Inductive Self-Supervised Dimensionality Reduction for Image Retrieval

Deryk Willyan Biotto[a], Guilherme Henrique Jardim[b], Vinicius Atsushi Sato Kawai[c], Bionda Rozin[d], Denis Henrique Pinheiro Salvadeo[e] and Daniel Carlos Guimarães Pedronette[f]
Department of Statistics, Applied Mathematics, and Computing (DEMAC), State University of São Paulo (UNESP), Rio Claro, Brazil
{*deryk.biotto, guilherme.jardim, vinicius.kawai, bionda.rozin, denis.salvadeo, daniel.pedronette*}*@unesp.br*

Keywords: Dimensionality Reduction, Self-Supervised Learning, Neural Networks, Content-Based Image Retrieval.

Abstract: The exponential growth of multimidia data creates a pressing need for approaches that are capable of efficiently handling Content-Based Image Retrieval (CBIR) in large and continuosly evolving datasets. Dimensionality reduction techniques, such as t-SNE and UMAP, have been widely used to transform high-dimensional features into more discriminative, low-dimensional representations. These transformations improve the effectiveness of retrieval systems by not only preserving but also enhancing the underlying structure of the data. However, their transductive nature requires access to the entire dataset during the reduction process, limiting their use in dynamic environments where data is constantly added. In this paper, we propose ISSDiR, a self-supervised, inductive dimensionality reduction method that generalizes to unseen data, offering a practical solution for continuously expanding datasets. Our approach integrates neural networks-based feature extraction with clustering-based pseudo-labels and introduces a hybrid loss function that combines cross-entropy and constrastive loss, weighted by cluster distances. Extensive experiments demonstrate the competitive performance of the proposed method in multiple datasets. This indicates its potential to contribute to the field of image retrieval by introducing a novel inductive approach specifically designed for dimensionality reduction in retrieval tasks.

1 INTRODUCTION

The exponential growth of visual data in the digital age has driven the need for efficient Content-Based Image Retrieval (CBIR) systems. As visual databases continue to expand, it becomes increasingly challenging to develop methods that not only extract relevant features from images but are also scalable and capable of handling ever-growing datasets.

Traditionally, neural networks have been successfully employed for feature extraction, providing robust representations for CBIR tasks (Wan et al., 2014; Gkelios et al., 2021). However, as datasets grow larger, achieving high retrieval accuracy becomes increasingly challenging. To address this, dimensionality reduction methods, such as t-distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE) (Van der Maaten and Hinton, 2008) and Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) (McInnes et al., 2018), have been introduced to enhance the discriminability of features by transforming high-dimensional data into smaller, low-dimensional spaces. While effective, these methods rely on transductive processes that require access to the entire dataset during dimensionality reduction, limiting their applicability in scenarios with continuously expanding datasets.

In this context, we propose the Inductive Self-Supervised Dimensionality Reduction (ISSDiR) method, which leverages the generalization power of neural networks and has the potential to efficiently handle large-scale data. Our approach is unsupervised and relies on training the network with pseudo-labels generated from clusters of extracted features. We implement a hybrid loss function that integrates cross-entropy and contrastive loss, further incorporating a weighting factor based on the distances between clusters. This combination enables the network to learn more discriminative representations in only two dimensions while maintaining the generalization capacity for new data.

The main contributions of this work are:

[a] https://orcid.org/0009-0003-4693-0510
[b] https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6218-8801
[c] https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0153-7910
[d] https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5993-6570
[e] https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8942-0033
[f] https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2867-4838

Biotto, D. W., Jardim, G. H., Kawai, V. A. S., Rozin, B., Salvadeo, D. H. P. and Pedronette, D. C. G.
Inductive Self-Supervised Dimensionality Reduction for Image Retrieval.
DOI: 10.5220/0013158600003912

In *Proceedings of the 20th International Joint Conference on Computer Vision, Imaging and Computer Graphics Theory and Applications (VISIGRAPP 2025) - Volume 2: VISAPP*, pages 383-391
ISBN: 978-989-758-728-3; ISSN: 2184-4321

- Introduction of a hybrid loss function that combines cross-entropy and contrastive loss, enhancing the unsupervised learning process and improving the model's ability to learn effective feature representations.
- Adaptive margin weighting based on intercluster distances, which helps to refine contrastive loss by assigning larger margins to more distant clusters, thereby enhancing the separability between different data clusters.
- A composite neural network architecture capable of learning both high- and low-dimensional embeddings simultaneously, where high-dimensional representations serve as a richer and more discriminative foundation for the encoder, resulting in more effective and representative low-dimensional embeddings.

We believe this work represents a significant contribution in inductive dimensionality reduction, proposing a novel approach to address existing challenges and inspire further research in the field.

2 RELATED WORK

Traditional Content-Based Image Retrieval (CBIR) methods often rely on pairwise similarity measures, such as Euclidean distance, applied to features extracted from CNNs or Transformer-based models (El-Nouby et al., 2021; Kawai et al., 2024b; Li et al., 2021). However, these methods often fall short in capturing the intricate relationship present in high-dimensional spaces, resulting in suboptimal retrieval results (Leticio et al., 2024).

