Abstract

While image captioning has progressed rapidly, existing works focus mainly on describing single images. In this paper, we introduce a new task, context-aware group captioning, which aims to describe a group of target images in the context of another group of related reference images. Context-aware group captioning requires not only summarizing information from both the target and reference image group but also contrasting between them. To solve this problem, we propose a framework combining self-attention mechanism with contrastive feature construction to effectively summarize common information from each image group while capturing discriminative information between them. To build the dataset for this task, we propose to group the images and generate the group captions based on single image captions using scene graphs matching. Our datasets are constructed on top of the public Conceptual Captions dataset and our new Stock Captions dataset. Experiments on the two datasets show the effectiveness of our method on this new task.

1. Introduction

Generating natural language descriptions from images, the task commonly known as image captioning, has long been an important problem in computer vision research [3, 16, 32]. It requires a high level of understanding from both language and vision. Image captioning has attracted a lot of research attention in recent years thanks to the advances in joint language-vision understanding models [1, 21, 42, 58]. While image captioning has progressed rapidly, existing works mostly focus on describing individual images. There are practical scenarios in which captioning images in group is desirable. Examples include summarizing personal photo albums for social sharing or understanding web user intention from their viewed or clicked images. Moreover, it is often the case that the target image group to be captioned naturally belongs to a larger set that provides the context. For instance, in text-based image retrieval applications, given a group of user-interested images and other images returned by the search engine, we could predict the user hidden preferences by contrasting the two groups and suggest a new search query accordingly. Figure 1 shows an example of such scenario. Among all the images returned by search query woman, the user can indicate his/her interest in some of the images (in orange boxes). The objective is to recognize that the user wants woman with cowboy hat and suggest the query accordingly.

Inspired by these real-world applications, we propose the novel problem of context-aware group captioning: given a group of target images and a group of reference images, our goal is to generate a language description that best describes the target group in the context of the reference group. Compared to the conventional setting of single-image based captioning, our new problem poses two fundamental requirements. First, the captioning model needs to effectively summarize the common properties of the image groups. Second, the model needs to accurately describe the distinguish-
ing content in the target images compared to the reference images.

To address those requirements, we develop a learning-based framework for context-aware image group captioning based on self-attention and contrastive feature construction. To obtain the feature that effectively summarizes the visual information from the image group, we develop a group-wise feature aggregation module based on self-attention. To effectively leverage the contrastive information between the target image group and the reference images, we model the context information as the aggregated feature from the whole set and subtract it from each image group feature to explicitly encourage the resulting feature to capture the differentiating properties between the target image group and the reference image group.

Training our models requires a large number of image groups with text descriptions and associated reference image sets. In this paper, we leverage large-scale image caption datasets to construct the training data. In particular, we build our annotations on top of the Conceptual Captions [43], a recently introduced large-scale image captioning dataset. We parse the single-image caption into scene graphs and use the shared scene graphs of image groups to generate the groups’ ground-truth captions. In addition, we apply the same procedure on a large-scale image set collected from a photograph collection. This dataset contains a large number of images with compact and precise human-generated per-image descriptions. That results in our second dataset, Stock Captions, which we plan to contribute to the research community to encourage future research in this new problem.

Our main contributions in this paper are three-fold. First, we introduce the problem of context-aware group captioning. This novel image captioning setting can potentially be important for many real-world applications such as automatic query suggestion in image retrieval. Second, we present a learning-based approach which learns to aggregate image group visual feature for caption generation. Our framework combines the self-attention mechanism with contrastive feature construction to effectively encode the image group into a context-aware feature representation, which effectively summarizes relevant common information in the groups while capturing discriminative information between the target and context group. Third, we introduce two large-scale datasets specifically for the context-aware group captioning problem. Experiments on the two datasets demonstrate that our model consistently outperforms various baselines on the context-based image group captioning task.

2. Related Work

Image captioning has emerged as an important research topic with a rich literature in computer vision [3, 16, 32]. With the advances in deep neural networks, state-of-the-art image captioning approaches [1, 13, 19, 21, 39, 42, 53, 60] are based on the combination of convolutional neural networks [26] and recurrent neural networks [15] (CNN-RNN) architecture, where the visual features are extracted from the input image using CNNs which is then decoded by RNNs to generate the language caption describing the given image. Research in image captioning has progressed rapidly in recent years. Novel network architectures [1, 7, 35, 54], loss functions [8, 31, 33, 36, 42, 44], and advanced joint language-vision modeling techniques [20, 23, 35, 58, 59, 61] have been developed to enable more diverse and discriminative captioning results. Recent works have also proposed to leverage the contextual and contrastive information from additional images to help generating more distinctive caption for the target image [2, 6, 9, 51, 17] or comparative descriptions between image pairs [41, 46, 47, 49]. Existing works, however, mostly focus on generating captions for a single image. Our work, on the other hand, focuses on the novel setting of context-based image group captioning which aims to describe a target image group while leveraging the context of a larger pool of reference images.

