Semi-Autoregressive Transformer for Image Captioning

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Abstract

Current state-of-the-art image captioning models adopt autoregressive decoders, i.e., they generate each word by conditioning on previously generated words, which leads to heavy latency during inference. To tackle this issue, non-autoregressive image captioning models have recently been proposed to significantly accelerate the speed of inference by generating all words in parallel. However, these non-autoregressive models inevitably suffer from large generation quality degradation since they remove words dependence excessively. To make a better trade-off between speed and quality, we introduce a semi-autoregressive model for image captioning (dubbed as SATIC), which keeps the autoregressive property in global but generates words parallelly in local. Based on Transformer, there are only a few modifications needed to implement SATIC. Experimental results on the MSCOCO image captioning benchmark show that SATIC can achieve a good trade-off without bells and whistles. Code is available at https://github.com/YuanEZhou/satic.

1 Introduction

Image captioning [Vinyals et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2019; Pan et al., 2020], which aims at describing the visual content of an image with natural language sentence, is one of the important tasks to connect vision and language. Most proposed models typically follow the encoder/decoder paradigm. In between, convolutional neural network (CNN) is utilized to encode an input image and recurrent neural networks (RNN) or Transformer [Vaswani et al., 2017] is adopted as sentence decoder to generate a caption. Current state-of-the-art models adopt autoregressive decoders which means that they generate one word at each time step by conditioning on the previously produced words. Though impressive results have been achieved, these models suffer from high latency during inference owing to the autoregressive property, which is unaffordable for real-time industrial scenarios sometimes.

To tackle this issue, there is an increasing interest to develop non-autoregressive decoding [Gu et al., 2017a; Lee et al., 2018; Fei, 2019; Guo et al., 2020] to significantly accelerate inference speed by generating all target words parallelly. These non-autoregressive models have basically the same structure as the autoregressive Transformer model [Vaswani et al., 2017]. The difference lie in that non-autoregressive models generate all words independently (as shown in the bottom of Figure 1) instead of generating one word at each time step by conditioning on the previously produced words as in autoregressive models (as shown in the top of Figure 1). However, these non-autoregressive models suffer from words repetition or omission problem compared to their autoregressive counterparts owing to removing the sequential dependence excessively.

To alleviate the above issue, some methods have been proposed to seek a trade-off between speed and quality. For example, iteration refinement based methods [Lee et al., 2018; Gao et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2021] try to compensate for the word independence assumption by taking caption output from
preceding iteration as input and then polishing it until reaching max iteration number or no change appears. Nevertheless, it needs multiple times refinement to achieve better quality, which hurts decoding speed significantly. Some works [Fei, 2019; Guo et al., 2019] try to enhance the decoder input by providing more target side context information, while they commonly incorporate extra modules and thus extra computing overhead. Besides, partially non-autoregressive models [Fei, 2021; Ran et al., 2020] are proposed by considering a sentence as a series of concatenated word groups. The groups are generated parallely in global while each word in group is predicted from left to right. Though better trade-off is achieved, the training paradigm of such model is somewhat tricky because it must need to incorporate curriculum learning-based training tasks of group length prediction and invalid group deletion [Fei, 2021].

In contrast, the model (SATIC) introduced in this paper can achieve similar trade-off performance but without bells and whistles during training. Specifically, SATIC also considers a sentence as a series of concatenated word groups, as similar with [Fei, 2021; Ran et al., 2020]. However, all words in a group are predicted in parallel while the groups are generated from left to right, as shown in the middle of Figure 1. This means that SATIC keeps the autoregressive property in global and the non-autoregressive property in local and thus gets the best of both world. In other words, SATIC can directly inherit the mature training paradigm of autoregressive captioning models and get the speedup benefit of non-autoregressive captioning models.

We evaluate SATIC model on the challenging MSCOCO [Chen et al., 2015] image captioning benchmark. Experimental results show that SATIC achieves a better balance between speed, quality and easy training. Specifically, SATIC generates captions better than non-autoregressive models and faster than autoregressive models and is easy to be trained than partially non-autoregressive models [Fei, 2021]. Besides, we conduct substantial ablation studies to better understand the effect of each component of the whole model.