To address the challenges of improving retrieval performance in Content-Based Image Retrieval (CBIR), re-ranking techniques and dimensionality reduction methods have been recently explored (Kawai et al., 2024a; Leticio et al., 2024). Re-ranking approaches, such as Rank Flow Embedding (RFE) and Log-based Hypergraph of Ranking References (LHRR), enhance retrieval results by refining rankings based on contextual similarities (Valem et al., 2023; Pedronette et al., 2019). Similarly, dimensionality reduction techniques, such as t-SNE and UMAP, transform high-dimensional features into compact representations, preserving key relationships between data points (Van der Maaten and Hinton, 2008; McInnes et al., 2018). Both approaches have shown significant gains in the quality of image retrieval tasks (Kawai et al., 2024a; Leticio et al., 2024).

However, both the original t-SNE and UMAP methods are transductive approaches, which means they require access to the entire dataset during the dimensionality reduction process. This limitation makes them less practical in scenarios where new data points are continuosly added, as the embeddings needs to be recalculated every time. To adress this challenge, inductive approaches have been developed, allowing models to generalize to new data without the need to reprocess the entire dataset. For example, Parametric UMAP (Sainburg et al., 2021), Parametric t-SNE (Gisbrecht et al., 2015), and Inductive t-SNE (Roman-Rangel and Marchand-Maillet, 2019) extend their respective methods by integrating neural networks to learn a parametric mapping. In the case of Inductive t-SNE, this approach has also been applied to retrieval tasks, demonstrating its utility in scenarios where efficient generalization to unseen data is essential.

In addition, several neural network-based approaches, such as scvis (Ding et al., 2018) and ivis (Szubert et al., 2019), focus on capturing both local and global data structures, with a priority on explainability in dimensionality reduction. Self-Supervised Network Projection (SSNP) (Espadoto et al., 2021) enhances autoencoders with clustering-based pseudo-labels to improve cluster separation and enable out-of-sample projection.

In this context, our focus was on generating low-dimensional embeddings in a novel inductive manner that enhance performance in retrieval tasks, rather than prioritizing analysis and visualization, as other methods typically do (Van der Maaten and Hinton, 2008; McInnes et al., 2018) . The use of generated pseudo-labels is a promising approach to improve representation (Caron et al., 2018; Asano et al., 2020) and we follow this principle in our work. Although ISSDiR shares some similarities with SSNP (Espadoto et al., 2021), it does not rely on projection and reconstruction systems. Instead, we employ a hybrid loss function that enhances both the high-dimensional representations used by the dimensionality reducer and the separability of the low-dimensional representations. Additionally, we introduced a weighted margin adjustment based on inter-cluster distances to further improve data separability. The low-dimensional representations produced by our model are capable of preserving essential features within the data and generalizing well to unseen data, making this approach suitable for different datasets and scenarios.

3 PROPOSED METHOD

Figure 1 gives a broad overview of the ISSDiR method. It comprises the following steps: feature ex-

traction; clustering and centroid computation; intercluster distances based on centroids; and a neural network trained through a hybrid loss function. These steps are explained in depth through the current Section.

3.1 Feature Extraction

In this work, we use two pre-trained deep neural networks, DINOv2 (Oquab et al., 2023) and ConvNeXt (Liu et al., 2022), for feature extraction. The selected networks have demonstrated high capability in computer vision tasks due to their ability to capture both local and global patterns in images.

The use of pre-trained networks allows the model to benefit from high-quality representations, transferring the knowledge accumulated from large volumes of data to the context of our task (Wan et al., 2014; Gkelios et al., 2021). Obtained features ensures that most relevant information from images are preserved and effectively used in the next steps.

3.2 Clustering and Centroid Computation

In this step, we use t-SNE (Van der Maaten and Hinton, 2008) to reduce the dimensionality of the data, followed by the silhouette coefficient method to determine the optimal number of clusters. t-SNE aids in processing high-dimensional data, accelerating clustering and enhancing the coherence and quality of the resulting groups. After this initial reduction, we use the embeddings produced by UMAP (McInnes et al., 2018) to apply the Agglomerative Clustering algorithm (Chidananda Gowda and Krishna, 1978; Jain et al., 1999), which groups samples based on their similarities. To ensure precise clustering, we multiply the number of clusters by 1.1 to avoid underestimating the actual number of groups.

After clustering, we compute the centroids of each group, where each centroid is a representative point for a cluster in the feature space, summarizing the overall position of the group.

3.3 Intercluster Distances Based on Centroids

Understanding the relationships between clusters in a feature space is essential for increasing the discriminative power of learned representations. A effective method to achieve this is by considering the distances between cluster centroids, which allows for better interclass distinction. This enhanced distinction is fundamental for tasks such as contrastive learning.

The intercluster distances are obtained by calculating a distance matrix A by using the Euclidean Distance. Smaller values indicate closer proximity between clusters and larger values reflect greater separation. The obtained distances are normalized to the range $[0, 1]$, ensuring that the subsequent calculations are not skewed by varying magnitudes of distances, allowing for consistent comparisons between clusters regardless of their original scale.