Referring expression generation [22, 37, 63] is a related problem to image captioning, which aims to generate natural language descriptions for a target object in an image. Contrastive modeling has been successfully applied in state-of-the-art referring expression generation methods to describe the target image region in contrast with other image regions. Yu et al. [62] use relative location and feature difference to discriminate the target object. Mao et al. [38] maximize the probability of generated expression describing a specific region over other regions by Maximum Mutual Information training. While referring expression generation considers the target region in contrast with each negative region respectively, our problem requires contrastive context modeling among and between image groups.

Attention mechanism has been successful in image captioning [7, 30, 35, 58, 61]. These works focused on applying visual attention to different spatial regions at each text generation time step. More recently, attention in transformer [50] and pretrained BERT [12] has been very successful in natural language processing tasks. [27, 34, 48] adapts the idea of BERT to vision and language tasks and showed improved performance on multiple sub-tasks. [55] bridges attention and non-local operator to capture long-range dependency, which has been used in many computer vision tasks [67, 28, 5, 64]. In our work, we apply attention over a group of images and show its effectiveness for summarizing information in an image group.

Our setting is inspired by query suggestion [10, 18, 45, 57] in the context of document retrieval systems. Query suggestion aims to predict the expanded query given the previous query used by the users while taking into account
additional context such as search history [10, 18, 45] or user interaction (e.g. clicked and skipped documents) [57]. We are inspired by this task formulation and extend it to vision domain. Earlier works on query suggestion in image search focus on forming visual descriptors to help obtain better search results [65, 66] while the suggested text query is obtained solely from the current user query without taking visual content understanding into account. Our work, on the other hand, can potentially be applied to enable query suggestion from images. In this work, we focus on the image captioning aspect without relying on modeling user information and behavior as in existing query suggestion works, thus making it applicable beyond retrieval tasks.

3. Dataset

To train our models, we need a large-scale dataset where each data sample contains a group of target images with an associated ground-truth description and a larger group of reference images. The reference images need to be relevant to target images while containing a larger variety of visual contents and thus provides context for describing target images. The description should be both specific to the target group and conditioned on the reference group.

In this section, we first describe the intuition and method for dataset creation, then provide details of our proposed datasets built on the Conceptual Captions dataset and our proposed Stock Captions dataset.

3.1. Data Construction Method

We build our dataset on top of large-scale per-image captioning datasets by leveraging the shared scene graphs among images, motivated by [6]. The overall data generation process is shown in Figure 2.

Images with shared scene graphs compose an image group. More specifically, images with the same (attribute)-object-relationship-(attribute)-object are chosen to compose the target image group, while images with partially overlapping scene graphs with the target group are chosen as the reference image group. For example, as in Figure 2, images with the scene graph woman in chair are selected to form the target group, while images containing woman are selected to form the reference group paired with the target group. In this way, the reference group contains a larger variety of contents (woman in any places or poses) while the target group is more specific in terms of certain attributes (in chair).

In order to get the scene graphs for each image to support our grouping process, we use a pretrained language parser (improved upon [56]) to parse each ground-truth per-image caption into a scene graph. We choose to parse the scene graph from image captions instead of using the annotated scene graph in Visual Genome dataset [25] because our scene graph needs to focus on the most “salient” content in the image. Since Visual Genome is densely annotated without the information of which object is the main content of the image, scene graphs of small trivial objects may dominate the grouping process while the main content is ignored. This will produce very noisy data, potentially unsuitable for training our models. On the other hand, while parsing errors may introduce noise, scene graphs parsed out of image captions focus on the main objects because the caption usually describes the most important contents in an image.

After getting the target and reference groups using scene graph matching, the shared scene graph among target images is flattened into text to serve as the ground truth group description. For example, in Figure 2, the ground-truth group caption is woman in chair. Other examples of ground-truth group captions include: colorful bag on white background, girl in red, business team holding terrestrial globe, woman with cowboy hat, etc.

