

Getting the Bugs Out: Entomology Using Computer Vision

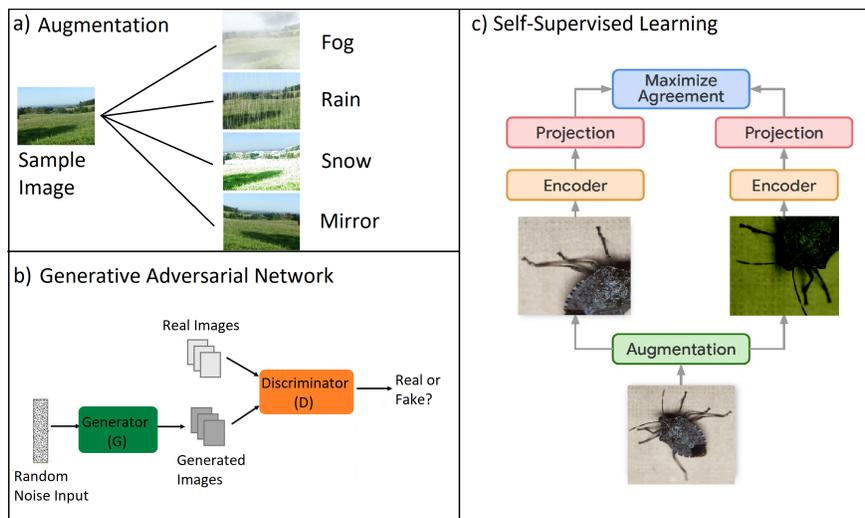
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Abstract

Deep learning for computer vision has shown promising results in the field of entomology. Deep learning performance is maximized primarily by bulk labeled data which, outside of rare circumstances, are limited in ecological studies. Currently, to utilize deep learning systems, ecologists undergo extensive data collection efforts, or limit their problem to niche tasks. These solutions do not scale to region agnostic models. There are solutions using data augmentation, simulators, generative models, and self-supervised learning that supplement limited data labels. Here, we highlight the success of deep learning for computer vision within entomology, discuss data collection efforts, provide methodologies for annotation efficient learning, and conclude with practical guidelines for how ecologists can empower accessible automated ecological monitoring on a global scale.



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20 ***Teaser*** – Reviewing the existing efforts of deep learning for entomology and organizing
21 towards foundation models that generalize across taxa.

Abstract

Deep learning for computer vision has shown promising results in the field of entomology. Deep learning performance is maximized primarily by bulk labeled data which, outside of rare circumstances, are limited in ecological studies. Currently, to utilize deep learning systems, ecologists undergo extensive data collection efforts, or limit their problem to niche tasks. These solutions do not scale to region agnostic models. There are solutions using data augmentation, simulators, generative models, and self-supervised learning that supplement limited data labels. Here, we highlight the success of deep learning for computer vision within entomology, discuss data collection efforts, provide methodologies for annotation efficient learning, and conclude with practical guidelines for how ecologists can empower accessible automated ecological monitoring on a global scale.

1 Introduction

We live in a time of rapid global change where the pace at which we can collect and analyze ecological data makes it imperative to capture signals of ecosystem collapse. Insects and other arthropods play a crucial role in crop pollination [1], beneficial control of pests [2], and terrestrial food web dynamics [3]. Hallmann et al. [4]’s ground-breaking study demonstrated a 75% decrease in insect abundance across 63 conservation areas over a 30 year span. Subsequent work documents that this declining trend in insect abundance has been occurring across a wide variety of taxa and locations [5, 6, 7]. Drastic changes in arthropod population abundance and diversity have negative cascading effects on ecological stability and ecosystem resiliency [8, 9, 10]. To expedite and improve the analysis of these trends, the ecological field is currently developing deep learning methods to better understand this potential threat of food web collapse [11, 12, 13, 14, 15].