3.4 Neural Network and Hybrid Loss Function

The proposed inductive learning model employs a neural network with a hybrid loss training. The network first produces high-dimensional embeddings, which preserve detailed feature representations. Subsequently, it reduces these embeddings to lower-dimensional features, enabling a more compact and efficient representation. The hybrid loss function plays a crucial role in enhancing both the discrimination of the high-dimensional embeddings and the effectiveness of the lower-dimensional feature representations.

3.4.1 Neural Network Architecture

Multilayer Perceptron (MLP)-based neural networks with fully connected layers are known as universal function approximators (Hornik et al., 1989; Chen and Chen, 1995). Recently, fully connected layers have gained renewed attention as an alternative to advanced architectures based on transformers and CNNs (Ding et al., 2022; Tolstikhin et al., 2021; Tang et al., 2022). In light of this, the proposed neural network is a Multilayer Perceptron (MLP) consisting of multiple fully connected layers, designed to produce two outputs: classification logits and reduced representations through an encoder.

The network input consists of features extracted from pre-trained models. The MLP generates high-dimensional embeddings, which are simultaneously sent to both the classification layer and the encoder. The classification layer processes these embeddings to generate logits corresponding to the number of clusters. These logits are then passed through a log-softmax (Goodfellow, 2016) function, and the error is calculated using the cross-entropy component of the hybrid loss function. This process ensures that the MLP learns to produce more discriminative representations for the encoder.

At the same time, high-dimensional embeddings are also fed into an encoder composed of several fully connected layers, which reduces their dimensionality to a 2-dimensional vector. This reduced-dimensional representation is used to compute the contrastive loss,

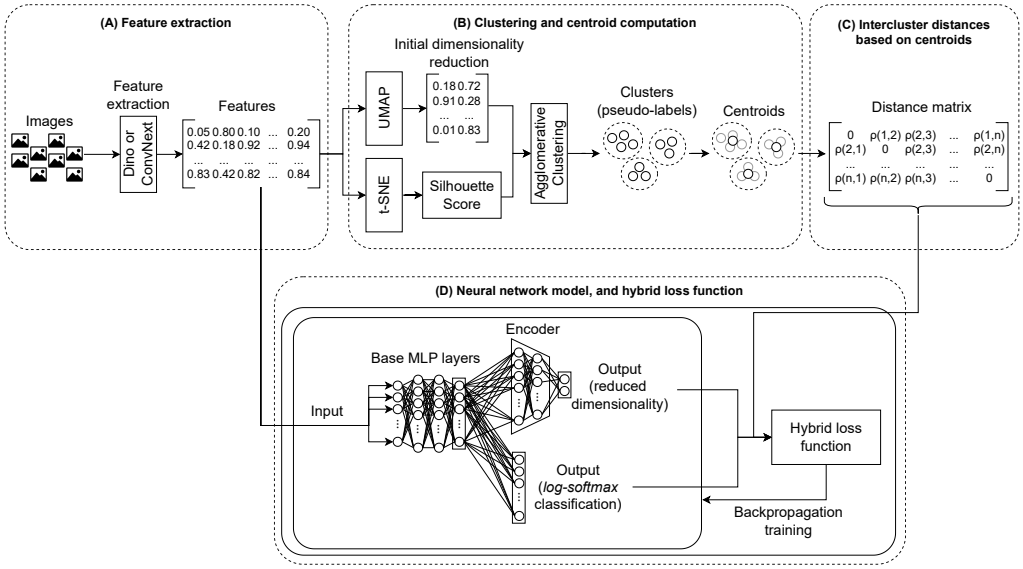


Figure 1: Overview of ISSDiR, considering the training steps.

which aims to minimize the similarity between samples within the same cluster and maximize the similarity between samples from different clusters. The hybrid loss function, combining both the cross-entropy and contrastive losses, allows the network to optimize classification accuracy while improving feature discrimination.

3.4.2 Hybrid Loss Function

The proposed hybrid loss function combines the cross-entropy loss and the contrastive loss, where each loss is weighted by a factor $\alpha \in [0,1] \subset \mathbb{R}$. The cross-entropy loss is applied to the log-softmax transformed logits from the classification layer, adjusting the network to generate more discriminative representations for the encoder. The contrastive loss, calculated from the reduced representations generated by the encoder, minimizes the distance between samples within the same cluster and maximizes the distance between samples from different clusters, using a margin weighted by the normalized distances between cluster centroids.

The complete definition of the hybrid loss function is presented at the end, after the detailed explanation of its individual components.

Cross-Entropy Loss: the cross-entropy loss $\mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}}$ (Bishop and Nasrabadi, 2006) is used to encourage the network to correctly classify samples according to the pseudo-labels assigned during the clustering process. The cross-entropy loss equation is given by:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}} = -\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i \log(\hat{y}_i), \tag{1}$$

where:

- N is the number of samples in the batch.
- y_i is the pseudo-label (cluster assignment) of sample i.
- $\hat{y}_i$ is the predicted probability distribution over clusters output by the network for sample i.

