CLOOB: MODERN HOPFIELD NETWORKS WITH INFOLOOB OUTPERFORM CLIP

ABSTRACT

Contrastive learning with the InfoNCE objective is exceptionally successful in various self-supervised learning tasks. Recently, the CLIP model yielded impressive results on zero-shot transfer learning when using InfoNCE for learning visual representations from natural language supervision. However, InfoNCE as a lower bound on the mutual information has been shown to perform poorly for high mutual information. In contrast, the InfoLOOB upper bound (leave one out bound) works well for high mutual information but suffers from large variance and instabilities. We introduce "Contrastive Leave One Out Boost" (CLOOB), where modern Hopfield networks boost learning with the InfoLOOB objective. Modern Hopfield networks replace the original embeddings by retrieved embeddings in the InfoLOOB objective. The retrieved embeddings give InfoLOOB two assets. Firstly, the retrieved embeddings stabilize InfoLOOB, since they are less noisy and more similar to one another than the original embeddings. Secondly, they are enriched by correlations, since the covariance structure of embeddings is reinforced through retrievals. We compare CLOOB to CLIP after learning on the Conceptual Captions and the YFCC dataset with respect to their zero-shot transfer learning performance on other datasets. CLOOB consistently outperforms CLIP at zero-shot transfer learning across all considered architectures and datasets.

1 INTRODUCTION

With the advent of large corpora of unlabeled data in vision and language, self-supervised learning has become highly successful. Most of the self-supervised learning techniques are based on contrastive learning, for which either views of images are contrasted with views of other images or text descriptions of images are contrasted with text descriptions of other images. Some contrastive learning objectives, such as those of BYOL (Grill et al., 2020) and SimSiam (Chen & He, 2021), do not require negative samples. However, the most popular objective for contrastive learning is InfoNCE (van den Oord et al., 2018), in which for an anchor sample, a positive sample is contrasted with negative samples.

The idea to use objectives with negative samples is well known in deep learning (Chen et al., 2017; Mikolov et al., 2013). Also noise-contrastive estimation (NCE) uses negative (random noise) samples to contrast them with the data, in order to estimate normalizing constants for statistical models (Gutmann & Hyvärinen, 2010). InfoNCE has been derived from NCE, while it has been introduced as Contrastive Predictive Coding (CPC) (van den Oord et al., 2018) to learn abstract representations in an unsupervised way. Via CPC, InfoNCE has already been used for transfer learning (Hénaff et al., 2019). InfoNCE has been applied to natural language response suggestion (Henderson et al., 2017), to learning sentence representations from unlabelled data (Logeswaran & Lee, 2018) and to unsupervised feature learning by maximizing distinctions between instances (Wu et al., 2018). Pretext-Invariant Representation Learning (PIRL) also uses InfoNCE to contrast representations of transformed versions of the same image with representations of other images (Misra & vanDerMaaten, 2020). Also Momentum Contrast (MoCo) for unsupervised visual representation learning is based on InfoNCE (He et al., 2020). MoCo uses a dynamic dictionary with a queue and a moving-averaged encoder to build large dictionaries for negative examples. SimCLR is a well known approach that is based on InfoNCE for contrastive learning of visual representations, which was highly effective for transfer learning (Chen et al., 2020). Good performance at zero-shot transfer learning (Lampert et al., 2009) is one of the most ambitious goals in vision, since it would improve various real-

world downstream applications. Current models in natural language processing and vision often underperform at real-world applications. While they perform very well on standard benchmarks, they fail at new data, new applications, deployments in the wild, and stress tests (D'Amour et al., 2020; Recht et al., 2019a; Taori et al., 2020). Therefore, practitioners doubt these models and hesitate to employ them in real world application. A model with high zero-shot transfer learning performance is supposed to perform well when deployed in real world applications, therefore will be trusted by practitioners.

Contrastive Language-Image Pre-training (CLIP) yielded very impressive results at zero-shot transfer learning (Radford et al., 2021a;b) and is the largest success story of InfoNCE so far. CLIP learns expressive image embeddings directly from raw text, thereby leverages a much richer source of supervision than just labels. The CLIP model has the potential to become one of the most important foundation models (Bommasani et al., 2021). Since the introduction of the CLIP model, there were a plethora of follow-up publications (see Appendix Section A.5). Though CLIP is a big success at zero-shot transfer learning, it can be improved. The training of a CLIP model saturates in early learning phases, since it suffers from an "explaining away" problem (Wellman & Henrion, 1993). Training hardly increases the similarity between a text and a corresponding image, if the text can identify the image in a mini-batch of images and vice versa. This saturation effect even appears, when the similarity can be easily increased. The saturation stems from InfoNCE objective, which has the form $a/(a + b)$ with a giving the similarity of a matched pair and b giving the sum of similarities of unmatched pairs. For a large similarity a, the objective saturates and increasing a has a small effect. In contrast, we will use an objective of the form a/b which does not saturate. However, such an objective is not stable and has high variance for small b. Besides the "explaining away" effect, CLIP suffers from extracting correlations in the original data. These correlations can stem from co-occurrences of related words in text or from co-occurrences of objects, textures, or colors in images. We introduce "Contrastive Leave One Out Boost" (CLOOB) which overcomes the problems of CLIP namely (i) "explaining away" that leads to saturation and (ii) missing correlations in the data. CLOOB uses the leave-one-out ("InfoLOOB") objective (Poole et al., 2019) in combination with modern Hopfield networks (Ramsauer et al., 2021; 2020; Widrich et al., 2020). Modern Hopfield networks stabilize the InfoLOOB objective and reinforce correlations in the data. In CLOOB, modern Hopfield networks replace the original embeddings by retrieved embeddings. The retrieved embeddings come with two advantages. Firstly, the retrieved embeddings are less noisy and more similar to one another than the original embeddings. This stabilizes the InfoLOOB loss function as b is larger. Secondly, the retrieved embeddings have an enriched correlation structure through co-occurrences of embedding features. The retrieved embedding is an average over stored embeddings that are similar to the original embedding, therefore co-occurrences are reinforced.

Our contributions are

(a) we introduce a new contrastive learning method called CLOOB,

(b) we propose InfoLOOB as an objective for contrastive learning,

(c) we propose to use modern Hopfield networks to increase stability and to reinforce correlations for contrastive learning,

(d) we show theoretical properties of the InfoLOOB objective and loss function.

2 INFOLOOB VS. INFONCE

We derive bounds on the mutual information between random variables X and Y distributed according to $p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$. The mutual information $\mathrm{I}(X \; ; \; Y)$ between random variables X and Y is

$$\mathrm{I}(X \; ; \; Y) \; = \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}) \, p(\boldsymbol{y})} \right] \; = \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x})} \right] \; = \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x})}{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \right] \; . \quad (1)$$

The multi-sample lower bound "InfoNCE" has been introduced in van den Oord et al. (2018). Here a pair of an anchor sample $\boldsymbol{y}$ and a positive sample $\boldsymbol{x}_1$ is drawn according to the joint distribution $p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})$. The negative samples $\tilde{X} = \{\boldsymbol{x}_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_N\}$ are drawn iid according to the marginal distribution $p(\boldsymbol{x})$ giving the set $X = \{\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{x}_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_N\}$ of one positive and $N - 1$ negative samples. The datasets probabilities are $p(\tilde{X}) = \prod_{i=2}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{x}_i)$, $p(X \mid \boldsymbol{y}) = p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \prod_{i=2}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{x}_i)$, and

$p(X) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{x}_i)$. The InfoNCE with score function $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ is defined as

$$\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \; = \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})} \right) \right] \right] , \tag{2}$$

where the factor $1/N$ leads to the additive constant $\ln N$, where we follow Poole et al. (2019); Tschannen et al. (2019); Cheng et al. (2020); Chen et al. (2021). For $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x})$ we obtain the InfoNCE with probabilities. The InfoNCE is a lower bound on the mutual information, which is stated in the next theorem.

Theorem 1 (InfoNCE lower bound). *InfoNCE with score function $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ is a lower bound on the mutual information:*

$$\mathrm{I}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \; \geq \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})} \right) \right] \right] \; = \; \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) . \tag{3}$$

In particular, the bound holds for InfoNCE with probabilities, i.e. for $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x})$.

For a proof see Poole et al. (2019) and the proof of Theorem A1 in the Appendix.

In Poole et al. (2019), a variational upper bound on the mutual information called "Leave one out upper bound" was introduced. In Cheng et al. (2020) this bound is called "L1Out". For simplicity, we call this bound "InfoLOOB", where LOOB is an acronym for "Leave One Out Bound". InfoLOOB is similar to InfoNCE except that the denominator (Eq. (3)) does not contain the positive sample x_1. We want to use InfoLOOB as an objective, since it approximates the mutual information better than InfoNCE, in particular for large mutual information values (see next section).

The InfoLOOB with score function $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ is defined as

$$\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{InfoLOOB}}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \; = \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{\tilde{p}(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})} \right) \right] \right] . \tag{4}$$

For $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x})$ we obtain the InfoLOOB with probabilities.

Before we show that InfoLOOB is an upper bound on the mutual information, we have to define some expressions that are required for the proof. $\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$ draws the positives for $\boldsymbol{y}$ with lower probability than $p(\boldsymbol{x})$, that is, the positives are under-sampled. $Z(\boldsymbol{y}) = \mathrm{E}_{\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{y})} [f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})]$ gives the average score $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$, if the negatives for $\boldsymbol{y}$ are selected via $\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$, in contrast to $Z^*(\boldsymbol{y}) = \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x})} [f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})]$, which gives the average score $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ if sampling from $p(\boldsymbol{x})$. We define the variational distribution $q(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) = \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}) f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})}{Z^*(\boldsymbol{y})}$. Our main assumption is expressed by the log-ratio of the averages $Z(\boldsymbol{y})$ and $Z^*(\boldsymbol{y})$:

$$\mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{KL}(p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \parallel q(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})) \right] \; \leqslant \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln Z^*(\boldsymbol{y}) \; - \; \ln Z(\boldsymbol{y}) \right] , \tag{5}$$

which ensures that the positives $\boldsymbol{x}$ obtained via $p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$ are sufficiently under-sampled. The Kullback-Leibler divergence gives the minimal required gap between averaging $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ via $p(\boldsymbol{x})$ and averaging $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ via $\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$.

The next theorem shows that InfoLOOB is an upper bound on the mutual information.

Theorem 2 (InfoLOOB upper bound). *If $\tilde{X} = \{\boldsymbol{x}_2, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_N\}$ are drawn iid according to $\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$ and if the main assumption Eq. (5) holds, then InfoLOOB with score function $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ is an upper bound on the mutual information:*

$$\mathrm{I}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \; \leqslant \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{\tilde{p}(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})} \right) \right] \right] \; = \; \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{InfoLOOB}}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) . \tag{6}$$

In particular, the bound holds if the negative samples $\tilde{X} = \{\boldsymbol{x}_2, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_N\}$ are drawn iid according to $p(\boldsymbol{x})$ and $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x})$. Thus, the bound holds for InfoLOOB with probabilities without under-sampling.

The proof for this theorem is given as proof for Theorem A2 in the Appendix.

Gradient of the loss shows saturation of InfoNCE and the explaining away effect. For computing the loss function, we sample N pairs independently from $p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$, which gives the training set $\{(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}_1), (\boldsymbol{x}_2, \boldsymbol{y}_2), \dots, (\boldsymbol{x}_N, \boldsymbol{y}_N)\}$. InfoNCE uses for the matrix of negative samples $\boldsymbol{X} = (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_N)$, which contains the positive sample $\boldsymbol{x}_1$. InfoLOOB is similar to InfoNCE except it uses $\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}} = (\boldsymbol{x}_2, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_N)$ containing only negative samples.

The InfoNCE and the InfoLOOB loss are

$$\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln\left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y}_i)}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_j, \boldsymbol{y}_i)}\right) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(\boldsymbol{y}_i), \tag{7}$$

$$\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{InfoLOOB}} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln\left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y}_i)}{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_j, \boldsymbol{y}_i)}\right) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{InfoLOOB}}(\boldsymbol{y}_i). \tag{8}$$

For the score function $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$, we use $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \exp(\tau^{-1}\mathrm{sim}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}))$ with the similarity $\mathrm{sim}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \boldsymbol{y}^T \boldsymbol{x}$ and τ as the temperature. Therefore, the losses can be simplified to $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(\boldsymbol{y}) = -\tau^{-1}\boldsymbol{y}^T\boldsymbol{x}_1 + \tau^{-1}\mathrm{lse}\left(\tau^{-1}, \boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{y}\right)$ and $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{InfoLOOB}}(\boldsymbol{y}) = -\tau^{-1}\boldsymbol{y}^T\boldsymbol{x}_1 + \tau^{-1}\mathrm{lse}\left(\tau^{-1}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^T\boldsymbol{y}\right)$, where lse is the log-sum-exp function (see definition Eq. (A67) in the Appendix). The gradient of the InfoNCE loss with respect to $\boldsymbol{y}$ is $-\tau^{-1}\boldsymbol{x}_1 + \tau^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}\mathrm{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{y}\right)$ and the gradient of the InfoLOOB loss is $-\tau^{-1}\boldsymbol{x}_1 + \tau^{-1}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}\mathrm{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^T\boldsymbol{y}\right)$. Using $\boldsymbol{p} = (p_1, \dots, p_N)^T = \mathrm{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{y}\right)$, the gradient of InfoNCE with respect to $\boldsymbol{y}$ is $-\tau^{-1}(1 - p_1)\left(\boldsymbol{x}_1 - \tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}\mathrm{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^T\boldsymbol{y}\right)\right)$ and its gradient with respect to $\boldsymbol{x}_1$ is $-\tau^{-1}(1 - p_1)\boldsymbol{y}$ (see Appendix Subsection A.1.3). By and large, the gradient of InfoNCE is scaled by $(1 - p_1)$ compared to the gradient of InfoLOOB, where p_1 is softmax similarity between the anchor $\boldsymbol{y}$ and positive sample $\boldsymbol{x}_1$. Consequently, for InfoNCE learning stalls when anchor and positive sample become similar to each other. The stalled learning is the reason for the explaining away effect of InfoNCE. One feature that is shared between anchor and positive sample can already lead to a high similarity while another shared feature is missed, that is, explained away.

3 CLOOB: INFOLOOB WITH MODERN HOPFIELD NETWORKS

We want to use InfoLOOB as objective, since it estimates the mutual information (MI) better and, in particular, works much better for large MI than InfoNCE. Cheng et al. (2020, Fig. 1 and Fig. 2) show that InfoLOOB is a better estimator for the MI than InfoNCE (van den Oord et al., 2018), MINE (Belghazi et al., 2018), and NWJ (Nguyen et al., 2010). We experimentally confirmed the superior quality of InfoLOOB over InfoNCE at estimating mutual information.

The reason for the low estimation quality of InfoNCE for large mutual information is the term in the ln of Eq. (2), which is smaller than N and bounds InfoNCE from above.

Figure 1: Variance reduction of InfoLOOB by modern Hopfield networks. From left to right: without Hopfield for MI 10, with Hopfield for MI 10, without Hopfield for MI 14, with Hopfield for MI 14. Modern Hopfield networks reduce the variance of the InfoLOOB loss.

High variance of InfoLOOB. However, InfoLOOB has higher variance than lower bounds on MI like InfoNCE, which considerably hampers learning (Cheng et al., 2020, Fig. 1 and Fig. 2), see also Appendix Section A.2. The InfoNCE objective has the form $a/(a + b)$ while InfoLOOB has the form a/b with a giving the anchor-to-positive similarity and b the average anchor-to-negative similarity. For small b, we observe high variance and instability of InfoLOOB stemming from a small denominator. Modern Hopfield networks (Ramsauer et al., 2021; 2020; Widrich et al., 2020) are a remedy for the high variance. Modern Hopfield networks substitute the original patterns by retrieved patterns, which are an average over the stored patterns. We tested the variance of MI estimators/bounds on toy tasks, with samples drawn from Gaussian distributions following (Belghazi et al., 2018; Poole et al., 2019; Cheng et al., 2020). With the InfoLOOB objective, we train deep learning architectures with and without modern Hopfield networks on top, where the current learning batch is stored in the modern Hopfield networks. We used training data with mutual information of 10 and 14, where the parameters were optimized for the best performance on a validation set. We test the final model on different levels of mutual information. Figure 1 shows that modern Hopfield networks reduce the variance of the model.

Our novel Contrastive Leave One Out Boost (CLOOB) uses the InfoLOOB objective together with modern Hopfield networks, where the original embeddings are substituted by retrieved embeddings. Modern Hopfield networks reduce the high variance of InfoLOOB, since the retrieved embeddings are less noisy and more similar to one another than the original embeddings. Modern Hopfield networks reinforce correlations in the data, since the retrieved embeddings have an enriched correlation structure through co-occurrences of embedding features.

Figure 2: Sketch of CLOOB for image-text pairs. The image embedding $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ and the text embedding $\boldsymbol{y}_i$ retrieve the embeddings $\boldsymbol{U_{x_i}}$ and $\boldsymbol{U_{y_i}}$, respectively, from a modern Hopfield network that stores image embeddings $\boldsymbol{U} = (\boldsymbol{u}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{u}_M)$ (two green boxes in the left block). The retrieved image embedding $\boldsymbol{U_{x_i}}$ serves as anchor in order to contrast the positive image embedding $\boldsymbol{U_{y_i}}$ with the negative image embeddings $\boldsymbol{U_{y_j}}$ for $j \neq i$. Analog, for the second modern Hopfield network that stores texts $\boldsymbol{V} = (\boldsymbol{v}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_K)$ (two green boxes in the right block).