Deep learning systems for computer vision offer the predictive capabilities of an expert anywhere in the world at massive cost reduction. While computationally expensive to train, deployed deep learning systems can operate on average computers and modern mobile devices

49 [16]. van Klink et al. [17]’s 2022 review highlights the use of deep learning for computer vision,
50 acoustic monitoring, radar, and molecular models for entomology. As a continuation of these
51 recent successes, ecological deep learning methods would benefit from initiatives that focus
52 on broad scale applications with a global perspective. Current approaches require building
53 a dataset using experts with laboratory devices and training models on computing resources
54 only available in first world countries [11, 15]. This approach creates a bias in trends analyzed
55 and prevents less resourced labs from participating in the deep learning advance. To achieve a
56 global initiative of ecological data collection, we believe there should be a focus on designing
57 accessible and generalizable deep learning systems to process ecological data collected cheaply
58 from rural environments, using only a net, camera, and possibly an internet connection [18].
59 This would empower those untrained to contribute to expert level analysis from remote locations
60 anywhere in the world. This form of data collection effort would create an ethically fair data
61 analysis pipeline capable of providing a dynamic feedback loop of year-over-year metrics related
62 to abundance, biomass, and richness anywhere in the world.

63 In order for this global objective to succeed, there exist many technical challenges. A main
64 challenge for deep learning models to perform in global settings is the availability of data that
65 extend class labels beyond niche taxa groupings or confined geographic regions. Currently, the
66 majority of models trained have been limited to narrow groupings, primarily due to limited
67 labeled data availability [19, 20, 21, 22]. There exist deep learning methods related to anno-
68 tation efficient learning that overcome this limitation that have been successfully utilized in
69 other disciplines [23, 24, 25, 26, 27]. Here, we focus on methods that can empower ecologists to
70 accomplishing the training of deep learning models with a global initiative, focusing specifically
71 on computer vision. To do this, we highlight current successes, current limitations, techni-
72 cal solutions for how these limitations can be overcome, and lastly our perspective on future
73 directions.

74 **2 Computer Vision Entomologist AI Systems**

75 The ongoing exploration of deep learning in the field of entomology continually makes strides
76 to accomplish what previously required human experts [28, 29]. This is particularly true for

77 computer vision and entomology as arthropod image data with fixed numbers of classifications
78 is well-suited for deep learning models that have, in recent years, standardized around specific
79 vision architectures (ResNet, DenseNet, Vision Transformer, etc.) [30, 31, 32]. There are
80 alternative ways of approaching vision tasks depending on the input image and output label.
81 These differences can be summarized into two main dichotomous pairs:

- 82 • Lab-based vs. field-based images. Lab-based results can utilize imaging with standard-
83 ized/uniform conditions [28, 33, 34] while field-based images must generalize to variable
84 backgrounds and lighting conditions [19, 35, 36]. If desired, lab based approaches can
85 also take advantage of capturing multiple images per individual from a variety of angles.
- 86 • Single vs. multiple individuals per image. Images of single individuals typically assume
87 that the subject is centered and occupies the majority of the image, thus they do not
88 need a separate segmentation step [11, 37], while images with multiple individuals require
89 a model with the ability to successfully crop, extract and classify specific regions of an
90 image [19, 35, 36].

91 The use of deep learning for computer vision in entomology has been predominately in three
92 disciplines: museum specimens, pest management, and ecological sampling. We briefly explore
93 these here.

94 **2.1 Museum Specimens**

95 Images of museum specimens are often ideal: lab based, single individual, well-mounted, high
96 resolution, and clear with little to no noise in the background. These conditions are optimal
97 for maximizing machine learning performance. Marques et al. [33] demonstrated the potential
98 success of deep learning systems when applied under museum conditions classifying 57 ant genera
99 using 127,832 images, where head views provided the best prediction accuracy. Hansen et al.
100 [28] demonstrated that deep learning systems can distinguish among 361 carabid beetle species
101 considering 364 images taken from the British Isles. The breadth and diversity of museum
102 specimens will provide rich source of training data for general entomologist AI systems.

103 2.2 Pest Management

104 Images used to detect and manage pests are often ‘noisy’ images with variable backgrounds
105 and lighting conditions requiring a model’s ability to generalize often beyond the training dis-
106 tribution. In addition, images may contain many individuals, requiring object detection models
107 to localize individuals. Xia et al. [36] used deep learning systems to classify 24 pest insects
108 from field crop images with non-uniform backgrounds. Ding and Taylor [19] expanded a limited
109 dataset of 100s of images using data augmentation to localize and train a deep learning model
110 to count the number of codling moths, a major pest to agricultural crops. Rustia et al. [35]
111 collected data autonomously from greenhouse sticky traps using an object detector and series of
112 sub-classification deep learning networks to localize insect individuals and re-train and improve
113 the model over time. Expanding these works to consider a single model capable of generalizing
114 across pests would aid farmers all over the world.