This loss function adjusts the network parameters to produce more discriminative representations for encoder.

Weighting Factor Calculation for Adaptive Margin. The weighting factor Δ_{ij} for a pair of samples i and j, belonging to the centroids μ_i and μ_j, respectively, is computed as:

$$\Delta_{ij} = \left(\rho'(\mu_i,\mu_j)+1\right)^2 - 1, \tag{2}$$

where $\rho'(\mu_i,\mu_j)$ represents the normalized distance between the centroids μ_i and μ_j. This quadratic function amplifies the effect of larger distances between centroids, increasing the influence of greater inter-cluster separations on the adaptive margin in the contrastive loss function. As the normalized distance between centroids increases, the contribution to the margin grows more significantly, enhancing the contrast between clusters that are further apart.

Contrastive Loss with Adaptive Margin: the contrastive loss $\mathcal{L}_{\text{Cr}}$(Chopra et al., 2005; Hadsell et al., 2006) aims to bring similar samples closer in the feature space and push dissimilar samples apart. Studies employing contrastive functions suggest that weighting the error calculation according to specific criteria is an effective strategy to improve generalization, allowing for better discrimination of subtle differences

(Wang et al., 2019a; Wang et al., 2019b; Fu et al., 2021). In this work, we modified the traditional contrastive loss by introducing an adaptive margin m_{ij}, which depends on the distances between the cluster centroids. The equation is given by:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{Cr}} = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\left[(1-l_{ij})D_{ij}^2 + l_{ij}\left(\max(0, m_{ij}-D_{ij})\right)^2\right], \tag{3}$$

where:

- N is the number of samples in the batch.
- l_{ij} is a binary label indicating whether samples i and j are similar ($l_{ij}=0$) or dissimilar ($l_{ij}=1$).
- $D_{ij} = \left\|\mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{z}_j\right\|$ is the Euclidean distance between the feature representations $\mathbf{z}_i$ and $\mathbf{z}_j$ of samples i and j.
- $m_{ij} = \tilde{m} + \Delta_{ij}$ is the adaptive margin, where $\tilde{m}$ is the base margin and Δ_{ij} is a weighting factor based on the distances between cluster centroids.

The adaptive margin dynamically adjusts the separation between samples from different clusters, maximizing the effectiveness of contrastive learning.

Hybrid Loss Function Definition: the final hybrid loss function is a weighted combination of the two losses described above:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{Total}} = \alpha\mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}} + (1-\alpha)\mathcal{L}_{\text{Cr}}, \tag{4}$$

where α is the weighting factor that balances the importance between the classification loss and the contrastive loss. This balance allows the model to both correctly classify samples and generate discriminative representations that preserve the cluster structure in the feature space. In this study, we arbitrally set $\alpha = 0.5$, so both loss functions are equally weighted in the equation.

3.5 Final Inductive Model

After completing the inductive training, the neural network model is integrated with the feature extraction model, resulting in the final inductive model. This model is capable of generating discriminative representations in reduced dimensions for unseen data. To obtain these embeddings, we pass the unseen samples through the final inductive model, producing a set of low-dimensional embedding vectors. Figure 2 illustrates the final inductive model developed using the proposed approach.

3.5.1 Embedding Inference

To generate embeddings for unseen data, we perform inference using the trained inductive model. Given an unseen sample $\mathbf{x}$, we pass this sample through the feature extraction component followed by the neural network to obtain its corresponding embedding $\mathbb{E}$. Formally, the embedding generation process can be described as:

$$\mathbb{E} = f_{\text{NN}}(f_{\text{FE}}(\mathbf{x})),$$

where f_{FE} denotes the feature extraction function and f_{NN} represents the neural network of the inductive model. By applying this process to all unseen samples, we obtain a set of low-dimensional embedding vectors $\mathbb{E} = \{\mathbb{E}_1, \mathbb{E}_2, \ldots, \mathbb{E}_m\}$.

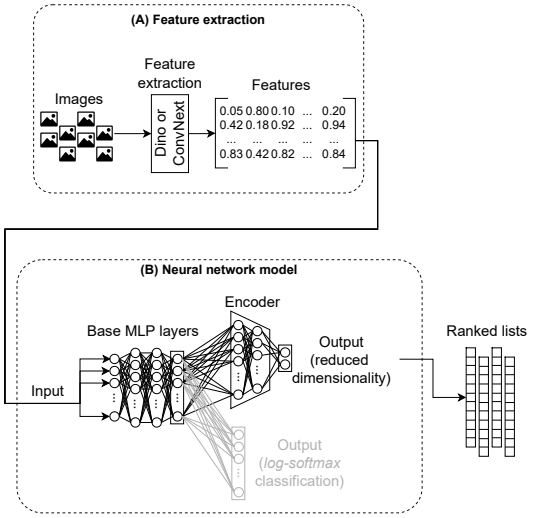


Figure 2: Final inference model. Compared to the Figure 1, it doesn't comprise the clustering, centroid computation, intercluster distances, and hybrid loss function steps.