To construct our datasets for group captioning, the per-image captioning datasets need to be large-scale to provide enough image groups. We build our group captioning datasets on top of two datasets: Conceptual Captions dataset [43], which is the largest existing public image captioning dataset, and Stock Captions dataset, which is our own large-scale per-image captioning dataset characterized by precise and compact descriptions. Details about construction on the two datasets are provided as follows.\footnote{For simplicity, in this paper, we call our newly constructed group captioning datasets by the same name as their parent datasets: Conceptual Captions, and Stock Captions.}
3.2. Conceptual Captions

Conceptual Captions is a large-scale image captioning dataset containing 3.3 million image-caption pairs. (By the time we download the images through the urls provided, only 2.8 million are valid.) Because the captions are automatically collected from alt-text enabled images on the web, some of the captions are noisy and not natural. However, the high diversity of image contents and large number of images makes Conceptual a suitable choice for data generation using our method.

After sampling from 2.7 million images from Conceptual Captions, we obtain around 200k samples with 1.6 million images included. Each sample contains 5 target images and 15 reference images. The images with rare scene graphs that cannot be made into groups are not used. We manually cleaned the sampled data to remove samples that are not meaningful. For example, target group of portrait or woman and reference group of woman are not semantically different so they are removed. We also cleaned the vocabulary to remove rare words.

The 200k samples are split into test, validation and train splits, where these three splits share the same image pool. While the validation and train splits may contain samples of same group captions (because group captions are usually short), we make sure that captions in test split do not overlap with train split. More detailed statistics are provided in Table 5.

3.3. Stock Captions

While the Conceptual dataset excels in image diversity, we found that its captions are often long and sometime noisy. Motivated by the query suggestion application where the suggested search queries are usually short and compact, we propose to construct the dataset on a new image captioning dataset named Stock Captions. Stock Captions is a large-scale image captioning dataset collected in text-to-image retrieval setting. Stock Captions dataset is characterized by very precise, short and compact phrases. Many of the captions in this dataset are more attribute-like short image titles, e.g. "colorful bags", "happy couple on a beach", "Spaghetti with dried chilli and bacon", etc.

After grouping and filtering the 5.8 million raw images, we get 1.9 million images, grouped into 1.5 million data samples for the Stock Captions dataset. The dataset sampling and split details are similar to Conceptual.(Table 5).

3.4. User Study for Dataset Comparisons

To test the quality of our data and compare our two datasets, we conduct a user study by randomly selecting 500 data samples (250 from each dataset) and ask 25 users to give a 0-5 score for each sample.

To better compare the two datasets, we ask the users to give strict scores. A caption needs to be precise, discriminative and natural to be considered good. Many captions with the score of 0 and 1 are semantically good, but are unnatural. The distribution of scores is shown in Figure 3. As expected, in overall quality, the Stock Captions data scores significantly higher as it is based on compact and precise human-generated captions. However, several users do note that the captions in the Conceptual Captions dataset seems to be more specific, and “interesting”.

4. Method

In this section, we explore methods to address the two main challenges in our proposed problem: a) feature aggregation, i.e. how to summarize the images within one image group, and (b) group contrasting, i.e., how to figure out the difference between two image groups. By comparing different methods, our goal is not only finding the best
performing models, but also drawing insights into the characteristics of the task, and hopefully, setting the focus for future exploration in this problem.

To begin the section, we first formalize the problem settings in Section 4.1. In the subsequent sub-sections, we describe our method explorations path starting with a simple baseline. We then gradually introduce more computationally specialized modules. For each module, we describe our intuition and back them up with quantitative results and visual illustrations.

### 4.1. Problem Setting

Given a group of $n_t$ target images and a group of $n_r$ reference images, our task is to generate a description $D = \langle \hat{w}_1, ..., \hat{w}_l \rangle$ to describe the target image group in context of the reference group. Here $\hat{w}_t$ denotes the word in the sentence and $l$ is sentence length, which varies for each data sample. In our setting, $n_t = 5, n_r = 15$.

Each image is represented by a 2048-d feature extracted using the ResNet50 network [14] (after pool5 layer), pre-trained on ImageNet [11]. The input of our model are the target features $\Phi_t = [\phi^1_t, ..., \phi^{n_t}_t]$ and the reference features $\Phi_r = [\phi^1_r, ..., \phi^{n_r}_r]$, where $\phi^i \in \mathbb{R}^{2048}$. We use $\Phi$ to denote a list of features, while a single feature is denoted as $\phi$.

While we believe that more detailed features (e.g. spatial features without mean-pooling, or object-level features) may improve performance, they increase the computational complexity, and by extension, the training time to an unacceptably high level in our initial testing. Thus, we simply use the mean-pooled feature vector.

### 4.2. Baseline: feature averaging and concatenation

From the problem setting above, one intuitive approach would be to summarize the target and reference features by averaging, and concatenating them to create the final feature for description generation. The process can be formalized as follows.

