# Planckian Jitter: countering the color-crippling effects of color jitter on self-supervised training

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## Abstract

Several recent works on self-supervised learning are trained by mapping different 1 augmentations of the same image to the same feature representation. The data 2 augmentations used are of crucial importance to the quality of learned feature 3 representations. In this paper, we analyze how the color jitter traditionally used in 4 data augmentation negatively impacts the quality of the color features in learned 5 feature representations. To address this problem, we propose a more realistic, 6 physics-based color data augmentation – which we call *Planckian Jitter* – that 7 creates realistic variations in chromaticity and produces a model robust to illumi-8 nation changes that can be commonly observed in real life, while maintaining the 9 ability to discriminate image content based on color information. Experiments 10 confirm that such a representation is complementary to the representations learned 11 with the currently-used color jitter augmentation and that a simple concatenation 12 leads to significant performance gains on a wide range of downstream datasets. 13 In addition, we present a color sensitivity analysis that documents the impact of 14 different training methods on model neurons and shows that the performance of 15 the learned features is robust with respect to illuminant variations. 16

# 17 **1 Introduction**

Self-supervised learning enables the learning of representations without the need for labeled data [8, 9]. 18 Several recent works learn representations that are invariant with respect to a set of data augmentations 19 and have obtained spectacular results [12, 6, 3], significantly narrowing the gap with supervised 20 learned representations. These works vary in their architectures, learning objectives, and optimization 21 22 strategies, however they are similar in applying a common set of data augmentations to generate different image views. These algorithms, while learning to map these different views to the same 23 latent representation, learn rich semantic representations for visual data. The set of transformations 24 (data augmentations) used induces invariances that characterizes the learned visual representation. 25

Before deep learning revolutionized the way visual representations are learned, features were handcrafted to represent various properties, leading to research on shape [15], texture [16], and color features [10, 11]. Color features were typically designed to be invariant to a set of scene-accidental events such as shadows, shading, and illuminant and viewpoint changes. With the rise of deep learning, feature representations that simultaneously exploit color, shape, and texture are learned implicitly and the invariances are a byproduct of end-to-end training [14]. Current approaches to self-supervised learning learn a set of invariances implicitly related to the applied data augmentations. In this work, we focus on the currently de facto choice for color augmentations. We argue that

In this work, we focus on the currently de facto choice for color augmentations. We argue that
 they seriously cripple the color quality of learned representations and we propose an alternative,
 physics-based color augmentation. Figure 1 (left) illustrates the currently used color augmentation on
 a sample image. It is clear that the applied color transformation significantly alters the colors of the

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Figure 1: Default color jitter (left) and Planckian Jitter (right). Augmentations based on default color jitter lead to unrealistic images, while Planckian Jitter leads to a set of realistic ones. The ARC chromaticity diagrams for each type of jitter are computed by sampling initial RGB values and mapping them into the range of possible outputs given by each augmentation. These diagrams show that Planckian Jitter transforms colors along chromaticity lines occurring in nature when changing the illuminant, whereas default color jitter transfers colors throughout the whole chromaticity plane.

original image, both in terms of hue and saturation. This augmentation results in a representation 37 that is invariant with respect to surface reflectance – an invariance beneficial for recognizing classes 38 whose surface reflectance varies significantly, for example many man-made objects such as cars and 39 chairs. However, such invariance is expected to hurt performance on downstream tasks for which 40 color is an important feature, like natural classes such as birds or food. One of the justifications for 41 such strong color augmentations is that without large color changes, mapping images to the same 42 latent representation can be purely done based on color and no complex shape features are learned. 43 However, as a result the quality of the color representation learned with such algorithms is inferior 44 and important information on surface reflectance might be absent. 45 In this paper we propose an alternative color augmentation (Figure 1, right). We draw on the existing