We have N pairs of embeddings $\{(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}_1), \ldots, (\boldsymbol{x}_N, \boldsymbol{y}_N)\}$ that form the training set, M stored patterns $\boldsymbol{U} = (\boldsymbol{u}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{u}_M)$ and K stored patterns $\boldsymbol{V} = (\boldsymbol{v}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_K)$. The embeddings (query) $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_i$ retrieve $\boldsymbol{U_{x_i}}$ and $\boldsymbol{U_{y_i}}$, respectively, from $\boldsymbol{U}$ — analogous notation for retrievals from $\boldsymbol{V}$. Both queries and stored patterns are normalized: $\|\boldsymbol{x}_i\| = \|\boldsymbol{y}_i\| = \|\boldsymbol{u}_i\| = \|\boldsymbol{v}_i\| = 1$. The following vectors are retrieved from modern Hopfield networks (Ramsauer et al., 2021; 2020; Widrich et al., 2020):

$$\boldsymbol{U_{x_i}} = \boldsymbol{U} \operatorname{softmax}(\beta \, \boldsymbol{U}^T \boldsymbol{x}_i) \,, \quad \boldsymbol{U_{y_i}} = \boldsymbol{U} \operatorname{softmax}(\beta \, \boldsymbol{U}^T \boldsymbol{y}_i) \,, \tag{9}$$

$$\boldsymbol{V_{x_i}} = \boldsymbol{V} \operatorname{softmax}(\beta \, \boldsymbol{V}^T \boldsymbol{x}_i) \,, \quad \boldsymbol{V_{y_i}} = \boldsymbol{V} \operatorname{softmax}(\beta \, \boldsymbol{V}^T \boldsymbol{y}_i) \,. \tag{10}$$

Here β is a hyperparameter corresponding to the inverse temperature: $\beta = 0$ retrieves the average of the stored pattern, while large β retrieves the stored pattern that is most similar to the state pattern

(query). We have the InfoNCE and InfoLOOB loss functions:

$$
\mathrm{L_{InfoNCE}} \;=\; -\;\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln \frac{\exp(\tau^{-1}\, \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{y}_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^{N} \exp(\tau^{-1}\, \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{y}_j)} \;-\; \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln \frac{\exp(\tau^{-1}\, \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{y}_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^{N} \exp(\tau^{-1}\, \boldsymbol{x}_j^T \boldsymbol{y}_i)} \;, \quad (11)
$$

$$
\mathrm{L_{InfoLOOB}} \;=\; -\;\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln \frac{\exp(\tau^{-1}\, \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{y}_i)}{\sum_{j\neq i}^{N} \exp(\tau^{-1}\, \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{y}_j)} \;-\; \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln \frac{\exp(\tau^{-1}\, \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{y}_i)}{\sum_{j\neq i}^{N} \exp(\tau^{-1}\, \boldsymbol{x}_j^T \boldsymbol{y}_i)} \;. \quad (12)
$$

For CLOOB that uses the InfoLOOB loss, the embedded samples $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_i$ are substituted by retrieved embedded samples. In the first term $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_i$ are substituted by $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}$ and $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$, respectively, while in the second term by $\boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}$ and $\boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$. All retrieved samples are normalized, $\|\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}\| = \|\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}\| = \|\boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}\| = \|\boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}\| = 1$. We obtain the InfoLOOB loss function:

$$
\mathrm{L_{InfoLOOB}} \;=\; -\;\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln \frac{\exp(\tau^{-1}\, \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i})}{\sum_{j\neq i}^{N} \exp(\tau^{-1}\, \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_j})} \;-\; \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln \frac{\exp(\tau^{-1}\, \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i})}{\sum_{j\neq i}^{N} \exp(\tau^{-1}\, \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{x}_j}^T \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i})} \;.
$$
$$(13)$$

Fig. 2 sketches CLOOB with this loss function exemplified at image-text pairs. For the loss function Eq. (13), the dot product between the anchor retrieval and the positive pattern retrieval has low variance and reinforces the covariance structure in the data as elaborated in the following.

High variance of $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$. We did not use a loss function that contains dot products like $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$, because these dot products have higher variance than the ones we have used. Beyond $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_i$, the dot product $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$ requires $M + K$ stored patterns, while $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$ and $\boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$ require M and K, respectively. Therefore, $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$ is assumed to have higher variance.

Covariance structure extracted by $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$ and $\boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$. The Jacobian J of the softmax $\boldsymbol{p} = \mathrm{softmax}(\beta \boldsymbol{a})$ is $\mathrm{J}(\beta \boldsymbol{a}) = \beta \left(\mathrm{diag}(\boldsymbol{p}) - \boldsymbol{p}\boldsymbol{p}^T \right)$. We define the *weighted covariance* $\mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U})$, where sample $\boldsymbol{u}_i$ is drawn with probability p_i, as $[\mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U})]_{kl} = \left[\boldsymbol{U}\mathrm{J}(\beta \boldsymbol{a})\boldsymbol{U}^T \right]_{kl} = \beta(\sum_{i=1}^{M} p_i u_{ik} u_{il} - \sum_{i=1}^{M} p_i u_{ik} \sum_{i=1}^{M} p_i u_{il})$. The formula of the weighted covariance differs from the standard empirical covariance since the factor $1/M$ is replaced by p_i. Thus $\boldsymbol{u}_i$ is sampled with probability p_i instead of being sampled uniformly with probability $1/M$.

We apply the mean value theorem to the softmax function with mean Jacobian matrix $\mathrm{J^m}(\beta \boldsymbol{a}) = \int_0^1 \mathrm{J}(\lambda \beta \boldsymbol{a})\, \mathrm{d}\lambda$. The mean Jacobian $\mathrm{J^m}(\beta \boldsymbol{a})$ is a symmetric, diagonally dominant, positive semi-definite matrix with one eigenvalue of zero for eigenvector $\mathbf{1}$ and spectral norm bounded by $\|\mathrm{J^m}\|_2 \leqslant 0.5\beta$ (see Appendix Lemma A1). We can express $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$ as (see Appendix Theorem A3):

$$
\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i} \;=\; (\bar{\boldsymbol{u}} \;+\; \mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U}, \boldsymbol{x}_i)\, \boldsymbol{x}_i)^T \; (\bar{\boldsymbol{u}} \;+\; \mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U}, \boldsymbol{y}_i)\, \boldsymbol{y}_i) \;, \quad (14)
$$

where the mean is $\bar{\boldsymbol{u}} = 1/M \boldsymbol{U}\mathbf{1}$ and the weighted covariances are $\mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U}, \boldsymbol{x}_i) = \boldsymbol{U}\mathrm{J^m}(\beta \boldsymbol{U}^T \boldsymbol{x}_i)\boldsymbol{U}^T$ and $\mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U}, \boldsymbol{y}_i) = \boldsymbol{U}\mathrm{J^m}(\beta \boldsymbol{U}^T \boldsymbol{y}_i)\boldsymbol{U}^T$. The weighted covariance $\mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U}, .)$ is the covariance if the stored pattern $\boldsymbol{u}_i$ is drawn according to an averaged p_i given by $\mathrm{J^m}(.)$. When maximizing the dot product $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$, the normalized vectors $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_i$ are encouraged to agree on drawing the patterns $\boldsymbol{u}_i$ with the same probability p_i in order to generate similar weighted covariance matrices $\mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U}, .)$. If subsets of $\boldsymbol{U}$ have a strong covariance structure, then it can be exploited to produce large weighted covariances and, in turn, large dot products of $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$. Furthermore, for a large dot product $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$, $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_i$ have to be similar to each other to extract the same direction from the covariance matrices. Above considerations for $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$ analogously apply to $\boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$.

Training samples reused as stored patterns. To be data efficient in our experiments, we use the training samples also as the patterns that are stored in the modern Hopfield network. Hence, we set $\boldsymbol{u}_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i$ and $\boldsymbol{v}_i = \boldsymbol{y}_i$, that is, $\boldsymbol{U} = \boldsymbol{X}$ and $\boldsymbol{V} = \boldsymbol{Y}$. Consequently, we store the learning batch in the modern Hopfield networks as $\boldsymbol{U}$ and $\boldsymbol{V}$. In particular this means that $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ can retrieve itself from $\boldsymbol{U} = \boldsymbol{X}$ but not from $\boldsymbol{V} = \boldsymbol{Y}$. Analogously, $\boldsymbol{y}_i$ can retrieve itself from $\boldsymbol{V} = \boldsymbol{Y}$ but not from $\boldsymbol{U} = \boldsymbol{X}$.

Model embeddings $\boldsymbol{x}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}$ vs. retrieved embeddings $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}}, \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}}, \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{x}},$ and $\boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}}$. After learning, both the model embeddings $\boldsymbol{x}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}$ as well as the retrieved embeddings $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}}, \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}}, \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{x}},$ and $\boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}}$ may serve for the downstream tasks, e.g. for zero-shot transfer learning. When using the retrieved embeddings,

the modern Hopfield networks have to be filled with stored embedded patterns, which can be random samples, prototypes, templates, or proprietary samples. In this case the final retrieval depends on the embeddings that are stored in the modern Hopfield network.

4 EXPERIMENTS

We compare our new approach CLOOB to CLIP (Radford et al., 2021a;b) for their capability of zero-shot transfer learning on two pretraining datasets. The first dataset, Conceptual Captions (CC) (Sharma et al., 2018), has a very rich textual description of images but only three million image-text pairs. The second dataset, a subset of YFCC100M (Thomee et al., 2016), has 15 million image-text pairs but the textual description is less rich than for CC and often vacuous. For both pretraining datasets the downstream zero-shot transfer learning performance is tested on seven image classification datasets.

4.1 CONCEPTUAL CAPTIONS PRETRAINING

Pretraining dataset. The Conceptual Captions (CC) (Sharma et al., 2018) dataset consists of 2.9 million images and corresponding high-quality captions. Images and their corresponding notations of CC have been gathered via an automated process from the web and therefore represent a wide variety of styles. Raw descriptions of images are collected from the *alt-text* HTML attribute. Both images and texts are filtered such that only image-text pairs above a certain quality threshold are part of this dataset.

Methods compared. We compare our new approach CLOOB to CLIP (Radford et al., 2021a;b). The CLOOB implementation is based on OpenCLIP (Ilharco et al., 2021), which achieves results equivalent to CLIP on the YFCC dataset (see Section 4.2). OpenCLIP also reports results on the CC dataset. As CLIP does not train models on CC we report results from this reimplementation as baseline. Analogously to CLIP (Radford et al., 2021a, Section 2.4), we use the modified ResNet (He et al., 2016) and BERT (Devlin et al., 2018; 2019) architectures to encode image and text input. As ResNet encoders we consider ResNet-50, ResNet-101 and ResNet-50x4.

Hyperparameter selection and learning schedule. We use the hyperparameters of OpenCLIP, concretely, a learning rate of 1×10^{-3} and a weight decay of 0.1 for the Adam optimizer (Kingma et al., 2014) with decoupled weight decay regularization (Loshchilov & Hutter, 2019). Different from OpenCLIP we use a batch size of 512 due to computational restraints. This change did not result in performance loss. The learning rate scheduler for all experiments is cosine annealing with warmup and hard restarts (Loshchilov & Hutter, 2017). We report the hyperparameter τ (default 0.07) from CLIP as τ^{-1} of 14.3 to be in the same regime as the hyperparameter β for the modern Hopfield networks. The main hyperparameter search for CLOOB (also for YFCC pretraining in the next section) was done with ResNet-50 as the vision encoder. Since a learnable τ^{-1} in combination with the InfoLOOB loss results in undesired learning behavior (see Appendix Section A.1.3) we set τ^{-1} to a fixed value of 30, which was determined via hyperparameter search (see Appendix Section A.3.2). For the modern Hopfield networks, the hyperparameter β was set to 8. Further we scale the loss in Eq. (13) with τ to remove the factor τ^{-1} from the gradients (see Appendix Section A.1.3) resulting in the loss function τL_{InfoLOOB}.

Evaluation metrics: Zero-shot transfer learning. We evaluate and compare both CLIP and CLOOB on their zero-shot transfer learning capabilities on the following downstream image classification tasks. Birdsnap (Berg et al., 2014) contains images of 500 different North American bird species. The Country211 (Radford et al., 2021a;b) dataset consists of photos across 211 countries and is designed to test the geolocalization capability of visual representations. Flowers102 (Nilsback & Zisserman, 2008) is a dataset containing images of 102 flower species. GTSRB (Stallkamp et al., 2011) contains images for classification of German traffic signs. UCF101 (Soomro et al., 2012) is a video dataset with short clips for action recognition. For UCF101 we follow the procedure reported in CLIP and extract the middle frame of every video to assemble the dataset. Stanford Cars (Krause et al., 2013) contains images of 196 types of cars. ImageNet (Deng et al., 2009) is a large scale image classification dataset with images across 1,000 classes. ImageNetv2 (Recht et al., 2019a;b) consists of three new test sets with 10,000 images each for the ImageNet benchmark. For further details see Appendix Section A.3.3.

Table 1: Zero-shot results for models trained on CC with ResNet-50 vision encoders for two different checkpoints. CLIP and CLOOB were trained for 31 epochs while CLIP* and CLOOB* were trained for 128 epochs. In both cases our method outperforms CLIP on the majority of tasks or matches its performance. Significant results are marked in bold.

| Dataset | CLIP
RN-50 | CLOOB
RN-50 | CLIP*
RN-50 | CLOOB*
RN-50 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Birdsnap | 2.26 ± 0.20 | $\mathbf{3.06 \pm 0.30}$ | 2.8 ± 0.16 | $\mathbf{3.24 \pm 0.31}$ |
| Country211 | 0.67 ± 0.11 | 0.67 ± 0.05 | 0.7 ± 0.04 | 0.73 ± 0.05 |
| Flowers102 | 12.56 ± 0.38 | 13.45 ± 1.19 | 13.32 ± 0.43 | 14.36 ± 1.17 |
| GTSRB | 7.66 ± 1.07 | 6.38 ± 2.11 | 8.96 ± 1.70 | 7.03 ± 1.22 |
| UCF101 | 20.98 ± 1.55 | 22.26 ± 0.72 | 21.63 ± 0.65 | $\mathbf{23.03 \pm 0.85}$ |
| Stanford Cars | 0.91 ± 0.10 | $\mathbf{1.23 \pm 0.10}$ | 0.99 ± 0.16 | $\mathbf{1.41 \pm 0.32}$ |
| ImageNet | 20.33 ± 0.28 | $\mathbf{23.97 \pm 0.15}$ | 21.3 ± 0.42 | $\mathbf{25.67 \pm 0.22}$ |
| ImageNet V2 | 20.24 ± 0.50 | $\mathbf{23.59 \pm 0.15}$ | 21.24 ± 0.22 | $\mathbf{25.49 \pm 0.11}$ |

Results. We employ the same evaluation strategy and use the prompt templates as published in CLIP (see Appendix Section A.3.3). We report zero-shot results from two checkpoints in Table 1. CLIP and CLOOB were trained for a comparable number of epochs used in CLIP (see Appendix Section A.3.2) while CLIP* and CLOOB* were trained until evaluation performance plateaued (epoch 128). In both cases our method significantly outperforms CLIP on the majority of tasks or matches its performance. Statistical significance of these results was assessed by an unpaired Wilcoxon test on a 5% level.

Ablation studies. CLOOB has two new major components compared to CLIP: (1) the InfoLOOB objective instead of the InfoNCE objective and (2) the modern Hopfield networks. To assess which of the new major components of CLOOB has led to the performance increase over CLIP, we performed ablation studies on the CC dataset. First, we enhanced CLIP by replacing the InfoNCE objective with InfoLOOB. In general, the InfoLOOB objective increases the performance of CLIP but not for all datasets (see Appendix Section A.3.1). Next, we added modern Hopfield networks to the CLIP architecture and used retrieved embeddings instead of the original embeddings, while keeping the InfoNCE objective. The performance clearly dropped compared to the original CLIP (see Appendix Section A.3.1). We attribute the performance drop to the saturation of InfoNCE, which is reinforced by the smoothing of modern Hopfield networks. CLOOB has both new components: it adds modern Hopfield networks to CLIP and replaces the InfoNCE objective with InfoLOOB. CLOOB dramatically improves the performance on 7 out of 8 zero-shot transfer learning tasks compared to CLIP. An additional ablation study considers the influence of the learning rate scheduler. The results of the ablation studies are reported in Appendix Section A.3.1.

4.2   YFCC PRETRAINING

Pretraining dataset. To establish a comparison with CLIP, we use the same subset of 15 million samples from the YFCC100M dataset (Thomee et al., 2016), which we refer to as YFCC. This subset was created by filtering YFCC100M for images which contain natural language descriptions and/or titles in English. It was not filtered by quality of the captions, therefore the textual descriptions are less rich and contain superfluous information. The dataset with 400 million samples used to train the models in CLIP has not been released and, thus, is not available for comparison. Due to limited computational resources we are unable to compare our method to CLIP on other datasets of this size.

Methods compared and evaluation. In addition to the comparison of CLIP and CLOOB based on the OpenCLIP reimplementation as in the previous subsection, we include the original CLIP results as reported by OpenAI (Radford et al., 2021a, Table 12) as a baseline.

Hyperparameter selection. We reuse the hyperparameters we selected on the Conceptual Captions dataset except learning rate, batch size and β. For the modern Hopfield network the hyperparameter β is set to 14.3 which is the default CLIP parameter for τ^{-1} in the InfoNCE objective. Furthermore, the learning rate is set to 5×10^{-4} and a batch size of 1024 as in OpenCLIP is selected. For further details see Appendix Section A.3.2.

