Image Difference Captioning with Pre-training and Contrastive Learning

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Abstract

The Image Difference Captioning (IDC) task aims to describe the visual differences between two similar images with natural language. The major challenges of this task lie in two aspects: 1) fine-grained visual differences that require learning stronger vision and language association and 2) high-cost of manual annotations that leads to limited supervised data. To address these challenges, we propose a new modeling framework following the pre-training-finetuning paradigm. Specifically, we design three self-supervised tasks and contrastive learning strategies to align visual differences and text descriptions at a fine-grained level. Moreover, we propose a data expansion strategy to utilize extra cross-task supervision information, such as data for fine-grained image classification, to alleviate the limitation of available supervised IDC data. Extensive experiments on two IDC benchmark datasets, CLEVR-Change and Birds-to-Words, demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed modeling framework. The codes and models will be released at https://github.com/yaolinli/IDC.

1 Introduction

Endowing machines with the ability to automatically perceive and understand visual information and express in natural language is a goal that researchers have long aspired to achieve. Image captioning (Vinyals et al. 2015; Xu et al. 2015; Rennie et al. 2017), which aims at generating natural language description of a given image, has been one of the classic research tasks. Image Difference Captioning (IDC), which generates natural descriptions of the differences between two similar images, is a further extension of the general image captioning task, and it is more challenging (Jhamtani and Berg-Kirkpatrick 2018; Park, Darrell, and Rohrbach 2019; Tan et al. 2019). IDC has rich potential in real world applications, such as assisting ornithologists to distinguish species with similar appearances, detecting and describing lesions automatically, and reporting salient changes in media assets and surveillance etc.

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Intuitively, image difference captioning involves the steps of first perception, then comparison, and finally description, which is more complex and challenging than the general image captioning task. The key challenges of image difference captioning task relate to two aspects. First, the IDC task requires fine-grained semantic comprehension. Different from general image captioning that describes a single image, IDC needs to perceive the fine-grained contents of two similar images to identify the usually subtle differences. As shown in Figure 1(b), the focused differences lie in the tiny body parts of bird species (i.e. “feather” and “abdomen”). Moreover, the fine-grained visual differences can be very diverse in different scenarios. In case (a), we focus on the change of geometry objects in the scene, while in case (b), we only attend to the appearance of bird species regardless of the complex natural environment. Second, the annotation for the IDC task is particularly high-cost. Compared with general image caption annotation, it requires higher cognition load from annotators, including first observing two images, then comparing the differences, and then using natural language to annotate these differences in order to produce the annotation in a triplet format (img1, img2, description). Therefore, existing manually annotated benchmark datasets are limited in data size (Jhamtani and Berg-Kirkpatrick 2018; Forbes et al. 2019; Tan et al. 2019).
There have been previous endeavors to address the above-mentioned challenges, which mainly focus on designing various attention mechanisms or improving the image features to better capture the subtle image difference based on the typical encoder-decoder structure (Park, Darrell, and Rohrbach 2019; Tan et al. 2019; Shi et al. 2020). However, these works have not paid sufficient attention on fully interacting cross-modal fine-grained representations. Inspired by the recent vision-language pre-training works (Li et al. 2020; Chen et al. 2020; Li et al. 2020d), in this paper, we propose a new training schema for image difference captioning, which uses self-supervised learning to learn stronger associations between visual differences and language.

Our proposed training schema follows the pre-training and fine-tuning paradigm to align the visual differences with textual semantics at a fine-grained level. In the pre-training stage, we design three self-supervised tasks including Masked Language Modeling (MLM), Masked Visual Contrastive Learning (MVCL) and Fine-grained Difference Aligning (FDA). In MLM and MVCL tasks, we mask some parts of one modality and recover it by the other, thereby promoting the semantic interaction between visual differences and language. We replace the common feature regression objective (Qi et al. 2020) on the visual side with a Noise Contrastive Estimation (NCE) loss. In the FDA task, we introduce contrastive learning strategies and construct negative contrasts to further enhance the fine-grained cross-modal association. Specifically, we carefully design three hard negatives construction strategies, namely Retrieve, Replace, and Confuse. Considering the high annotation cost, we leverage extra cross-task data in our framework.

Multi-modal association. Specifically, we carefully design three hard negatives construction strategies, namely Retrieve, Replace, and Confuse. Considering the high annotation cost, we leverage extra cross-task data in our framework.

