMEIDTM [10] and DivideMix [33]), our method is around 2% better in CIFAR10 and between 2% to almost 20% better in CIFAR100.
Table 4. Test accuracy (%) for competing methods on CLOTHING-1M [64]. The accuracy of the baseline models (CausalNL and DivideMix) are in italics. Results of other models are from their respective papers. In the experiments only noisy labels are used for training. Top results with 1% accuracy are highlighted in bold.

| Method                   | Test Accuracy (%) |
|--------------------------|-------------------|
| CausalNL [66]            | 72.24             |
| IF-F-V [26]              | 72.29             |
| DivideMix [33]           | 74.76             |
| Nested-CoTeaching [9]    | 74.90             |
| InstanceGM               | 74.40             |

4.3.2 Real-world Noisy Datasets

In Tables 2 to 4, we present the results on ANIMAL-10N, Red Mini-Imagenet and CLOTHING-1M, respectively. In general the results show that InstanceGM outperforms or is competitive with the present state-of-the-art models for large-scale web-crawled datasets and small-scale human-annotated noisy datasets. Table 3 reports the classification accuracy on ANIMAL-10N. We can observe that InstanceGM achieves slightly better performance than all other baselines. For the other real-world datasets Red Mini-Imagenet and CLOTHING-1M, InstanceGM is competitive, as shown in Tables 2 and 4, demonstrating its ability to handle real-world IDN problems. In particular, Table 2 shows the results on Red Mini-Imagenet using two set-ups: 1) without pre-training (top part of the table), and 2) with self-supervised (SS) pre-training (bottom part of the table). The SS pre-training is based on DINO [8] with the unlabelled Red Mini-Imagenet dataset, allowing a fair comparison with PropMix [12], which uses a similar SS pre-training. Without SS pre-training, our InstanceGM is substantially superior to recently proposed approaches. With SS pre-training, results show that InstanceGM can improve its performance, allowing us to achieve state-of-the-art results on Red Mini-Imagenet.

5. Ablation Study

We show the ablation study of our proposed method on CIFAR10 [30], under IDN noise rate of 0.5 and ANIMAL-10N [53]. On Table 5, the performance of CausalNL [66] is relatively low, which can be explained by the small number of clean samples used by co-teaching [17], and the use of MSE for image reconstruction loss. We argue that replacing co-teaching [17] by DivideMix [33] will improve classification accuracy because it allows the use of the whole training set. To demonstrate that, we take CausalNL [66] and replace its co-teaching by DivideMix, but keep the MSE reconstruction loss – this model is named CausalNL + DivideMix (w/o continuous Bernoulli). Note that this allows a

≈ 10% accuracy improvement from CausalNL, but the use of MSE image reconstruction loss can still limit classification accuracy. Hence, by replacing the MSE loss by the continuous Bernoulli loss for image reconstruction, we notice a further ≈ 7% accuracy improvement.

For ANIMAL-10N [53], we test InstanceGM with various backbone networks (VGG [52], ResNet [20], and ConvNeXt [39]) with InstanceGM. Table 3, reported the results of VGG [52] to provide a fair comparison with other methods.

| Method                           | Test Accuracy (%) |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|
| InstanceGM with ResNet [20]      | 82.2              |
| InstanceGM with VGG [52]         | 84.6              |
| InstanceGM with ConvNeXt [39]    | 84.7              |

6. Conclusion

In this paper, we presented an instance-dependent noisy label learning algorithm method, called InstanceGM. InstanceGM explores generative and discriminative models [66], where for the generative model, we replace the usual MSE image reconstruction loss by the continuous Bernoulli reconstruction loss [40] that improves the training process, and for the discriminative model, we replace co-teaching by DivideMix [33] to enable the use of clean and noisy samples during training. We performed extensive experiments on various IDN benchmarks, and our results on CIFAR10, CIFAR100, Red Mini-Imagenet, ANIMAL-10N outperform the results of state-of-the-art methods, particularly in high noise rates and are competitive for CLOTHING-1M. The ablation study clearly shows the importance of the new continuous Bernoulli reconstruction loss [40] and DivideMix [33], with both improving classification accuracy from CausalNL [66].

≈ line 80 in https://github.com/a5507203/IDLN/blob/main/causalNL.py
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