

Uncertainty Inclusive Contrastive Learning for Leveraging Synthetic Images

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Abstract

Recent advancements in text-to-image generation models have sparked a growing interest in using synthesized training data to improve few-shot learning performance. However, prevailing approaches treat all generated data as uniformly important, neglecting the fact that the quality of generated images varies across different domains and datasets. This can hurt learning performance. In this work, we present *Uncertain-inclusive Contrastive Learning (Uni-Con)*, a novel contrastive loss function that incorporates uncertainty weights for synthetic images during learning. Extending the framework of supervised contrastive learning, we add a learned hyperparameter that weights the synthetic input images per class, adjusting the influence of synthetic images during the training process. We evaluate the effectiveness of the Uni-Con-learned representations against traditional supervised contrastive learning, both with and without synthetic images. Across three different fine-grained classification datasets, we find that the learned representation space generated by the Uni-Con loss function incorporating synthetic data leads to significantly improved downstream classification performance in comparison to supervised contrastive learning baselines.

1. Introduction

Powerful text-to-image generation models enable the synthesis of high-quality images from textual descriptions [4, 36]. These models have fueled research using synthetic data to provide additional support for various learning tasks [18, 24, 33, 41]. Training with synthetic images can help improve performance for challenging discriminative tasks relative to training on real images alone [1, 28]. Synthetic images are particularly beneficial when there is limited training data (i.e. few shot learning) since they can expand the training data set distribution and improve model performance on downstream tasks [9, 26].

While recent advancements have significantly improved synthetic image generation, the quality of generated synthetic images varies across diverse domains and datasets

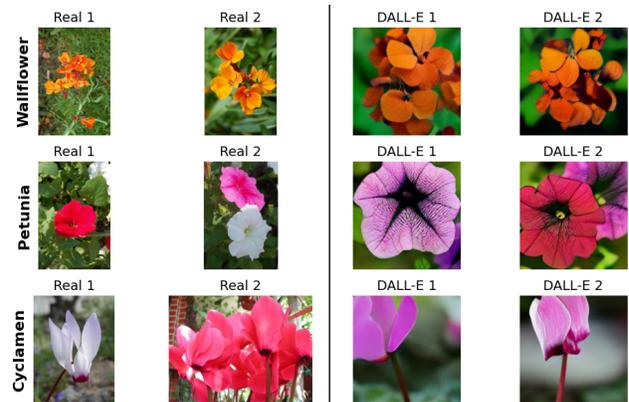


Figure 1. Examples of ground truth images from the Flowers10 dataset compared to the DALL-E generated images. The quality of DALL-E synthetic images varies by class. While synthetic wallflowers seem to correctly reflect the real data distribution, the synthetic petunias and synthetic cyclamens vary in color diversity and morphology from the real data, respectively.

[11, 31, 32, 38]. Generative AI models often fail to capture pertinent attributes when generating images of fine-grained classes (e.g., flower species) [15]. Figure 1 showcases this phenomenon with examples of real images and DALL-E-generated images from corresponding classes in the Flowers102 dataset [17]. The variance in DALL-E’s performance—high accuracy for wallflowers, misrepresented color diversity for petunias, and distorted morphology for cyclamen, highlights the challenges in generative AI when dealing with intricate patterns and complex colorations. This variability in capturing training data distribution can hinder accuracy in nuanced domains [12, 30]. Thus, understanding how and when to use synthetic support set samples in the learning process is crucial, especially for difficult vision tasks. Existing methods often treat synthetic images as if they were as informative as real images in the training process [1, 22]. Instead, we propose an approach that automatically adjusts the use of synthetic images based on their ability to improve performance.

We introduce Uncertainty-Inclusive Contrastive Learning

058 (UniCon), a novel contrastive learning framework designed
059 to automatically learn uncertainty weights for synthetic im-
060 ages. Extending on supervised contrastive learning methods,
061 we consider both positive and uncertain (synthetic) examples
062 per anchor rather than only positive examples. The method
063 down-weights uncertain examples if synthetic examples do
064 not improve classification accuracy. Our key contributions
065 in this paper include:

- 066 • We introduce UniCon, a contrastive learning method that
067 automatically learning uncertainty weights for synthetic
068 images.
- 069 • We show that UniCon improves few-shot classification
070 performance in comparison to standard supervised con-
071 trastive learning (both using and not using synthetic im-
072 ages) on two different fine-grained datasets (Flowers10
073 and CUBS10) and two different methods of generating
074 images (DALL-E and stable diffusion).
- 075 • Using synthetic data, we demonstrate that our learned
076 weights are correlated with the relevance and quality of
077 synthetic images in comparison to the real images.

078 2. Related Work

079 2.1. Text-to-Image Generation Models

080 Recent technological developments have led to the devel-
081 opment of models capable of synthesizing highly realistic
082 and contextually accurate images from textual descriptions
083 [23, 40]. These developments include the introduction of
084 autoregressive methods (e.g. DALL-E [18], PARTI [39])
085 that make use of large-scale image-text data during training.
086 More recently, diffusion models have become the new state-
087 of-the-art model for text-image synthesis [16, 23]. These
088 diffusion models learn an estimation on Markov diffusion
089 process using variational inference and are able to produce
090 images with unprecedented detail, diversity, and fidelity to
091 complex text prompts [19, 24, 25].