3.5.2 Ranked Lists

Finally, we generate the ranked lists for each embedding vector, used for information retrieval tasks (Kawai et al., 2024b). Let $\mathbb{E} = \{\mathbb{E}_1, \mathbb{E}_2, ..., \mathbb{E}_m\}$ represent the set of m embedding vectors, where $\mathbb{E}_i$, corresponds to a low-dimensional representation produced by the model. For each pair of embeddings $(\mathbb{E}_i, \mathbb{E}_j)$, we compute the distance $\delta(\mathbb{E}_i, \mathbb{E}_j)$, constructing a new matrix B of dimensions $m \times m$, where:

$$B_{ij} = \delta(\underset{i}{\mathbb{E}}, \underset{j}{\mathbb{E}}). \tag{5}$$

Here, $\delta(\mathbb{E}_i, \mathbb{E}_j)$ denotes the distance between embeddings $\mathbb{E}_i$ and $\mathbb{E}_j$, calculated using an appropriate distance metric such as the Euclidean distance. Based on these distances, we create a ranked list τ_q for each embedding $\mathbb{E}_q$. The ranked list $\tau_q(i)$ contains the indices of the embeddings sorted in ascending order of their distance from $\mathbb{E}_q$, i.e., if $\tau_q(i) < \tau_q(j)$, then $\delta(q,i) < \delta(q,j)$.

The complete set of ranked lists for all embeddings in $\mathbb{E}$ is defined as $\mathcal{R} = \{\tau_1, \tau_2, \ldots, \tau_m\}$, where

each τ_q represents the rankings of all other embeddings relative to $\mathbb{E}_q$.

4 EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

In this Section, we describe the experimental protocol adopted to evaluate the performance of the proposed method. Our implementation, along with all the code used in the experiments conducted, is publicly available at https://github.com/derykroot/issdir.

4.1 Datasets

The experimental analysis considered four distinct datasets: (i) MNIST, 70,000 images, 10 classes (LeCun et al., 1998); (ii) Corel5K, 5,000 images, 50 classes (Liu and Yang, 2013); (iii) FashionMNIST, 70,000 images, 10 classes (Xiao et al., 2017); (iv) CIFAR-10, 60,000 images, 10 classes (Krizhevsky and Hinton, 2009).

4.2 Experimental Protocol

All datasets employed predefined training and testing splits, with the test set comprising approximately 20% of the data, except for Corel5K, which utilized 5-fold cross-validation due to the absence of a predefined test split. Inductive methods, such as Parametric t-SNE, Parametric UMAP, and our proposed method, were trained using the training set. In contrast, transductive methods, including PCA, t-SNE, and UMAP, were applied directly to the test set without a prior training phase, as their adjustment process occurs during inference. Furthermore, all methods were evaluated using only the testing set as queries for the retrieval task.

Regarding the evaluation method, we used mean Average Precision (mAP), which gives a broad evaluation of precision values in retrieval tasks (Manning, 2008).

We used a Multilayer Perceptron (MLP) with four layers. The hidden layers have 12,288 neurons each, while the input and output layers have 1,536 neurons when using DINOv2 features, and 3,072 neurons when using ConvNeXt features. The encoder network has the same input size as the MLP output, with four hidden layers, and reduces the dimensionality to two neurons in the final layer.

For training, we used a batch size of 2,048 and the AdamW optimizer with a learning rate of 0.0014. The model was trained for 1,000 epochs, here each epoch corresponds to a single iteration, as we employed a random sampling strategy for selecting the training data.

4.3 Results and Analysis

The Table 1 presents the results of experiments conducted with two feature extraction models, DINOv2 and ConvNeXt, evaluated on different datasets: CIFAR-10, MNIST, FashionMNIST, and Corel5K. For the experiments, the predefined test set split from each dataset was used. The Table compares the performance obtained with a fixed margin and with a margin weighted based on the distances between the centroids of the clusters to which the samples belong.

Description of Table 1 Columns:

- **Feature Extractor**: Neural network model used for feature extraction.
- **Dataset (Test Set)**: Dataset employed for evaluation, with results for each test query.
- **Margin Fixed**: Accuracy results from a fixed margin in the contrastive loss function during training.
- **With Weighted Margin**: Results from using a margin weighted by distances between cluster centroids, enhancing discriminative learning.
- **Weighted Margin Gain (%)**: Performance difference between models trained with weighted and fixed margins, where positive values show gains and negative values indicate declines.

Based on the results, it can be observed that the use of the ”weighted margin” resulted in significant gains for some datasets, such as CIFAR-10 and FashionMNIST with ConvNeXt, while other datasets, such as MNIST with DINOv2, showed a slight drop in performance with the weighted margin. The “Weighted Margin Gain (%)” column highlights these variations, allowing for a clear comparative analysis of the impact of the margin adjustment in the different experiments.