115 2.3 Ecological Sampling

116 Images taken in an ecological context are often either images from the field, or images of curated
117 samples captured in a laboratory setting. In laboratory settings, imaging is traditionally, but not
118 necessarily, done using a single individual per image. Motta et al. [37]’s deep learning classifier
119 can distinguish mosquitoes by species and sex using images captured in a laboratory setting
120 from a dataset of 4,000 images. Tuda and Luna-Maldonado [38] showed deep learning systems
121 outperformed traditional computer vision methods for characterizing populations and species
122 assemblages of the pest beetle *Callosobruchus chinensis* and 2 parasitic wasps: *Anisopteromalus*
123 and *Heterospilu*. Gerovichev et al. [18] analyzed sticky traps placed in Eucalyptus forests to
124 quantify the abundance of two hemipteran pests of eucalypts and a parasitoid wasp. Ärje
125 et al. [11] quantified insect assemblage/diversity using the robotic system BIOSCAN which
126 funnels single individuals into a tube where an image is captured. Similarly, Schneider et al.
127 [15] utilized a white background to isolate arthropod individuals from bulk samples, classifying
128 order, diversity, and order level biomass of 1000s of arthropod samples from a single photo. The
129 use of a single model to generalize across taxa could automate ecological analyses anywhere in
130 the world.

131 **3 Big Data?**

132 The above papers demonstrate the successful predictive capabilities of deep learning on ecologi-
133 cal data. These studies, however, follow a trend where each are based on niche, limited ecological
134 datasets that consider a small number of classes and are restricted to specific geographic re-
135 gions. When considering broad ecological questions and the prospect of global ecological efforts,
136 models need be more general, and operate beyond these niche subsets. This problem is exacer-
137 bated as we pursue finer-grained classification from order, down to species, where the number
138 of required labels grows by several orders of magnitude.

139 It is common to see modern learning systems with millions to billions of parameters which are
140 tuned during training to a given data distribution [39]. With such a large number of parameters,
141 deep learning systems continually improve performance when presented with millions or more
142 labeled examples, achieving spectacular results [39, 40]. One approach to expand the data
143 availability and solve predictive tasks using deep learning in ecology is the massive data science
144 effort to aggregate images from lab and field cameras around the world [41, 42, 43]. While
145 we do encourage efforts to empower research groups around the world with standardized data
146 releases, there are many challenges to overcome. These challenges include:

- 147 • Permissions - Often times multiple individuals and funding sources are involved in the
148 collection of data. Ecological data collection efforts often span years, and even decades.
149 Getting permissions from all parties involved in the formulation of data can be difficult
150 to obtain.
- 151 • Standardizing labels - When assigning taxonomic labels there exists a hierarchy of label
152 granularity, where samples may be labeled to any of the order, family, genus, or species
153 level depending on the original research objective. When training models from combined
154 data sources, one must be able to handle these intermittent hierarchical taxonomic labels.
- 155 • Human error - Different research labs have different levels of access to experts and equip-
156 ment that improve the accuracy of taxonomic labels. A combine dataset would have
157 varied levels of label accuracy.
- 158 • Image resolution - Images of arthropod samples will range wildly depending on how the

159 data were collected considering the original task. One must determine how best to handle
160 these variable image resolutions.

- 161 • Environmental setting - Across tasks, arthropods will be captured in a wide variety of
162 environmental settings. Biases towards particular environments may impact performance
163 when training models.
- 164 • Numbers of individuals - Ecological images can contain a variable number of individ-
165 uals. One may need to maintain two datasets: one for object detection with location
166 annotations, and another for standard classification.
- 167 • Data biases - When considering ecological sampling, there will be inevitably biases within
168 the data. Arthropods of interest and frequent arthropods are often over-represented,
169 while rare arthropods from underrepresented geographic locations will inevitably be under
170 represented.

171 While not an exhaustive list, these challenges are examples of what must be overcome for
172 each dataset. Dealing with these challenges will be primarily a manual process requiring an
173 organization to monitor and govern the overall quality and usability of the data releases. While
174 important, the data science approach will be slow and still require technical solutions like those
175 described below to account for biases within the data.