092 2.2. Generating Synthetic Data

093 Generative text-to-image models have increasingly been
094 used to produce synthetic data for various machine learn-
095 ing tasks. Synthetic data can improve training performance
096 on tasks from image classification and object detection by
097 generating more diverse training datasets [9, 26]. This data
098 augmentation is particularly crucial where real data is scarce
099 or difficult to obtain. For example, GLIDE [16] generated
100 images have been shown to improve performance, particu-
101 larly in zero-shot and few-shot settings [9]. Other studies
102 show that synthetic data augmentation strategies for medical
103 images using GAN [7, 20] and diffusion models [2] can help
104 improve medical image classification.

2.3. Weighting Synthetic Data

The idea of weighting training examples based on their infor-
mativeness or quality has been explored in various contexts,
especially aimed at improving model performance and ro-
bustness. Meta-learning approaches have been developed
to reweigh training examples based on their contribution to
the model’s performance, learning to assign higher weights
to informative examples and lower weights to noisy or less
relevant ones [13, 14, 21]. However, these methods do not
address training with explicitly synthesized data. More re-
cently, methods have been introduced to find optimal mixing
ratios using more or less synthetic data for improving down-
stream performance [5, 37]. These methods still treat the
resulting mixed training data equivalently. In the domain of
leveraging synthetic data, Tsutsui et al. explored training
an image fusion network mixing real and synthetic images
using learned weights from a separate CNN network to cre-
ate hybrid images [29]. This method, however, relies on
training a separate network to fuse real and synthetic im-
ages, which can be computationally intensive and does not
leverage synthetic images as-is. Although a weighting mech-
anism is used, the resulting hybrid images could potentially
blur distinct features and reduce the learning benefits of us-
ing synthetic data in their unaltered state. Furthermore, the
inherent characteristics of synthetic images could be more
valuable for learning, either by offering distinctive features
to contrast with real data distributions or serving as augmen-
tative elements for existing real data.

While these methods breach the idea of taking note of the
varying quality and diversity of synthetic data, an explicit and
dynamic weighting approach may allow for more flexibility
in adjusting the importance of synthetic images in how they
inform the representations of their respective real classes.

3. Uncertainty-Inclusive Contrastive Learning

Problem Setup Consider an image dataset $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ with corresponding fine-grained k -class classification labels $\{y_1, \dots, y_k\}$ where each $y_i \in \{C^1, \dots, C^k\}$. For each class C^j , a set of synthetic images $U^j = \{u_1^j, u_2^j, \dots, u_m^j\}$ is generated, and the union of these sets forms the synthetic image dataset $U = \bigcup_{j=1}^k U^j$. We aim to learn a classification f_θ that solves $y = f_\theta(x)$ for $x \in X$.

If we assume that U and X are generated from identical distributions, we can simply learn $y = f'_\theta(z)$ for $z \in U \cup X$ using standard supervised learning. Alternatively, if we assume the U is not useful for training, we can learn f_θ using only X, Y . However, in many real-world scenarios, the quality and relevance of the synthetic data U may vary, and it may not be optimal to either fully include or completely exclude U from the training process.

155 3.1. Supervised Contrastive Learning (SupCon) 156 Loss

157 In the supervised contrastive learning setup, training pro-
158 ceeds by selecting a batch of N randomly sampled data
159 $\{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1\dots N}$. We randomly sample two distinct label pre-
160 serving augmentations, \tilde{x}_{2i} and \tilde{x}_{2i-1} , for each x_i to con-
161 struct $2N$ augmented samples, $\{\tilde{x}_j\}_{j=1\dots 2N}$. Let $A(i) =$
162 $\{1, \dots, 2N\} \setminus i$ be the set of all samples and augmentations not
163 including i . We define g to be a projection head that maps
164 the embedding to the similarity space represented as the sur-
165 face of the unit sphere $\mathbb{S}^e = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^e : \|v\|_2 = 1\}$. Finally,
166 we define $v_i = g(h_i)$ as the mapping of h_i to the projection
167 space. Supervised contrastive learning encourages samples
168 with the same label to have similar embeddings and sam-
169 ples with a different label to have different embeddings. We
170 follow the literature in referring to samples with the same
171 label as the anchor image x_i as the positive samples, and
172 samples with a different label than that of x_i 's as the negative
173 samples.

174 After generating synthetic images, a natural question
175 arises: how can we incorporate synthetic images in this
176 supervised loss? Two trivial extensions include: 1) treating
177 all synthetic images as real images (**SupCon-Mixed**) and 2)
178 ignoring all of the synthetic images entirely (**SupCon-Real**).
179 Note that these two extensions make sense if 1) synthetic
180 images are not differentiable from the real images and 2)
181 synthetic images are not useful for training, respectively.
182 The loss function for SupCon-Real is:

$$183 \mathcal{L}_{SupCon} = \sum_{i \in I} \frac{-1}{|P(i)|} \sum_{p \in P(i)} \log \frac{\exp(\frac{v_i^T v_p}{\tau})}{\sum_{a \in A(i)} \exp(\frac{v_i^T v_a}{\tau})} \quad (1)$$

184 where $|S|$ denotes the cardinality of the set S , $P(i)$ de-
185 notes the positive set with all other samples with the same
186 label as x_i , i.e., $P(i) = \{j \in A(i) : y_j = y_i\}$, I denotes
187 the set of all samples in a particular batch, and $\tau \in \{0, \infty\}$
188 represents a temperature hyperparameter.