It is notable that the application of the ‘weighted margin‘ resulted in a performance decrease in the Corel5K dataset for both feature extractors, DINOv2 and ConvNeXt. One characteristic of Corel5K is that it contains fewer images per class compared to the other datasets used. This suggests that the use of the weighted margin tends to be more effective in datasets with a larger number of samples per class. In scenarios with fewer samples per class, as observed in Corel5K, the weighted margin may not adequately capture intra-class variations, leading to lower performance. Therefore, the effectiveness of the weighted margin may be correlated with the density and the

Table 1: Impact of the Weighted Margin considering mAP values. We compare results with and without weighted margin.

Feature Extractor	Dataset (Test Set)	Margin Fixed	With Weighted Margin	Weighted Margin Gain
DINOv2	**CIFAR-10**	94.27%	**94.87%**	+0.60%
	MNIST	**76.03%**	75.57%	-0.46%
	FashionMNIST	73.98%	**74.29%**	+0.31%
	Corel5K	**86.31%**	84.90%	-1.41%
ConvNeXt	**CIFAR10**	89.69%	**93.32%**	+3.63%
	MNIST	95.85%	**97.89%**	+2.04%
	FashionMNIST	66.19%	**71.11%**	+4.92%
	Corel5K	**90.85%**	89.99%	-0.86%

Table 2: Comparison with mAP results of other methods on the test set.

Feature Extractor	Method	Datasets			
		CIFAR-10	**MNIST**	**FashionMNIST**	**Corel5K**
DINOv2	**Original Features**	*64.66%*	*41.77%*	*59.07%*	*76.92%*
	PCA	55.12%	30.81%	37.27%	23.17%
	t-SNE	85.74%	63.87%	71.27%	**85.72%**
	UMAP	91.11%	69.28%	74.30%	85.59%
	Parametric t-SNE	87.74%	52.10%	70.54%	68.90%
	Parametric UMAP	94.33%	74.71%	**74.70%**	73.88%
	ISSDiR (Ours)	**94.87%**	**75.57%**	74.29%	84.90%
ConvNeXt	**Original Features**	*64.55%*	*73.73%*	*63.36%*	73.17%
	PCA	53.57%	46.57%	54.03%	28.89%
	t-SNE	86.45%	91.09%	74.24%	88.24%
	UMAP	90.59%	95.70%	75.53%	89.69%
	Parametric t-SNE	88.70%	87.02%	**76.73%**	71.30%
	Parametric UMAP	91.47%	96.60%	75.58%	79.08%
	ISSDiR (Ours)	**93.32%**	**97.89%**	71.11%	**89.99%**

amount of data available per class, indicating that its application is more advantageous in contexts where there is an abundance of examples for each category.

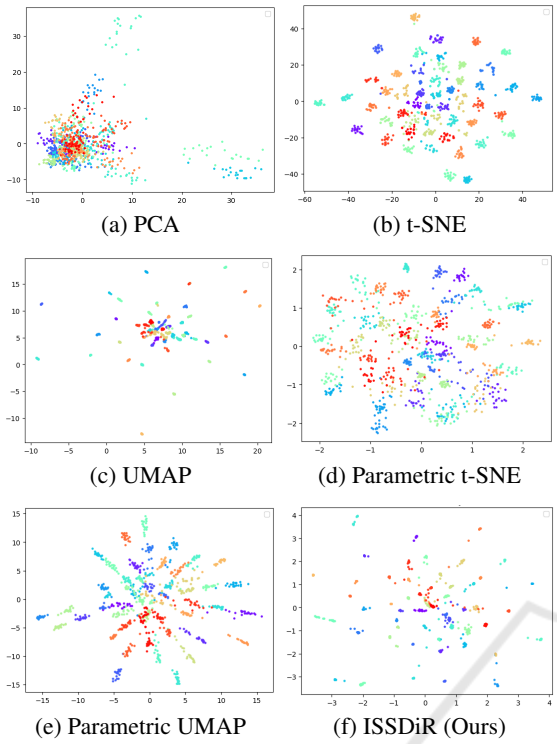
After analyzing the impact of the weighted margin in the previous experiments, we proceed by comparing our proposed method, ISSDiR, with other dimensionality reduction techniques. Table 2 presents a comparison of ISSDiR with PCA, t-SNE, UMAP, parametric t-SNE and parametric UMAP as well as the performance using the original features, for two feature extraction models (DINOv2 and ConvNeXt). The comparison is conducted on four datasets: CIFAR-10, MNIST, FashionMNIST, and Corel5K, using the test set of each dataset for evaluation.

Description of Table 2 Columns:

- **Feature Extractor.** Refers to the feature extraction model used (DINOv2 or ConvNeXt).
- **Method.** Represents the method applied for dimensionality reduction or the direct use of the original features.
  - **Original Features.** Performance obtained by directly using the features extracted by the model, without applying dimensionality reduction.
  - **PCA.** Results obtained by applying Principal Component Analysis (PCA) for dimensionality reduction.
  - **t-SNE.** Results using t-distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE).
  - **UMAP.** Results obtained using Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP).
  - **Parametric t-SNE.** Results obtained using the Parametric t-distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE).
  - **Parametric UMAP.** Results obtained using the Parametric Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP).
  - **ISSDiR (Ours).** Performance of the proposed method, ISSDiR.
- **Datasets.** Shows the Mean Average Precision obtained on each dataset, consideiring the query elements of the test set: CIFAR-10, MNIST, FashionMNIST, and Corel5K.