Evaluation metrics. Evaluation metrics are again zero-shot transfer learning capabilities on downstream tasks as in the previous experiment.

Results. Table 2 provides results reported by CLIP and CLOOB trained on YFCC. The results on zero-shot downstream tasks show that CLOOB outperforms the results published in CLIP on all 7 tasks (ImageNet V2 results have not been reported for CLIP). Similarly, CLOOB outperforms CLIP on 6 out of 7 tasks for linear probing. We further compare CLOOB with the reimplementation OpenCLIP as a second baseline shown in Table 3. CLOOB exceeds the second baseline in 7 out of 8 tasks for zero-shot classification. Furthermore, the experiments with larger vision encoder networks show that CLOOB performance increases with network size. Visualizations of predictions of CLOOB zero-shot classifiers from all datasets are shown in Appendix Section A.3.4.

Table 2: Results of CLIP and CLOOB trained on YFCC with ResNet-50 encoder. CLOOB consistently outperforms CLIP across all different downstream tasks for zero-shot and all but one tasks on linear probing.

| | Linear Probing | | Zero-Shot | |
Dataset	CLIP (OpenAI)	CLOOB (ours)	CLIP (OpenAI)	CLOOB (ours)
Birdsnap	47.4	**56.2**	19.9	**28.9**
Country211	**23.1**	20.6	5.2	**7.9**
Flowers102	94.4	**96.1**	48.6	**55.1**
GTSRB	66.8	**78.9**	6.9	**8.1**
UCF101	69.2	**72.3**	22.9	**25.3**
Stanford Cars	31.4	**37.7**	3.8	**4.1**
ImageNet	62.0	**65.7**	31.3	**35.7**
ImageNet V2	-	58.7	-	34.6

Table 3: Zero-shot results for the reimplementation of CLIP and CLOOB using different ResNet architectures trained on YFCC. Using ResNet-50 encoders, CLOOB outperforms the CLIP baseline in 7 out of 8 tasks. The performance of CLOOB scales with increased encoder size.

Dataset	CLIP RN-50	CLOOB RN-50	CLOOB RN-101	CLOOB RN-50x4
Birdsnap	21.8	**28.9**	30.3	32.0
Country211	6.9	**7.9**	8.5	9.3
Flowers102	48.0	**55.1**	55.3	54.3
GTSRB	7.9	**8.1**	11.6	11.8
UCF101	**27.2**	25.3	28.8	31.9
Stanford Cars	3.7	**4.1**	5.5	6.1
ImageNet	34.6	**35.7**	37.1	39.0
ImageNet V2	33.4	**34.6**	35.6	37.3

5 CONCLUSION

We have introduced "Contrastive Leave One Out Boost" (CLOOB), a method in which modern Hopfield networks boost learning with the InfoLOOB objective. We have demonstrated that modern Hopfield networks increase stability and reinforce correlations for contrastive learning. Theoretical properties of the InfoLOOB bound and the InfoLOOB objective are shown and opposed to InfoNCE. The results of our experiments suggest InfoLOOB as an alternative to InfoNCE in contrastive learning approaches. An ablation study shows that both components, the InfoLOOB objective and modern Hopfield networks, are necessary to yield high performance. At a set of seven downstream tasks, the novel CLOOB method and CLIP are compared after pretraining on Conceptual Captions and the YFCC dataset with respect to their zero-shot transfer learning performance. CLOOB consistently outperforms CLIP at zero-shot transfer learning across all considered architectures and datasets.

REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT

We will publish the source code after the reviewing period. This will ensure that the results are reproducible in their entirety. The dataset used for training our models as well as for the downstream tasks are publicly available.

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Impact on ML and related scientific fields. Our research has the potential to positively impact a wide variety of fields of life due to its general applicability. Most importantly, it has the potential to reduce the cost for training other AI systems, which could lead to a reduction of compute costs and carbon dioxide emissions.

However, any new development in machine learning can be applied for good or for bad. Our system can be used for medical applications where it could save lives but might also be used for surveillance and malevolent systems.

Impact on society. A potential danger could arise from an application of our approach in which users rely overly on the outcomes. For example, in a medical setting, physicians might rely on the technical system and shift the liability towards the machine. This might also happen in the domain of self-driving cars, when drivers start paying less attention to the traffic because of an AI-based driving system. Finally, our method may also be deployed in companies to automate various simple tasks, which might lead to a reduced need for particular jobs in production systems.

Consequences of failures of the method. Depending on the application area, a failure of this method might be of lesser concern, such as a failed execution of a computer program. If our method is employed within a larger automation system, a failure could result in damages such as a car accident or errors of a production system. However, this holds for almost all machine learning methods, and their usage and testing depends on the application area.

Leveraging of biases in the data and potential discrimination. Our proposed method relies on human-annotated data and thereby human decisions, which are usually strongly biased. The undesirable biases contained in dataset are learned and may propagate to downstream applications. Therefore, the responsible use of our method depends on a careful selection of the training data and awareness of the potential biases within those.

REFERENCES

S. Agarwal, G. Krueger, J. Clark, A. Radford, J. W. Kim, and M. Brundage. Evaluating CLIP: towards characterization of broader capabilities and downstream implications. *ArXiv*, 2108.02818, 2021.

D. Bau, A. Andonian, A. Cui, Y Park, A. Jahanian, A. Oliva, and A. Torralba. Paint by word. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2103.10951*, 2021.

M. I. Belghazi, A. Baratin, S. Rajeswar, S. Ozair, Y. Bengio, A. Courville, and R. D. Hjelm. Mutual information neural estimation. In J. Dy and A. Krause (eds.), *Proceedings of the 35th International Conference on Machine Learning*, volume 80 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 531–540. PMLR, 2018.

T. Berg, J. Liu, S. W. Lee, M. L. Alexander, D. W. Jacobs, and P. N. Belhumeur. Birdsnap: Large-scale fine-grained visual categorization of birds. In *Proc. Conf. Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pp. 2019–2026, 2014. doi: 10.1109/CVPR.2014.259.

R. Bommasani et al. On the opportunities and risks of foundation models. *ArXiv*, 2108.07258, 2021.

Q. Cai, Y. Wang, Y. Pan, T. Yao, and T. Mei. Joint contrastive learning with infinite possibilities. In H. Larochelle, M. Ranzato, R. Hadsell, M. F. Balcan, and H. Lin (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 33, pp. 12638–12648. Curran Associates, Inc., 2020.

N. Carlini and A. Terzis. Poisoning and backdooring contrastive learning. *ArXiv*, 2106.09667, 2021.

J. Chen, Z. Gan, X. Li, Q. Guo, L. Chen, S. Gao, T. Chung, Y. Xu, B. Zeng, W. Lu, F. Li, L. Carin, and C. Tao. Simpler, faster, stronger: Breaking the log-K curse on contrastive learners with FlatNCE. *arXiv*, 2107.01152, 2021.

T. Chen, Y. Sun, Y. Shi, and L. Hong. On sampling strategies for neural network-based collaborative filtering. In *Proceedings of the 23rd ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*, pp. 767–776, New York, NY, USA, 2017. Association for Computing Machinery. doi: 10.1145/3097983.3098202.

T. Chen, S. Kornblith, M. Norouzi, and G. Hinton. A simple framework for contrastive learning of visual representations. In H. Daumé and A. Singh (eds.), *Proceedings of the 37th International Conference on Machine Learning*, volume 119 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 1597–1607. PMLR, 2020.

X. Chen and K. He. Exploring simple siamese representation learning. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pp. 15750–15758, 2021.

P. Cheng, W. Hao, S. Dai, J. Liu, Z. Gan, and L. Carin. CLUB: A contrastive log-ratio upper bound of mutual information. In H. Daume and A. Singh (eds.), *Proceedings of the 37th International Conference on Machine Learning*, volume 119 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 1779–1788. PMLR, 2020.

A. D'Amour et al. Underspecification presents challenges for credibility in modern machine learning. *ArXiv*, 2011.03395, 2020.

M. Demircigil, J. Heusel, M. Löwe, S. Upgang, and F. Vermet. On a model of associative memory with huge storage capacity. *Journal of Statistical Physics*, 168(2):288–299, 2017. doi: 10.1007/s10955-017-1806-y.

J. Deng, W. Dong, R. Socher, L.-J. Li, K. Li, and L. Fei-Fei. Imagenet: A large-scale hierarchical image database. In *2009 IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pp. 248–255. Ieee, 2009.

B. Devillers, R. Bielawski, B. Choski, and R. VanRullen. Does language help generalization in vision models? *ArXiv*, 2104.08313, 2021.

J. Devlin, M.-W. Chang, K. Lee, and K. Toutanova. BERT: pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. *ArXiv*, 2018.

J. Devlin, M.-W. Chang, K. Lee, and K. Toutanova. BERT: pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers)*, pp. 4171–4186. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2019. doi: 10.18653/v1/N19-1423.

H. Fang, P. Xiong, L. Xu, and Y. Chen. CLIP2Video: mastering video-text retrieval via image CLIP. *ArXiv*, 2106.11097, 2021.

K. Frans, L. B. Soros, and O. Witkowski. CLIPDraw: exploring text-to-drawing synthesis through language-image encoders. *ArXiv*, 2106.14843, 2021.

F. A. Galatolo, M. G. C. A. Cimino, and G. Vaglini. Generating images from caption and vice versa via CLIP-guided generative latent space search. *ArXiv*, 2102.01645, 2021.

T. Gao, X. Yao, and D. Chen. SimCSE: simple contrastive learning of sentence embeddings. *ArXiv*, 2104.08821, 2021.

J.-B. Grill, F. Strub, F. Altché, C. Tallec, P. H. Richemond, E. Buchatskaya, C. Doersch, B. Ávila Pires, Z. D. Guo, M. Gheshlaghi Azar, B. Piot, K. Kavukcuoglu, R. Munos, and M. Valko. Bootstrap your own latent - a new approach to self-supervised learning. In H. Larochelle, M. Ranzato, R. Hadsell, M. F. Balcan, and H. Lin (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 33, pp. 21271–21284. Curran Associates, Inc., 2020.

M. Gutmann and A. Hyvärinen. Noise-contrastive estimation: A new estimation principle for unnormalized statistical models. In Y. W. Teh and M. Titterington (eds.), *Proceedings of the Thirteenth International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, volume 9 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 297–304. JMLR Workshop and Conference Proceedings, 2010.

T. Han, W. Xie, and A. Zisserman. Self-supervised co-training for video representation learning. In H. Larochelle, M. Ranzato, R. Hadsell, M. F. Balcan, and H. Lin (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 33, pp. 5679–5690. Curran Associates, Inc., 2020.

K. He, X. Zhang, S. Ren, and J. Sun. Deep residual learning for image recognition. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, 2016.

K. He, H. Fan, Y. Wu, S. Xie, and R. B. Girshick. Momentum contrast for unsupervised visual representation learning. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, 2020.

O. J. Hénaff, A. Srinivas, J. DeFauw, A. Razavi, C. Doersch, S. M. A. Eslami, and A. vanDenOord. Data-efficient image recognition with contrastive predictive coding. *ArXiv*, 1905.09272, 2019.

M. L. Henderson, R. Al-Rfou, B. Strope, Y.-H. Sung, L. Lukács, R. Guo, S. Kumar, B. Miklos, and R. Kurzweil. Efficient natural language response suggestion for smart reply. *ArXiv*, 1705.00652, 2017.

J. J. Hopfield. Neural networks and physical systems with emergent collective computational abilities. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 79(8):2554–2558, 1982.

J. J. Hopfield. Neurons with graded response have collective computational properties like those of two-state neurons. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 81(10):3088–3092, 1984. doi: 10.1073/pnas.81.10.3088.

G. Ilharco, M. Wortsman, N. Carlini, R. Taori, A. Dave, V. Shankar, H. Namkoong, J. Miller, H. Hajishirzi, A. Farhadi, and L. Schmidt. OpenCLIP, 2021.

D. P. Kingma, S. Mohamed, D .J. Rezende, and M. Welling. Semi-supervised learning with deep generative models. In Z. Ghahramani, M. Welling, C. Cortes, N. D. Lawrence, and K. Q. Weinberger (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 27*, pp. 3581–3589. Curran Associates, Inc., 2014.

J. Krause, M. Stark, J. Deng, and L. Fei-Fei. 3D object representations for fine-grained categorization. In *4th International IEEE Workshop on 3D Representation and Recognition (3dRR-13)*, 2013.

D. Krotov and J. J. Hopfield. Dense associative memory for pattern recognition. In D. D. Lee, M. Sugiyama, U. V. Luxburg, I. Guyon, and R. Garnett (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, pp. 1172–1180. Curran Associates, Inc., 2016.

C. H. Lampert, H. Nickisch, and S. Harmeling. Learning to detect unseen object classes by between-class attribute transfer. In *IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pp. 951–958. IEEE, 2009.

J. Li, P. Zhou, C. Xiong, R. Socher, and S. C. H. Hoi. Prototypical contrastive learning of unsupervised representations. In *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2021. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=KmykpuSrjcq. ArXiv 2005.04966.

L. Logeswaran and H. Lee. An efficient framework for learning sentence representations. In *Sixth International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2018. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=rJvJXZb0W. ArXiv 1803.02893.

I. Loshchilov and F. Hutter. SGDR: stochastic gradient descent with warm restarts. In *5th International Conference on Learning Representations ICLR*. OpenReview.net, 2017. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=Skq89Scxx.

I. Loshchilov and F. Hutter. Decoupled weight decay regularization. In *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2019. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=Bkg6RiCqY7.

H. Luo, L. Ji, M. Zhong, Y. Chen, W. Lei, N. Duan, and T. Li. CLIP4Clip: an empirical study of CLIP for end to end video clip retrieval. *ArXiv*, 2104.08860, 2021.

D. McAllester and K. Stratos. Formal limitations on the measurement of mutual information. *ArXiv*, 1811.04251, 2018.

D. McAllester and K. Stratos. Formal limitations on the measurement of mutual information. In Silvia Chiappa and Roberto Calandra (eds.), *Proceedings of the Twenty Third International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, volume 108 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 875–884. PMLR, 26–28 Aug 2020. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v108/mcallester20a.html.

T. Mikolov, I. Sutskever, K. Chen, G. S. Corrado, and J. Dean. Distributed representations of words and phrases and their compositionality. In C. J. C. Burges, L. Bottou, M. Welling, Z. Ghahramani, and K. Q. Weinberger (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 26, pp. 3111–3119. Curran Associates, Inc., 2013.

T. Milbich, K. Roth, S. Sinha, L. Schmidt, M. Ghassemi, and B. Ommer. Characterizing generalization under out-of-distribution shifts in deep metric learning. *ArXiv*, 2107.09562, 2021.

J. Miller, R. Taori, A. Raghunathan, S. Sagawa, P. W. Koh, V. Shankar, P. Liang, Y. Carmon, and L. Schmidt. Accuracy on the line: On the strong correlation between out-of-distribution and in-distribution generalization. *ArXiv*, 2107.04649, 2021.

I. Misra and L. vanDerMaaten. Self-supervised learning of pretext-invariant representations. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, 2020.

M. Narasimhan, A. Rohrbach, and T. Darrell. CLIP-It! language-guided video summarization. *ArXiv*, 2107.00650, 2021.

X. Nguyen, M. J. Wainwright, and M. Jordan. Estimating divergence functionals and the likelihood ratio by penalized convex risk minimization. *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, 56(11): 5847–5861, 2010. doi: 10.1109/tit.2010.2068870.

M.-E. Nilsback and A. Zisserman. Automated flower classification over a large number of classes. In *Proceedings of the 2008 Sixth Indian Conference on Computer Vision, Graphics and Image Processing*, pp. 722–729. IEEE Computer Society, 2008. doi: 10.1109/ICVGIP.2008.47.

F. W. J. Olver, D. W. Lozier, R. F. Boisvert, and C. W. Clark. *NIST handbook of mathematical functions*. Cambridge University Press, 1 pap/cdr edition, 2010. ISBN 9780521192255.

D. Pakhomov, S. Hira, N. Wagle, K. E. Green, and N. Navab. Segmentation in style: Unsupervised semantic image segmentation with stylegan and CLIP. *ArXiv*, 2107.12518, 2021.

B. Poole, S. Ozair, A. vanDenOord, A. A. Alemi, and G. Tucker. On variational bounds of mutual information. In K. Chaudhuri and R. Salakhutdinov (eds.), *Proceedings of the 36th International Conference on Machine Learning*, volume 97 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 5171–5180. PMLR, 2019.

A. Radford, J. W. Kim, C. Hallacy, A. Ramesh, G. Goh, S. Agarwal, G. Sastry, A. Askell, P. Mishkin, J. Clark, G. Krueger, and I. Sutskever. Learning transferable visual models from natural language supervision. In *Proceedings of the 38th International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML)*, 2021a.

A. Radford, J. W. Kim, C. Hallacy, A. Ramesh, G. Goh, S. Agarwal, G. Sastry, A. Askell, P. Mishkin, J. Clark, G. Krueger, and I. Sutskever. Learning transferable visual models from natural language supervision. *ArXiv*, 2103.00020, 2021b.

H. Ramsauer, B. Schäfl, J. Lehner, P. Seidl, M. Widrich, L. Gruber, M. Holzleitner, M. Pavlović, G. K. Sandve, V. Greiff, D. Kreil, M. Kopp, G. Klambauer, J. Brandstetter, and S. Hochreiter. Hopfield networks is all you need. *ArXiv*, 2008.02217, 2020.