2 Method

In this section, we introduce our proposed pre-training and fine-tuning paradigm for the image difference captioning task. The overall modeling framework is illustrated in Figure 2. It consists of an image difference encoder to capture subtle visual differences and a multi-layer cross-modal transformer to align cross-modal representations. Three pre-training tasks including Masked Language Modeling (MLM), Masked Visual Contrastive Learning (MVCL) and Fine-grained Difference Aligning (FDA) are designed to take most advantage of the given data. To handle the problem of limited supervised IDC data, we expand cross-task data in our flexible framework.

2.1 Model Architecture

Input Representation We define the input of the IDC task, which contains a pair of images and a text description, as \( \{V^{(1)}, V^{(2)}, T\} \). For the text description, we tokenize each word in the sentence and convert it to word embedding trained from scratch, denoted as:

\[
T = \{[CLS], [BOS], w_0, \ldots, w_M, [EOS]\} \tag{1}
\]

where the special token [CLS] is added to capture the global semantics of the sentence. Following previous works (Park, Darrell, and Rohrbach 2019; Tan et al. 2019; Forbes et al. 2019), we use pre-trained ResNet101 (He et al. 2016) to extract grid features for the two images, denoted as:

\[
V^{(1)} = \{[IMG1], v_0^{(1)}, \ldots, v_1^{(1)}, \ldots, v_N^{(1)}\} \tag{2}
\]

\[
V^{(2)} = \{[IMG2], v_0^{(2)}, \ldots, v_1^{(2)}, \ldots, v_N^{(2)}\} \tag{3}
\]

Similar to text representations, we also add two special tokens [IMG1] and [IMG2] to extract global image semantics respectively. A linear layer is applied to keep the visual feature dimension the same as the word embedding.

To explicitly indicate the positions of tokens inside each modality, we add fixed positional embeddings (Vaswani et al. 2017) to each token as well. In addition, we employ type embeddings to distinguish whether a token belongs to \( V^{(1)}, V^{(2)}, \) or \( T \).

Image Difference Encoder Based on the intuitive cognition process of image difference captioning, observing two images and then comparing them, we design an image difference encoder, which consists of a single-image encoder and a pair-image encoder. The single-image encoder \( F_{\text{sing}} \) takes visual tokens from an image as input to embed the semantics of different regions in the image. Then embeddings of the two images are fed into the pair-image encoder \( F_{\text{pair}} \), which can interact the visual semantics between two images and implicitly learn to locate image differences. We use the transformer architecture for both \( F_{\text{sing}} \) and \( F_{\text{pair}} \).

\[
\hat{V}^{(1)}, \hat{V}^{(2)} = F_{\text{pair}} \left( F_{\text{sing}} (V^{(1)}), F_{\text{sing}} (V^{(2)}) \right) \tag{4}
\]

Cross-modal Transformer We utilize self-attention based multi-layer transformer for the cross-modal encoder to align context between visual and textual modalities.

\[
\hat{V}^{(1)}, \hat{V}^{(2)}, \hat{T} = F_{\text{cross}} \left( \hat{V}^{(1)}, \hat{V}^{(2)}, T \right) \tag{5}
\]
2.2 Pre-training Tasks

We design three pre-training tasks to enhance the fine-grained alignment between image differences and captions so that to learn better feature representations.

**Masked Language Modeling (MLM)** For textual side, we apply Masked Language Modeling to promote the context mapping from vision to language, following existing VLP works (Chen et al. 2020; Huang et al. 2021b). The objective of the MLM task is to predict the masked word $w_m$ based on the surrounding unmasked words $w_{\neg m}$ and visual difference context $\{\tilde{V}^{(1)}, \tilde{V}^{(2)}\}$. Similar to BERT, we mask 15% of the input word tokens in which 80% are replaced with a special token [MASK], 10% with random words and 10% unchanged. The masked hidden output of cross-modal transformer are fed into a classifier to predict the original words. We formulate the training objective of MLM task as:

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\text{MLM}} = E_{V,T \in D} \left[- \log P_{\theta} \left(w_m \mid w_{\neg m}, \tilde{V}^{(1)}, \tilde{V}^{(2)}\right)\right]
$$

where $D$ denotes the entire training set and $\theta$ is the model parameters to be learned.

