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SaCo Loss: Sample-wise Affinity Consistency for Vision-Language Pre-training

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https://github.com/dvlab-research/SaCo-Loss

Abstract

Vision-language pre-training (VLP) aims to learn joint representations of vision and language modalities. The contrastive paradigm is currently dominant in this field. However, we observe a notable misalignment phenomenon, that is, the affinity between samples has an obvious disparity across different modalities, namely "Affinity Inconsistency **Problem**". Our intuition is that, for a well-aligned model, two images that look similar to each other should have the same level of similarity as their corresponding texts that describe them. In this paper, we first investigate the reason of this inconsistency problem. We discover that the lack of consideration for sample-wise affinity consistency across modalities in existing training objectives is the central cause. To address this problem, we propose a novel loss function, named Sample-wise affinity Consistency (SaCo) loss, which is designed to enhance such consistency by minimizing the distance between image embedding similarity and text embedding similarity for any two samples. Our SaCo loss can be easily incorporated into existing visionlanguage models as an additional loss due to its complementarity for most training objectives. In addition, considering that pre-training from scratch is computationally expensive, we also provide a more efficient way to continuously pre-train on a converged model by integrating our loss. Experimentally, the model trained with our SaCo loss significantly outperforms the baseline on a variety of vision and language tasks.

1. Introduction

Vision-language pre-training (VLP) has shown remarkable success since the emergence of contrastive vision-language learning [55], which aims to promote the paired image and text samples closer while simultaneously pushing unpaired

samples away. The following works achieved further improvements through vision masked modeling [9, 33], finegrained supervision [23, 53], label smoothing [84], augmentations [32], text refinement [11, 21] and noisy data filtering [14, 67], and text generation supervision [26, 27]. However, during the contrastive training process, we observe an Affinity Inconsistency Problem, that is, the correlation between the sample-wise affinity (similarity) in language modality and visual modality is extremely low. For a highly aligned vision-language embedding space, the similarity between every two images shall be similar to the similarity between their corresponding texts, as both the paired image and text describe the same object or scene. The detailed qualitative (Figure 2) and quantitative (Figure 3a) analysis of this problem are discussed in Sec. 3.2.

The reason is that contrastive pre-training mainly focuses on aligning or pushing away the cross-modal embeddings, while ignoring whether the affinity between samples is consistent in different modalities, see Sec. 3.3 for more analysis. For better clarity, we present an illustration in Figure 1a, which depicts an embedding space with the affinity inconsistency problem. Taking three image-text pairs as an example, the circle and square with the same color denote the embedding of paired image and text, respectively. The blue triangle (\triangle) connecting three circles represents the relationship between images. Similarly, the red triangle (\triangle) connecting three squares reflects the relationship between texts. The shorter side between two images or texts means the greater affinity between them. In Figure 1a(ii), we show the geometric inconsistency between " Δ " and " Δ " in the contrastively trained space, highlighting the disparity in sample-wise affinity between the vision and language modalities.

To address this problem, we propose a simple but effective loss function, named *Sample-wise affinity Consistency* (*SaCo*) loss, whose core idea is to minimize the disparity between image embedding similarity and text embedding similarity for any two image-text pairs. Intuitively, it is designed to specifically promote the consistency of affinity

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Figure 1. (a) Comparison on the optimization objective of our SaCo loss and contrastive loss. As in (i), contrastive loss aims to pull the embeddings of paired image and text together ($\rightarrow \rightarrow$) while pushing those of unpaired ones apart ($\rightarrow \rightarrow$), optimizing the embedding space to (ii). The blue (\triangle) and red (\triangle) triangles in (ii) represent the image embedding affinity and text embedding affinity, respectively. Our SaCo loss strives for the *geometric consistency* between " \triangle " and " \triangle ", and optimize the embedding space to (iii) with consistent affinity. (b) Performance comparison on various tasks, where the baseline is CLIP with ViT-B/32 image encoder.

between samples in different modalities. Since our SaCo loss is complementary to most training objectives, it can be seamlessly integrated into existing vision-language models as an additional loss. In practice, pre-training from scratch is computationally expensive. Accordingly, we have also explored another more efficient approach to endow an existing excellent model with the property of cross-modal affinity consistency, which is achieved by performing continuous pre-training for a few epochs with our SaCo loss.

Extensive experiments on various tasks demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach. As shown in Figure 1b, our SaCo loss achieves superior performance compared to the CLIP baseline. It improves Recall@1 performance by 9.3% and 5.3% in zero-shot Image-to-text retrieval on Flickr30K [52] and MS-COCO [38], respectively. Additionally, it enhances Recall@1 performance by 6.1% and 3.7% in zero-shot text-to-image retrieval on the Flickr30K and MS-COCO datasets, respectively. Furthermore, it boosts Top-1 Accuracy performance by approximately 6.4% and 13% in zero-shot and linear prob image classification on the ImageNet-1K dataset. For more evaluations, we have included our experiments on image retrieval and text classification in the supporting materials.