H. Ramsauer, B. Schäfl, J. Lehner, P. Seidl, M. Widrich, L. Gruber, M. Holzleitner, M. Pavlović, G. K. Sandve, V. Greiff, D. Kreil, M. Kopp, G. Klambauer, J. Brandstetter, and S. Hochreiter. Hopfield networks is all you need. In *9th International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2021. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=tL89RnzIiCd.

B. Recht, R. Roelofs, L. Schmidt, and V. Shankar. Do ImageNet classifiers generalize to ImageNet? In K. Chaudhuri and R. Salakhutdinov (eds.), *Proceedings of the 36th International Conference on Machine Learning*, volume 97 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 5389–5400. PMLR, 2019a.

B. Recht, R. Roelofs, L. Schmidt, and V. Shankar. Do ImageNet classifiers generalize to ImageNet? *ArXiv*, 1902.10811, 2019b.

P. Sharma, N. Ding, S. Goodman, and R. Soricut. Conceptual captions: A cleaned, hypernymed, image alt-text dataset for automatic image captioning. In *Proceedings of ACL*, 2018.

S. Shen, L. H. Li, H. Tan, M. Bansal, A. Rohrbach, K.-W. Chang, Z. Yao, and K. Keutzer. How much can CLIP benefit vision-and-language tasks? *ArXiv*, 2107.06383, 2021.

K. Soomro, A. R. Zamir, and M. Shah. A dataset of 101 human action classes from videos in the wild. *Center for Research in Computer Vision*, 2(11), 2012.

J. Stallkamp, M. Schlipsing, J. Salmen, and C. Igel. The German traffic sign recognition benchmark: A multi-class classification competition. *The 2011 International Joint Conference on Neural Networks*, pp. 1453–1460, 2011.

R. Taori, A. Dave, V. Shankar, N. Carlini, B. Recht, and L. Schmidt. Measuring robustness to natural distribution shifts in image classification. In H. Larochelle, M. Ranzato, R. Hadsell, M. F. Balcan, and H. Lin (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 33, pp. 18583–18599. Curran Associates, Inc., 2020.

B. Thomee, D. A. Shamma, G. Friedland, B. Elizalde, K. Ni, D. Poland, D. Borth, and L.-J. Li. YFCC100M: The new data in multimedia research. *Commun. ACM*, 59(2):64–73, 2016. doi: 10.1145/2812802.

Y.-H. H. Tsai, M. Q. Ma, H. Zhao, K. Zhang, L.-P. Morency, and R. Salakhutdinov. Conditional contrastive learning: Removing undesirable information in self-supervised representations. *ArXiv*, 2106.02866, 2021.

M. Tschannen, J. Djolonga, P. K. Rubenstein, S. Gelly, and M. Lucic. On mutual information maximization for representation learning. *arXiv*, 1907.13625, 2019. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=rkxoh24FPH. 8th International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR).

A. van den Oord, Y. Li, and O. Vinyals. Representation learning with contrastive predictive coding. *ArXiv*, 1807.03748, 2018.

M. P. Wellman and M. Henrion. Explaining 'explaining away'. *IEEE Trans. Pattern Anal. Mach. Intell.*, 15(3):287–292, 1993. doi: 10.1109/34.204911.

M. Widrich, B. Schäfl, M. Pavlović, H. Ramsauer, L. Gruber, M. Holzleitner, J. Brandstetter, G. K. Sandve, V. Greiff, S. Hochreiter, and G. Klambauer. Modern Hopfield networks and attention for immune repertoire classification. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*. Curran Associates, Inc., 2020.

M. Wortsman, G. Ilharco, M. Li, J. W. Kim, H. Hajishirzi, A. Farhadi, H. Namkoong, and L. Schmidt. Robust fine-tuning of zero-shot models. *ArXiv*, 2109.01903, 2021.

M. Wu, M. Mosse, C. Zhuang, D. Yamins, and N. Goodman. Conditional negative sampling for contrastive learning of visual representations. In *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2021. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=v8b3e5jN66j.

Z. Wu, Y. Xiong, S. X. Yu, and D. Lin. Unsupervised feature learning via non-parametric instance discrimination. In *2018 IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pp. 3733–3742, Los Alamitos, CA, USA, 2018. IEEE Computer Society. doi: 10.1109/CVPR.2018.00393.

K. Zhou, J. Yang, C. C. Loy, and Z. Liu. Learning to prompt for vision-language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2109.01134*, 2021.

A   APPENDIX

This appendix consists of four sections (A.1–A.4). Section A.1 provides the theoretical properties of the InfoLOOB and InfoNCE. It is shown how to derive that InfoNCE is a lower bound on mutual information. Further it is shown how to derive that InfoLOOB is an upper bound on mutual information. The proposed loss function L_{InfoLOOB} and its gradients are discussed. In Section A.2 we discuss the estimation of mutual information for a toy example. Section A.3 provides details on the experiments for Section 4. Section A.4 briefly reviews continuous modern Hopfield networks. Section A.5 discusses further related work.

CONTENTS OF THE APPENDIX

LIST OF THEOREMS

LIST OF DEFINITIONS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

A.1 INFOLOOB VS. INFONCE

A.1.1 INFONCE: LOWER BOUND ON MUTUAL INFORMATION

We derive a lower bound on the mutual information between random variables X and Y distributed according to $p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$. The mutual information $\mathrm{I}(X \; ; \; Y)$ between random variables X and Y is

$$\mathrm{I}(X \; ; \; Y) \; = \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}) \, p(\boldsymbol{y})} \right] \; = \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x})} \right] \; = \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x})}{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \right] \; . \tag{A1}$$

"InfoNCE" has been introduced in van den Oord et al. (2018) and is a *multi-sample bound*. In the setting introduced in van den Oord et al. (2018), we have an anchor sample $\boldsymbol{y}$ given. For the anchor sample $\boldsymbol{y}$ we draw a positive sample $\boldsymbol{x}_1$ according to $p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})$. Next, we draw a set $\tilde{X} = \{\boldsymbol{x}_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_N\}$ according to $p(\tilde{X})$, which are $n-1$ negative samples drawn iid according to $p(\boldsymbol{x})$. We have drawn a set $X = \{\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{x}_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_N\}$ according to $p(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})$, which is one positive sample $\boldsymbol{x}_1$ drawn by $p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})$ and $N-1$ negative samples $\{\boldsymbol{x}_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_N\}$ drawn iid according to $p(\boldsymbol{x})$.

The InfoNCE with probabilities is

$$\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \; = \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_1)}{\frac{1}{N} \, \sum_{i=1}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_i)} \right) \right] \right] \; , \tag{A2}$$

where we inserted the factor $\frac{1}{N}$ in contrast to the original version in van den Oord et al. (2018), where we followed Poole et al. (2019); Tschannen et al. (2019); Cheng et al. (2020); Chen et al. (2021).

The InfoNCE with score function $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ is

$$\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \; = \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N} \, \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})} \right) \right] \right] \; . \tag{A3}$$

The InfoNCE with probabilities can be rewritten as:

$$\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \; = \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_1)}{\frac{1}{N} \, \sum_{i=1}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_i)} \right) \right] \right] \tag{A4}$$

$$= \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x}_1)}{p(\boldsymbol{y})}}{\frac{1}{N} \, \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{p(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x}_i)}{p(\boldsymbol{y})}} \right) \right] \right]$$

$$= \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{\frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1|\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}}{\frac{1}{N} \, \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_i|\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_i)}} \right) \right] \right] \; .$$

This is the InfoNCE with $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x})$.

Set of pairs. The InfoNCE can be written in a different setting Poole et al. (2019), which is used in most implementations. We sample N pairs independently from $p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$, which gives $Z = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}_1), (\boldsymbol{x}_2, \boldsymbol{y}_2), \ldots, (\boldsymbol{x}_N, \boldsymbol{y}_N)\}$. The InfoNCE is then

$$\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(X \; ; \; Y) \; = \; \mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\frac{1}{N} \, \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln \left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y}_i)}{\frac{1}{N} \, \sum_{j=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_j, \boldsymbol{y}_i)} \right) \right] \; . \tag{A5}$$

Following van den Oord et al. (2018) we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(X_1 \ ; \ Y) \ &= \ \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x}_1)}{p(\boldsymbol{y})}}{\frac{1}{N} \ \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{p(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x}_i)}{p(\boldsymbol{y})}} \right) \right] \right] \qquad \text{(A6)} \\
&= \ \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{\frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1|\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}}{\frac{1}{N} \ \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_i|\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_i)}} \right) \right] \right] \\
&= \ \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \ \prod_{l=2}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{x}_l)}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{x}_i \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \ \prod_{l \neq i} p(\boldsymbol{x}_l)} \right) \right] \right] \ + \ \ln(N) \\
&= \ \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln p(i = 1 \mid X, \boldsymbol{y}) \right] \right] \ + \ \ln(N) \ ,
\end{aligned}
$$

where $p(i = 1 \mid X, \boldsymbol{y})$ is the probability that sample $\boldsymbol{x}_1$ is the positive sample if we know there exists exactly one positive sample in X.

The InfoNCE is a lower bound on the mutual information. The following inequality is from van den Oord et al. (2018):

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{I}(X_1 \ ; \ Y) \ &= \ \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)} \right) \right] \right] \qquad \text{(A7)} \\
&= \ \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[- \ln \left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})} \right) \right] \right] \\
&\geq \ \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[- \ln \left(\frac{1}{N} \ + \ \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})} \right) \right] \right] \\
&\approx \ \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[- \ln \left(\frac{1}{N} \ + \ \frac{1}{N} \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})} \sum_{i=2}^{N} \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_i \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_i)} \right) \right] \right] \\
&= \ \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{\frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1|\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}}{\frac{1}{N} \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1|\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)} \ + \ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=2}^{N} \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_i|\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_i)}} \right) \right] \right] \\
&= \ \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(X_1 \ ; \ Y) \ ,
\end{aligned}
$$

where the "$\geq$" is obtained by bounding $\ln(1/N + a)$ by $\ln(a)$, which gives a bound that is not very tight, since $a = \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1|\boldsymbol{y})}$ can become small. However for the "$\approx$" van den Oord et al. (2018) have to assume

$$
\frac{1}{N} \ \sum_{i=2}^{N} \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_i \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_i)} \ = \ \frac{1}{N} \ \sum_{i=2}^{N} \frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_i)}{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \ \geq \ 1 \ , \qquad \text{(A8)}
$$

which is unclear how to ensure.

For a proof of this bound see Poole et al. (2019).

We assumed that for the anchor sample $\boldsymbol{y}$ a positive sample $\boldsymbol{x}_1$ has been drawn according to $p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})$. A set $\tilde{X} = \{\boldsymbol{x}_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_N\}$ of negative samples is drawn according to $p(\boldsymbol{x})$. Therefore, we have a set $X = \{\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{x}_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_N\}$ that is drawn with one positive sample $\boldsymbol{x}_1$ and $N - 1$ negative samples $\tilde{X} = \{\boldsymbol{x}_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_N\}$. We have

$$
p(\tilde{X}) \ = \ \prod_{i=2}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{x}_i) \ , \qquad \text{(A9)}
$$

$$
p(X \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \ = \ p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \prod_{i=2}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{x}_i) \ , \qquad \text{(A10)}
$$

$$
p(X) \ = \ \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{x}_i) \ . \qquad \text{(A11)}
$$

Next, we present a theorem that shows this bound, where we largely follow Poole et al. (2019) in the proof. In contrast to Poole et al. (2019), we do not use the NWJ bound Nguyen et al. (2010). The mutual information is

$$\mathrm{I}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \; = \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)} \right) \right] \; . \tag{A12}$$

Theorem A1 (InfoNCE lower bound). *InfoNCE with score function $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ according to Eq. (A3) is a lower bound on the mutual information.*

$$\mathrm{I}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \; \geq \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})} \right) \right] \; = \; \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \; . \tag{A13}$$

InfoNCE with probabilities according to Eq. (A2) is a lower bound on the mutual information.

$$\mathrm{I}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \; \geq \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_1)}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_i)} \right) \right] \; = \; \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \; . \tag{A14}$$

The second bound Eq. (A14) is a special case of the first bound Eq. (A13).

Proof. **Part (I)**: Lower bound with score function $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$.

For each set $\tilde{X} = \{\boldsymbol{x}_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_N\}$, we define as data-dependent (depending on $\tilde{X}$) score function $g(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})$ that is based on the score function $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$. Therefore we have for each $\tilde{X}$ a different data-dependent score function g based on f. We will derive a bound on the InfoNCE, which is the expectation of a lower bond on the mutual information over the score functions. For score function $g(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})$, we define a variational distribution $q(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})$ over $\boldsymbol{x}_1$:

$$q(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X}) \; = \; \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1) \, g(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})}{Z(\boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})} \; , \tag{A15}$$

$$Z(\boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X}) \; = \; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)} \left[g(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X}) \right] \; , \tag{A16}$$

which ensures

$$\int q(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X}) \, \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x}_1 \; = \; 1 \; . \tag{A17}$$

We have

$$\frac{q(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)} \; = \; \frac{g(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})}{Z(\boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})} \; . \tag{A18}$$

For the function g, we set

$$g(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X}) \; = \; \frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})} \; , \tag{A19}$$

For the function f we use

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}) \; = \; \exp(\tau^{-1} \operatorname{sim}(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})) \; , \tag{A20}$$

where $\operatorname{sim}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ is typically the cosine similarity.

We next show that InfoNCE is a lower bound on the mutual information.

$$I(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \; = \; E_{p(\tilde{X})}\left[I(X_1 \; ; \; Y)\right] \; = \; E_{p(\tilde{X})}\left[E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}\right]\right] \tag{A21}$$

$$= \; E_{p(\tilde{X})}\left[E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln \left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{q(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})} \frac{q(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}\right)\right]\right]$$

$$= \; E_{p(\tilde{X})}\left[E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln \frac{q(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}\right] \; + \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[KL(p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \parallel q(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X}))\right]\right]$$

$$\geq \; E_{p(\tilde{X})}\left[E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln \frac{q(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}\right]\right] \; = \; E_{p(\tilde{X})}\left[E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln \frac{g(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})}{Z(\boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})}\right]\right]$$

$$= \; E_{p(\tilde{X})}\left[E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln g(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X}) \; - \; \ln \left(E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}\left[g(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})\right]\right)\right]\right]$$

$$= \; E_{p(\tilde{X})}\left[E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln g(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})\right] \; - \; \ln \left(E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}\left[g(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})\right]\right)\right]\right]$$

$$= \; E_{p(\tilde{X})}\left[E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln g(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})\right]\right]\right] \; - \; E_{p(\tilde{X})}\left[E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln \left(E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}\left[g(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})\right]\right)\right]\right]$$

$$\geq \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})p(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln g(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})\right] \; - \; E_{p(\tilde{X})}\left[E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}\left[g(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}, \tilde{X})\right] \; - \; 1\right]\right]$$

$$= \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})p(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln \frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})}\right] \; - \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[E_{p(X)}\left[\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})}\right] \; - \; 1\right]$$

$$= \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})p(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln \frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})}\right] \; - \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} E_{p(X)}\left[\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})}\right] \; - \; 1\right]$$

$$= \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})p(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln \frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})}\right] \; - \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[E_{p(X)}\left[\frac{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})}\right] \; - \; 1\right]$$

$$= \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})p(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln \frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})}\right]$$

$$= \; I_{\text{InfoNCE}}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \, .$$

For the first "$\geq$" we used that the Kullback-Leibler divergence is non-negative. For the second "$\geq$" we used the inequality $\ln a \leqslant a - 1$ for $a > 0$.

Part (II): Lower bound with probabilities.

If the score function f is

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \; = \; p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) \, , \tag{A22}$$

then the bound is

$$I(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \; \geq \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})p(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln \left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})}\right)\right] \; = \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})p(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln \left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_1)}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_i)}\right)\right] \tag{A23}$$

$$= \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})p(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln \left(\frac{\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_1)}{p(\boldsymbol{y})}}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_i)}{p(\boldsymbol{y})}}\right)\right] \; = \; I_{\text{InfoNCE}}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \, .$$

This is the bound with probabilities in the theorem. $\qquad\square$

A.1.2 INFOLOOB: UPPER BOUND ON MUTUAL INFORMATION

We derive an upper bound on the mutual information between random variables X and Y distributed according to $p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$. The mutual information $I(X \; ; \; Y)$ between random variables X and Y is

$$I(X \; ; \; Y) \; = \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}) \, p(\boldsymbol{y})} \right] \; = \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x})} \right] \; = \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x})}{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \right] \; . \tag{A24}$$

In Poole et al. (2019) Eq. (13) introduces a variational upper bound on the mutual information, which has been called "Leave one out upper bound" (called "L1Out" in Cheng et al. (2020)). For simplicity, we call this bound "InfoLOOB", where LOOB is an acronym for "Leave One Out Bound". In contrast to InfoNCE, InfoLOOB is an upper bound on the mutual information. InfoLOOB is analog to InfoNCE except that the negative samples do not contain a positive sample. Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 in Cheng et al. (2020) both show that InfoLOOB is a better estimator for the mutual information than InfoNCE (van den Oord et al., 2018), MINE (Belghazi et al., 2018), and NWJ (Nguyen et al., 2010).

The InfoLOOB with score function $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ is defined as

$$I_{\text{InfoLOOB}}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \; = \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[E_{\tilde{p}(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})} \right) \right] \right] \; . \tag{A25}$$

The InfoLOOB with probabilities is defined as

$$I_{\text{InfoLOOB}}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \; = \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[E_{p(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_1)}{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_i)} \right) \right] \right] \; . \tag{A26}$$

This is the InfoLOOB with $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x})$.