46 color imaging literature on designing features invariant to illuminant changes commonly encountered 47 in real-world scenes [10]. Our augmentation, which we called *Planckian Jitter*, applies physically 48 realistic illuminant variation to images. We consider the illuminants described by Planck's Law for 49 black-body radiation and that are known to be similar to illuminants encountered in real-life [21]. 50 The aim of our color augmentation is to allow the representation to contain valuable information 51 about the surface reflectance of objects -a feature that is expected to be important for a wide 52 range of downstream tasks. Combining such a representation with the already high-quality shape 53 representation learned with standard data augmentation leads to a more complete visual descriptor 54 that describes both shape and color. 55

Our experiments show that self-supervised representations learned with Planckian Jitter are robust to illuminant changes. In addition, depending on the importance of color in the dataset, the proposed Planckian jitter outperforms the default color jitter. Moreover, for all evaluated datasets the combination of features of our new data augmentation with standard color jitter leads to significant performance gains of over 5% on several downstream classification tasks. Finally, we show that Planckian Jitter can be applied to several state-of-the-art self-supervised learning methods.

# 62 2 Background and related work

Self-supervised learning and contrastive learning. Recent improvements in self-supervision learn 63 semantically rich feature representations without the need for labelled data. In SimCLR [4] similar 64 samples are created by augmenting an input image, while dissimilar are chosen by random [4]. To 65 make contrastive training more efficient, MoCo [13] and its improved version [5] use a memory bank 66 for learned embeddings which makes sampling efficient. This memory is kept in sync with the rest 67 of the network during training via a momentum encoder. Several methods do not rely on explicit 68 contrastive pairs. BYOL uses an asymmetric network incorporating an additional MLP predictor 69 between the outputs of the two branches [12]. One of the branches is kept "offline" and is updated by 70 a momentum encoder. SimSiam goes even further with a simplified solution without a momentum 71 encoder [6]. It obtains similar high-quality results and does not require a large minibatch size, in 72 contrast to other methods. 73



Figure 2: SimSiam training procedure exploiting Planckian-based data augmentation (left), and fine-tuning the linear classifier using the trained encoder (right).

We use the SimSiam method to verify our proposed color augmentation (we also apply it to Sim-CLR [4] and Barlow Twins [26] in the experiments). The main component of the network is
CNN-based image encoder, learned end-to-end in an asymmetric Siamese architecture. One branch has an additional MLP predictor whose output aims to be as close as possible to other (see Figure 2).
The second branch is not updated during backpropagation. A negative cosine loss function is used:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \mathcal{D}(p_1, \text{stopgrad}(z_2)) + \mathcal{D}(p_2, \text{stopgrad}(z_1)) \right]$$
(1)

$$\mathcal{D}(p_A, z_B) = -\frac{p_A}{\|p_A\|_2} \cdot \frac{z_B}{\|z_B\|_2},$$
(2)

where  $z_1$ ,  $z_2$  are representations for two different augmented versions,  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ , of the same image x. An additional predictor applied on  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  produces  $p_1$  and  $p_2$ , respectively. The stopgrad(·) operation blocks the gradient during the backpropagation. In SimSiam no contrastive term is used and only similarity is enforced during learning.

**Data augmentation.** Data augmentation plays an central role in the self-supervised learning process described above. The authors of [4] and [26] discuss the importance of the different data augmentations. A set of well-defined transformations was proposed for SimCLR [4]. This set is commonly accepted and used in several later works. The augmentations include: rotation, cutout, flip, color jitter, blur and Grayscale. These operations are randomly applied to an image to generate the different views  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$  used in the self-supervision loss in Eq. 2. Applied to the same image, contrastive-like self-supervised methods learn representations invariant to such distortions.