189 We can extend Equation 1 to express the loss function for
190 SupCon-Mixed as

$$191 \mathcal{L}_{SupCon^m} = \sum_{i \in I} \frac{-1}{|P_{U,C}(i)|} \sum_{p \in P_{U,C}(i)} \log \frac{\exp(\frac{v_i^T v_p}{\tau})}{\sum_{a \in A_{U,C}(i)} \exp(\frac{v_i^T v_a}{\tau})} \quad (2)$$

192 where $P_{U,C}(i) := \{x_j : \forall x_j \text{ if } y_j = y_i\} \cup U_i$ and
193 $A_{U,C}(i) = \{U \cup C - P_{U,C}(i)\} \setminus x_i$.

194 3.2. Uncertainty Inclusive Contrastive Learning 195 (UniCon)

196 UniCon incorporates the intuition that it can be useful to
197 weigh synthetic images less than real images, but not dis-
198 count them entirely. The Uncertain Contrastive Learning
199 (UniCon) loss modifies the SupCon-Mixed loss by adding a
200 weighted term for all support set images U that correspond
201 to an anchor input i . To achieve this, the UniCon loss in-
202 cludes class-specific weighting hyperparameters $\{w_i\}_{i=1}^C$,
203 where C is the total number of classes in the dataset. Each
204 class is allocated an individual uncertainty weight w_i , allow-
205 ing for a tailored balance between real and synthetic data
206 contributions for each class. The UniCon loss function is:

$$\mathcal{L}_{UniCon} = \sum_{i \in S(i)} \left(\frac{-1}{|P(i)|} \sum_{p \in P(i)} \log \frac{\exp(\frac{v_i^T v_p}{\tau})}{\sum_{a \in A(i)} \exp(\frac{v_i^T v_a}{\tau})} + \frac{-w_{y_i}}{|U(i)|} \sum_{u \in U(i)} \log \frac{\exp(\frac{v_i^T v_u}{\tau})}{\sum_{a \in A(i)} \exp(\frac{v_i^T v_a}{\tau})} \right) \quad (3)$$

208 Here, we consider the set S as all the real images in
209 the batch such that $S \subseteq X$. Then for each anchor image
210 $i \in S(i)$, $P(i)$ refers to the set of all indices of positive pairs
211 from the same class that are real images so $P(i) \subseteq X$. The
212 left term of the outer summation is identical to the SupCon-
213 Real loss function.

214 The right term of the loss function introduces w_{y_i} , the
215 weighting hyperparameter, where y_i corresponds to the class
216 of the anchor image i . $U(i)$ refers to the set of all indices of
217 inputs that are in the same class as anchor i but are synthetic
218 support set images. Effectively, each normal input anchor i
219 contributes to the UniCon loss through the sum of the Sup-
220 Con loss and a weighted sum of all the similarities between
221 the anchor and its corresponding support set images.

222 3.3. Bayesian Optimization for Optimal Hyperpa- 223 rameter Selection

224 We employed Bayesian optimization to learn the class-
225 specific weighting hyperparameters $w_{i=1}^C$ in the UniCon
226 loss function, using the **gp_minimize** function from the
227 Scikit-Optimize package [10]. The hyperparameters in this
228 context refer to the class-specific weights w_i that control
229 the influence of synthetic examples from each class in the
230 UniCon loss function. Bayesian optimization is a method
231 particularly suited for the optimization of complex, non-
232 convex functions and consists of two primary components:
233 a method for statistical inference, which is usually Gaussian
234 process regression, and an acquisition function for deciding
235 where to sample [27]. In our Bayesian Optimization pro-
236 cess, we utilized a Gaussian Process (GP) as the surrogate

237 model for its ability to handle the complexity and uncertainty
 238 of the objective function, efficiently capturing the nuanced
 239 relationship between hyperparameters and validation accu-
 240 racy [6]. Bayesian Optimization progresses for n_{iter} calls
 241 to the objective function, and the GP model is updated with
 242 new data points obtained from objective function evalua-
 243 tions. For the acquisition function, we used 'gp_hedge',
 244 which probabilistically chooses among different strategies
 245 like Expected Improvement, Probability of Improvement,
 246 and Lower Confidence Bound in each iteration. The acqui-
 247 sition optimizer was set to 'lbfgs', a method known for its
 248 effectiveness in high-dimensional optimization problems [6].
 249 All other parameters of the gp_minimize function were set
 250 to their default values.