The InfoLOOB with probabilities can be written in different forms:

$$I_{\text{InfoLOOB}}(X_1 \; ; \; Y) \; = \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[E_{p(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_1)}{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_i)} \right) \right] \right] \tag{A27}$$

$$= \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[E_{p(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_1)}{p(\boldsymbol{y})}}{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} \frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_i)}{p(\boldsymbol{y})}} \right) \right] \right] \; = \; E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[E_{p(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{\frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}}{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_i \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_i)}} \right) \right] \right] \; .$$

Set of pairs. The InfoLOOB can we written in a different setting (Poole et al., 2019), which will be used in our implementations. We sample N pairs independently from $p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$, which gives $X = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}_1), (\boldsymbol{x}_2, \boldsymbol{y}_2), \ldots, (\boldsymbol{x}_N, \boldsymbol{y}_N)\}$. The InfoLOOB is then

$$I_{\text{InfoLOOB}}(X \; ; \; Y) \; = \; E_{p(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln \left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y}_i)}{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_j, \boldsymbol{y}_i)} \right) \right] \; . \tag{A28}$$

We assume that an anchor sample $\boldsymbol{y}$ is given. For the anchor sample $\boldsymbol{y}$ we draw a positive sample $\boldsymbol{x}_1$ according to $p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})$. Next, we draw a set $\tilde{X} = \{\boldsymbol{x}_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_N\}$ of negative samples according to $\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$. **For a given $\boldsymbol{y}$, the $\boldsymbol{x}$ that have a large $p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$ are drawn with a lower probability $\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$ compared to random drawing via $p(\boldsymbol{x})$.** The negatives are indeed negatives. We have drawn first anchor sample $\boldsymbol{y}$ and then $X = \{\boldsymbol{x}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_N\}$, where $\boldsymbol{x}_1$ is drawn according to $p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})$ and $\tilde{X} = \{\boldsymbol{x}_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_N\}$ are drawn iid according to $\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$. We have

$$\tilde{p}(\tilde{X} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \; = \; \prod_{i=2}^{N} \tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x}_i \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \; , \tag{A29}$$

$$\tilde{p}(X \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \; = \; p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \prod_{i=2}^{N} \tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x}_i \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \; , \tag{A30}$$

$$\tilde{p}(\tilde{X} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \, p(\boldsymbol{x}_1) \; = \; p(\boldsymbol{x}_1) \prod_{i=2}^{N} \tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x}_i \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \; . \tag{A31}$$

We assume for score function $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$

$$\forall_{\boldsymbol{y}} \forall_{\boldsymbol{x}} : \ 0 \ < \ f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \ . \tag{A32}$$

We ensure this by using for score function f

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \ = \ \exp(\tau^{-1} \operatorname{sim}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})) \ , \tag{A33}$$

where $\operatorname{sim}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ is typically the cosine similarity.

InfoLOOB with score function $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ is

$$\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{InfoLOOB}}(X \ ; \ Y) \ = \ \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})} \right) \right] \right] \ . \tag{A34}$$

The reference constant $Z(\boldsymbol{y})$ gives the average score $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$, if the negatives for $\boldsymbol{y}$ are selected with lower probability via $\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$ than with random drawing according to $p(\boldsymbol{x})$.

$$Z(\boldsymbol{y}) \ = \ \mathrm{E}_{\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \right] \ . \tag{A35}$$

We define the variational distribution

$$q(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \ = \ \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}) \, f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})}{Z^*(\boldsymbol{y})} \ , \quad Z^*(\boldsymbol{y}) \ = \ \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x})} \left[f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \right] \ . \tag{A36}$$

With the variational distribution $q(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$, we express our main assumption. **The main assumption for the bound is:**

$$\mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{KL}(p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \parallel q(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})) \right] \ \leqslant \ \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln Z^*(\boldsymbol{y}) \ - \ \ln Z(\boldsymbol{y}) \right] \ . \tag{A37}$$

This assumption can be written as

$$\mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) \, Z(\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{y}) \, f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})} \right) \right] \right] \ \leqslant \ 0 \ . \tag{A38}$$

This assumption ensures that the $\boldsymbol{x}$ with large $p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$) are selected with lower probability via $\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$ than with random drawing according to $p(\boldsymbol{x})$. The negatives are ensured to be real negatives, that is, $p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$ is small and so is $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$. Consequently, we make sure that we draw $\boldsymbol{x}$ with sufficient small $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$. The Kullback-Leibler gives the minimal required gap between drawing $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ via $p(\boldsymbol{x})$ and drawing $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ via $\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$.

EXAMPLE. With $h(\boldsymbol{y}) > 0$, we consider the setting

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \ = \ \frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) \, h(\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \ , \tag{A39}$$

$$\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \ = \ \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}) \, p(\boldsymbol{y})}{h(\boldsymbol{y}) \, p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) \, C(\boldsymbol{y})} \ , \quad C(\boldsymbol{y}) \ = \ \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x})} \left[\left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) \, h(\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \right)^{-1} \right] \ . \tag{A40}$$

The main assumption becomes

$$\mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \frac{Z(\boldsymbol{y})}{h(\boldsymbol{y})} \right] \right] \ \leqslant \ 0 \ . \tag{A41}$$

The main assumption holds since

$$Z(\boldsymbol{y}) \ = \ \mathrm{E}_{\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) \, h(\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \right] \ = \ \int \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}) \, p(\boldsymbol{y})}{h(\boldsymbol{y}) \, p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) \, C(\boldsymbol{y})} \, \frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) \, h(\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \, \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x} \tag{A42}$$

$$= \ \int p(\boldsymbol{x}) \, C(\boldsymbol{y})^{-1} \, \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x} \ = \ C(\boldsymbol{y})^{-1} \ = \ \left(\mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x})} \left[\left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) \, h(\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \right)^{-1} \right] \right)^{-1}$$

$$\leqslant \ \left(\mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x})} \left[\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) \, h(\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \right]^{-1} \right)^{-1} \ = \ \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x})} \left[\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) \, h(\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \right]$$

$$= \ \int \frac{p(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}) \, h(\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \, \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x} \ = \ h(\boldsymbol{y}) \ ,$$

where we used for the $\leqslant$ Jensen's inequality with the function $f(a) = 1/a$, which is convex for $a > 0$.

For score function $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ and distribution $\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$ for sampling the negative samples, we have defined:

$$Z(\boldsymbol{y}) = \mathrm{E}_{\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{y})} [f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})] , \tag{A43}$$

$$Z^*(\boldsymbol{y}) = \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x})} [f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})] , \tag{A44}$$

$$q(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) = \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}) \, f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})}{Z^*(\boldsymbol{y})} . \tag{A45}$$

Next theorem gives the upper bound of the InfoLOOB on the mutual information, which is

$$\mathrm{I}(X_1 \,;\, Y) = \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)} \right] . \tag{A46}$$

Theorem A2 (InfoLOOB upper bound). *If* $\tilde{X} = \{\boldsymbol{x}_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_N\}$ *are drawn iid according to* $\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$ *and if the main assumption holds:*

$$\mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{KL}(p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \,\|\, q(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})) \right] \leqslant \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln Z^*(\boldsymbol{y}) - \ln Z(\boldsymbol{y}) \right] . \tag{A47}$$

Then InfoLOOB with score function $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ *as in Eq.* (A25) *is an upper bound on the mutual information:*

$$\mathrm{I}(X_1 \,;\, Y) \leqslant \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{\tilde{p}(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})} \right) \right] \right] = \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{InfoLOOB}}(X_1 \,;\, Y) . \tag{A48}$$

If the negative samples $\tilde{X} = \{\boldsymbol{x}_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_N\}$ *are drawn iid according to* $p(\boldsymbol{x})$, *then InfoLOOB with probabilities according to Eq.* (A26) *is an upper bound on the mutual information:*

$$\mathrm{I}(X_1 \,;\, Y) \leqslant \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_1)}{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid X_i)} \right) \right] \right] = \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{InfoLOOB}}(X_1 \,;\, Y) . \tag{A49}$$

The second bound Eq. (A49) *is a special case of the first bound Eq.* (A48).

Proof. **Part (I)**: Upper bound with score function $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$.

$$I(X_1 ; Y) = E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)} \right] \tag{A50}$$

$$= E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{q(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})} \frac{q(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)} \right) \right]$$

$$= E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \frac{q(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)} \right] + E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[KL(p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \parallel q(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})) \right]$$

$$\leqslant E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \frac{q(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)} \right] + E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)} \left[f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}) \right] - \ln Z(\boldsymbol{y}) \right]$$

$$= E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \frac{q(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)} + \ln \frac{E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)} \left[f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}) \right]}{Z(\boldsymbol{y})} \right]$$

$$= E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)} \left[f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}) \right]} \frac{E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)} \left[f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}) \right]}{Z(\boldsymbol{y})} \right) \right]$$

$$= E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{Z(\boldsymbol{y})} \right]$$

$$= E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{E_{\tilde{p}(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y}) \right]} \right) \right]$$

$$= E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}) \right] - E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(E_{\tilde{p}(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y}) \right] \right) \right]$$

$$\leqslant E_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}) \right] - E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[E_{\tilde{p}(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y}) \right) \right] \right]$$

$$= E_{p(\boldsymbol{y})} \left[E_{\tilde{p}(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\ln \left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y})}{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})} \right) \right] \right]$$

$$= I_{\text{InfoLOOB}}(X_1 ; Y) ,$$

where the first "$\leqslant$" uses assumption Eq. (A37), while Jensens's inequality was used for the second "$\leqslant$" by exchanging the expectation and the "ln". We also used

$$E_{\tilde{p}(X \mid \boldsymbol{y})} \left[\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y}) \right] = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} E_{\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x}_i \mid \boldsymbol{y})} \left[f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y}) \right] = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} Z(\boldsymbol{y}) = Z(\boldsymbol{y}) . \tag{A51}$$

Part (II): Upper bound with probabilities.

If the score function f is

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) \tag{A52}$$

and

$$\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) = p(\boldsymbol{x}) , \tag{A53}$$

then

$$\tilde{p}(X \mid \boldsymbol{y}) = p(X \mid \boldsymbol{y}) , \tag{A54}$$

$$Z(\boldsymbol{y}) = E_{p(\boldsymbol{x})} \left[p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) \right] = p(\boldsymbol{y}) , \tag{A55}$$

$$Z^*(\boldsymbol{y}) = E_{p(\boldsymbol{x})} \left[p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) \right] = p(\boldsymbol{y}) , \tag{A56}$$

$$q(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) = \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}) \, p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x})}{p(\boldsymbol{y})} = p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) , \tag{A57}$$

$$KL(p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \parallel q(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})) = KL(p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \parallel p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})) = 0 . \tag{A58}$$

Therefore, the main assumption holds, since

$$0 \;=\; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\mathrm{KL}(p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) \parallel q(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y}))\right] \;=\; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln Z^*(\boldsymbol{y}) \;-\; \ln Z(\boldsymbol{y})\right] . \tag{A59}$$

The bound becomes

$$\mathrm{I}(X_1 \;;\; Y) \;\leqslant\; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln\left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_1)}{\frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{i=2}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_i)}\right)\right]\right] \tag{A60}$$

$$= \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln\left(\frac{\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x}_1)}{p(\boldsymbol{y})}}{\frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{i=2}^{N}\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x}_i)}{p(\boldsymbol{y})}}\right)\right]\right] \;=\; \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{InfoLOOB}}(X_1 \;;\; Y) .$$

An alternative proof is as follows:

$$\mathrm{I}(X_1 \;;\; Y) \;=\; \mathrm{I}(X_1 \;;\; Y) \;-\; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln\left(\frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{i=2}^{N}\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\right)\right] \tag{A61}$$

$$= \mathrm{I}(X_1 \;;\; Y) \;-\; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln\left(\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{i=2}^{N}\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_i)}{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\right]\right)\right]$$

$$\leqslant \mathrm{I}(X_1 \;;\; Y) \;-\; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln\left(\frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{i=2}^{N}\frac{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_i)}{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\right)\right]\right]$$

$$= \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1|\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln\left(\frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}\right)\right]\right] \;-\; \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln\left(\frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{i=2}^{N}\frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_i \mid \boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_i)}\right)\right]\right]$$

$$= \mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\mathrm{E}_{p(X|\boldsymbol{y})}\left[\ln\left(\frac{\frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1|\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}}{\frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{i=2}^{N}\frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}_i|\boldsymbol{y})}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_i)}}\right)\right]\right]$$

$$= \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{InfoLOOB}}(X_1 \;;\; Y) .$$

where we applied Jensens's inequality for the exchanging the expectation and the "ln" to obtain the "$\leqslant$" inequality.

$\square$

Experiments that compare upper and lower bounds as mutual information estimates are provided in Cheng et al. (2020) and in Poole et al. (2019). In Fig. 2 in Cheng et al. (2020) it is shown that InfoLOOB is a good estimator of the mutual information.

A.1.3 INFONCE AND INFOLOOB: GRADIENTS

We consider the InfoNCE and the InfoLOOB loss function. For computing the loss function, we sample N pairs independently from $p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$, which gives the training set $\{(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}_1), (\boldsymbol{x}_2, \boldsymbol{y}_2), \dots, (\boldsymbol{x}_N, \boldsymbol{y}_N)\}$. InfoNCE and InfoLOOB only differ in using the positive example in the negatives. More precisely, InfoNCE uses for the matrix of negative samples $X = (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_N)$, while InfoLOOB uses $\tilde{X} = (\boldsymbol{x}_2, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_N)$.

InfoNCE.

The InfoNCE loss is

$$\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}} \;=\; -\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\ln\left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y}_i)}{\frac{1}{N}\sum_{j=1}^{N}f(\boldsymbol{x}_j, \boldsymbol{y}_i)}\right) \;=\; \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(\boldsymbol{y}_i) , \tag{A62}$$

where we used

$$\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(\boldsymbol{y}_i) \;=\; -\ln\left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y}_i)}{\frac{1}{N}\sum_{j=1}^{N}f(\boldsymbol{x}_j, \boldsymbol{y}_i)}\right) . \tag{A63}$$

For the score function $f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$, we use

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \exp(\tau^{-1} \operatorname{sim}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})) , \tag{A64}$$

$$\operatorname{sim}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \boldsymbol{y}^T \boldsymbol{x} \tag{A65}$$

with τ as the temperature.

The loss function for this score function is

$$\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(\boldsymbol{y}) = -\tau^{-1} \boldsymbol{y}^T \boldsymbol{x}_1 + \tau^{-1} \operatorname{lse}\left(\tau^{-1}, \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{y}\right) , \tag{A66}$$

where lse is the *log-sum-exp function* (lse):

$$\operatorname{lse}(\beta, \boldsymbol{a}) = \beta^{-1} \log \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} \exp(\beta a_i) \right) , \tag{A67}$$

for $\beta > 0$ and vector $\boldsymbol{a} = (a_1, \ldots, a_N)$.

The gradient with respect to $\boldsymbol{y}$ is

$$\frac{\partial \mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(\boldsymbol{y})}{\partial \boldsymbol{y}} = -\tau^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_1 + \tau^{-1} \boldsymbol{X} \operatorname{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{y}\right) , \tag{A68}$$

which is the positive example $\boldsymbol{x}_1$ that fits to the anchor example $\boldsymbol{y}$ minus the Hopfield network update with state pattern $\boldsymbol{y}$ and stored patterns $\boldsymbol{X}$ and then this difference multiplied by τ^{-1}.

This gradient can be simplified, since the positive example $\boldsymbol{x}_1$ is also in the negative examples. Using $\boldsymbol{p} = (p_1, \ldots, p_N)^T = \operatorname{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{y}\right)$, we obtain

$$\frac{\partial \mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(\boldsymbol{y})}{\partial \boldsymbol{y}} \tag{A69}$$

$$= -\tau^{-1}(1 - p_1)\left(\boldsymbol{x}_1 - \frac{1}{1 - p_1}\boldsymbol{X}\left(\operatorname{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{y}\right) - (p_1, 0, \ldots, 0)^T\right)\right)$$

$$= -\tau^{-1}(1 - p_1)\left(\boldsymbol{x}_1 - \tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}\operatorname{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^T\boldsymbol{y}\right)\right) = (1 - p_1)\frac{\partial \mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{InfoLOOB}}(\boldsymbol{y})}{\partial \boldsymbol{y}} .$$

where

$$\frac{1}{1 - p_1}\boldsymbol{X}\left(\operatorname{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{y}\right) - (p_1, 0, \ldots, 0)^T\right) \tag{A70}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - p_1}\boldsymbol{X}\left((p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_N)^T - (p_1, 0, \ldots, 0)^T\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - p_1}\boldsymbol{X}(0, p_2, \ldots, p_N)^T = \frac{1}{1 - p_1}\sum_{i=2}^{N} p_i \boldsymbol{x}_i$$

is the softmax average over the negatives $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant N$ without $\boldsymbol{x}_1$. It can be easily seen that $\frac{1}{1-p_1}\sum_{i=2}^{N} p_i = \frac{1-p_1}{1-p_1} = 1$. For the derivative of the InfoLOOB see below.

The gradient with respect to $\boldsymbol{x}_1$ is

$$\frac{\partial \mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(\boldsymbol{y})}{\partial \boldsymbol{x}_1} = -\tau^{-1} \boldsymbol{y} + \tau^{-1} \frac{\exp(\tau^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_1^T \boldsymbol{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \exp(\tau^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{y})} \boldsymbol{y} \tag{A71}$$

$$= -\tau^{-1}(1 - p_1)\boldsymbol{y} . \tag{A72}$$

Consequently, the learning rate is scaled by $(1 - p_1)$.