This multiple view creation is task-related [20], however color jittering operating on hue, saturation, 90 brightness and contrast, is one of the most important ones in terms of overall usefulness of the 91 learned representation for downstream tasks [4, 26]. Color jitter induces a certain level of color 92 invariance (invariance to hue, saturation, brightnesss and contrast) which are consequently transferred 93 to the downstream task. As a consequence, we expect these learned features to underperform on 94 downstream tasks for which color is crucial. Xiao et al. [25] were the first point out that the imposed 95 96 invariances might not be beneficial for downstream tasks. As a solution, they propose to learn 97 different embedding spaces in parallel that capture each of the invariances. Differently than them, we focus on the color distortion and propose a physics-based color augmentation that allows learning 98 invariance to physically realistic color variations. 99

The color imaging literature has a long tradition in research on color features invariant to scene-100 accidental events such as shading, shadows, and illuminant changes [11, 10]. Invariant features were 101 found to be extremely beneficial for object recognition. The invariance to hue and saturation changes, 102 induced by the color jitter operation, however, it detrimental to object recognition for those classes 103 in which color characteristics are fundamentally discriminative. Therefore, in this work we revisit 104 early theory on illuminant invariance [10] to design an improved color augmentation that induces 105 invariances common in the real world and that, when used during self-supervised learning, does not 106 damage the color quality of the learned features. 107

## **108 3 Methodology**

The image transformations introduced by default color jitter creates variability in training data that indiscriminately explores all hues at various levels of saturation. The resulting invariance is useful for downstream tasks where chromatic variations are indeed irrelevant (e.g. car color in vehicle recognition), but is detrimental to downstream tasks where color information is critical (e.g. natural classes like birds and vegetables). The main motivation for applying strong color augmentations is that this it leads to very strong shape representations. Indiscriminately augmenting color information in the image requires that the representation solve the matching problem using shape [4]<sup>1</sup>.

As an alternative to color jitter, we propose a physics-based color augmentation that mimics color variations due to illuminant changes commonly encountered in the real world. The aim is to arrive at a representation that does not have the color crippling effects of color jitter and that can therefore better describe classes for which surface reflectance is a determining feature. The aim learn a representation that, when combined with default color jitter, provides a high-quality shape and color representation.

#### 121 3.1 Planckian Jitter

We call our color data augmentation procedure *Planckian Jitter* because it exploits the physical description of a black-body radiator to re-illuminate training images within a realistic illuminant distribution [10, 21]. The resulting augmentations are more realistic than those of the default color jitter (see Fig. 1). The resulting learned, self-supervised feature representation is thus expected to be robust to illumination changes commonly observed in real-world images, while simultaneously maintaining the ability to discriminate the image content based on color information.

Given an input RGB training image *I*, our Planckian Jitter procedure applies a chromatic adaptation transform that simulates realistic variations in the illumination conditions. The data augmentation procedure is as follows:

131 1. we sample a new illuminant spectrum  $\sigma_T(\lambda)$  from the distribution of a black-body radiator;

132 2. we transform the sampled spectrum  $\sigma_T(\lambda)$  into its sRGB representation  $\rho_T \in \mathbb{R}^3$ ;

3. we create a jittered image I' by reilluminating I with the sampled illuminant  $\rho_T$ ; and

4. We introduce brightness and contrast variation, producing a Planckian-jittered image I''.

A radiating black body at temperature T can be synthesized using Planck's Law [1]:

$$\sigma_T(\lambda) = \frac{2\pi hc^2}{\lambda^5 (e^{\frac{hc}{kT\lambda}} - 1)} \, \mathrm{W/m^3},\tag{3}$$

where  $c = 2.99792458 \times 10^8$  m/s is the speed of light,  $h = 6.626176 \times 10^{-34}$  Js is Planck's constant, and  $k = 1.380662 \times 10^{-23}$  J/K is Boltzmann's constant. For our experiments we sampled T in the interval between 3000K and 15000K which is known to result in a set of illuminants that can be encountered in real life [21]. Then, we discretized wavelength  $\lambda$  in 10nm steps ( $\Delta\lambda$ ) in the interval between 400nm and 700nm. The resulting spectra are visualized in Figure 4 (left) in the Supplementary Material.