2 Related Work

Image Captioning. Over the last few years, a broad collection of methods have been proposed in the field of image captioning. In a nutshell, we have gone through grid-feature [Xu et al., 2015; Jiang et al., 2020] then region-feature [Anderson et al., 2018] and relation-aware visual feature [Yao et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2019] on the image encoding side. On the sentence decoding side, we have witnessed LSTM [Vinyals et al., 2015], CNN [Gu et al., 2017b] and Transformer [Cornia et al., 2020] equipped with various attention [Huang et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2020b; Pan et al., 2020] as decoder. On the training side, models are typically trained by step-wise cross-entropy loss and then Reinforcement Learning [Rennie et al., 2017], which enables the use of non-differentiable caption metrics as optimization objectives and makes a notable achievement. Recently, vision-language pre-training has also been adopted for image captioning and show impressive result. These models [Zhou et al., 2020a; Li et al., 2020] are firstly pretrained on large image-text corpus and then finetuned. It is noteworthy that it’s not fair to directly compare them with non-pretraining-finetuning methods. Though impressive performance has been achieved, most state-of-the-art models adopt autoregressive decoders and thus suffer from high latency during inference.

Non-Autoregressive Decoding. Due to the downside of autoregressive decoding, Non-autoregressive decoding has firstly aroused widespread attention in the community of Neural Machine Translation (NMT). Non-autoregressive NMT was first proposed in [Gu et al., 2017a] to significantly improve the inference speed by generating all target-side words in parallel. While the decoding speed is improved, it often suffers from word repetition or omission problem due to removing words dependence excessively. Some methods have been proposed to overcome this problem, including knowledge distillation [Gu et al., 2017a], well-designed decoder input [Guo et al., 2019], auxiliary regularization terms [Wang et al., 2019], iterative refinement [Lee et al., 2018], and partially-autoregressive model [Ran et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2018]. Following similar research roadmap, non-autoregressive decoding has recently been introduced to visual captioning task [Gao et al., 2019; Guo et al., 2020; Fei, 2019; Yang et al., 2021; Fei, 2021]. This work pursues the semi-autoregressive decoding in NMT [Wang et al., 2018] for image captioning and further explores its effectiveness under the context of reinforcement training.

3 Background

3.1 Autoregressive Image Captioning

Given an image \( I \) and the associated target sentence \( y = \langle y_1, ..., y_T \rangle \), AIC models the conditional probability as:

\[
p(y|I; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{T} p(y_i|y_{<i}, I; \theta),
\]

where \( \theta \) is the model’s parameters and \( y_{<i} \) represents the words sequence before the \( i \)-th word of target \( y \). During inference, the sentence is generated word by word sequentially, which causes high inference latency.

3.2 Non-Autoregressive Image Captioning

Non-autoregressive image captioning (NAIC) models are recently proposed to accelerate the decoding speed by discarding the words dependence within the sentence. A NAIC model generates all words simultaneously and the conditional probability can be modeled as:

\[
p(y|I; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{T} p(y_i|I; \theta).
\]

During inference, all words are parallelly generated in one pass and thus the inference speed is significantly improved. However, these NAIC models inevitably suffer from large generation quality degradation since they remove words dependence excessively.
In this section, we first present the architecture of our SATIC model built on the well-known Transformer [Vaswani et al., 2017] and then introduce the training procedure for model optimization.

### 4 Approach

In this section, we first present the architecture of our SATIC model built on the well-known Transformer [Vaswani et al., 2017] and then introduce the training procedure for model optimization.

#### 4.1 Transformer-Based SATIC Model

Given the image region features extracted by a pre-trained Faster-RCNN model [Ren et al., 2015; Anderson et al., 2018], SATIC aims to generate a caption in a semi-autoregressive manner. The architecture of SATIC model is shown in Figure 2, which consists of an encoder and decoder.