The sum of gradients with respect to $\boldsymbol{x}_1$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ is

$$\frac{\partial \mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(\boldsymbol{y})}{\partial \boldsymbol{x}_1} + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\partial \mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}}(\boldsymbol{y})}{\partial \boldsymbol{x}_i} = -\tau^{-1} \boldsymbol{y} + \tau^{-1} \boldsymbol{y} \, \mathbf{1}^T \operatorname{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{y}\right) \tag{A73}$$

$$= -\tau^{-1} \boldsymbol{y} + \tau^{-1} \boldsymbol{y} = 0 ,$$

where $\mathbf{1}$ is the vector with ones. However, the derivatives with respect to the weights are not zero since the $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ are differently computed.

InfoLOOB.

The InfoLOOB loss is

$$\mathrm{L_{InfoLOOB}} = -\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\ln\left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_i,\boldsymbol{y}_i)}{\frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{j=1,j\neq i}^{N}f(\boldsymbol{x}_j,\boldsymbol{y}_i)}\right) = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\mathrm{L_{InfoLOOB}}(\boldsymbol{y}_i)\,,\quad\text{(A74)}$$

where we used

$$\mathrm{L_{InfoLOOB}}(\boldsymbol{y}_i) = -\ln\left(\frac{f(\boldsymbol{x}_i,\boldsymbol{y}_i)}{\frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{j=1,j\neq i}^{N}f(\boldsymbol{x}_j,\boldsymbol{y}_i)}\right).\quad\text{(A75)}$$

For the score function $f(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})$, we use

$$f(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}) = \exp(\tau^{-1}\operatorname{sim}(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}))\,,\quad\text{(A76)}$$

$$\operatorname{sim}(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}) = \boldsymbol{y}^T\boldsymbol{x}\quad\text{(A77)}$$

with τ as the temperature.

The loss function for this score function is

$$\mathrm{L_{InfoLOOB}}(\boldsymbol{y}) = -\tau^{-1}\,\boldsymbol{y}^T\boldsymbol{x}_1 + \tau^{-1}\,\operatorname{lse}\left(\tau^{-1},\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^T\boldsymbol{y}\right)\,,\quad\text{(A78)}$$

where lse is the log-sum-exponential function.

The gradient with respect to $\boldsymbol{y}$ is

$$\frac{\partial\mathrm{L_{InfoLOOB}}(\boldsymbol{y})}{\partial\boldsymbol{y}} = -\tau^{-1}\,\boldsymbol{x}_1 + \tau^{-1}\,\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}\,\operatorname{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^T\boldsymbol{y}\right)\,,\quad\text{(A79)}$$

which is the positive example $\boldsymbol{x}_1$ that fits to the anchor example $\boldsymbol{y}$ minus the Hopfield network update with state pattern $\boldsymbol{y}$ and stored patterns $\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}$ and then this difference multiplied by τ^{-1}.

The gradient with respect to $\boldsymbol{x}_1$ is

$$\frac{\partial\mathrm{L_{InfoLOOB}}(\boldsymbol{y})}{\partial\boldsymbol{x}_1} = -\tau^{-1}\,\boldsymbol{y}\,.\quad\text{(A80)}$$

The sum of gradients with respect to $\boldsymbol{x}_1$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ is

$$\frac{\partial\mathrm{L_{InfoLOOB}}(\boldsymbol{y})}{\partial\boldsymbol{x}_1} + \sum_i\frac{\partial\mathrm{L_{InfoLOOB}}(\boldsymbol{y})}{\partial\boldsymbol{x}_i} = -\tau^{-1}\,\boldsymbol{y} + \tau^{-1}\,\boldsymbol{y}\,\mathbf{1}^T\operatorname{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^T\boldsymbol{y}\right)\quad\text{(A81)}$$

$$= -\tau^{-1}\,\boldsymbol{y} + \tau^{-1}\,\boldsymbol{y} = 0\,,$$

where $\mathbf{1}$ is the vector with ones. However, the derivatives with respect to the weights are not zero since the $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ are differently computed.

Gradients with respect to τ^{-1}.

The gradient of the InfoNCE loss Eq. (A62) using the similarity Eq. (A64) with respect to τ^{-1} is

$$\frac{\partial\mathrm{L_{InfoNCE}}(\boldsymbol{y})}{\partial\tau^{-1}} = -\boldsymbol{y}^T\,\boldsymbol{x}_1 + \boldsymbol{y}^T\,\boldsymbol{X}\,\operatorname{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{y}\right)\quad\text{(A82)}$$

$$= -\boldsymbol{y}^T\left(\boldsymbol{x}_1 - \boldsymbol{X}\,\operatorname{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^T\boldsymbol{y}\right)\right)\,,\quad\text{(A83)}$$

which is the similarity of the anchor $\boldsymbol{y}$ with the difference of the positive example $\boldsymbol{x}_1$ and the Hopfield network update with state pattern $\boldsymbol{y}$ and stored patterns $\boldsymbol{X}$. The gradient of the InfoLOOB loss Eq. (A74) using the similarity Eq. (A76) with respect to τ^{-1} is

$$\frac{\partial\mathrm{L_{InfoLOOB}}(\boldsymbol{y})}{\partial\tau^{-1}} = -\boldsymbol{y}^T\,\boldsymbol{x}_1 + \boldsymbol{y}^T\,\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}\,\operatorname{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^T\boldsymbol{y}\right)\quad\text{(A84)}$$

$$= -\boldsymbol{y}^T\left(\boldsymbol{x}_1 - \tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}\,\operatorname{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1}\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}^T\boldsymbol{y}\right)\right).\quad\text{(A85)}$$

with the difference that the Hopfield network update is done with stored patterns $\tilde{X}$ instead of X.

Without the positive example x_1 in the stored patterns $\tilde{X}$, the term $x_1 - \tilde{X} \operatorname{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1}\tilde{X}^T y\right)$ in Eq. (A84) will not decrease like the term $x_1 - X \operatorname{softmax}\left(\tau^{-1}X^T y\right)$ in Eq. (A82) but grow even larger with better separation of the positive and negative examples.

A.1.4 InfoLOOB and InfoNCE: Probability Estimators

In McAllester & Stratos (2018; 2020) it was shown that estimators of the mutual information by lower bounds have problems as they come with serious statistical limitations. Statistically more justified for representing the mutual information is a difference of entropies, which are estimated by minimizing the cross-entropy loss. Both InfoNCE and InfoLOOB losses can be viewed as cross-entropy losses.

We sample N pairs independently from $p(x, y)$, which gives $Z = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \ldots, (x_N, y_N)\}$. We set $X = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_N\}$ and $Y = \{y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_N\}$, so that, $Z = X \times Y$. The score function $f(x, y)$ is an estimator for $p(x, y)$. Then we obtain estimators $\hat{q}$ for the conditional probabilities. $\hat{q}(y_i \mid x_i, Y \setminus \{y_i\})$ is an estimator for $p(y_i \mid x_i)$ and $\hat{q}(x_i \mid y_i, X \setminus \{x_i\})$ an estimator for $p(x_i \mid y_i)$. Each estimator $\hat{q}$ uses beyond (x_i, y_i) additional samples to estimate the normalizing constant. For InfoNCE these estimators are

$$\hat{q}^1(y_i \mid x_i, Y \setminus \{y_i\}) = \frac{f(x_i, y_i)}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} f(x_i, y_j)} \approx \frac{f(x_i, y_i)}{\mathrm{E}_{p(y)}\left[f(x_i, y)\right]}, \tag{A86}$$

$$\hat{q}^2(x_i \mid y_i, X \setminus \{x_i\}) = \frac{f(x_i, y_i)}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} f(x_j, y_i)} \approx \frac{f(x_i, y_i)}{\mathrm{E}_{p(x)}\left[f(x, y_i)\right]}. \tag{A87}$$

The cross-entropy losses for the InfoNCE estimators are

$$\mathrm{L}^1_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln\left(\frac{f(x_i, y_i)}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} f(x_i, y_j)}\right), \tag{A88}$$

$$\mathrm{L}^2_{\mathrm{InfoNCE}} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln\left(\frac{f(x_i, y_i)}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} f(x_j, y_i)}\right). \tag{A89}$$

For InfoLOOB these estimators are

$$\hat{q}^1(y_i \mid x_i, Y \setminus \{y_i\}) = \frac{f(x_i, y_i)}{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{N} f(x_i, y_j)} \approx \frac{f(x_i, y_i)}{\mathrm{E}_{p(y)}\left[f(x_i, y)\right]}, \tag{A90}$$

$$\hat{q}^2(x_i \mid y_i, X \setminus \{x_i\}) = \frac{f(x_i, y_i)}{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{N} f(x_j, y_i)} \approx \frac{f(x_i, y_i)}{\mathrm{E}_{p(x)}\left[f(x, y_i)\right]}. \tag{A91}$$

The cross-entropy losses for the InfoLOOB estimators are

$$\mathrm{L}^1_{\mathrm{InfoLOOB}} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln\left(\frac{f(x_i, y_i)}{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{N} f(x_i, y_j)}\right), \tag{A92}$$

$$\mathrm{L}^2_{\mathrm{InfoLOOB}} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln\left(\frac{f(x_i, y_i)}{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{N} f(x_j, y_i)}\right). \tag{A93}$$

The InfoLOOB estimator uses for normalization

$$\mathrm{E}_{p(x)}\left[f(x, y_i)\right] \approx \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{N} f(x_j, y_i), \tag{A94}$$

$$\mathrm{E}_{p(y)}\left[f(x_i, y)\right] \approx \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{N} f(x_i, y_j), \tag{A95}$$

in contrast to InfoNCE, which uses

$$\mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x})}\left[f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}_i)\right] \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_j, \boldsymbol{y}_i) , \tag{A96}$$

$$\mathrm{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y})}\left[f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y})\right] \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y}_j) . \tag{A97}$$

If InfoNCE estimates the normalizing constant separately, then it would be biased. $(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y}_i)$ is drawn according to $p(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y}_i)$ instead of $p(\boldsymbol{x}_i)p(\boldsymbol{y}_i)$. In contrast, if InfoLOOB estimated the normalizing constant separately, then it would be unbiased.

A.1.5 INFOLOOB AND INFONCE: LOSSES

We have N pairs drawn iid from $p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$, where we assume that a pair $(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{y}_i)$ is already an embedding of the original drawn pair. These build up the embedding training set $Z = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}_1), (\boldsymbol{x}_2, \boldsymbol{y}_2), \ldots, (\boldsymbol{x}_N, \boldsymbol{y}_N)\}$ that allows to construct the matrices $\boldsymbol{X} = (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{x}_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_N)$ of N embedding samples $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ and $\boldsymbol{Y} = (\boldsymbol{y}_1, \boldsymbol{y}_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{y}_N)$ of N embedding samples $\boldsymbol{y}_i$. We also have M stored patterns $\boldsymbol{U} = (\boldsymbol{u}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{u}_M)$ and K stored patterns $\boldsymbol{V} = (\boldsymbol{v}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_K)$.

The state vectors $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_i$ are the queries for the Hopfield networks, which retrieve some vectors from $\boldsymbol{U}$ or $\boldsymbol{V}$. $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}$ denotes the vector that $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ retrieves from the modern Hopfield network with stored patterns $\boldsymbol{U}$. We normalize vectors $\|\boldsymbol{x}_i\| = \|\boldsymbol{y}_i\| = \|\boldsymbol{u}_i\| = \|\boldsymbol{v}_i\| = 1$. The state vectors retrieve following vectors from modern Hopfield networks (Ramsauer et al., 2021; 2020; Widrich et al., 2020):

$$\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i} = \boldsymbol{U} \operatorname{softmax}(\beta \, \boldsymbol{U}^T \boldsymbol{x}_i) , \quad \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i} = \boldsymbol{U} \operatorname{softmax}(\beta \, \boldsymbol{U}^T \boldsymbol{y}_i) , \tag{A98}$$

$$\boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i} = \boldsymbol{V} \operatorname{softmax}(\beta \, \boldsymbol{V}^T \boldsymbol{x}_i) , \quad \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i} = \boldsymbol{V} \operatorname{softmax}(\beta \, \boldsymbol{V}^T \boldsymbol{y}_i) . \tag{A99}$$

Here β is a hyperparameter corresponding to the inverse temperature: $\beta = 0$ retrieves the average of the stored pattern, while large β retrieve the stored pattern that is most similar to the state pattern (query).

We consider the loss functions

$$\mathrm{L}_{\text{InfoNCE}} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \frac{\exp(\tau^{-1} \, \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{y}_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^{N} \exp(\tau^{-1} \, \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{y}_j)} - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \frac{\exp(\tau^{-1} \, \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{y}_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^{N} \exp(\tau^{-1} \, \boldsymbol{x}_j^T \boldsymbol{y}_i)} , \tag{A100}$$

$$\mathrm{L}_{\text{InfoLOOB}} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \frac{\exp(\tau^{-1} \, \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{y}_i)}{\sum_{j\neq i}^{N} \exp(\tau^{-1} \, \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{y}_j)} - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \frac{\exp(\tau^{-1} \, \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{y}_i)}{\sum_{j\neq i}^{N} \exp(\tau^{-1} \, \boldsymbol{x}_j^T \boldsymbol{y}_i)} , \tag{A101}$$

$$\mathrm{L}_{\text{InfoLOOB}}^{\text{H}-\text{UVUV}} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \frac{\exp(\tau^{-1} \, \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i})}{\sum_{j\neq i}^{N} \exp(\tau^{-1} \, \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_j})} - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \frac{\exp(\tau^{-1} \, \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i})}{\sum_{j\neq i}^{N} \exp(\tau^{-1} \, \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_j}^T \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i})} , \tag{A102}$$

$$\mathrm{L}_{\text{InfoLOOB}}^{\text{H}-\text{UUVV}} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \frac{\exp(\tau^{-1} \, \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i})}{\sum_{j\neq i}^{N} \exp(\tau^{-1} \, \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_j})} - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \frac{\exp(\tau^{-1} \, \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i})}{\sum_{j\neq i}^{N} \exp(\tau^{-1} \, \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{x}_j}^T \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i})} , \tag{A103}$$

where for InfoLOOB the sum $\sum_{j\neq i}$ in the denominator contains only negative examples j. We do not consider the loss function $\mathrm{L}_{\text{InfoLOOB}}^{\text{H}-\text{UVUV}}$ because of the high variance in the dot product $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$ as elaborated in the following.

Let us consider the dot product between the anchor retrieval with the positive pattern retrieval for the loss functions with Hopfield. In the first term of the loss function Eq. (A102), $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}$ is the anchor with $\boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$ as the positive sample and $\boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$ with $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}$ as the positive sample for the second term, since the

anchor also appears in each term of the denominator. Equivalently the same is valid for Eq. (A103), but with positive samples $\boldsymbol{V_{x_i}}$ and $\boldsymbol{U_{y_i}}$ respectively. These dot products can be written as

$$\boldsymbol{U_{x_i}^T V_{y_i}} = \text{softmax}(\beta \, \boldsymbol{U^T x_i})^T \, \boldsymbol{U^T V} \, \text{softmax}(\beta \, \boldsymbol{V^T y_i}) \,, \tag{A104}$$

$$\boldsymbol{U_{x_i}^T U_{y_i}} = \text{softmax}(\beta \, \boldsymbol{U^T x_i})^T \, \boldsymbol{U^T U} \, \text{softmax}(\beta \, \boldsymbol{U^T y_i}) \,, \tag{A105}$$

$$\boldsymbol{V_{x_i}^T V_{y_i}} = \text{softmax}(\beta \, \boldsymbol{V^T x_i})^T \, \boldsymbol{V^T V} \, \text{softmax}(\beta \, \boldsymbol{V^T y_i}) \,. \tag{A106}$$

High variance of $\boldsymbol{U_{x_i}^T V_{y_i}}$. To compute the dot product $\boldsymbol{U_{x_i}^T V_{y_i}}$, $M + K$ stored patterns are required (M of the $\boldsymbol{u_j}$ and K of the $\boldsymbol{v_j}$). In contrast, the dot products $\boldsymbol{U_{x_i}^T U_{y_i}}$ and $\boldsymbol{V_{x_i}^T V_{y_i}}$ require only M or respectively K stored patterns. Therefore, $\boldsymbol{U_{x_i}^T V_{y_i}}$ has higher variance than both $\boldsymbol{U_{x_i}^T U_{y_i}}$ and $\boldsymbol{V_{x_i}^T V_{y_i}}$.

Covariance structure extracted by $\boldsymbol{U_{x_i}^T U_{y_i}}$ and $\boldsymbol{V_{x_i}^T V_{y_i}}$.

The Jacobian J of the softmax $\boldsymbol{p} = \text{softmax}(\beta \boldsymbol{a})$ is

$$\text{J}(\beta \boldsymbol{a}) = \frac{\partial \text{softmax}(\beta \boldsymbol{a})}{\partial \boldsymbol{a}} = \beta \left(\text{diag}(\boldsymbol{p}) - \boldsymbol{p}\boldsymbol{p}^T \right) \,, \tag{A107}$$

which is a symmetric, positive semi-definite matrix with one eigenvalue of zero for eigenvector $\boldsymbol{1}$. $\text{J}(\beta \boldsymbol{a})$ is diagonally dominant since $|p_i(1 - p_i)| - \sum_{j \neq i} |p_i p_j| = p_i - \sum_j p_i p_j = p_i - p_i = 0$.

Next we give upper bounds on the norm of J.