176 In ecology, an additional consideration when utilizing deep learning systems is that, we often
177 care about the rare, endangered, and unexpected over the common. Deep learning systems, in
178 principle, are designed for the opposite, as they predict signals that are frequent within the realm
179 of variation provided by a given data distribution [44]. In classification systems, this is known
180 as class imbalance, where classes with frequent observations overwhelm the few examples of rare
181 classes [45, 46, 47, 48]. Due to the urgently needed motivations of ecological research to observe
182 the rare and under-represented, we have the opportunity to employ technical innovations that
183 overcome such challenges in data collection efforts.

184 Ecological analyses will benefit from deep learning approaches focused on data efficiency
185 where there is limited, and even no, labeled data. Here we outline three deep learning tech-
186 niques, in combination with case studies, highlighting the method and providing data scenarios

187 where the technique would help overcome their limitations. We group these techniques into
188 three main forms: data augmentation [49, 50, 51], data generation [52, 53, 54, 55], and self-
189 supervised learning [56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61] (Fig 1). Each methodology has its own problem
190 formulation, strengths and weaknesses, and ability to extract signal from limited observations.
191 One encouraging trend within the deep learning community is a focus on reproducibility. This
192 results in the rapid release of novel methods in the form of pre-prints and often associated
193 example code, reporting new techniques as they are developed.

194 4 Improving Data Efficiency

195 4.1 Data Augmentation

196 Data Augmentation is a form of annotation efficient learning where one uses a series of predefined
197 techniques to manipulate data samples to increase the input representations that correspond
198 to a given label [51]. When considering computer vision, deep learning models learn to identify
199 patterns within the numeric values represented as pixels. A simple example of augmentation
200 to expand this representation is mirroring an image. When mirrored, the high-level concept
201 of what is contained within the image remains unchanged, but the model sees an entirely
202 new pixel representation. For computer vision, standardized image augmentation techniques
203 include: translation, rotation, colour manipulation, additive Gaussian noise, random masking,
204 light glare, even artificial weather conditions, among many others [51, 62, 63].

205 When training deep learning models, the parameters of a model are modified over multiple
206 epochs. During each epoch, the model is fed each data sample. The key to the use of augmen-
207 tation is that every time a data point is sampled, the series of augmentations used are randomly
208 applied. In so doing, the model never sees identical images, forcing it to learn a general repre-
209 sentation as opposed to memorizing the data. Deep learning models see the world by observing
210 samples from a hypothetical “data generating distribution”. Data augmentation intuitively can
211 be viewed as a way of upweighting the tails of this distribution in a way that doesn’t require
212 collecting more data.

213 Data augmentation is primarily applied to scenarios where labeled data is limited, which

214 is nearly all scenarios in ecology. Data augmentation is also applicable as a tool to mitigate
215 class imbalance. When training, one can re-sample under-represented classes with a higher
216 frequency while then applying aggressive augmentation [47]. An additional ecological boon is
217 that, particular lighting and weather conditions augmentations can be applied to help models
218 be robust to variable environmental conditions [64].

219 4.2 Simulators & Generative Models

220 When training deep learning models, it is often beneficial to provide addition data through
221 synthetic means to inflate underrepresented classes, such as rare species. This data synthesis
222 process can be performed through programmed simulators, or learned from data using a genera-
223 tive model. There are multiple forms of generative models including: Variational Autoencoders
224 (VAEs), Flow-based models, Diffusion Models, and Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs)
225 [65]. Below we focus on GANs because of their recent success and popularity.

226 Simulation is a form of generating additional data using human-coded programmatic rules.
227 Simulated data can take many forms depending on the problem formulation. One problem
228 common within ecology is domain shift, which includes scenarios in which classes and their
229 background are correlated, biasing future predictions to behave the same [47, 66]. One can
230 simulate example data by training a model to crop objects of interest from images, and paste
231 these cutouts on new locations before, or during training [67]. More generally, to obtain indi-
232 viduals in new poses, researchers have used rendering engines to create synthetic examples of
233 the classes of interest. Using these renders, one can then programatically manipulate the pose,
234 environment, or general appearance [53, 54]. Creating renders can be expensive in terms of
235 time and effort, however, if these renders or the engine that created them are released to the
236 public domain the overhead of creating the model only needs to occur once for all to use, and
237 the process becomes much more feasible.