**Image Features Encoder.** The encoder takes the image region features as inputs and outputs the contextual region features. It consists of a stack of $L$ identical layers. Each layer has two sublayers. The first is a multi-head self-attention sublayer and the second is a position-wise feed-forward sublayer. Both sublayers are followed by residual connection [He et al., 2016] and layer normalization [Ba et al., 2016] operations for stable training. Multi-head self-attention builds on scaled dot-product attention, which operates on a query $Q$, key $K$ and value $V$ as:

$$Attention(Q, K, V) = \text{softmax}(\frac{QK^T}{\sqrt{d_k}})V,$$  

where $d_k$ is the dimension of the key. Multi-head self-attention firstly projects the queries, keys and values $h$ times with different learned linear projections and then computes scaled dot-product attention for each one. After that, it concatenates the results and projects them with another learned linear projection:

$$H_i = Attention(QW_i^Q, KW_i^K, VW_i^V),$$  

$$\text{MultiHead}(Q, K, V) = \text{ Concat}(H_1, \ldots, H_h)W^O,$$

where $W_i^Q, W_i^K, V \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{model} \times d_k}, W^V \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{model} \times d_v}$ and $W^O \in \mathbb{R}^{h_{d} \times d_{model}}$. The self-attention in the encoder performs attention over itself, i.e., $(Q = K = V)$, which is the image region features in the first layer. After a multi-head self-attention sublayer, the position-wise feed-forward sub-layer (FFN) is applied to each position separately and identically:

$$FFN(x) = max(0, xW_1 + b_1)W_2 + b_2,$$  

where $W_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{model} \times d_{ff}}, W_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{ff} \times d_{model}}, b_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{ff}}$ and $b_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{model}}$ are learnable parameter matrices.

**Captioning Decoder.** The decoder takes contextual region features and previous word embedding features as input and outputs predicted words probability. To make use of order information, position encodings [Vaswani et al., 2017] are added to word embedding features. Different from original autoregressive Transformer model, which outputs a word at each step, SATIC takes a group of words as input and outputs a group of words at each step during decoding. Each group contains $K$ consecutive words. At the beginning of decoding, we feed the model with $K$ $<\text{START}>$ symbols to predicate $y_1, \ldots, y_K$ and then $y_1, \ldots, y_K$ are fed as input to predicate $y_{K+1}, \ldots, y_{2K}$ in parallel. This process will continue until the end of sentence. An intuitive example is shown in the middle of Figure 1 with $K = 2$. The decoder also consists of $L$ identical layers and each layer has three sublayers: a relaxed masked multi-head self-attention sublayer, multi-head cross-attention sublayer and a position-wise feed-forward sublayer. Residual connection and layer normalization are also applied after each sublayer. The multi-head cross-attention is similar with the multi-head self-attention mentioned above except that the key and value are now contextual region features and the query is the output of its last sublayer. It is particularly worth emphasizing that original masked multi-head at-
attention. The only difference between the two sublayer lies in the self-attention mask. Specifically, the original lower triangular matrix mask is now replaced by the relaxed mask. Formally, given the caption length $T$ and group size $K$, the relaxed mask $M \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times T}$ is defined as:

$$M[i][j] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } j < (((i - 1) / K) + 1) \times K, \text{ allow} \\ -\infty & \text{other, disallow attending} \end{cases},$$

where $i, j \in [1, T]$ and $[\cdot]$ denotes floor operation. An intuitive example is shown in the right of Figure 2, where $T = 6$ and $K = 2$. As a consequence, the scaled dot-product attention in relaxed masked multi-head self-attention module is modified to:

$$Attention(Q, K, V) = \text{softmax}\left( \frac{QK^T}{\sqrt{d_k}} + M \right)V.$$

### 4.2 Training

Since SATIC model keeps the autoregressive property in global and the non-autoregressive property in local, it gets the best of both worlds and the conditional probability can be formulated as:

$$p(y_t|I; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{[(T-1)/K]+1} p(G_t|G_{<t}, I; \theta),$$

where $G_{<t}$ represents the groups before $t$-th group and $G_t = y_{(t-1)K+1}, ..., y_t$ except for the last group which may have less than $K$ words. If the length of padded word sequence can’t be divided by $K$, remaining words only keep in output but not in input. Comparing Equation 1 and Equation 2 with Equation 9, we can find that autoregressive and non-autoregressive image captioning models are special cases of SATIC model when $K = 1$ and $K = T$ respectively. At the first training stage, we optimize the model by minimizing cross-entropy loss:

$$L_XE(\theta) = - \sum_{t=1}^{[(T-1)/K]+1} \log p(G_t|G_{<t}, I; \theta)$$

$$- \sum_{t=1}^{[(T-1)/K]+1} \sum_{i=1}^{tK} \sum_{i=0}^{K} \log p(y_t|G_{<t}, I; \theta).$$

At the second training stage, we finetune the model using self-critical training [Rennie et al., 2017] and the gradient can be expressed as:

$$\nabla_{\theta} L_{SC}(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (R(\hat{y}_{1:T}) - b) \nabla_{\theta} \log p(\hat{y}_{1:T}^n|I; \theta),$$

where $R$ is the CIDEr [Vedantam et al., 2015] score function, and $b$ is the baseline score. We adopt the baseline score proposed in [Luo, 2020], where the baseline score is defined as the average reward of the rest samples rather than original greedy decoding reward. We sample $N = 5$ captions for each image and $\hat{y}_{1:T}^n$ is the $n$-th sampled caption.