We compute the target group feature $\phi'_t$ and the reference group feature $\phi'_r$ by averaging the features in each group:

$$\phi'_t = \frac{1}{n_t} \sum_{i \in 1...n_t} \phi^i_t$$

$$\phi'_r = \frac{1}{n_r} \sum_{i \in 1...n_r} \phi^i_r$$

Following standard captioning pipeline, we then use the concatenation of the two group features as input to LSTM to predict the context-aware descriptions. We use LSTM-RNN [15] to generate the caption in an auto-regressive manner. Denoting the output of the LSTM module at time step $t$ as $h_t$, we have the equations for decoding:

$$h_1 = [\phi'_t, \phi'_r]$$

$$h_t = \text{LSTM}(h_{t-1}, \hat{w}_{t-1})$$

$$\hat{w}_t \sim \text{softmax}(h_t)$$

Finally, we follow standard beam search process to generate the captions. This decoding architecture is used in all of our subsequent model variants.

### 4.3. Feature aggregation with self attention

While the average-pooling method used for feature aggregation above is intuitive, it treats all image features equally. We note that many groups of images have prominent members that encapsulate the joint information of the whole groups (Figure 5). We argue that the group summarizing process could be improved if we can identify these prominent features/images. Motivated by that observation, we propose to use the transformer architecture [50] for this task. The transformer relies on a grid of attention between the elements of the set to learn a better representation. Intuitively, by learning the self-attention grid, the model can detect the prominent features as each element in the set can “vote” for the importance of the other elements through the
attention mechanism. In the subsequent analysis, we show that, in our task, the self-attention grid indeed puts a lot more weights to the prominent images. The core computations of our transformer-based architecture can be summarized as follows.\(^3\)

The first step is calculating the contextualized features using self-attention mechanism. Given the input features \(\Phi\); three different sets of features: queries \(Q\), keys \(K\) and values \(V\) are calculated using a linear transformation:

\[
Q = W^Q\Phi + b^Q \\
K = W^K\Phi + b^K \\
V = W^V\Phi + b^V
\]

Then the self-attention grid is calculated by a scaled dot product between \(Q\) and \(K\) (the scaling factor \(d\) is the dimension of the vectors in \(Q\) and \(K\)). The self-attention layer uses this attention grid and the value matrix \(V\) to compute its outputs.\(^4\)

\[
\text{Attention}(Q, K, V) = \text{softmax}\left(\frac{QK^T}{\sqrt{d}}\right)V
\]

The self-attention output is then coupled with the residual signal to create the contextualized features \(\Phi'\).

\[
V' = V + \text{Attention}(Q, K, V) \\
\Phi' = V' + \max(0, V'_W_1 + b_1)W_2 + b_2
\]

From this point, we denote the process of transforming from the original features set \(\Phi\) to the contextualized feature set \(\Phi'\) as \(\Phi' = F(\Phi)\). With this formulation, we have the contextualized set of features \(\Phi'_t\) and \(\Phi'_r\):

\[
\Phi'_t = F_{st}(\Phi_t) \quad \Phi'_r = F_{sr}(\Phi_r)
\]

We tried both sharing and not-sharing weights of \(F_{st}\) and \(F_{sr}\), and found that sharing weights lead to slightly better performance. This is intuitive as the task of grouping target images are not different from the task of grouping reference images, and thus, the grouping model can share the same set of weights.

In our experiments, the self-attention architecture provides a significant boost in performance compared to the average-pooling variant.

4.4. Group contrasting with contrastive features

The second major challenge in our proposed problem is the image group contrasting. With the aforementioned self-attention mechanism, we have good representations for the target and reference groups. The most intuitive way to learn the difference between the two features is either concatenation (which is implemented in our baseline) or feature subtraction.

We argue that, to learn the difference between two groups of images, we first need to capture their similarity. Our hypothesis is that, when we identify the similarity between all the images, we can “remove” this similarity portion from the two features to deduce more discriminative representation. This process is formalized as follows.

The first step is learning the common information \(\phi'_c\) between all the images. We do that by applying the same self-attention mechanism described above to all the images.

\[
\phi'_c = F_c([\Phi_t; \Phi_r])
\]

Then the joint information is “removed” from the group features \(\phi'_t\) and \(\phi'_r\) by subtraction to generate the contrastive/residual feature \(\phi'^t_c\) and \(\phi'^r_c\).

\[
\phi'^t_c = \phi'_t - \phi'_c \\
\phi'^r_c = \phi'_r - \phi'_c
\]

The contrastive features \(\phi'^t_c\) and \(\phi'^r_c\) are concatenated with the group features \(\phi'_t\) and \(\phi'_r\), which are then fed into LSTM-RNN to generate captions. In our subsequent analysis, we show that the contrastive features indeed focus on the difference between two image groups.