**Masked Visual Contrastive Learning (MVCL)** Similar to the MLM task, we also apply masking and recovering strategy on the visual side. Since visual representation is continuous and high-dimensional, the goal of the MVCL task is to reconstruct the masked image features according to the difference caption and the remaining visual semantics. Specifically, we mask 15% input image features and replace the masked features with zero vectors. Note that we only mask features from one image each time to ensure the masked content can be recovered by the other two in triplet $\{V^{(1)}, V^{(2)}, T\}$. The general objective of MVCL task is:

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\text{MVCL}} = E_{V,T \in D} f_{\theta} \left(v_m \mid v_{\neg m}, T\right)
$$

where $V = \{V^{(1)}, V^{(2)}\}$. Inspired by the video language pre-training work (Luo et al. 2020; Li et al. 2020b), we introduce contrastive learning and use a NCE loss (Sun et al. 2019) to define $f_{\theta} \left(v_m \mid v_{\neg m}, T\right)$ as:

$$
- \log \frac{\exp \left(d(v_m, v_m^+) / \tau_1\right)}{\exp \left(d(v_m, v_{\neg m}) / \tau_1\right) + \sum_{v' \in \mathcal{N}(v_m)} \exp \left(d(v_m, v') / \tau_1\right)}
$$

where $d(\cdot)$ denotes the cosine similarity, $\tau_1$ is the temperature hyper-parameter and $v_m^+$ denotes the original image feature of $v_m$ before masking. We define the unmasked image features in the batch as negative samples $\mathcal{N}(v_m)$. The contrastive loss pushes the model to identify the positive sample $v_m^+$ of $v_m$ from negative samples $\mathcal{N}(v_m)$ in the batch, which enforces the reconstructed image representations of $v_m$ to be more discriminative.

**Fine-grained Difference Aligning (FDA)** To explicitly bridge visual and textual modalities in a more fine-grained way, we introduce contrastive learning and construct hard negative samples. To be specific, we rewrite the original difference caption in three ways, as illustrated in Figure 3:

- **Retrieve** For each triplet sample $\{V^{(1)}, V^{(2)}, T\}$, we use TF-IDF similarity to retrieve the most similar difference descriptions $\{\tilde{T}_{\neg}^{\neg}\}$ from other samples for $T$ and consider them as hard negative samples.
- **Replace** We replace the most important difference-related words in the caption to facilitate fine-grained
alignment. Empirically, we observe that the attribute words in the caption are more related to the difference (e.g. “grey”, “beak”). Therefore, we first annotate adjectives and nouns in each sentence using Stanford CoreNLP tool. Then we sort the annotated words by TF-IDF score to measure their importance. Top K (50%) annotated words are selected and replaced by other words with the same POS-Tags that are randomly sampled from pre-defined vocabularies.

- **Confuse** If we change the subject in the difference description, the semantics of the sentence will totally change while the structure remains similar. For example, changing "animal1 has a longer tail than animal2" to "animal1 has a longer tail than animal1". We achieve this by changing the subjects between sentences or switching the subject and object within a sentence.

Based on the positive sample \((V, T^+)\) and constructed negative samples \((V, T^-)\), we employ a contrastive loss to define the training objective \(L_{\text{FDA}} \equiv \mathbb{E}_{V,T \in D} [− \log \text{NCE}(V, T)]\), in which \(\text{NCE}(V, T)\) is:

\[
\exp \left( \frac{d(V, T^+)}{\tau_2} \right) \exp \left( \frac{d(V, T^-)}{\tau_2} \right) + \sum_{T \in \mathcal{N}_T} \exp \left( \frac{d(V, T^-)}{\tau_2} \right)
\]

where \(d(.)\) denotes the cosine similarity, \(\tau_2\) is a hyperparameter and \(\mathcal{N}_T\) is the negative text set. We take the average of special token [IMG1] and [IMG2] from the output as the global visual representation, and the special token [CLS] from the output as the textual representation.

In the pre-training stage, we use bi-directional attention mask, thus the special tokens [IMG1], [IMG2], [CLS] can learn global joint representations from images and text. We train different pre-training tasks by alternating batch with different ratio.

### 2.3 Finetuning and Inference

After pre-training, we fine-tune our model to generate difference captions based on effective visual semantics across two similar images. Similar to [Li et al. 2020d], we adapt the MLM task in the fine-tuning stage. Different from the pre-training stage, we employ a uni-directional attention mask to restrict the attention on the text side, which means that each word can only attend to its previous words. While the attention on the visual side does not change and each word can attend to all visual tokens. In this way, we can keep fine-tuning and pre-training as consistent as possible while adapting the model to sentence generation as much as possible.