<sup>142</sup> The conversion from spectrum into sRGB is obtained through a series of intermediate steps [24]:

- 143 1. we first map the spectrum into the corresponding XYZ stimuli, using the 1931 CIE standard 144 observer color matching functions  $c^{\{X,Y,Z\}}(\lambda)$ , in order to bring the illuminant into a 145 standard color space that represents a person with average eyesight;
- 146 2. We normalize this tristimulus by its Y component, convert it into the CIE 1976 L\*a\*b 147 color space, and fix its L component to 50 in a 0-to-100 scale, allowing us to constrain the 148 intensity of the represented illuminant in a controlled manner as a separate task; and
- 3. we then convert the resulting values to sRGB, obtaining  $\rho_T = \{R, G, B\}$ ; the resulting distribution of illuminants is visualized with the Angle-Retaining Chromaticity diagram [2] in Figure 4 (right) in the Supplementary Material.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This is pointed out in the discussion of Figure 5 in [4]

All color space conversions assume a D65 reference white, which means that a neutral surface illuminated by average daylight conditions would appear achromatic. Once the new illuminant

has been converted in sRGB, it is applied to the input image I by resorting to a Von-Kries-like

transform [22] given by the following channel-wise scalar multiplication:

$$I'^{\{R,G,B\}} = I^{\{R,G,B\}} \cdot \{R,G,B\} / \{1,1,1\},$$
(4)

where we assume the original scene illuminant to be white (1,1,1). Finally, brightness and contrast

<sup>157</sup> perturbations are introduced to simulate variations in the intensity of the scene illumination:

$$I'' = c_B \cdot c_C \cdot I' + (1 - c_C) \cdot \mu \left( c_B \cdot I' \right), \tag{5}$$

where  $c_B = 0.8$  and  $c_C = 0.8$  represent, respectively, brightness and contrast coefficients, and  $\mu$  is a spatial average function.

#### **3.2** Complimentarity of shape and color representations

The self-supervised learning paradigm involves a pretraining phase that relies on data augmentation 161 162 to produce a set of features with certain invariance properties. These features are then used as the representation for a second phase, where we learn a given supervised downstream task. The default 163 color jitter augmentation generates features that are strongly invariant to color information, resulting 164 in high-quality representations of shape and texture, but that is an inferior descriptor of surface 165 reflectances (i.e. the color of objects). Our augmentation based on Planckian Jitter (see Figure 1) is 166 based on transformations mimicking the physical color variations in the real world due to illuminant 167 changes. As a result, the learned representation yields a high-quality color description of scene 168 objects. However, it likely leads to a drop in the quality of the shape representation (since color can 169 be used to solve cases where previously shape was required). To exploit the complimentarity of the 170 two representations, we propose to learn both – one with color jitter and one with Planckian Jitter – 171 and to then concatenate the results in a single representation vector (of 1024 dimensions, i.e. twice 172 the original size of 512). We call this Latent space combination (LSC). 173

## **174 4 Experimental results**

In this section, we analyze the color sensitivity of the learned backbone networks, verify the superiority of the proposed color data augmentation method compared to the default color jitter on color datasets, and evaluate the impact on downstream classification tasks. We report additional results on computational time of the proposed Planckian augmentation in the Supplementary Material.

#### 179 4.1 Training and evaluation setup

We perform unsupervised training on two datasets: CIFAR-100 [14]  $(32 \times 32)$  and ImageNet (224 × 224). We slightly modify the ResNet18 architecture to accommodate  $32 \times 32$  images: the kernel size of the first convolutional was reduced from  $7 \times 7$  to  $3 \times 3$  and the first max pooling layer was removed. SimSiam training was performed using Stochastic Gradient Descent with a starting learning rate of 0.03, a cosine annealing learning rate scheduler, and mini-batch size of 512 (as in original SimSiam work [6]). For the training on the 1000-class ImageNet training set, we follow the same procedure as [6] with ResNet50.