5. Experiments

In this section, we first describe our evaluation results on the two datasets. Then we provide quantitative analysis and visualization to expose the effectiveness of different components of our model.

5.1. Group Captioning Performance

We evaluate our context-aware group captioning method on both Conceptual Captions and Stock Captions datasets. The same hyper-parameters are used for all experiments on each dataset. On the Stock Captions dataset, we use batch size 512 and initial learning rate \(1 \times 10^{-4}\). On the Conceptual Captions dataset, we use batch size 512 and learning rate \(5 \times 10^{-5}\). We train the model for 100 epochs with Adam optimizer\(^{24}\) on both datasets.

We measure the captioning performance on the test splits in both datasets using a variety of captioning metrics. Specifically, we consider the standard metrics widely used in image captioning literature, including BLEU\(^{40}\), CIDER\(^{52}\), METEOR\(^4\) and ROUGE\(^{29}\). In addition, since group descriptions are often short and compact, we put more emphasis on single word accuracy compared to traditional image captioning. We thus consider two additional metrics, Word-by-word accuracy(WordAcc), word

\(^{3}\)We only describe the core computation steps of the self-attention due to space constraint and to improve clarity. More details can be found in the original paper [50]. We also release our implementation if accepted.

\(^{4}\)We don’t use the multi-head attention in this work, as in our preliminary experiments, the multi-head attention provides no performance gain compared to a single head.
Table 2. Group captioning performance on the Conceptual Captions and Stock Captions dataset.

![Visualization of 5 x 5 self-attention weight matrix for target image group. Each row sums up to 1. For group (a) woman with balloon, image 2 and image 3 are representative. For group (b) yoga on beach, image 5 is representative. Images with more distinguishable features become the representative images of a group and get higher attention weights.](image)

5.2. Discussion

Effective of self-attention on feature aggregation. To better understand the effectiveness of self-attention, in Figure 5, we visualize the 5 x 5 self-attention weight matrix between 5 target images. The i-th row of the attention matrix represents the attention weights from i-th image to each of the 5 images, which sum up to 1. In (a), images with larger and centered balloons (Image2 and Image3) gets higher attention. In (b), image5 where the woman doing yoga is larger and easier to recognize gets higher attention. In both examples, images with more recognizable features get higher attention weights and thus contribute more to the aggregated group representation.

Importance of multiple target and reference images. To investigate the effectiveness of giving multiple images in each group, we vary the number of target and reference images. Results are shown in Table 6. Fewer target or reference images results in performance decline, which indicates that incorporating more images improves performance.

In Table 7, to compare with a simple baseline, we caption each image individually and summarize them using our dataset building method. The result (Per-Img. Caption) shows that the group captioning problem cannot be solved by simply summarizing per-image captions. More details are shown in supplementary materials. Compared to aggregating features by averaging (Average, as in Section 4.2), self-attention (SA) is more effective in computing group representation and leads to significant performance improvement. On top of feature aggregation, contrastive feature is critical for the model to generate context-aware caption which emphasizes the difference of target image group on context of reference group. Applying contrastive features (Contrast) to either feature aggregation methods leads to performance boost (Average+Contrast, SA+Contrast). To this end, our full model, which combines self-attention for group aggregation and contrastive feature for group comparing performs best, achieving 39.4% WordAcc on Conceptual Captions and 40.6% on Stock Captions.
Ground Truth: woman lifting weight
Our Prediction: woman working with dumbbell
Prediction without Context: fitness woman

Ground Truth: baby on white background
Our Prediction: baby on white background
Prediction without Context: baby toddler

Table 4. Analysis of contrastive representation. Column Contrastive + Group is the prediction of our full model. Column Group and column Contrastive are the predictions when only the group or only the contrastive representation is fed into the decoder respectively. Blue text denotes the common part while red text denotes the contrastive part.

cates that a larger number of images is more informational for the model to get better descriptions. We also qualita-
nately study the importance of the reference image group. Examples are shown in Figure 6. The examples indicate
that when not giving reference group the predictions tend to be more generic and less discriminative.

Contrastive representation versus group representation. Table 4 shows example descriptions when only the group representations or only the contrastive representations are fed into LSTM decoder. Although the model does not treat the features independently and removing the features might break the grammar structure of the caption, looking at the lexicons returned by the two variants, we can clearly observe the focus of two features. When the decoder uses only the group representations, the predictions emphasize the common part of two image groups. On the other hand, when the decoder only uses the contrastive representations, the predictions emphasize the difference between two image groups. This reveals that the group representation encodes similarity information, while the contrastive representation encodes discriminative information.