251 The pseudocode for the objective function and Bayesian
 252 optimization process is as follows:

Algorithm 1 Bayesian Optimization for UniCon Hyperparameter Tuning

```

1: Initialize hyperparameter vector  $\mathbf{w} = [w_1, \dots, w_C]$ 
2: Set number of contrastive runs  $n_{contr}$ 
3: Set number of classifier runs  $n_{classif}$ 
4: function OBJECTIVE FUNCTION  $\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{w})$ :
5:    $AvgAcc \leftarrow 0$ 
6:   for  $i = 1$  to  $n_{contr}$  do
7:     Train EncoderUniCon( $\mathbf{w}$ ) to obtain  $E_i$ 
8:     for  $j = 1$  to  $n_{classif}$  do
9:        $Acc_{i,j} \leftarrow$  Classifierj( $E_i$ )
10:    end for
11:  end for
12:   $AvgAcc \leftarrow$  Average( $\{Acc_{i,j}\}$ )
13:  return  $AvgAcc$ 
14: end function
15:  $\mathbf{w}^* \leftarrow$  gp_minimize( $\mathcal{F}$ , space)
   Set iterations  $n_{iter}$  and initial points  $n_{init}$ 
   Acquisition function: 'gp_hedge'
   Acquisition optimizer: 'lbfgs'
   Default values for remaining parameters
16: return  $\mathbf{w}^*$  ▷ Return optimal weights

```

253 The objective function $\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{w})$ evaluates the average vali-
 254 dation accuracy across n_{contr} contrastive and $n_{classif}$ classifier
 255 runs. For each contrastive run, the UniCon encoder is trained
 256 with the corresponding class-specific weights to obtain em-
 257 beddings. Then, for each classifier run, a classifier is trained
 258 using the embeddings, and the validation accuracy is com-
 259 puted. The average accuracy across all runs is returned as
 260 the objective function value. The gp_minimize function iter-
 261 atively evaluates the objective function at different hyperpa-
 262 rameter configurations, updates the GP model, and searches
 263 for the optimal hyperparameter vector \mathbf{w}^* that maximizes
 264 the average validation accuracy.

4. Experiments 265

266 In this section, we describe our experimental setup for eval-
 267 uating the proposed UniCon method against supervised
 268 contrastive learning baselines on fine-grained image clas-
 269 sification tasks. We compare the few-shot performance
 270 of UniCon to two baseline approaches, SupCon-Real and
 271 SupCon-Mixed. The experiments are conducted on subsets
 272 of two fine-grained datasets: Flowers102 and CUBS-200-
 273 2011 [17, 34]. Additionally, we performed additional studies
 274 on MNIST images where we used synthetic image classes of
 275 controlled quality to validate the effectiveness of the UniCon
 276 method and the expected learned weights [3].

4.1. Datasets 277

278 We evaluate our method on a subset of two classification
 279 datasets: Flower102 and CUBS-200-2011.

280 From the Flowers102 dataset, we used the ten largest
 281 classes to create a subset dataset called **Flowers10**: petu-
 282 nia, passion flower, wallflower, water lily, watercress, rose,
 283 frangipani, foxglove, cyclamen, and lotus. Each class had
 284 between 137 and 258 real images.

285 From the CUBS-200-2011 dataset, we used the ten largest
 286 classes to create a subset dataset called **CUBS10**: Laysan
 287 Albatross, Cardinal, Mangrove Cuckoo, Purple Finch, Cal-
 288 ifornia Gull, Anna Hummingbird, Florida Jay, Baltimore
 289 Oriole, Brown Pelican, Common Raven. Each class had
 290 between 79 and 91 real images.

291 For the Flowers10 and CUBS10 dataset classes, we gener-
 292 ated two sets of 32 synthetic images per class, using DALL-E
 293 and Stable Diffusion [15, 23]. Images were generated using
 294 a text prompt of "a photo of { }", where the blank was filled
 295 with the corresponding class names in plain text.

296 For a controlled study, we selected a subset of 400 images
 297 of the digit 0 and 400 images of the digit 9 from the MNIST
 298 dataset. For the support set images, we generated 300 im-
 299 ages that were morphs of the digits 0 and 9. To generate
 300 morphed images that blend the characteristics of two distinct
 301 classes, we introduce a morphing equation controlled by the
 302 parameter ρ . Through this process, each morphed image is
 303 created by merging an image from class C_0 (images of 0s)
 304 and class C_9 (images of 9s), according to the equation:

$$M(\rho) = \rho \cdot I_{C_0} + (1 - \rho) \cdot I_{C_9} \quad (4) \quad 305$$

306 In this equation, M is the morphed image, I_{C_0} and I_{C_9}
 307 are images from class C_0 and class C_9 respectively, and ρ
 308 is the morphing parameter. We generated morphed images for
 309 three distinct values of ρ : 0.3 and 0.7, creating 100 images
 310 for each value of ρ . Examples of morphed images with
 311 varying ρ are shown in Fig. 2

312 We constructed three MNIST-based datasets with differ-
 313 ent synthetic images, distinguished by the morphing param-
 314 eter ρ . The naming convention for these datasets directly

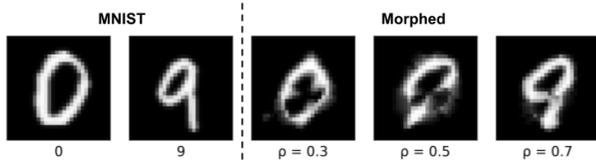


Figure 2. Examples of 0 and 9s from MNIST dataset and morphed digits generated, varying ρ .

represents the ρ values used for synthetic images corresponding to the digits 0 and 9, respectively.