During the inference stage, the model generates the difference caption word by word based on visual difference semantics. The embeddings of all visual features \(\{V^{(1)}, V^{(2)}\}\) and the special token [CLS] are used as input. The start token [BOS] with a [MASK] token are then fed to the model to trigger the sentence generation. The model samples a word \(w_t\) from the vocabulary based on the likelihood output of the [MASK] token. At step \(t\), the [BOS] token, previous generated words \(w_{<t}\) and a new [MASK] token are fed to the model to generate next word \(w_t\). The model can thus generate the whole sentence until [EOS] is sampled.

### 2.4 Expansion of Cross-task Data

To alleviate the limitation of available IDC triplet data, we propose a data expansion strategy to utilize extra cross-task data. Specifically, we expand data from general image captioning and fine-grained visual classification tasks.

**General image captioning (GIC)** task aims to describe a single image with sentences. The GIC data is in the (image, text) format, which can facilitate the model to learn preliminary cross-modal alignment. In order to adapt to the triplet data format of the IDC task, we pad an empty image with zero vectors to form the pseudo triplet. In cross-modal transformer, the padded vectors will not be involved in self-attention calculation by a special attention mask. The pseudo triplet input can naturally adapt to three pre-training tasks. Note that in the MVCL task, we only mask tokens from the real image.

**Fine-grained visual classification (FGVC)** is a challenging task to classify images with subtle inter-class differences. The slightly different images with different class labels can enhance our image difference encoder to learn more discriminative visual representations. Specifically, we construct image pairs \((\text{img}1, \text{img}2)\) by random sampling, half of which are from the same class label, and the other half are not. Each single image (i.e. \(\text{img}1\) or \(\text{img}2\)) in the obtained pairs is used to refine the single-image encoder \(F_{\text{img}}\) with a fine-grained classification objective and a contrastive loss (He et al. 2021). Then the dual visual representations are fed to the pair-image encoder \(F_{\text{pair}}\) to optimize it with a matching loss which verifies whether the two images \((\text{img}1, \text{img}2)\) are from the same class. The matching loss enhances the ability of the difference encoder to compare two similar images. Note that we select cross-task datasets with similar semantic domain as the IDC benchmark dataset, so they can provide more similar background knowledge for multi-modal representation learning and cross-modal alignment.

### 3 Experiments

We evaluate our model on two IDC benchmark datasets from different domains including CLEVR-Change (Park, Darrell, and Rohrbach 2019) and Birds-to-words (Tan et al. 2019).
3.1 Experimental Settings

Benchmark Datasets CLEVR-Change dataset (Park, Darrell, and Rohrbach 2019) is automatically built via the CLEVR engine and describes scenes of geometry objects with clean background. It has 67,660, 3,976 and 7,970 image pairs for training, validation and test split respectively. Each image pair is annotated with 6.2 captions on average. Birds-to-Words dataset (Tan et al. 2019) describes the fine-grained difference of various bird species collected in the wild. It has 4,860 image pairs and each pair corresponds to 3.31 annotated captions on average.

Cross-task Datasets CUB (Wah et al. 2011) serves as a single image captioning dataset. It contains 11,788 images of 200 bird species and each image is annotated with 10 captions. We use the split of 8855 training images and 2933 validation images following (Yan et al. 2021). NABirds (Van Horn et al. 2015) is a fine-grained visual classification dataset which contains 48,562 images of North American birds with 555 categories.

Metrics We report results on the standard image captioning metrics including BLEU (Papineni et al. 2002), METEOR (Denkowski and Lavie 2014), ROUGE-L (Lin 2004) and CIDEr(CIDEr-D) (Vedantam, Lawrence Zitnick, and Parikh 2015) following previous works. In addition, we particularly emphasize the main metric that has been commonly recognized in previous works, which refers to: CIDEr for CLEVR-Change and ROUGE-L for Birds-to-Words. Table 1 shows that our proposed model achieves the new state-of-the-art performance on METEOR, ROUGE-L and CIDEr. The main metric CIDEr on this dataset is highlighted.