Robustness to noise images. To investigate the model’s robustness to noise in the image group, we tried adding random unrelated images to the target group. Figure 7 shows performances of models trained and tested with different number (0-4) of noise images on Conceptual Captions dataset. Training with more noise increases robustness of the model but hinder performance when tested with no noise. The model shows robustness to small noise. Qualitatively, when testing with small (1 or 2) noise (trained with 0 noise), the caption loses details, e.g. woman in red dress becomes woman in dress. The generated caption is broken when the noise is severe, which is reasonable.

Figure 7. Performance change on Conceptual Captions dataset when trained and tested with 0-4 random images in the target group. Training with more noise increases robustness of the model but hinder performance when tested with no noise.

6. Conclusion

In this paper, we present the novel context-aware group captioning task, where the objective is to describe a target image group in contrast to a reference image group. To explore this problem, we introduce two large scale datasets, Conceptual Captions and Stock Captions respectively, both of which will be released for future research. We also propose a framework with self-attention for grouping the images and contrastive representation for capturing discriminative features. We show the effectiveness of our proposed model both quantitatively and qualitatively on our datasets. We also thoroughly analyze the behavior of our models to provide insights into this new problem.
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A. Details of Datasets

There are six types of captions: subject-relation-object, adjective-object, noun-object, attribute-object-relation-object, object-relation-attribute-object, attribute-object-relation-attribute-object. Table 5 shows the number of samples in each type of captions.

| Caption Type                  | Conceptual | Stock  |
|-------------------------------|------------|--------|
| Sub-Rel-Obj                  | 46810      | 40620  |
| Adj-Obj                      | 24890      | 33650  |
| NN-Obj                       | 18466      | 32774  |
| Att-Sub-Rel-Obj              | 55124      | 19170  |
| Sub-Rel-Att-Obj              | 30944      | 16683  |
| Att-Sub-Rel-Att-Obj          | 23208      | 3442   |
| Total                        | 199442     | 146339 |

Table 5. Statistics of each caption type on Conceptual Captions and Stock Captions.

B. Experiments

B.1. Varying the Number of Reference Images

In Table 3 of the main paper, we give experiment results of varying the number of target and reference images. Here in Table 6 we give more detailed results of varying the number of reference images. As shown in the table, the performance improves when more reference images are given. We also notice that while the differences between giving 0, 5 or 10 references images are large, the gap between 10 and 15 reference images are not significant. So we use 15 reference images in the overall experiment setting.

|         | WordAcc | CIDER | WER   | BLEU1 | BLEU2 | METEOR | ROUGE |
|---------|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| Tgt5 + Ref0  | 31.8061 | 1.6767 | 1.2539 | 0.4600 | 0.2095 | 0.3475 | 0.4552 |
| Tgt5 + Ref5  | 37.1283 | 1.9536 | 1.1413 | 0.5219 | 0.2503 | 0.3987 | 0.5185 |
| Tgt5 + Ref10 | 39.4072 | 2.076  | 1.0923 | 0.5451 | 0.2684 | 0.4201 | 0.5424 |
| Tgt5 + Ref15 | 40.6113 | 2.1561 | 1.0529 | 0.5601 | 0.2796 | 0.4332 | 0.5572 |

Table 6. Performance change when varying the number of reference images on Stock Captions dataset.

B.2. Variations of Contrastive Representation

In this subsection we show the experimental results of model variations we tried for contrasting the two image groups. The results of variation models are shown in Table 7.

B.2.1 The cross-attention models

Given the effectiveness of attention on grouping images, we tried applying attention to contrast two image groups. We investigate three different variants:

**AttenAll**: Applying self-attention between all the target and reference images simultaneously (we use two different fully-connected layers to differentiate target and reference). This variant decreases the performance over self-attention only. We hypothesize that treating two distinct relations: intra-group relations (which the model must focus on the similarity) and inter-group relations (which the model must focus on the difference) might not be the ideal solution. Thus, we develop the second variant, which treat these two relations separately: Cross attention (CA)

**CA**: In CA, we tried applying self-attention within each image group first and then cross-attention between two image groups. When doing cross-attention, we apply a mask to the self-attention kernel to remove attention connections within each image group and only keep connections between groups. This leads to slight improvement over AttenAll, but the performance is still behind the Self-attention only variant.