- MNIST_0_1:** This dataset includes synthetic images that are selected from real images of their respective classes. It contains 300 synthetic images each for digits 0 and 9, corresponding to $\rho = 0.0$ for class 0 and $\rho = 1.0$ for class 9, representing ideal support images.
- MNIST_1_0:** In this dataset, 300 synthetic images for each class are counter-replicated: the images meant for class 0 are exact images of 9 ($\rho = 1.0$) and those for class 9 are exact images of 0 ($\rho = 0.0$), thus creating poor support images. In this case, the "synthetic" images are sampled from the real images of 0s and 9s, with no overlap with the real image classes.
- MNIST_0.7_0.3:** The third dataset includes synthetic images where for class 0, the images are morphs $M(\rho)$ with $\rho = 0.7$, and for class 9, $\rho = 0.3$. These morphed images blend characteristics of the two classes, presenting an intermediate case between perfect and counter-replicated images.

We generated k -shot datasets by randomly sampling k training images from each class. We used released train/validation/test splits for Flowers10 and CUBS10 and used a 0.8/0.1/0.1 split respectively randomly sampled for the MNIST datasets. In addition, for each experiment testing with synthetic images, we sample $\frac{k}{2}$ synthetic images for each class. We conducted experiments for values of $k = 8, 16, 32$ for Flowers10 and CUBS10 and used values of $k = 16, 32, 64$ for the MNIST dataset experiments.

4.2. Implementation

We use Bayesian optimization to optimize our class weighting hyperparameters. This process involves calling an objective function that is a nested training process with a contrastive layer and subsequently, a classifier layer. We set $n_{iter} = 100$ and $n_{init} = 20$ i.e., 20 evaluations of the objective function were conducted with randomly chosen hyperparameters before starting the Bayesian optimization.

Contrastive Layer Training In our contrastive layer training, we employ ResNet-18 as our baseline encoder network [8]. For each training iteration, we resample the training

data, comprising both real and synthetic images. The network is trained for 200 epochs with an Adam optimizer, a learning rate of 0.001, batch size of 32, momentum of 0.9, temperature of 0.07, and weight decay of $1e - 4$ [35].

Classifier Training After we train the contrastive layer, we freeze the embeddings learned and finetune the classifier. Here, the training data is resampled from a held-out dataset for each run of the classifier. Specifically, we select 16 images per class for all datasets. The classifier, a 3-layer MLP network, is trained with cross-entropy loss, a learning rate of 0.001, a batch size of 32, and 200 epochs.

Validation Set Consistency Throughout the experiment, we maintain a fixed validation set to evaluate model performance. For the Flowers10 dataset, we use the published train/val/test split, which comprises 10 validation images per class. For the CUB10 dataset, we use 30 images per class. For each of the MNIST dataset experiments, we use 64 images per class for validation.

For each hyperparameter set, we train the model over $n_{contr} = 3$ contrastive runs, each involving $n_{classif} = 3$ classifier runs with different training data samples. We compute the average validation accuracy for each contrastive run from its $n_{classif}$ classifiers. The overall performance for a set of hyperparameters is then the mean of these averages across the n_{contr} runs, involving $n_{contr} \times n_{classif} = 9$ classifier training. The final reported validation accuracy is this average, along with the standard deviation, across the 9 runs. This process is delineated in lines 4-14 of Algorithm 1.

4.3. Baseline Experiments

SupCon-Real: We train a supervised contrastive network for each dataset using the SupCon loss on only original images and their corresponding labels.

SupCon-Mixed: We train a supervised contrastive network for each dataset including the support set images for each class using the SupCon loss. In this case, the support set images were labeled as the same label as its corresponding class.

4.4. Manual Weight Testing

Furthermore, baseline testing was conducted where a uniform value of w was applied across all class-specific weights. Note that when $w_{y_i} = 0$ for all $y_i \in C$, L_{UniCon} behaves very similarly to $L_{SupCon-Real}$. On the other hand, when $w_{y_i} = 1$ for all $y_i \in C$, the UniCon loss fully considers all similarities between the embeddings of real and synthetic images in the overall loss for every anchor image that is a real image. In this case, $L_{SupCon-Mixed}$ behaves similarly but differs in considering both real and synthetic images as anchor images for each batch. These results are reported in the supplementary material.

404 4.5. UniCon Results

405 We report our results on Flowers10 and CUBS10 with
406 DALL-E-generated synthetic images and Stable Diffusion-
407 generated synthetic images. We compare UniCon to SupCon-
408 Real and SupCon-Mixed. We differentiate between exper-
409 iments using DALL-E synthetic images versus Stable Dif-
410 fusion synthetic images with the notation SupCon-Mixed-D
411 and UniCon-D, and SupCon-Mixed-S and UniCon-S. We
412 report the learned weights returned by our UniCon method
413 and the respective validation accuracy for each of the experi-
414 ments and compare them to the baseline methods. Results
415 are reported in Table 1

416 UniCon is effective in leveraging synthetic images from
417 different sources, especially in the few-shot learning sce-
418 nario with $k = 8$, as shown in Table 1. UniCon consis-
419 tently outperforms the SupCon-Real baseline, which ignores
420 synthetic images entirely, and the SupCon-Mixed baseline,
421 which incorporates synthetic images without considering
422 their quality.