Lemma A1. *For a softmax $\boldsymbol{p} = \text{softmax}(\beta \boldsymbol{x})$ with $m = \max_i p_i(1 - p_i)$, the spectral norm of the Jacobian J of the softmax is bounded:*

$$\|\text{J}\|_2 \leqslant 2 \, m \, \beta \,, \tag{A108}$$

$$\|\text{J}\|_1 \leqslant 2 \, m \, \beta \,, \tag{A109}$$

$$\|\text{J}\|_\infty \leqslant 2 \, m \, \beta \,. \tag{A110}$$

In particular everywhere holds

$$\|\text{J}\|_2 \leqslant \frac{1}{2} \, \beta \,. \tag{A111}$$

If $p_{\max} = \max_i p_i \geq 1 - \epsilon \geq 0.5$, then for the spectral norm of the Jacobian holds

$$\|\text{J}\|_2 \leqslant 2 \, \epsilon \, \beta \, - \, 2 \, \epsilon^2 \, \beta \, < \, 2 \, \epsilon \, \beta \,. \tag{A112}$$

Proof. We consider the maximum absolute column sum norm

$$\|\boldsymbol{A}\|_1 = \max_j \sum_i |a_{ij}| \tag{A113}$$

and the maximum absolute row sum norm

$$\|\boldsymbol{A}\|_\infty = \max_i \sum_j |a_{ij}| \,. \tag{A114}$$

We have for $\boldsymbol{A} = \text{J} = \beta \left(\text{diag}(\boldsymbol{p}) - \boldsymbol{p}\boldsymbol{p}^T \right)$

$$\sum_j |a_{ij}| = \beta \left(p_i(1 - p_i) + \sum_{j, j \neq i} p_i p_j \right) = \beta \, p_i \, (1 - 2p_i + \sum_j p_j) \tag{A115}$$

$$= 2 \, \beta \, p_i \, (1 - p_i) \leqslant 2 \, m \, \beta \,,$$

$$\sum_i |a_{ij}| = \beta \left(p_j \, (1 - p_j) + \sum_{i, i \neq j} p_j p_i \right) = \beta \, p_j \, (1 - 2p_j + \sum_i p_i) \tag{A116}$$

$$= 2 \, \beta \, p_j \, (1 - p_j) \leqslant 2 \, m \, \beta \,.$$

Therefore, we have

$$\|\mathrm{J}\|_1 \;\leqslant\; 2\,m\,\beta\,, \tag{A117}$$

$$\|\mathrm{J}\|_\infty \;\leqslant\; 2\,m\,\beta\,, \tag{A118}$$

$$\|\mathrm{J}\|_2 \;\leqslant\; \sqrt{\|\mathrm{J}\|_1 \|\mathrm{J}\|_\infty} \;\leqslant\; 2\,m\,\beta\,. \tag{A119}$$

The last inequality is a direct consequence of Hölder's inequality.

For $0 \leqslant p_i \leqslant 1$, we have $p_i(1 - p_i) \leqslant 0.25$. Therefore, $m \leqslant 0.25$ for all values of p_i.

If $p_{\max} \geq 1 - \epsilon \geq 0.5$ ($\epsilon \leqslant 0.5$), then $1 - p_{\max} \leqslant \epsilon$ and for $p_i \neq p_{\max}$ $p_i \leqslant \epsilon$. The derivative $\partial x(1 - x)/\partial x = 1 - 2x > 0$ for $x < 0.5$, therefore $x(1 - x)$ increases with x for $x < 0.5$. Using $x = 1 - p_{\max}$ and for $p_i \neq p_{\max}$ $x = p_i$, we obtain $p_i(1 - p_i) \leqslant \epsilon(1 - \epsilon)$ for all i. Consequently, we have $m \leqslant \epsilon(1 - \epsilon)$. $\qquad\square$

For the softmax $\boldsymbol{p} = \mathrm{softmax}(\beta \boldsymbol{a})$ with Jacobian $\partial \mathrm{J}/\partial \boldsymbol{a} = \mathrm{J}(\beta \boldsymbol{a}) = \beta\left(\mathrm{diag}(\boldsymbol{p}) - \boldsymbol{p}\boldsymbol{p}^T\right)$ and for arbitrary N-dimensional vectors $\boldsymbol{b}$ and $\boldsymbol{c}$, we have

$$\boldsymbol{b}^T \mathrm{J}(\beta \boldsymbol{a})\,\boldsymbol{c} \;=\; \beta\,\boldsymbol{b}^T\left(\mathrm{diag}(\boldsymbol{p}) - \boldsymbol{p}\,\boldsymbol{p}^T\right)\boldsymbol{c} \;=\; \beta\left(\sum_i p_i\,b_i\,c_i \;-\; \left(\sum_i p_i\,b_i\right)\left(\sum_i p_i\,c_i\right)\right). \tag{A120}$$

Therefore, $\boldsymbol{b}^T \mathrm{J}(\beta \boldsymbol{a})\boldsymbol{c}$ is β times the covariance between $\boldsymbol{b}$ and $\boldsymbol{c}$ if component i is drawn with probability p_i of the multinomial distribution $\boldsymbol{p}$. In our case the component i is sample i.

Using the mean $\hat{\boldsymbol{u}} = 1/M \sum_{i=1}^M \boldsymbol{u}_i$, the empirical covariance of data $\boldsymbol{U}$ is

$$\mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U}) \;=\; 1/M\,\boldsymbol{U}\,\boldsymbol{U}^T \;-\; \hat{\boldsymbol{u}}\,\hat{\boldsymbol{u}}^T\,, \tag{A121}$$

$$[\mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U})]_{kl} \;=\; \sum_{i=1}^M 1/M\,u_{ik}\,u_{il} \;-\; \left(\sum_{i=1}^M 1/M\,u_{ik}\right)\left(\sum_{i=1}^M 1/M\,u_{il}\right). \tag{A122}$$

The weighted covariance (samples $\boldsymbol{u}_i$ are drawn according to p_i)

$$\mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U}) \;=\; \boldsymbol{U}\,\mathrm{J}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{a})\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\,, \tag{A123}$$

$$[\mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U})]_{kl} \;=\; \beta\left(\sum_{i=1}^M p_i\,u_{ik}\,u_{il} \;-\; \left(\sum_{i=1}^M p_i\,u_{ik}\right)\left(\sum_{i=1}^M p_i\,u_{il}\right)\right), \tag{A124}$$

which replaces $1/M$ from equal sampling by the p_i, that is, $\boldsymbol{u}_i$ is sampled with probability p_i.

The next theorem states how to express the dot product $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$ by weighted covariances of the data $\boldsymbol{U}$.

Theorem A3 (Weighted Covariances). *Using the weighted covariances*

$$\mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U}, \boldsymbol{y}_i) \;=\; \boldsymbol{U}\,\mathrm{J}^{\mathrm{m}}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{y}_i)\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\,, \quad \mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U}, \boldsymbol{x}_i) \;=\; \boldsymbol{U}\,\mathrm{J}^{\mathrm{m}}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{x}_i)\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\,, \tag{A125}$$

$$\mathrm{J}^{\mathrm{m}}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{a}) \;=\; \int_0^1 \mathrm{J}(\lambda\,\beta\,\boldsymbol{a})\,\mathrm{d}\lambda\,, \tag{A126}$$

where the mean Jacobian J^{m} is symmetric, diagonally dominant, and positive semi-definite with spectral norm bounded by $\|\mathrm{J}^{\mathrm{m}}\|_2 \leqslant 0.5\beta$.

The dot product $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$ can be expressed by the weighted covariances

$$\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T \boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i} \;=\; \left(\bar{\boldsymbol{u}} + \mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U}, \boldsymbol{x}_i)\,\boldsymbol{x}_i\right)^T \left(\bar{\boldsymbol{u}} + \mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U}, \boldsymbol{y}_i)\,\boldsymbol{y}_i\right), \tag{A127}$$

where the mean is $\bar{\boldsymbol{u}} = 1/M\boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{1}$.

Proof. We apply the mean value theorem to the softmax with the symmetric, diagonally dominant, positive semi-definite Jacobian matrix $\mathrm{J}^{\mathrm{m}} = \int_0^1 \mathrm{J}(\lambda\boldsymbol{a} + (1 - \lambda)\boldsymbol{a}')\,\mathrm{d}\lambda$:

$$\mathrm{softmax}(\boldsymbol{a}) \;-\; \mathrm{softmax}(\boldsymbol{a}') \;=\; \mathrm{J}^{\mathrm{m}}\,(\boldsymbol{a} - \boldsymbol{a}')\,. \tag{A128}$$

We set $\boldsymbol{a}' = \boldsymbol{0}$ and use $\beta\boldsymbol{a}$ instead of $\boldsymbol{a}$, which gives:

$$\mathrm{softmax}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{a}) \;=\; 1/M\,\boldsymbol{1} \;+\; \mathrm{J^m}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{a})\,\boldsymbol{a}\,, \quad \mathrm{J^m}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{a}) \;=\; \int_0^1 \mathrm{J}(\lambda\,\beta\,\boldsymbol{a})\,\mathrm{d}\lambda\,, \tag{A129}$$

which is exact. We obtain

$$\mathrm{softmax}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{x}_i) \;=\; 1/M\,\boldsymbol{1} \;+\; \mathrm{J^m}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{x}_i)\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{x}_i\,, \tag{A130}$$

$$\mathrm{softmax}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{y}_i) \;=\; 1/M\,\boldsymbol{1} \;+\; \mathrm{J^m}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{y}_i)\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{y}_i\,. \tag{A131}$$

The spectral norm of $\mathrm{J^m}$ is bounded by $\|\mathrm{J^m}\|_2 \leqslant 0.5\beta$, since this bound holds for every $\mathrm{J}(\lambda\beta\boldsymbol{a})$ in $\mathrm{J^m}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{a}) = \int_0^1 \mathrm{J}(\lambda\beta\boldsymbol{a})\,\mathrm{d}\lambda$ according to Lemma A1.

The dot product between the anchor retrieval and the positive sample is:

$$\begin{aligned}
\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i} \;&=\; \mathrm{softmax}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{x}_i)^T\;\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{U}\,\mathrm{softmax}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{y}_i) \tag{A132}\\
&=\; \left(1/M\,\boldsymbol{1} \,+\, \mathrm{J^m}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{x}_i)\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{x}_i\right)^T\;\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{U}\,\left(1/M\,\boldsymbol{1} \,+\, \mathrm{J^m}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{y}_i)\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{y}_i\right)\\
&=\; \left(1/M\,\boldsymbol{U}\,\boldsymbol{1} \,+\, \boldsymbol{U}\,\mathrm{J^m}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{x}_i)\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{x}_i\right)^T\;\left(1/M\,\boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{1} \,+\, \boldsymbol{U}\,\mathrm{J^m}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{y}_i)\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{y}_i\right)\\
&=\; \left(\bar{\boldsymbol{u}} \,+\, \mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U},\boldsymbol{x}_i)\,\boldsymbol{x}_i\right)^T\;\left(\bar{\boldsymbol{u}} \,+\, \mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U},\boldsymbol{y}_i)\,\boldsymbol{y}_i\right)\,,
\end{aligned}$$

where we used the mean $\bar{\boldsymbol{u}} = 1/M\boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{1}$ and the weighted covariances

$$\mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U},\boldsymbol{y}_i) \;=\; \boldsymbol{U}\,\mathrm{J^m}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{y}_i)\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\,, \quad \mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U},\boldsymbol{x}_i) \;=\; \boldsymbol{U}\,\mathrm{J^m}(\beta\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\boldsymbol{x}_i)\,\boldsymbol{U}^T\,. \tag{A133}$$

$\square$

The Jacobian $\mathrm{J^m}$ is symmetric, diagonally dominant, and positive semi-definite. The weighted covariance $\mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U},.)$ is the covariance if the stored pattern $\boldsymbol{u}_i$ is drawn according to an averaged p_i given by $\mathrm{J^m}(.)$. Analog for weighted covariance $\mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{V},.)$. When maximizing the dot product $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$, the normalized vectors $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_i$ are encouraged to agree on drawing the patterns $\boldsymbol{u}_i$ with the same probability p_i to generate similar weighted covariance matrices $\mathrm{Cov}(\boldsymbol{U},.)$. If subsets of $\boldsymbol{U}$ have a strong covariance structure, then it can be exploited to produce large weighted covariances and, in turn, large dot products of $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$. Furthermore, for a large dot product $\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T\boldsymbol{U}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$, $\boldsymbol{x}_i$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_i$ have to be similar to one another to extract the same direction from the covariance matrices. All considerations are analog for $\boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}^T\boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{y}_i}$.

A.2 Mutual Information Estimation

We follow the toy experiment discussed in Poole et al. (2019), Belghazi et al. (2018) and Cheng et al. (2020) and experimentally confirm the superior quality of InfoLOOB for mutual information than InfoNCE. The dataset consists of samples $(\boldsymbol{x}_i,\boldsymbol{y}_i)$ drawn jointly from a multivariate Gaussian distribution with correlation ρ where the dimension of the samples $\boldsymbol{x}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}$ is set to $d = 20$. We examine the performance of InfoLoob with and without Hopfield and InfoNCE at estimating mutual information of these samples. Due to the Gaussian distribution, the true value of mutual information can be calculated as $I(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}) = -\frac{d}{2}\log(1 - \rho^2)$. We set the mutual information true value to the values $(2.0, 4.0, 6.0, 8.0, 10.0, 14.0)$ by varying the value of ρ. At each MI true value, we sample data batches 1024 times, with batch size equal to 64, for the training of variational MI estimators.

In Figure A1 we show the performance of our method InfoLOOB with and without Hopfield at estimating mutual information as well as InfoNCE. As expected estimates of InfoNCE have estimates that saturate at log(batch size). InfoLOOB without Hopfield exhibits good estimates of high mutual information while InfoLOOB with Hopfield accomplishes both - good estimates of high mutual information with a decreased variance.

A.3 Experiments

A.3.1 Ablation studies

As mentioned in the main paper, CLOOB has two new main components compared to CLIP: (1) the InfoLOOB objective instead of the InfoNCE objective and (2) the modern Hopfield networks.

Figure A1: The estimated mutual information of the InfoNCE objective saturates at the batch size induced bound. The InfoLOOB objective trained with the same batch size with samples from the same correlated Gaussian distributions following (Belghazi et al., 2018; Poole et al., 2019; Cheng et al., 2020) is not limited by that bound and better estimates higher mutual information but suffers from higher variance. This is remedied by incorporating the modern Hopfield network.

Table A1: Influence of loss functions and Hopfield retrieval. InfoLOOB increases the performance of CLIP in most of the tasks. The InfoNCE loss is not suited for the Hopfield approach as it saturates leading to a worse performance. Hopfield with InfoLOOB strongly improves the performance in 7 out of 8 datasets compared to both CLIP models.

| | CLIP | | Hopfield | |
Dataset	InfoNCE	InfoLOOB	InfoNCE	InfoLOOB
Birdsnap	1.94	2.37	1.67	**2.53**
Country211	0.62	0.63	0.54	**0.76**
Flowers102	13.04	13.03	11.53	**14.24**
GTSRB	**7.28**	4.39	5.76	5.86
UCF101	21.00	19.14	20.56	**22.29**
Stanford Cars	0.90	1.33	1.24	**1.37**
ImageNet	20.31	22.13	19.04	**24.21**
ImageNetV2	20.63	21.65	18.97	**23.80**

To assess which of the new main components of CLOOB have led to the performance increase over CLIP, we performed ablation studies on the CC dataset. The results are reported in Table A1. First, we enhanced CLIP by replacing the InfoNCE objective with InfoLOOB (see column CLIP InfoLOOB). Next, we added modern Hopfield networks to the CLIP architecture and used retrieved embeddings instead of the original embeddings, while keeping the InfoNCE objective (see column Hopfield InfoNCE). Finally, we add modern Hopfield networks to CLIP and replace the InfoNCE objective with InfoLOOB (see column Hopfield InfoLOOB). As shown in Table A1 the InfoLOOB objective increases the performance of CLIP in the majority of the datasets. InfoNCE with modern Hopfield networks leads to an performance drop compared to the original CLIP. We attribute this drop to the saturation of InfoNCE, which is reinforced by the smoothing of modern Hopfield networks. In contrast, CLOOB strongly improves the performance on 7 out of 8 zero-shot transfer learning tasks compared to CLIP.

For CLIP with InfoNCE, the hyperparameter τ^{-1} is a learnable parameter. For the other experiments, we use a fixed τ^{-1} of 30. The value for τ^{-1} was determined via hyperparameter search (see Section A.3.2).

In contrast to CLIP, we use a learning rate scheduler with restarts (Loshchilov & Hutter, 2017) to be more flexible regarding the number of total training epochs and enable training up to a plateau. To investigate the influence of the learning rate scheduler, we performed experiments with and without restarts. Table A2 shows the zero-shot performance for the different downstream tasks for CLIP and CLOOB respectively. For both CLIP and CLOOB, the performance at the majority of the tasks either increases or remains roughly the same with restarts.

Table A2: Influence of learning rate scheduler. For most of the tasks the performance either increases or remains roughly the same with restarts for both CLIP and CLOOB.

Dataset	CLIP		CLOOB	
	w/o restarts	w/ restarts	w/o restarts	w/ restarts
Birdsnap	**2.10**	1.94	**2.64**	2.53
Country211	**0.71**	0.62	0.63	**0.76**
Flowers102	11.00	**13.04**	11.50	**14.24**
GTSRB	6.16	**7.28**	5.05	**5.86**
UCF101	19.05	**21.00**	21.97	**22.29**
Stanford Cars	**1.29**	0.90	1.22	**1.37**
ImageNet	20.19	**20.31**	23.29	**24.21**
ImageNet V2	20.53	**20.63**	22.97	**23.80**

Table A3: Datasets used for zero-shot and linear probing. In the case of several train or test sets per dataset we report the total number of samples. It should be noted that at the time of this work some Birdsnap images were not accessible anymore.