In Table 2, it is noteworthy that ISSDiR consistently achieves competitive or superior performance across different datasets and feature extraction methods. Specifically, ISSDiR outperforms the other methods on CIFAR-10, achieving its best result with DINOv2 (94.87%) and ConvNeXt (93.32%). This shows that ISSDiR is highly effective when dealing with large-scale image classification tasks, particularly when feature extraction is done by DINOv2.

For the MNIST dataset, ISSDiR achieves its highest performance with ConvNeXt (97.89%), outperforming both UMAP (95.70%) and t-SNE (91.09%),



(a) PCA (b) t-SNE

(c) UMAP (d) Parametric t-SNE

(e) Parametric UMAP (f) ISSDiR (Ours)

Figure 3: Different projections of Corel5K dataset with ConvNeXt features.

as well as their respective parametric versions (Parametric UMAP: 96.60% and Parametric t-SNE: 87.02%). In the Corel5K dataset, ISSDiR also performs competitively (89.99%), slightly surpassing UMAP (89.69%). However, UMAP performs better on FashionMNIST (75.53%) compared to ISSDiR (71.11%).

Figure 3 shows different dimensionality reduction methods applied to the Corel5K dataset, using features extracted by the ConvNeXt model. The proposed method, ISSDiR, causes many points from the same cluster to converge into compact regions, while still maintaining good separability between different clusters. UMAP similarly compacts clusters but keeps central clusters closer together. Parametric UMAP also compacts clusters and enhances separability. t-SNE achieves a more uniform distribution, improving visual explainability by making clusters easily distinguishable, whereas Parametric t-SNE shows more dispersed separability. In contrast, PCA results in a less defined and more elongated distribution, indicating a reduced ability to clearly separate clusters compared to the other methods.

5 CONCLUSION

In this study, we introduced a robust inductive dimensionality reduction method aimed at enhancing discriminative power for image retrieval tasks across diverse datasets. By adjusting the adaptive margin to assign larger margins to more distant clusters, our method improves group discrimination and facilitates effective learning of the feature space.

We evaluated our approach against both transductive methods and other inductive dimensionality reduction techniques, achieving competitive performance metrics. Future work will focus on applying this method in more scalable contexts, comparing it with a broader range of inductive techniques to further enhance performance, and exploring additional loss functions and neural network architectures to strengthen the overall framework.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors are grateful to Petrobras (grant #2023/00095-3) for supporting this research. This study was also financed in part by the Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior - Brasil (CAPES).

REFERENCES

Asano, Y. M., Rupprecht, C., and Vedaldi, A. (2020). Self-labelling via simultaneous clustering and representation learning. In *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*.

Bishop, C. M. and Nasrabadi, N. M. (2006). *Pattern recognition and machine learning*, volume 4. Springer.

Caron, M., Bojanowski, P., Joulin, A., and Douze, M. (2018). Deep clustering for unsupervised learning of visual features. In *Proceedings of the European conference on computer vision (ECCV)*, pages 132–149.

Chen, T. and Chen, H. (1995). Universal approximation to nonlinear operators by neural networks with arbitrary activation functions and its application to dynamical systems. *IEEE transactions on neural networks*, 6(4):911–917.

Chidananda Gowda, K. and Krishna, G. (1978). Agglomerative clustering using the concept of mutual nearest neighbourhood. *Pattern Recognition*, 10(2):105–112.

Chopra, S., Hadsell, R., and LeCun, Y. (2005). Learning a similarity metric discriminatively, with application to face verification. In *2005 IEEE computer society conference on computer vision and pattern recognition (CVPR'05)*, volume 1, pages 539–546. IEEE.

Ding, J., Condon, A., and Shah, S. P. (2018). Interpretable dimensionality reduction of single cell transcriptome

data with deep generative models. *Nature communications*, 9(1):2002.

Ding, X., Chen, H., Zhang, X., Han, J., and Ding, G. (2022). Repmlpnet: Hierarchical vision mlp with re-parameterized locality. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 578–587.

El-Nouby, A., Neverova, N., Laptev, I., and Jégou, H. (2021). Training vision transformers for image retrieval. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2102.05644*.

Espadoto, M., Hirata, N. S. T., and Telea, A. C. (2021). Self-supervised dimensionality reduction with neural networks and pseudo-labeling. In *Proceedings*.

Fu, Z., Li, Y., Mao, Z., Wang, Q., and Zhang, Y. (2021). Deep metric learning with self-supervised ranking. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, volume 35, pages 1370–1378.

Gisbrecht, A., Schulz, A., and Hammer, B. (2015). Parametric nonlinear dimensionality reduction using kernel t-sne. *Neurocomputing*, 147:71–82. Advances in Self-Organizing Maps Subtitle of the special issue: Selected Papers from the Workshop on Self-Organizing Maps 2012 (WSOM 2012).