### 5 Experiments

#### 5.1 Dataset and Evaluation Metrics.

MSCOCO [Chen et al., 2015] is the widely used benchmark for image captioning. We use the ‘Karpathy’ splits [Karpathy and FeiFei, 2015] for offline experiments. This split contains 113,287 training images, 5,000 validation images and 5,000 testing images. Each image has 5 captions. We also upload generated captions of MSCOCO official testing set, which contains 40,775 images for online evaluation. We evaluate the quality of captions by standard metrics [Chen et al., 2015], including BLEU-1/4, METEOR, ROUGE, SPICE, and CIDEr, denoted as B1/4, M, R, S, and C, respectively.

### 5.2 Implementation Details.

Each image is represented as 10 to 100 region features with 2,048 dimensions extracted by Anderson et al. [Anderson et al., 2018]. The dictionary is built by dropping the words that occur less than 5 times and ends up with a vocabulary of 9,487. Captions longer than 16 words are truncated. Both our SATIC model and autoregressive image captioning base model (AIC) almost follow the same model hyper-parameters setting as in [Vaswani et al., 2017] ($d_{\text{model}} = 512$, $d_k = d_v = 64$, $d_{ff} = 2048$, $L = 6$, $h = 8$, $p_{\text{dropout}} = 0.1$). As for the training process, we train AIC under cross-entropy loss for 15 epochs with a mini batch size of 10, and optimizer in [Vaswani et al., 2017] is used with a learning rate initialized by 5e-4 and the warmup step is set to 20000. We increase the scheduled sampling probability by 0.05 every 5 epochs. We then optimize the CIDEr score with self-critical training for another 25 epochs with an initial learning rate of 1e-5. Our best SATIC model shares the same training script with AIC model except that we first initialize the weights (weight-init) of SATIC model with the pre-trained AIC model and replace the ground truth captions in the training set with sequence knowledge (SeqKD) [Kim and Rush, 2016; Gu et al., 2017] during training. Results of AIC model with beam size 5 during cross entropy training stage. Unless otherwise indicated, latency represents the time to decode a single image without batching averaged over the whole test split, and is tested on a NVIDIA Tesla T4 GPU. The time for image feature extraction is not included in latency.

### 5.3 Quantitative Results

In this section, we will analyse SATIC in detail by answering following questions.

#### How does SATIC perform compared with state-of-the-art models?

We compare the performance of SATIC with other state-of-the-art autoregressive models, non-autoregressive models and a partially non-autoregressive model. Among the autoregressive models, M2-T and AIC are based on similar Transformer architecture, while others are based on LSTM [Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997]. For non-autoregressive models, MNIC and MIR adopts an iterative refinement strategy, FNIC orders words detected in the image with an RNN and CMAL optimizes sentence-level reward. PNAIC is a partially non-autoregressive model which divides sentence into word groups and the groups are generated parallelly in global while each word in group is predicted from left to right. As
shown in Table 1, SATIC achieves comparable performance with state-of-the-art autoregressive models but with significant speedup. When $K = 2$, SATIC achieves about $1.5\times$ speedup while the caption quality only degrades slightly compared with its autoregressive counterpart AIC model. Compared with non-autoregressive models, SATIC obviously achieves a better trade-off between quality and speed by outperforming all the non-autoregressive models except CMAL in speedup metric. Compared with most similar partially non-autoregressive model PNAIC, SATIC achieves similar speedup and caption evaluation results. It is worth nothing that SATIC outperforms PNAIC on SPICE metric, which concerns more on semantic propositional content. What's more, the training of SATIC is more easy and straightforward than PNAIC. Overall, SATIC achieves a better trade-off between quality, speed and easy training. We also show the results of online MSCOCO evaluation in Table 2.