Dataset	Classes	Train size	Test size	Evaluation metric
Birdsnap	500	38,411	1,855	accuracy
Country211	211	42,200	21,100	accuracy
Flowers102	102	2,040	6,149	class-weighted accuracy
GTSRB	43	26,640	12,630	accuracy
ImageNet	1,000	1,281,167	50,000	accuracy
ImageNet V2	1,000	1,281,167	30,000	accuracy
Stanford Cars	196	8,144	8,041	accuracy
UCF101	101	28,747	11,213	accuracy

A.3.2 HYPERPARAMETERS

The hyperparameter search was done on a validation split of CC with about 15,000 samples. For the hyperparameter τ^{-1} several values were considered (14.3, 30, 50, 70), where 30 leads to the best results for both YFCC and CC. Analogously to CLIP, we use the Adam optimizer (Kingma et al., 2014) with decoupled weight decay regularization (Loshchilov & Hutter, 2019). The weight decay is only applied to weights that are not gains or biases. As proposed in OpenCLIP (Ilharco et al., 2021) weight decay was set to 0.1. Different choices of weight decay (0.2 or 0.05), did not lead to a relevant performance change. We use the same learning rate of 1×10^{-3} for CC and 5×10^{-4} for YFCC as used in OpenCLIP. For the hyperparameter β we considered values in the range of 5 to 20. A value of 8 resulted in the best performance for CC and 14.3 for YFCC. The batch size for CC was reduced to 512 due to computational restraints which did not result in performance losses. The batch size for YFCC was kept at 1024 as reported by OpenCLIP since a reduction resulted in a significant drop in performance. The learning rate scheduler for all experiments is cosine annealing with warmup and hard restarts (Loshchilov & Hutter, 2017) with a cycle length of 7 epochs. For models trained on YFCC the warmup was set to 10,000 steps and for models trained on CC to 20,000 steps.

A.3.3 DATASETS

For pretraining we consider two datasets, Conceptual Captions (CC) (Sharma et al., 2018) and YFCC100M (Thomee et al., 2016). The **CC** dataset consists of 2.9 million images and corresponding high-quality captions. Images and their corresponding notations for CC have been gathered via an automated process from the web and therefore represent a wide variety of styles. Raw descriptions of images are collected from the *alt-text* HTML attribute. Both images and texts are filtered such that only image-text pairs above a certain quality threshold are part of this dataset. The dataset we refer to as **YFCC** is a subset of the Yahoo Flickr Creative Commons 100 Million (YFCC100M) dataset. It was created by filtering for images which contain natural language descriptions and/or titles in English resulting in 15 million image-caption pairs. The textual descriptions contain less

useful information than CC because they are not filtered by quality. Occasionally they also contain metadata like camera settings or web addresses.

We evaluate and compare our method on several downstream classification tasks. We evaluate on the same set of datasets as CLIP reported for a model trained on YFCC. This set contains Birdsnap (Berg et al., 2014), Country211 (Radford et al., 2021a;b), Flowers102 (Nilsback & Zisserman, 2008), GTSRB (Stallkamp et al., 2011), UCF101 (Soomro et al., 2012), Stanford Cars (Krause et al., 2013) and ImageNet (Deng et al., 2009). Additionally, we include ImageNet V2 in our analysis (Recht et al., 2019a;b). Table A3 shows an overview of training and test set sizes, number of classes and the applied evaluation metric. In the case of several test sets per dataset the metric is calculated for every set individually and the average performance is reported. The set size in Table A3 corresponds to the total number of samples across all test and training sets of a dataset respectively.

Birdsnap contains images of North American bird species, however our dataset is smaller than reported in CLIP as some samples are no longer available. The **Country211** dataset was published in CLIP and is a small subset of the YFCC100m dataset. It consists of photos that can be assigned to 211 countries via GPS coordinates. For each country 200 photos are sampled for the training set and 100 for testing. For the **Flowers102** images of 102 flower categories commonly occuring in the United Kingdom were collected. Several classes are very similar and there is a large variation in scale, pose and lighting. The German Traffic Sign Recognition Benchmark (**GTSRB**) was a challenge held at the IJCNN 2011. The dataset contains images of german traffic signs from more than 40 classes. Note that two versions of this dataset exist, one used for the challenge and an official dataset released after the competition. For CLIP the linear probing classifiers were trained using the competition training set but tested on the official test set. **Stanford Cars** contains images of 196 car models at the level of make, model and year (e.g. Tesla Model S Sedan 2012). **UCF101** (Soomro et al., 2012) is a video dataset with short clips for action recognition consisting of three training sets and three test sets. We follow the procedure reported in CLIP and extract the middle frame of every video to assemble the dataset. The **ImageNet** Large Scale Visual Recognition Challenge was held from 2012 through 2017 and is one of the most widely used benchmarks for object detection and localization. Several years later **ImageNet V2** assembled three new test sets with images from the same 1,000 classes to test for generalization of models optimized for the original ImageNet benchmark. Every test set comprises 10,000 samples.

A.3.4 ZERO-SHOT EVALUATION

Class names for all downstream tasks were adopted from CLIP, that is, among other changes special characters like hyphens or apostrophes were removed. Furthermore, some class names of the datasets were slightly changed (e.g. "`kite`" to "`kite (bird of prey)`" in ImageNet). For zero-shot evaluation, we use the same prompt templates as published in CLIP. Depending on the dataset the number of prompts can vary from one prompt (e.g. "`a photo of a {label}, a type of bird.`" for Birdsnap) up to 80 prompts for ImageNet covering various settings (e.g. "`a cropped photo of a {label}.`", "`a origami {label}.`"). In case of several prompts an average embedding over all prompt embeddings is calculated. Figure A2 shows the zero-shot results for all evaluation tasks with the ResNet-50x4 model reported in Table 3.

A.3.5 LINEAR PROBING

We try to follow the evaluation procedure as described in CLIP (Radford et al., 2021a;b) as closely as possible. We note one difference with respect to the implementation: Instead of scikit-learn's logistic regression using the L-BFGS solver, we use cuML's logistic regression classifier with L-BFGS algorithm to utilize GPUs for efficiency. All hyperparameters are the same as described in the (Radford et al., 2021a;b), the maximum number of iterations was set to 1000, and the L2 regularization strength λ was determined by using a parametric binary search.

We tried to reproduce the CLIP results with the correspondingly published models, however, failed to produce the exact numbers. This could be due to several factors:

- The train and validation split. Same as in CLIP (Radford et al., 2021a;b) , we use the provided validation set to perform the hyperparameter search. When there is none provided, we use a random half of the training dataset for validation.

Table A4: Linear probing results for the reimplementation of CLIP and CLOOB using different ResNet architectures trained on YFCC. The performance of CLOOB scales with increased encoder size

Dataset	CLIP RN-50	CLOOB RN-50	CLOOB RN-101	CLOOB RN-50x4
Birdsnap	50.9	**56.2**	58.1	62.2
Country211	19.5	**20.6**	21.8	24.2
Flowers102	94.8	**96.1**	96.1	96.2
GTSRB	**82.5**	78.9	77.9	80.6
UCF101	**75.2**	72.3	72.8	75.3
Stanford Cars	36.2	**37.7**	39.0	44.3
ImageNet	**66.9**	65.7	67.0	69.7
ImageNet V2	**60.2**	58.7	60.3	62.2

- In case of a tie in the validation score, we use the maximal λ for the strongest regularization. We note though that we came closer to reproducing the results published in CLIP when using the mean λ over all ties when these exist.

- For the Birdsnap dataset, the resources that we have got online at the time of this writing could be different from the resources that CLIP's authors obtained at the time.

Linear probing evaluation of YFCC-pretrained models is shown in Table A4. Comparing our reimplementation of CLIP and CLOOB with ResNet-50 encoders, we observe mixed results. The reason for this effect might be attributed to the observed task-dependence of multimodal models (Devillers et al., 2021). Another potential reason is that the benefit of the restrictions to more reliable patterns that occur in both modalities does not directly translate to an evaluation of just the encoding part of one modality. Again, as expected in self-supervised training, increasing the capacity of the CLOOB models benefits accuracy.

A.4 BRIEF REVIEW OF MODERN HOPFIELD NETWORKS

We briefly review continuous modern Hopfield networks. Their main features are their property to retrieve with one update only and their exponential storage capacity. Modern Hopfield networks have much higher storage capacity (Demircigil et al., 2017; Krotov & Hopfield, 2016) than classical Hopfield networks (Hopfield, 1982; 1984). These binary modern Hopfield networks have been generalized to continuous modern Hopfield networks that are differentiable and allow for gradient descent if embedded in deep learning architectures (Ramsauer et al., 2021; 2020).

We assume a set of patterns $\{\boldsymbol{u}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{u}_N\} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ that are stacked as columns to the matrix $\boldsymbol{U} = (\boldsymbol{u}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{u}_N)$ and a state pattern (query) $\boldsymbol{\xi} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ that represents the current state. The largest norm of a stored pattern is $M = \max_i \|\boldsymbol{u}_i\|$. Continuous modern Hopfield networks with state $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ have the energy

$$\mathrm{E} = -\beta^{-1} \log \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} \exp(\beta \boldsymbol{u}_i^T \boldsymbol{\xi}) \right) + \beta^{-1} \log N + \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\xi}^T \boldsymbol{\xi} + \frac{1}{2} M^2 . \tag{A134}$$

For energy E and state $\boldsymbol{\xi}$, the update rule

$$\boldsymbol{\xi}^{\mathrm{new}} = f(\boldsymbol{\xi}; \boldsymbol{U}, \beta) = \boldsymbol{U} \, \boldsymbol{p} = \boldsymbol{U} \, \mathrm{softmax}(\beta \boldsymbol{U}^T \boldsymbol{\xi}) \tag{A135}$$

has been proven to converge globally to stationary points of the energy E, which are almost always local minima (Ramsauer et al., 2021; 2020). The update rule Eq. (A135) is also the formula of the well-known transformer attention mechanism (Ramsauer et al., 2021; 2020), therefore Hopfield retrieval and transformer attention coincide.

The *separation* Δ_i of a pattern $\boldsymbol{u}_i$ is defined as its minimal dot product difference to any of the other patterns: $\Delta_i = \min_{j,j \neq i} \left(\boldsymbol{u}_i^T \boldsymbol{u}_i - \boldsymbol{u}_i^T \boldsymbol{u}_j \right)$. A pattern is *well-separated* from the data if $\Delta_i \geq \frac{2}{\beta N} + \frac{1}{\beta} \log \left(2(N-1)N\beta M^2 \right)$. If the patterns $\boldsymbol{u}_i$ are well separated, the iterate Eq. (A135)

Figure A2: Visualization of zero-shot classification of three examples from each dataset. The following datasets are used (top to bottom): ImageNet, ImageNet V2, Birdsnap, Country211, Flowers102, GTSRB, Stanford Cars and UCF101. The ground truth label is displayed above the picture. The bar plots show the softmax values of the top 5 classes.

converges to a fixed point close to a stored pattern. If some patterns are similar to one another and, therefore, not well separated, the update rule Eq. (A135) converges to a fixed point close to the mean of the similar patterns. This fixed point is a *metastable state* of the energy function and averages over similar patterns.

The next theorem states that the update rule Eq. (A135) typically converges after one update if the patterns are well separated. Furthermore, it states that the retrieval error is exponentially small in the separation Δ_i.

Theorem A4 (Modern Hopfield Networks: Retrieval with One Update). *With query $\boldsymbol{\xi}$, after one update the distance of the new point $f(\boldsymbol{\xi})$ to the fixed point $\boldsymbol{u}_i^*$ is exponentially small in the separation Δ_i. The precise bounds using the Jacobian $\mathrm{J} = \frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{\xi})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\xi}}$ and its value J^m in the mean value theorem are:*

$$\|f(\boldsymbol{\xi}) - \boldsymbol{u}_i^*\| \leqslant \|\mathrm{J}^m\|_2 \|\boldsymbol{\xi} - \boldsymbol{u}_i^*\|, \tag{A136}$$

$$\|\mathrm{J}^m\|_2 \leqslant 2 \beta N M^2 (N-1) \exp(-\beta (\Delta_i - 2 \max\{\|\boldsymbol{\xi} - \boldsymbol{u}_i\|, \|\boldsymbol{u}_i^* - \boldsymbol{u}_i\|\} M)). \tag{A137}$$

For given ϵ and sufficient large Δ_i, we have $\|f(\boldsymbol{\xi}) - \boldsymbol{u}_i^*\| < \epsilon$, that is, retrieval with one update. The retrieval error $\|f(\boldsymbol{\xi}) - \boldsymbol{u}_i\|$ of pattern $\boldsymbol{u}_i$ is bounded by

$$\|f(\boldsymbol{\xi}) - \boldsymbol{u}_i\| \leqslant 2 (N-1) \exp(-\beta (\Delta_i - 2 \max\{\|\boldsymbol{\xi} - \boldsymbol{u}_i\|, \|\boldsymbol{u}_i^* - \boldsymbol{u}_i\|\} M)) M. \tag{A138}$$

For a proof see (Ramsauer et al., 2021; 2020).

The main requirement of modern Hopfield networks to be suited for contrastive learning is that they can store and retrieve enough embeddings if the batch size is large. We want to store a potentially large set of embeddings. We first define what we mean by storing and retrieving patterns from a modern Hopfield network.

Definition A1 (Pattern Stored and Retrieved). *We assume that around every pattern $\boldsymbol{u}_i$ a sphere S_i is given. We say $\boldsymbol{u}_i$ is stored if there is a single fixed point $\boldsymbol{u}_i^* \in \mathrm{S}_i$ to which all points $\boldsymbol{\xi} \in \mathrm{S}_i$ converge, and $\mathrm{S}_i \cap \mathrm{S}_j = \emptyset$ for $i \neq j$. We say $\boldsymbol{u}_i$ is retrieved for a given ϵ if iteration (update rule) Eq. (A135) gives a point $\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_i$ that is at least ϵ-close to the single fixed point $\boldsymbol{u}_i^* \in \mathrm{S}_i$. The retrieval error is $\|\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_i - \boldsymbol{u}_i\|$.*

As with classical Hopfield networks, we consider patterns on the sphere, i.e. patterns with a fixed norm. For randomly chosen patterns, the number of patterns that can be stored is exponential in the dimension d of the space of the patterns ($\boldsymbol{u}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$).

Theorem A5 (Modern Hopfield Networks: Exponential Storage Capacity). *We assume a failure probability $0 < p \leqslant 1$ and randomly chosen patterns on the sphere with radius $M := K\sqrt{d-1}$. We define $a := \frac{2}{d-1}(1 + \ln(2\beta K^2 p(d-1)))$, $b := \frac{2K^2\beta}{5}$, and $c := \frac{b}{W_0(\exp(a+\ln(b)))}$, where W_0 is the upper branch of the Lambert W function (Olver et al., 2010, (4.13)), and ensure $c \geq \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{p}}\right)^{\frac{4}{d-1}}$. Then with probability $1 - p$, the number of random patterns that can be stored is*

$$N \geq \sqrt{p}\, c^{\frac{d-1}{4}}. \tag{A139}$$

Therefore it is proven for $c \geq 3.1546$ with $\beta = 1$, $K = 3$, $d = 20$ and $p = 0.001$ ($a + \ln(b) > 1.27$) and proven for $c \geq 1.3718$ with $\beta = 1$, $K = 1$, $d = 75$, and $p = 0.001$ ($a + \ln(b) < -0.94$).

For a proof see (Ramsauer et al., 2021; 2020).

This theorem justifies to use continuous modern Hopfield networks for using retrieved embeddings instead of the original embeddings for large batch sizes. Even for hundreds of thousands of embeddings, the continuous modern Hopfield network is able to retrieve the embeddings if the dimension of the embeddings is large enough.

A.5 FURTHER RELATED WORK

Multiple works have proposed improvements to InfoNCE. Joint Contrastive Learning (JCL) studies the effect of sampling multiple positives for each anchor. (Cai et al., 2020). Sampling negatives around each positive leads to higher bias but lower variance than InfoNCE (Wu et al., 2021). InfoNCE has been generalized to C-InfoNCE and WeaC-InfoNCE, which are conditional contrastive learning approaches to remove undesirable information in self-supervised representations (Tsai et al., 2021). ProtoNCE is a generalized version of the InfoNCE, which pushes representations to be closer to

their assigned prototypes (Li et al., 2021). ProtoNCE combines contrastive learning with clustering. SimCSE employs InfoNCE for contrastive learning to learn sentence embeddings (Gao et al., 2021). InfoNCE has been extended to video representation learning (Han et al., 2020).

Many follow up works have been based on the CLIP model. The CLIP model is used in Vision-and-Language tasks (Shen et al., 2021). The CLIP model guided generative models via an additional training objective (Bau et al., 2021; Galatolo et al., 2021; Frans et al., 2021) and improved clustering of latent representations (Pakhomov et al., 2021). It is used in studies of out of distribution performance (Devillers et al., 2021; Milbich et al., 2021; Miller et al., 2021), of fine-tuning robustness (Wortsman et al., 2021), of zero-shot prompts (Zhou et al., 2021) and of adversarial attacks to uncurated datasets (Carlini & Terzis, 2021). It stirred discussions about more holistic evaluation schemes in computer vision (Agarwal et al., 2021). Multiple methods utilize the CLIP model in a straightforward way to perform text-to-video retrieval (Fang et al., 2021; Luo et al., 2021; Narasimhan et al., 2021).