423 For the Flowers10 dataset with $k = 8$, UniCon-D
424 achieves an accuracy of 85.65%, surpassing SupCon-Real
425 by 5.33% and SupCon-Mixed-D by 4.86%. In the CUBS10
426 dataset with $k = 8$, UniCon-D reaches an accuracy of
427 58.83%, surpassing SupCon-Real by 6.48%. We see similar
428 trends with the UniCon experiments using Stable diffusion-
429 generated synthetic images, showing robustness and adapt-
430 ability to different synthetic image sources. These gains in
431 the few-shot setting highlight UniCon’s ability to effectively
432 utilize synthetic data when real examples are scarce. Not-
433 ably, in cases where SupCon-Mixed performs worse than
434 SupCon-Real, such as for CUBS10 with DALL-E synthetics
435 at $k = 8$ and $k = 16$, UniCon can mitigate the negative
436 impact of lower-quality synthetics and achieve gains over
437 both baselines.

438 Figure 3 provides a visual comparison between real and
439 synthetic images generated by DALL-E and Stable Diffu-
440 sion for three out of the ten classes from the Flowers10 and
441 CUBS10 datasets, respectively. Each class row showcases
442 two real images alongside two synthetic images from each
443 generative model, with the average learned weights from
444 UniCon displayed beneath the synthetic sets. We inspect the
445 quality of these three classes per dataset across image types
446 based on the generative model used and the corresponding
447 weights learned.

448 For the Flowers10 dataset, the wallflower class shows
449 synthetic images that are visually similar to the real ones,
450 reflected in the relatively high learned weights - DALL-
451 E ($w=0.56$) and Stable Diffusion ($w=0.63$)- indicating a
452 stronger trust in the synthetically generated data for aug-
453 menting the learning process. The petunia class qualitatively
454 demonstrates the generative models’ struggle with color ac-
455 curacy and pattern replication, which is particularly chal-
456 lenging for classes with a high degree of intra-class color

457 variation. Thus, the learned weights are more moderate, sug-
458 gesting that these images are less useful for learning accurate
459 representations. The discrepancy is more pronounced for the
460 watercress class, where Stable Diffusion images ($w=0.08$)
461 are notably less realistic than DALL-E images ($w=0.29$),
462 leading to a lower average learned weight for Stable Diffu-
463 sion. The images show a significant deviation from the real
464 data images, prompting minimal reliance on these synthetics
465 for training. Interestingly, the Watercress class showcases an
466 instance where UniCon with learned weights close to zero
467 outperforms SupCon-Real. We believe that this result can be
468 attributed to the fact that even low-quality synthetic images
469 can serve as informative negative examples in contrastive
470 learning. By down-weighting their contribution to the loss,
471 UniCon effectively leverages these examples to shape the
472 representation space without allowing them to dominate the
473 learning process. In contrast, SupCon-Real completely dis-
474 cards this information.

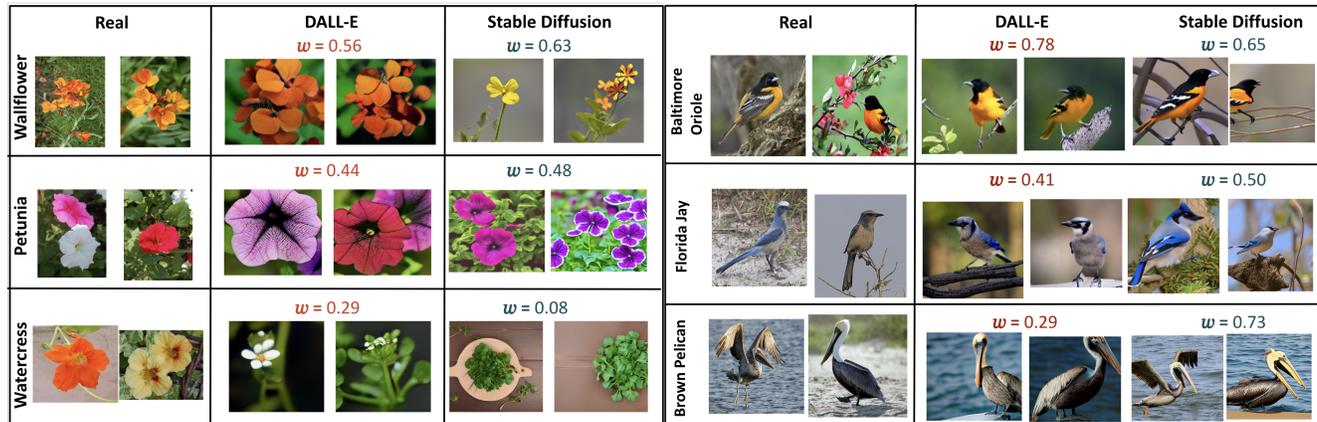
475 Subfigure (b) of Figure 3 focuses on classes from the
476 CUBS10 dataset, specifically Baltimore oriole, Florida jay,
477 and brown pelican. For the Baltimore oriole class, DALL-
478 E ($w=0.78$) and Stable Diffusion ($w=0.65$) both generate
479 relatively realistic images, capturing the essential character-
480 istics of the species. Similarly, the Florida Jay class shows
481 comparable image quality between DALL-E ($w=0.41$) and
482 Stable Diffusion ($w=0.50$). However, the brown pelican class
483 reveals a notable difference, with Stable Diffusion images
484 ($w=0.73$) appearing more realistic and better capturing the
485 distinctive features of the species compared to DALL-E im-
486 ages ($w=0.29$), corresponding to a higher average learned
487 weight for Stable Diffusion.