The linear classifier training at resolution  $32 \times 32$  was performed on CIFAR-100 and FLOWERS-187 102 [17]. CIFAR-100 is used as a baseline for the classification task. The linear classifier training for 188 189 CIFAR-100 is done with Stochastic Gradient Descent for 500 epochs with a starting learning rate 0.1, a cosine annealing learning rate scheduler, and mini-batch size of 512. The FLOWERS-102 dataset 190 with 102 classes was selected to assess the quality of the features extracted in scenarios where color 191 information plays an important role. Images from FLOWERS-102 are resized to  $32 \times 32$  pixels to 192 match the input dimensions of the pretrained model. Here we used the Adam optimizer with initial 193 learning rate of 0.03. 194

For training linear classifiers at resolution  $224 \times 224$  for downstream tasks we follow the evaluation protocol of [6]. We use five different datasets: IMAGENET, FLOWERS-102, VEGFRU [19], CUB-200 [23], and T1K+ [7]. These five datasets were resized to  $224 \times 224$  pixels. More details about these datasets are provided in the Supplementary Material. In the case of CUB-200, each image was



Figure 3: Color sensitivity analysis. (a) Robustness to illuminant change: we report the accuracies by differently-trained backbones as a function of illuminant. (b) The color sensitivity indexes computed for the different configurations used for training the backbone.

- cropped using the bounding boxes given in the dataset annotations. For T1K+, we use the 266 class labeling to train and test the linear classifier.
- To assess the impact of color data augmentations we define six different configurations:
- *Default Color Jitter (CJ):* the default configuration, as used in SimSiam and SimCLR, uses both Random Color Jitter and Random Grayscale operations.
- *Default Color Jitter w/o Grayscale (CJ-)*: same as *Default* without the Random Grayscale operation.
- *Planckian Jitter (PJ)*: uses the complete proposed Planckian Jitter operation operating on chromaticy, brightness, and contrast aspects of the images. No Random Grayscale is applied.
- *LSC Default Color Jitter + Planckian Jitter ([CJ,PJ]*: This latent space combination (simple concatenation of representations) combines the default color jitter with our Planckian jitter.
   It allows evaluation of the complimentary nature of the representations.
- *LSC Default Color Jitter + Default Color Jitter w/o Grayscale ([CJ,CJ-])*: We combine the default color jitter with a version without the Grayscale augmentation, since this representation is also expected to result in a better color representation.
- *LSC of two Default Color Jitter Models ([CJ,CJ])*: We also show results of simply concatenating two independently trained models (trained from different seeds) with default color jitter (an ensemble of two models).

In all experiments these augmentations are combined with the other default augmentations (crop, horizontal flip, and blur).

#### 219 4.2 Color sensitivity analysis

To verify if our Planckian data augmentation actually leads to illuminant invariance, we performed 220 a robustness analysis on the CUB-200 dataset with realistic illuminant variations and analyzed 221 sensitivity to color information. We assume as reference point the D65 illuminant, which for the 222 purpose of this test is considered the default illuminant in every image. Given the different backbones 223 pretrained on IMAGENET, we then train a linear classifier on this dataset (assumed to be under white 224 illumination). For testing we create different versions of CUB-200, each illuminated by illuminants 225 of differing color temperature. This allows us to evaluate the robustness of the learned representations 226 with respect to these illuminant changes. A similar experiment is performed on VEGFRU. 227

Results are given in Figure 3(a) (more results are provided in the Supplementary Material). *Planckian Jitter* obtains a remarkably stable performance from around 4000-14000K, while *Default Color Jitter* is more sensitive to the illumination color and the classification accuracy decreases when the scene illuminant moves away from white. We also see that the combination of default and Planckian Jitter obtains the best results for all illuminants and manages to maintain a high-level of invariance with respect to the illuminant color.

Table 1: Ablation on color augmentations. Self-supervised training is performed on CIFAR-100 and the learned features are evaluated at  $(32 \times 32)$  on CIFAR-100 and FLOWERS-102. Augmentation techniques include variations in hue and saturation (H&S), brightness and contrast (B&C), Planckian-based chromaticity (P), and random Grayscale conversions (G). Accuracy refers to the results of the linear classifiers trained with features extracted from the different backbones.