What is the effect of group size $K$? We test three different setting of the group size, i.e. $K \in \{2, 4, 6\}$. From the bottom of Table 1, we can observe that a larger $K$ brings more significant speedup while the caption quality degrades moderately. For example, the decoding speed increases about $1.5\times$ while the CIDEr score drops about $1.5$ when $K$ grows from 2 to 4, and drops no more than 3 when $K$ grows further to 6. This is intuitive since $K$ is the indicator of parallelization and also indicates that SATIC model is relatively stable to $K$ and has a good trade-off between speed and quality.

Can SATIC benefit from beam search? From the bottom of Table 1, we can also find that SATIC benefits little (CIDEr score only increases $0.2$) from beam search compared with its autoregressive counterpart AIC (CIDEr score increases $1.7$) after self-critical training. There are two possibilities, the one is self-critical training make its output probability concentrated and the other one is SATIC can not benefit from beam search. To investigate whether SATIC can benefit from beam search, we test its output just after cross entropy training and with different beam search width. From Table 3, we can observe that SATIC model can still benefit from beam search and there are two interesting phenomena: 1) SATIC with too large $K$ benefits less from beam search and 2) the effect of beam search is larger when without weight initialization and sequence knowledge distillation. A plausible explanation is that long-distance dependence is hard to capture and sequence knowledge distillation decreases dependence among words.

What is the effect of sequence knowledge distillation and weight initialization? We further investigate the effect of sequence knowledge distillation and weight initialization and
Table 2: Results on the online MSCOCO test server. * denotes ensemble model.

| Models  | XE     | SC    |
|---------|--------|-------|
|         | B1     | B4    | M     | S     | C     |
| K=2     | 74.2   | 29.1  | 25.8  | 53.8  | 19.5  | 100.0 |
|         | 76.0   | 32.8  | 26.8  | 55.2  | 20.6  | 107.2 |
| K=4     | 65.8   | 17.0  | 21.8  | 48.3  | 16.1  | 73.3  |
|         | 69.7   | 20.9  | 22.7  | 50.2  | 16.6  | 79.6  |
| K=6     | 67.6   | 17.6  | 21.3  | 48.6  | 15.2  | 73.5  |
|         | 68.8   | 19.1  | 21.6  | 49.6  | 15.5  | 76.3  |

Table 3: The results after XE training when using different beam search width.

results are shown in Table 4. We can find that sequence knowledge distillation plays an important role in both XE and SC training stages and the effect is more significant in XE stage. Basically, the larger the K is, the more obvious the effect is. This is intuitive since the ability of SATIC model to capture conditional probability is undermined when K grows and sequence knowledge distillation compensates for this by reducing the complexity of data sets. SC can also alleviate sentence-level inconsistency by providing sentence-level reward. In addition to accelerate convergence, we can find that weight initialization slightly improves the caption quality when K is small but has important impact when K is large.

What is the effect of batch size on latency? Above latency is measured with batch size set to 1. However, there may be multiple requests at once in real application. So, we further investigate the latency under various batch size setting. From Table 5, we can find that SATIC can basically accelerate decoding even under large batch size. We can also observe that the speedup is decline as batch size increases. This indicates that non-gpu program becomes a bottleneck even when the runtime of gpu program is negligible.

5.4 Qualitative Results

We present three examples of generated image captions in Figure 3. From the top example, we can intuitively understand the effect of sequence knowledge distillation (SeqKD) and self-critical training (SC) in reducing repeated words and complete content. In general, the final SATIC models with different group size K can generate fluent captions, as shown in the middle example. Nevertheless, repeated words and incomplete content issues still exist, especially when K is large.

Figure 3: Examples of the generated captions. GT denotes ground-truth caption. Base here denotes SATIC(k=4) model trained by cross entropy loss using original training set. We mark repeated words by red font.

As shown in the bottom example, ‘a’ and ‘orange’ are repeated words and ‘tray’; ‘bowl’ are missing.
6 Conclusion
In this paper, we introduce a semi-autoregressive model for image captioning (dubbed as SATIC), which keeps the autoregressive property in global and non-autoregressive property in local. We conduct substantial experiments on MSCOCO image captioning benchmark to better understand the effect of each component. Overall, SATIC achieves a better trade-off between speed, quality and easy training.

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