488 The learned weights not only seem to reflect the quality
489 and relevance of the synthetic images but also play a cru-
490 cial role in building better representations of the real images
491 for downstream classification tasks. By assigning higher
492 weights to informative and reliable synthetic examples and
493 lower weights to noisy or misleading ones, UniCon effec-
494 tively guides the contrastive learning process to focus on the
495 most relevant features and relationships present in the real
496 data. This selective emphasis on high-quality synthetic data
497 helps to construct more robust and discriminative represen-
498 tations of the real images, ultimately leading to improved
499 classification performance. The supplementary material in-
500 cludes detailed reports on the learned weights learned by
501 the UniCon experiments across all classes, datasets, and
502 synthetic image sources.

503 4.6. MNIST Studies

504 We conducted a series of experiments to validate the effec-
505 tiveness of UniCon with synthetic images of varying un-
506 certainty levels. In these studies, we controlled the degree
507 of synthetic data relevance by setting ρ during the morph
508 image generation. In this setup, we then applied the UniCon

Figure 3. **Comparative visualization of real and synthetic images from UniCon experiments** generated by DALL-E and Stable Diffusion for selected classes from the Flowers10 and CUBS10 datasets. The weights displayed below the synthetic images represent the average learned weights learned by UniCon for each class across all k -shot experiments. The UniCon weights correlate with the assessed utility of these images in enhancing the model’s training efficacy for fine-grained image classification.



(a) Flowers10 dataset: Real vs. synthetic images of Wallflower, Petunia, and Watercress with average learned UniCon weights indicated for DALL-E and Stable Diffusion.

(b) CUBS10 dataset: Real vs. synthetic images of Baltimore Oriole, Florida Jay, and Brown Pelican with average learned UniCon weights indicated for DALL-E and Stable Diffusion.

Table 1. **Fine-Grained Classification Performance for Flowers10 and CUBS10** UniCon with the best weighting outperforms both SupCon-Real and SupCon-Mixed, in classification accuracy across all k for both types of synthetic images. The average validation accuracy and corresponding standard deviation for all experiments are reported.

	Flowers10			CUBS10			
	k	8	16	32	8	16	32
SupCon-Real		80.32 (3.05)	86.34 (2.79)	92.36 (2.78)	52.35 (2.35)	61.23 (1.57)	68.87 (2.38)
SupCon-Mixed-D		80.79 (3.87)	87.27 (2.44)	90.86 (1.76)	58.76 (2.76)	64.58 (2.65)	70.49 (2.07)
UniCon-D		85.65 (2.12)	90.16 (0.11)	93.40 (1.04)	58.83 (0.33)	65.47 (0.66)	71.60 (0.72)
SupCon-Mixed-S		81.94 (1.30)	86.69 (2.63)	91.32 (1.70)	55.94 (2.71)	63.43 (1.73)	70.06 (1.03)
UniCon-S		84.03 (0.56)	90.51 (0.16)	92.71 (1.24)	56.79 (2.34)	66.32 (0.59)	71.14 (1.01)

509 method to learn the weights corresponding to each synthetic
510 image class. Given our prior understanding and control over
511 the morphing in the synthetic set, we had an a priori notion
512 of the learned weighting w for optimizing the accuracy of
513 UniCon in handling synthetic images. Subsequently, we
514 conducted experiments to verify our predictions that UniCon
515 would 1) learn weights that correspond to the relevance of
516 the synthetic data and 2) achieve higher accuracy using the
517 learned weights.

518 We conducted three experiments to this end using the
519 aforementioned MNIST-derived datasets: **MNIST_0_1**,
520 **MNIST_1_0**, and **MNIST_0.7_0.3**. Results for the former
521 two datasets are reported in Table 2 and for the latter
522 dataset in Table 3.

523 For the **MNIST_0_1** dataset, where the synthetic images
524 were selected from the real images ($\rho = 0$ for class 0, $\rho = 1$
525 for class 9), the expected learned weights should be close to 1
526 for both classes. The UniCon method, through Bayesian op-

527 timization, correctly identified and returned these expected
528 learned weights - $[0.75, 0.97]$ for $k = 16$, $[1.0, 1.0]$ for
529 $k = 32$, and $[0.7, 0.87]$ for $k = 64$. These high-weight
530 values indicate that UniCon recognized the high quality and
531 reliability of the synthetic images, appropriately weighting
532 them almost equally to the real images in the contrastive loss
533 calculation.

534 On the other hand, for the **MNIST_1_0** dataset, the syn-
535 thetic images were selected from real images from the op-
536 posite class, for class 0 were replicas of class 9, and vice
537 versa. These highly untrustworthy and misleading synthetic
538 images required learned weights close to 0 to essentially dis-
539 regard them during training. Again, UniCon with Bayesian
540 optimization successfully identified the expected learned
541 weights as $[0.0, 0.0]$ across all k values. These zero weights
542 mean UniCon correctly recognized that the synthetic images
543 were completely unreliable and should not contribute at all
544 to the contrastive loss.

Table 2. **MNIST_0_1 and MNIST_1_0 Classification Performance** of UniCon Against SupCon-Real and SupCon-Mixed Methods. We report UniCon’s performance and the learned weights $[w_0, w_9]$ for synthetic images corresponding to real image classes C_0 and C_9 respectively for all k -shot experiments for $k = 16, 32, 64$.