238 Alternatively, GANs are a deep learning approach where, in computer vision, models are
239 trained to create novel lifelike images conditioned on the domain of the training data. GANs
240 train two models in competition with one another, a generator and discriminator. The generator
241 is trained to create novel images conditioned from random noise, while the discriminator is

242 trained to detect if the generator’s images are real or fake. After training, the result is a
243 model that can generate lifelike images of a desired domain [68, 69]. Using this approach, one
244 can generate nearly endless novel images from limited datasets and under-represented classes
245 [26]. One promising area of research is the use of GANs to generate not only the image, but
246 corresponding labels as well. The end result is a ‘labeled data factory’ which can be applied to
247 rare classes within a dataset [70].

248 For enhancing ecological data, generative models should be used as a tool to grow limited
249 datasets, supplement under-represented classes, or in the case of labeled data factory, provide
250 data and their annotations in bulk. This is not an exclusive list, but a subset of problems
251 that may be overcome using data generation when data is limited for the use of deep learning
252 systems.

253 4.3 Self-Supervised Learning

254 When referring to deep learning systems to this point, we have been primarily referring to
255 traditional classifiers which produce a class label from an image considering a predefined list
256 of possible options - a multiple choice question of which arthropod is the dominant subject of
257 an image. To train these systems, the approach requires human annotators to provide a class
258 label for every image within the data. For niche ecological problems, this is feasible only when
259 considering a small number classes and only if one has the availability of experts to label the
260 data.

261 When training traditional deep learning models with a softmax, multiple choice output,
262 it is often thought that one requires class labels for all data samples. Due to the expensive
263 nature of obtaining labels, this is sometimes infeasible, especially when requiring an expert to
264 provide labels, as in ecology. One approach to utilize all of a partially labeled dataset is known
265 as semi-supervised learning [71]. Semi-supervised learning exploits both labeled and unlabeled
266 data for learning, usually in the setting where labeled data is restricted and unlabeled data is
267 plentiful. One popular form of semi-supervised learning known as “pseudo-labeling” is a simple
268 technique in which one first trains a model on the labeled data subset, followed then by using
269 this model to predict the labels of the remaining unlabeled data. For each unlabeled input, deep

270 learning models provide a predicted label as well as a confidence. Using these confidences, one
271 then adds the predictions with high confidence to the training data along with the predicted
272 “pseudo-labels” and repeats the process. While the model may make prediction errors, the
273 overall process has been found to improve performance in comparison to considering only the
274 labeled subset of data [71, 72].

275 Models limited to detect only expected classes, like supervised and semi-supervised, have
276 a number of vulnerabilities. Such models are unable to expect unanticipated classes, such as
277 invasive species, and cannot be used in different regions where other classes exist. For global
278 initiatives, as we aim to be region agnostic and eventually increase the resolution of taxa beyond
279 order, the labeling efforts required to train traditional classifiers quickly become infeasible. This
280 is due to the number of fine-grained classes, geographic data imbalance, and the inevitable
281 human error leading to label noise. Considering the extreme case of species, there are estimated
282 to be millions of insect species in the world, all of which would require hundreds of expert
283 labeled images [73]. Supervised deep learning models trained with human labels to answer a
284 multiple choice question with millions of possible choices will not be the large scale solution to
285 species-level entomology.

286 Self-supervised learning is an alternative approach that can generalize to classes not present
287 in the original training data. To do this, self-supervised models operate on a proxy task, such
288 as distinguishing if two input images are the same or different considering the domain from
289 which the model was trained [59, 74]. How these two input images are selected depends on the
290 availability of data labels. In the case of entomology, if one has taxa labels, one can select the
291 same or different taxa, while if one has no labels, one can select a single image and apply two
292 unique forms of augmentation to create two distinct samples [57, 75]. The result is a model
293 trained to learn to distinguish if *any* input images of arthropods are the same or different
294 taxa, extending to those never before seen in the training data [61]. This model then becomes
295 agnostic to geographic region, capable of detecting invasive species, and does not require a
296 library of labeled images. In practice, one would train a model for each taxa: order, family,
297 genus, and species, and use the model appropriate for the task’s granularity requirement. By
298 training a performant comparison of taxa this way, the model becomes universal to data biases
299 related to rarity and is applicable to comparisons from any geographic region in the world.