Implementation Details We extract grid image features in the shape of (7,7,2048) using the pre-trained ResNet101 (He et al. 2016) and flatten it to a feature sequence in the shape of (49, 2048). The word embedding is learned from scratch with the shape of (7,7,2048) using the pre-trained ResNet101 (He et al. 2016). For the cross-modal transformer, the hidden size is 512, the attention head is 8, and the layer number is 2 for Birds-to-Words and 3 for CLEVR-Change. We set $\tau_1$, $\tau_2$ in contrastive learning to 1. In FDA task, we rewrite 6 negative sentences for each image pair, among which retrieve:replace:confuse=2:2:2. For CLEVR-Change, we sample the batch from the three pre-training tasks with ratio of MLM:MLM:VCL:FDA=8:1:2. We pre-train the model with 8K warm-up steps and 250K iterations in total. For Birds-to-words, the ratio of pre-training tasks is MLM:MVCL:FDA=9:1:2. The warm-up steps are 4K and total training steps are 50K. In the pre-training stage, we apply Adam (Kingma and Ba 2014) optimizer with learning rate 1e-4. In the finetuning stage, the learning rate is set as 3e-5. Early-stop is applied on the main metric to avoid overfitting. The sentence is generated with greedy search in inference. More details can be found in the supplementary material.

For CLEVR-Change, we notice that half of the data samples belong to a distractor type, which means that there are only non-semantic differences between the images, e.g. angle, zoom, or illumination changes. Accurately distinguishing semantic changes from distractors has great impact on model performance. We therefore jointly train a distractor judging task in the finetuning stage. Specifically, we concatenate the representation of special token [IMG1] and [IMG2] and feed it to a binary classifier to judge whether the visual change is a distractor or not.

3.2 Comparison with the state-of-the-arts

Results on Birds-to-Words We evaluate our method on Birds-to-Words compared with other state-of-the-art models, including Neural Naturalist (Forbes et al. 2019), Relational Speaker (Tan et al. 2019), DUDA (Park, Darrell, and Rohrbach 2019), VAM/VAM+ (Shi et al. 2020), IFDC (Huang et al. 2021a) and DUDA+Aux (Hosseinzadeh and Wang 2021). As shown in Table 1, our model without extra cross-task data has achieved significant improvement on the main metric ROUGE-L (from 45.6 to 48.4), even outperforming L2C with extra CUB data. The extra cross-task data further improves the model performance on all metrics, which demonstrates that more data from similar domain can provide beneficial background knowledge. Our model with extra data achieves the new state-of-the-art performance on METEOR, CIDEr-D and ROUGE-L.

Results on CLEVR-Change We compare the proposed model with other state-of-the-art models with typical encoder-decoder structure, including Capt-Dual-Att (Park, Darrell, and Rohrbach 2019), DUDA (Park, Darrell, and Rohrbach 2019), VAM/VAM+ (Shi et al. 2020), IFDC (Huang et al. 2021a) and DUDA+Aux (Hosseinzadeh and Wang 2021). Table 2 shows that our proposed model significantly outperforms all previous models on the main
Table 3: Breakdown CIDEr performance on different type of changes of CLEVR-Change Dataset: C(Color), T(Texture), M(Move), A(Add), D(Drop) and Di(Distractor).

| Model   | C   | T   | M   | A   | D   | Di   |
|---------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|
| DUDA    | 120.4 | 86.7 | 56.4 | 108.2 | 103.4 | 110.8 |
| VAM+    | 122.1 | 98.7 | 82.0 | 126.3 | 115.8 | 122.6 |
| MDC     | 133.2 | 99.1 | 82.1 | 128.2 | 118.5 | 114.2 |
| Ours    | 131.2 | 101.1 | 81.7 | 133.3 | 116.5 | 145.0 |

Table 4: Ablation study results on CLEVR-Change dataset. DE is short for Image Difference Encoder module in our model. B4, M, R, and C are short for BLEU-4, METEOR, ROUGE-L, and CIDEr. The main metric CIDEr on this dataset is highlighted.

| Pre-training Tasks | DE | B4  | M   | R   | C   |
|--------------------|----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 1 None             | ✓  | 32.7 | 27.7 | 57.2 | 89.8 |
| 2 MLM              | ✓  | 36.7 | 28.2 | 60.9 | 94.9 |
| 3 MLM + MVCL       | ✓  | 50.3 | 37.6 | 70.6 | 119.7|
| 4 MLM + MVCL + FDA | ✓  | 51.2 | 36.2 | 71.7 | 128.9|
| 5 MLM + MVCL + FDA | ✓  | 49.2 | 35.8 | 68.8 | 107.9|
| 6 w/o Distractor Judging | ✓  | 49.8 | 36.9 | 69.2 | 123.5|

metric CIDEr, boosting previous best CIDEr score of 118.7 to 128.9. Compared with models employing well-designed attention mechanism or visual encoder, our architecture is more straightforward and flexible which achieves improved performance via effective self-supervised tasks. We also evaluate results on breakdown change types as shown in Table 3. Our model achieves better CIDEr scores on three types including Texture, Add and Distractor due to the fine-grained alignment across modalities in pre-training.