	MNIST_0_1			MNIST_1_0			
	k	16	32	64	16	32	64
SupCon-Real		85.50 (2.92)	91.41 (3.33)	93.92 (2.08)	88.45 (4.03)	91.49 (3.65)	95.40 (2.43)
SupCon-Mixed		90.45 (3.49)	92.36 (2.80)	95.31 (1.47)	65.71 (4.25)	71.01 (2.67)	69.44 (5.17)
UniCon		92.01 (2.44)	95.14 (1.88)	95.40 (2.21)	90.36 (4.11)	92.62 (1.01)	94.79 (0.95)
Weights $[w_0, w_9]$		[0.75, 0.97]	[1.00, 1.00]	[0.70, 0.87]	[0.00, 0.00]	[0.00, 0.00]	[0.00, 0.00]

545 These results highlight UniCon’s ability to automati-
 546 cally assign appropriate weights - high weights near 1.0
 547 like [0.75, 0.97] and [1.0, 1.0] for trustworthy synthetics in
 548 **MNIST_0_1** to boost performance over SupCon-Real by
 549 up to 6.5% for $k = 16$. In stark contrast, for untrustworthy
 550 synthetics in **MNIST_1_0**, the negligible weights [0.0, 0.0]
 551 enabled UniCon to disregard the misleading data and per-
 552 form comparably (within 1-2%) to SupCon-Real, crucially
 553 avoiding the significant 20%+ drop suffered by SupCon-
 554 Mixed.

Table 3. **MNIST_0.7_0.3 Classification Performance** of UniCon Against SupCon-Real and SupCon-Mixed Methods. We report UniCon’s performance and the learned weights $[w_0, w_9]$ for synthetic images corresponding to real image classes C_0 and C_9 respectively for all k -shot experiments for $k = 16, 32, 64$.

	MNIST_0.7_0.3			
	k	16	32	64
SupCon-Real		87.59 (3.00)	92.19 (3.61)	94.01 (1.61)
SupCon-Mixed		89.15 (2.82)	91.06 (4.65)	93.84 (2.56)
UniCon		92.53 (0.85)	93.57 (1.73)	95.83 (1.61)
Weights $[w_0, w_9]$		[0.62, 0.38]	[0.76, 0.83]	[1.00, 0.91]

555 For the **MNIST_0.7_0.3** dataset with intermediate syn-
 556 thetic image uncertainty (morphed digits blending 0 and 9,
 557 with $\rho = 0.7$ for class 0 and $\rho = 0.3$ for class 9), the ex-
 558 pected learned weights should lie between 1.0 (highly trust-
 559 worthy) and 0.0 (untrustworthy). Specifically, the weight for
 560 class 0 synthetics ($\rho = 0.7$) should be lower than class 9
 561 ($\rho = 0.3$) due to higher uncertainty.

562 The varying weights across different k values could po-
 563 tentially arise due to noise or variance in the data. With
 564 smaller values of k (e.g., $k=16$), the real examples might
 565 not sufficiently capture the true data distribution, leading
 566 to higher uncertainty. In such cases, UniCon should lower
 567 the weights of the synthetics to mitigate their influence. As
 568 k increases (e.g., $k=64$), the real examples likely provide a
 569 better representation of the data, reducing uncertainty. Con-
 570 sequently, UniCon can afford to assign higher weights to
 571 partially trustworthy synthetics, leveraging them to boost
 572 performance. Class complexity and intra-class variations

could also influence the weight variations. 573

The learned weights exhibit the expected pattern based 574
 on the uncertainty levels of the two classes of synthetic im- 575
 ages. This, coupled with the quantitative accuracy gains 576
 over baselines, validates UniCon’s ability to automatically 577
 identify and appropriately weight synthetic images of vary- 578
 ing uncertainty levels. This enables UniCon to effectively 579
 leverage partially trustworthy synthetic data while mitigating 580
 the negative impacts of highly uncertain samples. 581

5. Conclusion 582

In this work, we introduced Uncertainty-Inclusive Con- 583
 trastive Learning (UniCon), a novel contrastive learning 584
 framework that incorporates uncertainty weights for syn- 585
 thetic images, allowing us to effectively learn from syn- 586
 thetic images with varying quality. UniCon showed consistent 587
 improvements in model performance on vision classifica- 588
 tion tasks across two fine-grained datasets, outperforming 589
 standard contrastive learning baselines both with and with- 590
 out synthetic images. The class-specific weights learned 591
 by UniCon match expectations of data relevance based on 592
 qualitative analysis. UniCon provides a principled and adapt- 593
 able approach to leveraging synthetic data in representation 594
 learning, particularly in data-scarce domains. 595

In future work, we plan to explore more advanced opti- 596
 mization techniques to further improve the efficiency and 597
 scalability of the weight learning process. Additionally, we 598
 aim to extend our experimentation across a broader spectrum 599
 of domains and datasets in diverse real-world scenarios, in- 600
 vestigating the potential of UniCon in handling various types 601
 of uncertainties and noise in synthetic data. This will help 602
 us better understand and address the challenges of using syn- 603
 thetic data in nuanced domains, where generative AI models 604
 may struggle to capture pertinent attributes. Overall, our 605
 findings underscore UniCon’s potential as a valuable tool 606
 for effectively leveraging synthetic images in vision classifi- 607
 cation tasks, paving the way for more accurate and reliable 608
 models that incorporate synthetic data. 609

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