300 Self-supervised learning should be a tool used when: data labeling is unattainable, the data
301 are bountiful but ‘noisy’ and difficult to label, the data do not contain a large representation of
302 all the classes one would like to identify, or one would like their model to be robust to geographic
303 region.

304 4.4 Real World Practicalities

305 The urgency of insect collapse falls back to one main motivation. What is the shortest path to
306 improving the speed and accuracy of ecological predictions on a global scale? When we consider
307 a global scale, this implies that machine learning methods be universal and used to empower
308 data analyses in remote locations of the world. As attractive as machine learning approaches
309 may be in their current form, as we outline above, there are still serious obstacles to overcome
310 to achieve this objective of generality.

311 To offer pragmatic solutions in pursuit of a global arthropod deep learning system, the first
312 general approach would be to aggregate as large of a universal dataset as possible and limit the
313 scope of classifying arthropods to the order level. Using these data, one would then train a model
314 with either the traditional classification or self-supervised approach, using data augmentation
315 with synthetic data from a renderer or generative model. To measure model generality, one
316 could then divide the data into training and testing relative to geographic regions, reporting
317 performance classifying arthropod individuals from the withheld regions.

318 The result of training a model performant at the general task of order level arthropod
319 classification would be the origin of a *foundation model* for entomology [76, 77]. Foundation
320 models are models recognized as a tool that universally solve a particular task. Examples
321 include: GPT-3 [78] for text generation, DALL-E 2 [79] for text-to-image generation, and the
322 Megadetector for animal localization from camera trap images [80]. The creation of such tools
323 have benefits that ripple beyond academic disciplines to institutional frameworks in need of
324 efficient arthropod detection, such as the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) [81] and
325 Institute for Nature and Environmental Protection (INEP) [82]. This comes at a time when
326 there is a critical shortage of taxonomists in the world, especially in remote locations [83]. Even
327 in its early stages, generalized deep learning models can be used to ease this shortage by allowing

328 deep learning models to complement parataxonomists in remote locations of the world.

329 **5 Focus on AI and Ecology Moving Forward**

330 While we detail methods to improve the implementations of universal computer vision systems
331 for entomology, there still exist a number of research challenges in computer vision that are
332 required to be overcome. One scenario without a current solution is the separation of species
333 that evolved to mimic the phenology of another [84]. Other scenarios that pose problems are
334 taxa with variable appearances when the training data of these variations are underrepresented.
335 Some of these scenarios include: wildly variable colourings across sex, species that undergo
336 large phenotypic transformations over the course of their lifespan, such as *Lepidoptera* from
337 caterpillars to butterflies, or images of taxa that have undergone some form of injury.

338 One area of rapid research is the use of cross-modality data. van Klink et al. [17] recently
339 highlighted how deep learning for ecology has been well represented in four distinct modalities:
340 computer vision, acoustics, radar, and molecular methods. Recent successes in deep learn-
341 ing research have shown training models that utilize a combination of these representations
342 can improve performances over a single modality, especially for fine-grained classification tasks
343 [85, 86, 87]. We believe there are vast numbers of research directions to explore considering mul-
344 timodal ecological data. One area we believe has particular potential is to use DNA similarity
345 as the measure of distance for self-supervised computer vision models [88, 89]. The result would
346 be a model that can predict the genetic distance of two arthropods from their corresponding
347 input images. Alternatively, there is an exciting area of research training generative models to
348 create images of species considering only the DNA sequence as a prior. This problem formula-
349 tion would follow the same text-to-image approach used to train DALL-E 2 [79]. Lastly, there
350 has been success in combining DNA and image representations to predict class labels that exist
351 in one modality that are not present in the other [90]. For example when training a model on
352 complementary DNA and image data, while having robust DNA class labels but having only a
353 subset of the total number of classes as images, models have been shown to predict the class of
354 an image that was only represented as DNA during training [90]. This approach is known as
355 zero-shot learning [91].

356 Lastly, while the approaches discussed here are have been largely focused around entomology,
357 the annotation efficient and multi-modal learning techniques described are all general. These
358 are applicable to nearly all data domains relevant to ecology and beyond. For example, the
359 methods described can be used to inflate under-represented classes when considering camera
360 trap data [47, 53]. Or, the multi-modal combinations of acoustics and vision could help identify
361 species, such as birds with the task of bird classification [92].