Since CLEVR-Change and Birds-to-Words are from entirely different domains, the experiment results indicate that our model can robustly capture diverse visual differences.

3.3 Results and Analysis

Pre-training for IDC We first validate the effectiveness of three self-supervised tasks on CLEVR-Change dataset in Table 4. Line 1 shows the result from the baseline without pre-training, which can be considered as performing the finetuning stage only. The CIDEr score is obviously low in this case without any further interaction across modalities. When more self-supervised tasks are added in the pre-training stage (Line 2~4), the model performance increases accordingly, which proves the effectiveness of our pretraining-finetuning paradigm. It is worth noting that adding MVCL task brings large performance improvement (CIDEr from 94.9 to 119.7), which benefits from the mask-recover schema on the visual side. The FDA task further improves the CIDEr score from 119.7 to 128.9, which indicates that contrastive learning with well-designed hard negatives helps fine-grained cross-modal alignment. Furthermore, we analyze the impact of the image difference encoder module in Line 5, where the results show that the performance drops significantly without the image difference encoder. It indicates that the image difference encoder can effectively learn to capture subtle visual differences. Compared to Line 4, Line 6 is the result without distractor judging task in the finetuning stage, which proves that this task can help model distinguish semantic changes from distractors and improve the model performance.

Cross-task Data Usage We evaluate the effectiveness of cross-task data usage on Birds-to-Words in Table 5. CUB is a general image captioning (GIC) dataset that describes bird species, and NABirds is a fine-grained bird image classification dataset. The experiment results show that leveraging CUB can bring more performance improvement because it promotes learning the alignment between images and text descriptions, while NABirds only enhances the visual side. A combination of both cross-task datasets provides more background knowledge and thus achieves the best result.

Qualitative Results We visualize some cases in Figure 4. The top two cases are from CLEVR-Change. (a) The attention maps show that our proposed model can correctly identify the distractor scenario. The bottom cases (c) are from Birds-to-Words, which demonstrate that our model can capture the fine-grained bird appearance difference regardless of the complex background. We also observe that the proposed model tends to repeat the same differences or ignore the conflicts in the generated sentences, which could be further addressed in our future work. More visualizations and analysis are available in the supplementary material.

4 Related Works

Image Difference Captioning More challenging than general image captioning {Vinyals et al. 2015, Xu et al. 2015, Jiang et al. 2018, Gu et al. 2018, Zhao, Wu, and Zhang 2020, Fei 2021}, the image difference captioning task promotes the research of vision and language to achieve a more fine-grained understanding. Recently, several benchmark datasets of IDC have emerged (Jhamtani and Berg-Kirkpatrick 2018, Park, Darrell, and Rohrbach 2019, Tan et al. 2020).
Figure 4: Visualization of generated cases (best viewed in color). The first block illustrates two cases from CLEVR-Change. Case (a) involves semantic changes while case (b) is a distractor with only viewpoint shift. For each case, the first row is the original image pair and the second row is the corresponding attention maps. When the attention score is higher, the region is brighter. Case (c) is from Birds-to-Words and it involves fine-grained bird appearance difference with complex background. Orange bold words are correct generated difference-related words while blue words are wrong.

et al. 2019; Forbes et al. 2019), which are collected from different domains with different focus. However, most of the datasets are limited in scale due to the high annotation cost. Prior works mainly focus on employing well-designed attention mechanisms (Park, Darrell, and Rohrbach 2019; Tan et al. 2019; Shi et al. 2020) or improving visual features (Yan et al. 2021; Huang et al. 2021a) to better capture the subtle visual difference. Besides, (Hosseinzadeh and Wang 2021) use the composed query image retrieval as an auxiliary task to enhance the training process, which can be seen as a self-supervised method. (Yan et al. 2021) employ extra general image captioning data to improve semantic understanding. However, none of these works attend to fully explore the interaction across modalities and take most advantage of the given data. Instead, we propose a new pre-training and fine-tuning schema to align visual and textual representations at a fine-grained level.