	AUGMENTATION	H&S	B&C	G	Р	ACCURACY
CIFAR-100	None					41.93%
	Default Color Jitter	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$		59.93%
		$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$			41.96%
		$\checkmark$				32.46%
					$\checkmark$	36.10%
Ŭ			$\checkmark$			31.78%
	Planckian Jitter		$\checkmark$		$\checkmark$	47.31%
FLOWERS-102	None					36.47%
	Default Color Jitter	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$		30.00%
		$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$			36.96%
		$\checkmark$				39.11%
					$\checkmark$	39.51%
			$\checkmark$			41.96%
	Planckian Jitter		$\checkmark$		$\checkmark$	42.75%

Table 2: Results for self-supervised training on CIFAR-100 and evaluated at  $32 \times 32$  on CIFAR-100 and FLOWERS-102. Accuracy refers to the results of the linear classifiers trained with features extracted from the different trained backbones.

	AUGMENTATION	ACCURACY
CIFAR-100	Default Color Jitter (CJ) Default Color Jitter w/o Grayscale (CJ-) Planckian Jitter (PJ)	59.93% 41.96% 47.31%
	LSC [CJ,CJ-] LSC: [CJ,PJ]	62.27% 63.54%
ERS-102	Default Color Jitter (CJ) Default Color Jitter w/o Random Grayscale (CJ-) Planckian Jitter (PJ)	30.00% 36.96% 42.75%
FLOW	LSC: [CJ,CJ-] LSC: [CJ,PJ]	47.65% 51.66%

In order to understand the impact of the color information on each neuron in trained models, we 234 conducted an analysis using the color selectivity index described in [18]. This index measures neuron 235 activation when color is present or absent in input images. We computed the index for the last layer 236 of different backbones, and high values indicate color-sensitive neurons. See the Supplementary 237 Material for more details on color selectivity. The results are shown in Figure 3(b) and indicate the 238 number of color-sensitive neurons for each of the considered models. It is clear that the default color 239 jitter has far fewer neurons dedicated to color description. This result confirms the hypothesis that 240 models trained in this way are color invariant, a property that negatively affects the model in scenarios 241 where color information has an important role as seen in our experiments. We have also analyzed 242 the results for the default color jitter without Grayscale augmentation (CJ-). These results show that 243 removing the Grayscale augmentation improves color sensitivity significantly. We therefore also 244 consider this augmentation in future experiments. 245

#### 246 4.3 Ablation study

Six different models were trained and evaluated with a linear classification for image classification. For resolution  $32 \times 32$  the model is evaluated on CIFAR-100 and FLOWERS-102. The results in

terms of accuracy are reported in Table 2. We identify two different trends when interpreting these 249 results. On CIFAR-100, removing color augmentations makes the model less powerful, due to the 250 loss of color invariance in the features extracted by the encoder. This behaviour is consistent with 251 what was reported in [4]. We see in Table 1 that if color augmentations (i.e. brightness/contrast and 252 Random Grayscale) are removed completely (the *None* configuration), the accuracy drops by 18%. 253 On FLOWERS-102 the behavior is the opposite however: removing color augmentations helps the 254 255 model to better classify images, obtaining an improvement of 12.75% of accuracy with respect to the default color jitter. This behavior confirms that color invariance negatively impacts downstream tasks 256 where color information plays an important role. 257

Taking a closer look at the various augmentation on FLOWERS-102, we see that introducing more 258 realistic color augmentations positively impacts contrastive training and produces models that achieve 259 even better results with respect to the configuration without any kind of image color manipulation. 260 Removing all color augmentations (None) improves results already by over 6%. Then, by simply 261 reducing the jittering operation to influence brightness and contrast, leaving hue and saturation un-262 changed, yields another boost in accuracy of 5.49% (to 41.96). When we start modifying chromaticity 263 using a more realistic transformation (i.e *Planckian Jitter*), the final result is a boost of 6.28% in 264 accuracy with respect to the None configuration. Also, on CIFAR-100 we see an improvement of 265 5.38% from Planckian Jitter with respect no color augmentation. Despite this improvement, in this 266 scenario the contrastive training with the realistic augmentation does not yield better results with 267 respect to the *Default* configuration because color only plays a minor role on this dataset. 268