**NCA**: Going a step further, we experiment with the negative cross attention mechanism (NCA), which is to negate the reference image features before computing attention. The intuition is, by negating one group of features, two feature vectors
that are close in the feature space will become distant. Thus, we want to force the to focus on the difference between the features, instead of the similarities. Negative cross attention improves the performance over CA but does not lead to consistent improvement of self-attention only.

From the experimental results, we hypothesize that the self-attention kernel is only effective in similarity detection, not in extracting the difference, even with the negative trick. However, if we consider two feature groups as two mathematical sets, and if we can detect the common elements between the two sets, we can just “remove them from both sets and get the “difference of the two sets. This intuition leads us to the development of the contrastive representation models. Our formulation in the main paper is the translation of this intuition in neural network language.

B.2.2 Variants of the contrastive representation model

We also tried different variants of contrastive representation. In the method part, we derive the contrastive representation by concatenating the difference of target and reference features with their joint information, i.e., \( \phi_d = [\phi_t^d; \phi_r^d] = [\phi_t^d - \phi_t^c; \phi_r^d - \phi_r^c] \). Besides this variant, we also tried computing contrastive representation by taking difference of target and reference features, i.e., \( \phi^d = \phi_t^d - \phi_r^d \) (SA+Contrast1) or taking difference between target features and joint features, i.e., \( \phi^d = \phi_t^d - \phi_t^c \) (SA+Contrast2). Both methods improve performance over self-attention (SA) but the results are lower than our best method (SA+Contrast), which indicates the contribution of term \( \phi_d \) and the advantage to minus the joint information of all images instead of minus reference features.

|                      | WordAcc | CIDER  | WER   | BLEU1 | BLEU2 | METEOR | ROUGE |
|----------------------|---------|--------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| **Conceptual**       |         |        |       |       |       |        |       |
| Average              | 36.7329 | 1.9591 | 1.6859| 0.4932| 0.2782| 0.3956 | 0.4964|
| SA                   | 37.9916 | 2.1446 | 1.6423| 0.5175| 0.3103| 0.4224 | 0.5203|
| Average+Contrast     | 37.8450 | 2.0315 | 1.6534| 0.5007| 0.2935| 0.4057 | 0.5027|
| SA+Contrast          | 39.4496 | 2.2917 | 1.5806| 0.5380| 0.3313| 0.4405 | 0.5352|
| AttenAll             | 36.1231 | 2.0727 | 1.6851| 0.5044| 0.2976| 0.4089 | 0.5059|
| SA+CA                | 36.2892 | 2.1282 | 1.6697| 0.5041| 0.3094| 0.4145 | 0.5062|
| SA+NCA               | 37.6046 | 2.2109 | 1.6344| 0.5155| 0.3183| 0.4237 | 0.5165|
| SA+Contrast1         | 38.2574 | 2.1499 | 1.6332| 0.5213| 0.3106| 0.4228 | 0.5203|
| SA+Contrast2         | 38.5916 | 2.1821 | 1.6230| 0.5218| 0.3156| 0.4261 | 0.5229|
| **Stock**            |         |        |       |       |       |        |       |
| Average              | 37.9428 | 1.9034 | 1.1430| 0.5334| 0.2429| 0.4042 | 0.5318|
| SA                   | 39.2410 | 2.1023 | 1.0829| 0.5537| 0.2696| 0.4243 | 0.5515|
| Average+Contrast     | 39.1985 | 2.0278 | 1.0956| 0.5397| 0.2632| 0.4139 | 0.5375|
| SA+Contrast          | 40.6113 | 2.1561 | 1.0529| 0.5601| 0.2796| 0.4332 | 0.5572|
| AttenAll             | 38.9215 | 2.0271 | 1.0904| 0.5451| 0.2578| 0.4166 | 0.5428|
| SA+CA                | 38.6316 | 2.0414 | 1.0894| 0.5440| 0.2579| 0.4139 | 0.5417|
| SA+NCA               | 39.3278 | 2.0833 | 1.0704| 0.5490| 0.2664| 0.4207 | 0.5459|
| SA+Contrast1         | 39.9114 | 2.1006 | 1.0699| 0.5553| 0.2731| 0.4271 | 0.5523|
| SA+Contrast2         | 40.2068 | 2.1115 | 1.0620| 0.5537| 0.2725| 0.4262 | 0.5516|

Table 7. Group captioning performance on the Conceptual Captions and Stock Captions dataset.

C. Comparison with Single Image Captioning

In this section, we describe the difference between our group captioning task and existing individual image captioning task. Captioning each image individually and then summarizing the per-image captions can not solve our task.