2. Related Work

Vision-language Pre-training. Vision-language pretraining (VLP) is one of the most important advancements in multi-modal learning [2, 20, 55, 68, 80, 82]. It strives to learn general and transferable representations for both visual and linguistic modalities from large-scale data. Earlier works adopted a single-stream structure, using a single transformer to learn both joint image and text representations by concatenating image and text input embeddings [4, 24, 28, 30, 31]. Later, the emergence of CLIP [55] opened up the dual-stream structure, which separately encodes image and text with decoupled image and text encoder. CLIP has shown remarkable performance on zeroshot transferability for various downstream tasks by leveraging contrastive learning on large-scale image-text pairs. Subsequently, a series of works continued to improve this contrastive paradigm by introducing new optimization objectives. DeCLIP [32] and SLIP [47] introduced additional self-supervision training objectives in order to improve data efficiency [60]. FLIP [33] and MaskCLIP [9] incorporated the visual masked modeling [13, 88] to enhance local semantics. FILIP [23], LOUPE [25], and VoLTA [53] explored more accurate fine-grained alignment between the two modalities [85, 87, 89]. SoftCLIP [84] and PyramidCLIP [83] relaxed the strict one-to-one constraint to a soft cross-modal alignment. Image-text matching is further integrated into the contrastive paradigm as a complement [1, 26, 27] to predict whether an image-text pair is positive (matched) or negative (unmatched) via binary classification. To facilitate both understanding tasks [5, 10, 13, 17, 36, 37, 75] and generation tasks [90], CoCa [44] and BLIP series [26, 27, 92] combined a text generation objective through language-masked modeling. Different from them, this paper focuses on another objective, targeting the consistent sample-wise affinity across modalities. In addition, our approach is complementary to previous training objectives and therefore can be seamlessly incorporated into existing vision-language models.

Consistency-based Supervision. The consistency-based supervision is highly favored in deep learning. Cycle consistency is commonly used in bidirectional scenarios, such as machine translation [3, 7], unpaired image-to-image translation [18], vision-language generation [29], cross-



Figure 2. Qualitative illustration for the "affinity inconsistency problem". For the query image-text pair, we query its neighbors in a multi-modal dataset based on its image embedding or text embedding, separately. The embeddings are obtained from the official CLIP [55]. However, queries in different modalities return very different results. When querying with image embedding, the top-ranked images (in green shadow) are all related to "*bus*". While the top-ranked texts (in blue shadow) are mostly related to "*automobile*" when querying with image embedding.

modal retrieval [8, 39, 69–71, 73] and domain adaption [81]. Temporal consistency is an essential technique in various video generation and understanding tasks [12, 22, 46, 48, 77, 91]. Similarly, spatial consistency is also an effective prior in computer vision, for example, point cloud registration [78], graph matching [40, 59, 61], distillation [51], representation learning [66, 76] and scene understanding [19, 34, 35, 42, 45, 58, 62–65, 74, 79]. Furthermore, feature consistency, between local and global, can facilitate deep feature clustering [6], and neighbor consistency in the feature or prediction space can improve noisy learning [15, 43]. In this paper, we extend consistency supervision to the field of vision-language representation learning, which introduces a new method for exploiting the inherent consistency among different modalities.

3. Affinity Inconsistency Problem

In this section, we first revisit the current dominant contrastive pre-training paradigm in Sec. 3.1. Then, we experimentally explore the affinity inconsistency problem in Sec. 3.2 and further investigate its reasons in Sec. 3.3.

3.1. Preliminaries

The contrastive language-image loss [55] has been utilized in most popular vision-language models [16, 26, 27, 54, 55, 72, 86] during pre-training. It aims to learn an aligned embedding space for visual and language modalities. Specifically, given a batch of N image-text pairs $\{(\mathbf{x}_i^I, \mathbf{x}_i^T)\}_{i=1}^N$, each image \mathbf{x}_i^I and text \mathbf{x}_i^T are passed through the image encoder and text encoder independently to get their corresponding embedding. After the linear projection and L2 normalization, we obtain the final embeddings $\{(\mathbf{I}_i, \mathbf{T}_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ for all the pairs, where the paired image and text $(\mathbf{I}_i, \mathbf{T}_i)$ is treated as the positive pair and the unpaired one $(\mathbf{I}_i, \mathbf{T}_{j(j \neq i)})$ forms the negative pair. The contrastive loss can be formulated as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{cont}} = - \underbrace{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \frac{e^{(\mathbf{S}_{ii}/\tau)}}{\sum_{j=1}^{N} e^{(\mathbf{S}_{ij}/\tau)}}}_{(\mathbf{S}_{ij}/\tau)} - \underbrace{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \frac{e^{(\mathbf{S}_{ii}/\tau)}}{\sum_{k=1}^{N} e^{(\mathbf{S}_{ki}/\tau)}},$$
(1)

where $\mathbf{S}_{ij} = \langle \mathbf{I}_i, \mathbf{T}_i \rangle$ is the cross-modal inner-product similarity, and τ is a learnable temperature parameter [55] to control the smoothness of distribution. The contrastive loss minimizes the distance between the embeddings of the positive pair across different modalities and maximizes the distance between the embeddings of the negative pair. Thus, the contrastive loss enables images or texts that share the same semantic information to have similar representations in the feature space.