Given the results obtained using the data augmentations reported in Table 1, and given the con-269 siderations made in Section 3.2, we evaluate the complementarity of the learned representation by 270 combining latent spaces from different backbones. Results for two different latent space combinations 271 are given in Table 4. On both datasets the Latent space combination of Default and Planckian Jitter 272 configurations achieves the best results. On the original CIFAR-100 task, this combination achieves a 273 total accuracy of 63.54%, a 3.61% improvement over the *Default* configuration and 16.23% more 274 compared to Planckian Jitter alone. Comparing to the LSC using the Default ColorJitter w/o 275 Grayscale, the version with Planckian Jitter achieves a small improvement of 1.27% in classification 276 accuracy. 277

On the downstream FLOWERS-102 task, the *Latent space combination* reaches an accuracy value of 51.66%: an improvement of 21.66% and 8.91% in accuracy respectively compared to the two original configurations. Compared to the LSC using Default ColorJitter w/o Grayscale, the combination with Planckian Jitter achieves a higher result, with a bigger gap in terms of accuracy with respect to the CIFAR-100 scenario. Here the use of Planckian Jitter brings in an improvement of 4.01%, confirming the impact of using realistic augmentation on classification tasks for which color is important.

#### 284 4.4 Evaluation on downstream tasks

Given the results obtained from the ablation study, we performed the analysis of the proposed configurations on other downstream tasks using the backbone trained on higher resolution images  $(224 \times 224 \text{ pixels})$ . We report in Table 3 the results for: *Default Color Jitter*, *Planckian Jitter*, and several latent space combinations.

Looking at the results, we see that the *Planckian Jitter* augmentation outperforms default color jitter on two datasets (CUB-200 and T1K). Comparing the results on FLOWERS-102 with those reported above at  $(32 \times 32)$  pixels, we see that default color jitter actually obtains good results. We hypothesize that for high-resolution images the shape information is very discriminative, and the additional color information yields little gain.

Table 3 also contains results for latent space combination. The results confirm that the two learned representation are complimentary and that their combination leads to significant performance gains of up to 9% on T1K when compared to default color jitter. As a sanity check, we have also included the latent space combination of two networks separately trained with color jitter. This provides a small ensemble performance gain on some datasets but yields significantly inferior results compared to our proposed LSC.

Table 3: Evaluation on downstream tasks. Self-supervised training was performed on IMAGENET at  $(224 \times 224)$  and testing performed on the downstream datasets resized to  $(224 \times 224)$ .

AUGMENTATION	CUB-200	VEGFRU	T1K+	FLOWERS-102
Default Color Jitter (CJ)	54.52%	67.63%	71.44%	93.16%
Planckian Jitter (PJ)	56.28%	65.84%	77.42%	90.29%
LSC [CJ,PJ]	60.70%	74.73%	80.49%	93.99%
LSC [CJ,CJ]	56.16%	70.59%	73.47%	93.13%
LSC [CJ,CJ-]	53.14%	70.54%	78.32%	93.47%

Table 4: Effect of Plackian Jitter on different contrastive learning models. Self-supervised training was performed on CIFAR-100 and the learned features are evaluated at  $(32 \times 32)$  on CIFAR-100 and FLOWERS-102. We report the best configurations obtained on SimSiam model and retrained SimCLR and Barlow Twins with those selected configurations.

FRAMEWORK	AUGMENTATION	CIFAR-100	FLOWERS-102
	Default Color Jitter	59.93%	30.00%
SimSiam	Planckian Jitter	47.31%	42.75%
	LSC [CJ,PJ]	63.54%	51.66%
	Default Color Jitter	56.99%	35.29%
SimCLR	Planckian Jitter	47.75%	45.00%
	LSC [CJ,PJ]	61.07%	55.78%
	Default Color Jitter	56.60%	40.78%
Barlow Twins	Planckian Jitter	52.71%	54.50%
	LSC [CJ,PJ]	62.85%	62.55%

## 300 4.5 Generality of Planckian Jitter

To show that our approach is generally applicable to self-supervised methods which exploit color augmentations, we also performed experiments using SimCLR and Barlow Twins. This comparison is given in Table 4. Independently of the model used, the *Default Color Jitter* configuration of data augmentation gives the worst results on the FLOWERS-102 dataset. The *Latent space combination* configuration consistently achieves better results on both datasets.