Gkelios, S., Sophokleous, A., Plakias, S., Boutalis, Y., and Chatzichristofis, S. A. (2021). Deep convolutional features for image retrieval. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 177:114940.

Goodfellow, I. (2016). Deep learning.

Hadsell, R., Chopra, S., and LeCun, Y. (2006). Dimensionality reduction by learning an invariant mapping. In *2006 IEEE computer society conference on computer vision and pattern recognition (CVPR'06)*, volume 2, pages 1735–1742. IEEE.

Hornik, K., Stinchcombe, M., and White, H. (1989). Multilayer feedforward networks are universal approximators. *Neural networks*, 2(5):359–366.

Jain, A. K., Murty, M. N., and Flynn, P. J. (1999). Data clustering: a review. *ACM Comput. Surv.*, 31(3).

Kawai, V. A. S., Leticio, G. R., Valem, L. P., and Pedronette, D. C. G. (2024a). Neighbor embedding projection and rank-based manifold learning for image retrieval. In *2024 37th SIBGRAPI Conference on Graphics, Patterns and Images (SIBGRAPI)*, pages 1–6.

Kawai, V. S., Valem, L. P., Baldassin, A., Borin, E., Pedronette, D. C. G. a., and Latecki, L. J. (2024b). Rank-based hashing for effective and efficient nearest neighbor search for image retrieval. *ACM Trans. Multimedia Comput. Commun. Appl.*, 20(10).

Krizhevsky, A. and Hinton, G. (2009). Learning multiple layers of features from tiny images. Technical Report 0, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario.

LeCun, Y., Bottou, L., Bengio, Y., and Haffner, P. (1998). Gradient-based learning applied to document recognition. *Proceedings of the IEEE*, 86(11):2278–2324.

Leticio, G. R., Kawai, V. S., Valem, L. P., Pedronette, D. C. G., and da S. Torres, R. (2024). Manifold information through neighbor embedding projection for image retrieval. *Pattern Recognition Letters*, 183:17–25.

Li, X., Yang, J., and Ma, J. (2021). Recent developments of content-based image retrieval (cbir). *Neurocomputing*, 452:675–689.

Liu, G.-H. and Yang, J.-Y. (2013). Content-based image retrieval using color difference histogram. *Pattern recognition*, 46(1):188–198.

Liu, Z., Mao, H., Wu, C.-Y., Feichtenhofer, C., Darrell, T., and Xie, S. (2022). A convnet for the 2020s. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 11976–11986.

Manning, C. D. (2008). *Introduction to information retrieval*. Syngress Publishing,.

McInnes, L., Healy, J., Saul, N., and Großberger, L. (2018). Umap: Uniform manifold approximation and projection. *Journal of Open Source Software*, 3(29):861.

Oquab, M., Darcet, T., Moutakanni, T., Vo, H., Szafraniec, M., Khalidov, V., Fernandez, P., Haziza, D., Massa, F., El-Nouby, A., et al. (2023). Dinov2: Learning robust visual features without supervision. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2304.07193*.

Roman-Rangel, E. and Marchand-Maillet, S. (2019). Inductive t-sne via deep learning to visualize multi-label images. *Engineering Applications of Artificial Intelligence*, 81:336–345.

Sainburg, T., McInnes, L., and Gentner, T. Q. (2021). Parametric umap embeddings for representation and semisupervised learning. *Neural Computation*, 33(11):2881–2907.

Szubert, B., Cole, J. E., Monaco, C., and Drozdov, I. (2019). Structure-preserving visualisation of high dimensional single-cell datasets. *Scientific reports*, 9(1):8914.

Tang, C., Zhao, Y., Wang, G., Luo, C., Xie, W., and Zeng, W. (2022). Sparse mlp for image recognition: Is self-attention really necessary? In *Proceedings of the AAAI conference on artificial intelligence*, volume 36, pages 2344–2351.

Tolstikhin, I. O., Houlsby, N., Kolesnikov, A., Beyer, L., Zhai, X., Unterthiner, T., Yung, J., Steiner, A., Keysers, D., Uszkoreit, J., et al. (2021). Mlp-mixer: An all-mlp architecture for vision. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 34:24261–24272.

Van der Maaten, L. and Hinton, G. (2008). Visualizing data using t-sne. *Journal of machine learning research*, 9(11).

Wan, J., Wang, D., Hoi, S. C. H., Wu, P., Zhu, J., Zhang, Y., and Li, J. (2014). Deep learning for content-based image retrieval: A comprehensive study. In *Proceedings of the 22nd ACM international conference on Multimedia*, pages 157–166.

Wang, X., Han, X., Huang, W., Dong, D., and Scott, M. R. (2019a). Multi-similarity loss with general pair weighting for deep metric learning. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 5022–5030.

Wang, X., Hua, Y., Kodirov, E., Hu, G., Garnier, R., and Robertson, N. M. (2019b). Ranked list loss for deep metric learning. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 5207–5216.

Xiao, H., Rasul, K., and Vollgraf, R. (2017). Fashion-mnist: a novel image dataset for benchmarking machine learning algorithms. *arXiv e-prints*, pages arXiv–1708.