362 At a high level, we are at an inflection point where accelerated methodological development
363 is revolutionizing the approaches and discoveries of academic disciplines. Ecology is well-suited
364 to benefit from this boom, as the ecological process of drawing trends from noisy data is a
365 well-suited task for deep learning systems. The current limiting factor is providing the mas-
366 sive amount of labeled data required. To fully utilize deep learning systems, it will require a
367 multi-faceted approach of data sharing, data organization, but also annotation efficient learning
368 approaches. Here, we provided practical guidelines of such efforts to help overcome the limita-
369 tions that face ecologists. The combination of all these approaches will allow ecologists to utilize
370 ecological data to produce more general deep learning systems in pursuit of a general purpose
371 foundation model of taxa classification. The future we are quickly approaching urgently needs
372 the creation of a universal, region agnostic computer vision tool capable of identifying a globally
373 broad range of taxa, including those rare and unexpected.

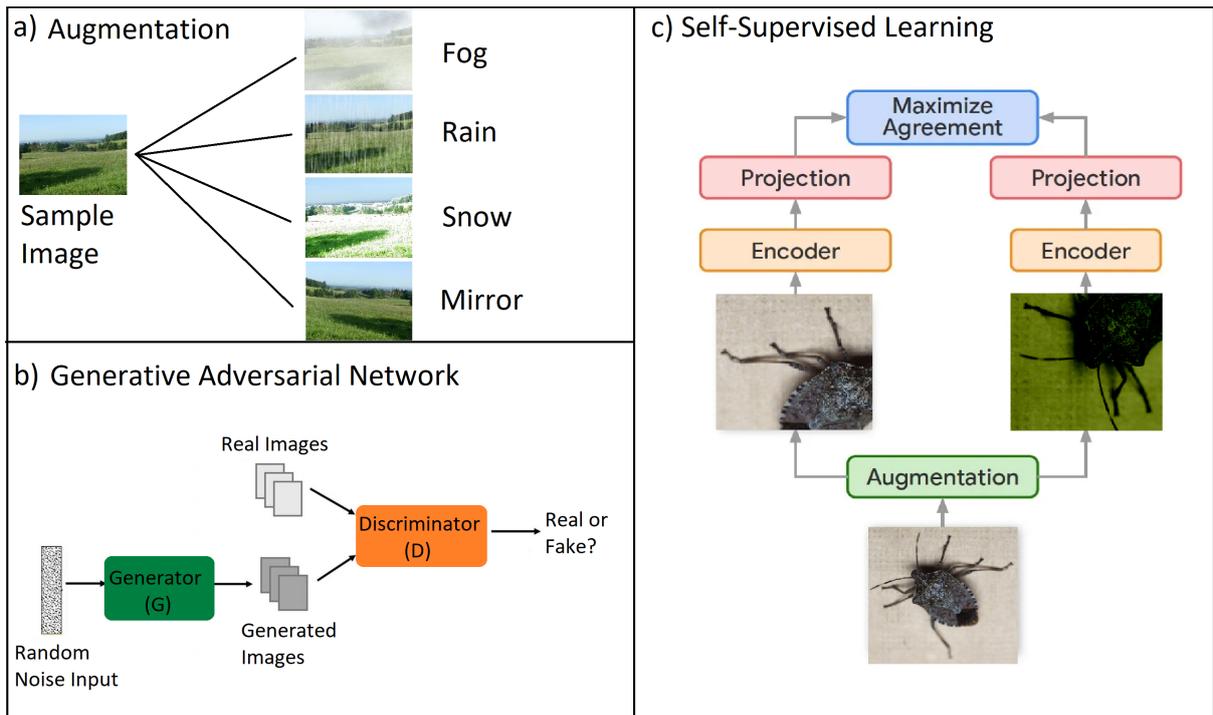


Figure 1: Visual summary of annotation efficient learning methods. a) Example augmentations. Exponentially increases the amount of data by randomly varying an image each time it is sampled. b) Example framework of a generative adversarial network. The trained generator is used to create additional images for training classifiers. c) Example framework for self-supervised learning. Images are sampled and randomly applied augmentation. The system learns similarity by predicting these images are still the same

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