Vision-Language Pre-training Recently, Vision and Language Pre-training (VLP) methods (Lu et al. 2019; Chen et al. 2020; Li et al. 2020a,d; Zhou et al. 2020; Kim, Son, and Kim 2021; Huang et al. 2021b; Hu et al. 2021) have shown their success on multi-modal tasks by learning cross-modal representations. However, these pre-trained models are not applicable to the IDC task as they lack the ability of comparing, and the learned representations are too coarse. We follow these works to tailor self-supervised tasks for IDC to enhance the cross-modal alignment and make best use of the given data. Moreover, several VLP related works (Radford et al. 2021; Li et al. 2020c; Huo et al. 2021; Lee et al. 2021) introduce contrastive learning to unify different modal representations. The major idea is to pull closer the distances between positive image-text pairs and push away negative pairs. Motivated by these works, we introduce Contrastive Learning to our pre-training tasks and construct negative samples in different granularity, which enhances more fine-grained cross-modal alignment.

5 Conclusions

In this paper, we propose a new pretraining-finetuning paradigm for image difference captioning (IDC), which can align visual differences and textual semantics at a fine-grained level. We specifically design three self-supervised tasks with contrastive learning strategies to learn stronger association across modalities. Experiments on CLEVR-Change and Birds-to-Words demonstrate the effectiveness of our proposed pre-training tasks. To address the limitation of supervised IDC data, we explore to utilize two cross-task datasets on Birds-to-Words and prove that they can provide more background knowledge. Our proposed model architecture is flexible to accommodate more data of different forms. In the future work, we will further explore automatic construction of large-scale feasible data to enhance the pretraining stage and improve model generalization ability.
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A Appendix

A.1 More Implementation Details

Table 6 presents the detailed hyper-parameter setups during pre-training and fine-tuning. We train the model on GPU 1080ti. We fix all the random seed in experiments to 1234.

| Hyper-parameters | CLEVR-Change | Birds-to-Words |
|-------------------|--------------|----------------|
| Max sent len      | 40           | 80             |
| Layer num         | 3            | 2              |
| SE block          | 1            | 1              |
| PE block          | 1            | 1              |
| Hidden size       | 512          | 512            |
| FFN hidden size   | 2048         | 2048           |
| Attention heads   | 8            | 8              |
| Warmup Steps      | 8K           | 4K             |
| Training steps    | 250K         | 50K            |
| Learning rate     | 1e-4         | 1e-4           |
| Weight decay      | 0.0          | 0.0            |
| Dropout           | 0.2          | 0.2            |
| Batch size        | 200          | 200            |
| Training time     | 66h          | 20h            |

| Learning rate     | 3e-5         | 3e-5           |
| Dropout           | 0.2          | 0.2            |
| Batch size        | 200          | 32             |
| Weight decay      | 0.0          | 1e-4           |
| Main metric       | CIDEr        | ROUGE-L        |

Table 6: Hyper-parameters used in pre-training and finetuning stages. The parameters for pre-training and for finetuning are shown in the first and second blocks respectively. SE block denotes the number of transformer layers in the single-image encoder and PE block refers to the number of transformer layers in the pair-image encoder.

A.2 Negative Samples Constructed in FDA

We construct three types of negative samples in FDA task including Retrieve, Replace, and Confuse. The automatically constructed negative samples on CLEVR-Change is shown in Figure 5. In the Replace strategy, we select top 50% most important nouns and adjectives in the sentence and replace them with other words having the same POS-Tags from pre-defined vocabularies. The statistics of average replaced words and the average sentence length are represented in Table 7. We pre-define POS-Tags vocabularies following the steps: 1) annotate all nouns and objectives in the sentence and replace them with other words having the same POS-Tags from pre-defined vocabularies. We pre-define POS-Tags vocabularies following the steps: 1) annotate all nouns and objectives in the sentence and replace them with other words having the same POS-Tags from pre-defined vocabularies. 2) select the top 50% most important annotated words in each sentence to obtain vocabularies of different POS-Tags; 3) filter the words whose document frequency is less than 10. The pre-define vocabularies of Birds-to-Words is shown in Table 8. We construct 6 negative sentences for each image pair in the triplet, that is positive:negative=1:6.