# 306 5 Limitations

Firstly, A drawback of Planckian jitter is that it reduces the quality of the shape representation, 307 because the extreme color transformation of the standard color jitter force the network to solve 308 the contrastive learning problem mainly using shape information. As shown in this article, this 309 problem can be addressed by exploiting their complimentary nature. Secondly, our current latent 310 space combination requires the training of two separate backbones, which certainly will also learn 311 partially overlapping features. A training scenario, with both augmentations simultaneously in a 312 single network while reserving part of the latent space for each augmentation, could be pursued to 313 address this limitation. 314

## 315 6 Conclusion

Existing research on self-supervised learning mainly focuses on tasks where color is not a decisive 316 feature, and subsequently exploits data augmentation procedures that negatively affect color-sensitive 317 tasks. We propose an alternative color data augmentation technique, called Planckian Jitter, that 318 is based on the physical properties of light. Our experiments demonstrate its positive effects on a 319 wide variety of tasks where the intrinsic color of the objects (related to their reflectance) is crucial 320 for discrimination, while the illumination source is not. We also proposed a solution that exploits 321 both color and shape information by concatenating features learned with different modalities of self-322 supervision, leading to significant overall improvements in learned representations. Planckian Jitter 323 can be easily incorporated into any self-supervised learning pipeline based on data augmentations, as 324 shown by our results demonstrating improved performance for three self-supervised learning models. 325

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#### 397 Checklist

- The checklist follows the references. Please read the checklist guidelines carefully for information on how to answer these questions. For each question, change the default **[TODO]** to **[Yes]**, **[No]**, or [N/A]. You are strongly encouraged to include a **justification to your answer**, either by referencing the appropriate section of your paper or providing a brief inline description. For example:
- Did you include the license to the code and datasets? [Yes] See Section 4.1
- Did you include the license to the code and datasets? [No] The code and the data are proprietary.
- Did you include the license to the code and datasets? [N/A]

Please do not modify the questions and only use the provided macros for your answers. Note that the
 Checklist section does not count towards the page limit. In your paper, please delete this instructions
 block and only keep the Checklist section heading above along with the questions/answers below.

1. For all authors...

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- (a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper's contributions and scope? [Yes]
  - (b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? [Yes] See section 5
  - (c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? [No]
  - (d) Have you read the ethics review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to them? [Yes]

416 2. If you are including theoretical results...

- (a) Did you state the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results? [N/A]
- (b) Did you include complete proofs of all theoretical results? [N/A]

419	3. If you ran experiments
420 421 422	(a) Did you include the code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experimental results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL)? [Yes] It will be included in the supplementary material.
423 424	(b) Did you specify all the training details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they were chosen)? [Yes]
425 426	(c) Did you report error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experi- ments multiple times)? [No]
427 428 429	(d) Did you include the total amount of compute and the type of resources used (e.g., type of GPUs, internal cluster, or cloud provider)? [Yes] It will be included in the supplementary material.
430	4. If you are using existing assets (e.g., code, data, models) or curating/releasing new assets
431	(a) If your work uses existing assets, did you cite the creators? [Yes]
432	(b) Did you mention the license of the assets? [N/A]
433	(c) Did you include any new assets either in the supplemental material or as a URL? [No]
434 435	(d) Did you discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose data you're using/curating? [N/A]
436 437	(e) Did you discuss whether the data you are using/curating contains personally identifiable information or offensive content? [N/A]
438	5. If you used crowdsourcing or conducted research with human subjects
439 440	(a) Did you include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if applicable? [N/A]
441 442	(b) Did you describe any potential participant risks, with links to Institutional Review Board (IRB) approvals, if applicable? [N/A]
443 444	(c) Did you include the estimated hourly wage paid to participants and the total amount spent on participant compensation? [N/A]