Figure 8 shows one example from Conceptual Captions and one from Stock Captions. The individual image captions are generated using existing image captioning models\(^6\). In each figure, the 20 captions on the right corresponds to the 20 images on the left in order, where the first 5 are targets and the other 15 are references.

\(^6\)For Conceptual Captions, we use the winning model of Conceptual Captions Challenge Workshop in CVPR2019 to generate captions for each image (https://github.com/ruotianluo/GoogleConceptualCaptioning). More details of the model can be found at https://ttic.uchicago.edu/~rluo/files/ConceptualWorkshopSlides.pdf. For Stock Captions, we use the Show, Attend and Tell [58] captioning model and finetune it on Stock Captions.
In (a), while the image group is characterized by man in black suit, the individual captions focus on man in dark, man with a gun, portrait of a man, man working on a laptop, etc, thus summarizing them by finding the most frequent phrase will lead to portrait of a young man, which is not a good caption for the image group. In (b), while the image group features for woman in cowboy hat, individual captions focus on other aspects including with a cup of tea (this is an error of the captioning model), beautiful, in the field or lying on bed. Only one per-image caption notices that the woman is in a hat. Therefore, if we are summarizing the target per-image captions to get group caption, we will get result young woman or beautiful woman, which miss out the most important feature of the image group (woman in cowboy hat).

While individual captions might be able to describe each image discriminatively, they does not necessarily include the common properties of the image group, because the common property of the group might not be the significant and distinguishing feature for each image. Therefore, captioning images as a group can capture the information that individual image captioning tend to miss out and thus lead to more informative group captions. Therefore, captioning the group as a whole is different from processing each image individually and then summarizing them. This also explains why merging the image features in early stage using self-attention before generating text descriptions is beneficial.

D. Analysis of contrastive representation

In Table 4 of the main paper, we show example results of the captions generated using only group representation or using only contrastive representation. Here in Figure 9 we show the images of these examples in Table 4. We also provide more examples to illustrate the function of group representation and contrastive representation. The first 3 examples are from Conceptual Captions dataset while the last 3 examples are from Stock Captions. Each example contains of 20 images (four rows), where the first row is target group and the second to fourth rows are reference group.

As shown, the common information in both image groups is encoded in the group representation, while the difference between two image groups is captured by the contrastive representation. The first four examples are good cases while the last two examples are failure cases. In failure case woman in red glove, the contrastive representation fails to capture the red information. In failure case girl wearing white dress, the color white is encoded in the contrastive representation, but its relationship with the girl is wrong in the prediction.

E. More Examples

Figure 10 and Figure 11 show more good examples on Conceptual Captions and Stock Captions respectively. Figure 12 and Figure 13 show failure cases on the two datasets respectively. Similar as above, in each example, the first row is target group while the other rows are reference group. Analysis for the failure cases (Figure 12, Figure 13) can be found in the captions of each figure.
Figure 8. An example on Conceptual Captions dataset to show that the group captioning cannot be easily solved by captioning each image individually. The 20 model-generated captions on the right corresponds to the 20 images on the left in order, where the first 5 are targets and the other 15 are references. In (a), if we are summarizing the 5 target captions on context of reference captions, portrait of a man, which is the most frequent phrase, might be the result, which is not a good description as man in black suit. In (b), if we are summarizing the individual captions to get the group caption, young woman might be the result, which is not as good as woman in cowboy hat. The information needed for group captioning may be missed out in individual captions because the common feature of the group might not be important for individual images. Therefore, captioning images as a group can be more informative. We also perform a limited user study, and most users note that it is almost impossible for them to come up with a summarizing phrase given the individual captions.
Figure 9. Examples of only using group representation or only using contrastive representation (Corresponding to Table 4 in the main paper). As shown, common information in both image groups (blue text) is encoded in the group representation, while the difference between two groups (red or orange text) is in contrastive representation. The first four examples are good cases while the last two examples are failure cases.
Figure 10. Good examples Conceptual Captions dataset.
Figure 11. Good examples on Stock Captions dataset.
Figure 12. Failure cases on Conceptual Captions dataset. For the first example, the model predicts fishing boat instead of yellow boat, which is less discriminative. This may be because the model does not capture features of the small boat well. For the example on the right, the model prediction (white smoke) may be dominated by one dominant image in the target group.

Figure 13. Failure cases on Stock Captions dataset. For the first example, the model prediction does not notice that the boy is sick. We further look into the model output when using only the group representation or contrastive representation, where the sick information is captured in the contrastive representation, but may not be strong enough to be decoded out in the prediction. For the second example, the model prediction is correct but not as good as groundtruth.