A.3 Details of Cross-task Data Usage

Considering that the number of training samples in the Birds-to-Words dataset is limited but the semantics are quite diverse, we apply additional cross-task datasets to alleviate the problem of limited data. To be specific, we utilize a general image captioning dataset CUB and a fine-grained visual classification dataset NABirds. How they are used or the data flow of these two datasets in our architecture is illustrated in Figure 6. The FGVC data (NABirds) is used to enhance the image difference encoder. Specifically, we construct 48,562 image pairs. The single-image encoder is refined by a fine-grained classification loss $L_{cls}$ and a contrastive loss $L_{con}$, which pulls the image representations of the same label in a batch closer and pushes image representations of different labels farther apart. The pair-image encoder is refined by a matching loss $L_{mtc}$. Meanwhile, the GIC data (CUB) can provide image-text pairs and promote alignment between image and text representations. We draw dashed lines to represent the second pseudo image (the empty image) of the image-pair in GIC. The pseudo triplets from GIC can be

![Figure 5: An example of constructed negative sentences for the FDA task on CLEVR-Change Dataset.](image)

| Dataset       | #avg words | #avg len | %  |
|---------------|------------|----------|----|
| CLEVR-Change  | 2.5        | 10.8     | 23.4|
| Birds-to-Words| 5.8        | 32.4     | 18.0|

Table 7: Statistics of Replace strategy in FDA on two benchmark datasets. #avg words refers to the average number of replaced words in a sentence, #avg len refers to the average sentence length, % refers to the average percentage of words replaced in a sentence.

| POS-Tags | Size | Words          |
|----------|------|----------------|
| JJ       | 187  | “white”,“long”’,“light”… |
| JJR      | 49   | “bigger”,“thinner”,’“darker”… |
| NN       | 158  | “beak”,“breast”,“stripe”… |
| NNS      | 73   | “legs”,“wings”,“feathers”… |

Table 8: Pre-defined vocabularies of Birds-to-Words dataset.
applied to the three pre-training tasks. In the MVCL task, we only mask the real image. In the FDA task, since there is no difference description in the general image caption dataset, we do not apply *Confuse* in negative samples construction. We construct negative samples via *Retrieve* and *Replace* only based on the GIC data.

We use the two datasets in two stages of pre-training. The CUB dataset is used in the first stage to initialize the model parameters and learn primary alignment between image and text. The NABirds dataset is used together with Birds-to-Words in the second stage. The batch ratio of NABirds and Birds-to-Words is 1:4.

**A.4 Visualization and Analysis**

**Cross-Modal Alignment** To demonstrate that our proposed model can align the visual difference with the textual descriptions at a fine-grained level, we visualize the text-to-image attention maps of the cross-modal transformer in Figure 7. An unseen triplet sample from the test set is input to the pre-trained model to show the cross-modal alignment.

**Case Study** We present more generated difference descriptions in Figure 8 and Figure 9. To be specific, Figure 8 illustrates four different types of changes in CLEVR-Change: (a) Move an object, (b) Add an object, (c) Drop an object, (d) Change an object’s texture. The first three cases show that our model can handle the different type of fine-grained changes and locate the change region accurately. We particularly present a case (d) with wrong difference description. The model fails to locate the fine-grained texture change of a tiny object, because the changes are somewhat complicated, including view shift and object occlusion in addition to the texture change.

Figure 9 shows three difference description cases on the Birds-to-Words dataset. The first two cases indicate that our model can handle various fine-grained bird appearance in the complex environment. Compared with human annotations, the proposed model may miss some details of bird species, as shown in case (c). It is more challenging to spot and describe the visual differences in this dataset, since the bird species have diverse attributes and the language of the annotated descriptions is richer.
Figure 7: Visualizations of cross-modal alignment on CLEVR-Change dataset.

Figure 8: Visualizations of four generated cases on CLEVR-Change dataset of different change types, including: (a) Move an object, (b) Add an object, (c) Drop an object, (d) Change an object’s texture. Our model can accurately capture different types of fine-grained changes and locate the change regions as shown in cases (a)-(c). However, as shown in case (d), it fails to locate the fine-grained texture change of a tiny object as the changes between the two images are somewhat complicated, including view shift and object occlusion in addition to the texture change.
Figure 9: Visualizations of several generated cases on Birds-to-Words dataset. The orange bold words are correct difference-related words.