3.2. Problem Discovery

Contrastive pre-training can basically ensure that images and texts with the same semantic information also have similar representations in the feature space, thereby aligning the embeddings in different modalities. However, we observe a significant misalignment phenomenon. Specifically, given the *i*-th image-text pair from a multi-modal dataset (such as CC3M [56]), we first utilize a public vision-language model to extract its image embedding I_i and text embedding T_i , which are separately used to compute the image embedding similarities $S_i^I \in \mathbb{R}^N$ and text embedding similarities $S_i^T \in \mathbb{R}^N$ between the query and all the other samples within the dataset. The calculation is as follows,

$$\mathbf{S}_{i,j}^{I} = \langle \mathbf{I}_{i}, \mathbf{I}_{j} \rangle, \quad \mathbf{S}_{i,j}^{T} = \langle \mathbf{T}_{i}, \mathbf{T}_{j} \rangle, \tag{2}$$



Figure 3. (a) Comparison of the affinity consistency metric defined in Eq.(4). We use the public CLIP [55] and BLIP [26] as baseline models. (b) Comparison of the disparity of affinity across modalities, which is measured by the SaCo loss defined in Eq.(5). We show the fluctuation of this metric during training under different objectives.

where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ denotes the inner-product operation.

Qualitative Analysis. We first sort the samples in descending order based on the two similarity vectors. This process yields a sorted sequence of image similarities and a sorted sequence of text similarities. Ideally, these two sequences should be highly consistent, as both the given image and text represent the same object or scene. While, in practice, they exhibit obvious inconsistency. A qualitative example is shown in Figure 2, containing the top-5 entities from both sequences.

Quantitative Analysis. For more quantitative analysis, we utilize the Pearson correlation coefficient defined as follows,

$$\rho(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{C} (\mathbf{U}_i - \bar{\mathbf{U}}) (\mathbf{V}_i - \bar{\mathbf{V}})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{C} (\mathbf{U}_i - \bar{\mathbf{U}})^2 \sum_{i=1}^{C} (\mathbf{V}_i - \bar{\mathbf{V}})^2}}, \qquad (3)$$

where *C* is the dimensional size of input vectors, $\mathbf{\bar{U}}$ and $\mathbf{\bar{V}}$ indicate the mean value. The Pearson correlation coefficient ranges from -1 to +1, encompassing a spectrum of relationships between variables, ranging from negative correlation to positive correlation. When $\rho = 0$, there is no correlation between the examined variables. Specifically, we iteratively treat each sample in the dataset as a query sample to calculate the image similarities and text similarities and average their Pearson correlation coefficient to obtain the so-called *affinity consistency* metric, that is,

$$R_{\text{affinity-consistency}} = \frac{1}{|D|} \sum_{i=1}^{|D|} \rho(\mathbf{S}_i^I, \mathbf{S}_i^T), \tag{4}$$

where |D| is the dataset size. As shown in Figure 3a, existing popular models (CLIP [55] and BLIP [26]) present quite low correlation in cross-modal similarity compared to their counterparts pre-trained with our approach. Since the similarity querying result essentially reflects the affinity between each candidate sample and the query sample, we refer to such inconsistency as the affinity inconsistency problem.



Figure 4. A simulated example to indicate why the dominant contrastive pre-training has the affinity inconsistency problem. (a) illustrates the settings of the simulation. We consider three image-text pairs, each distinguished by a different color and represented by circles and squares. The circles or squares with black edges remain fixed, while only the one square with red edge is allowed to vary by an angle θ along the red dotted circle with a radius of ε from its corresponding image embedding. (b) The results of the simulation demonstrate how the contrastive loss (CL) defined in Eq.(1) and affinity consistency (AC) metric defined in Eq.(4) vary with the angle θ under different radius ε settings.

3.3. Reason Analysis

In this subsection, we investigate why it is difficult for contrastive pre-training to learn consistent cross-modal affinity between samples. First, we monitor the variation of affinity disparity (one minus the averaged affinity consistency) during the standard contrastive pre-training process. As shown in the black curve in Figure 3b, we observe an increasing trend in this metric as training progresses. However, when compared to the training process under our paradigm (red curve), it can be found that the affinity disparity metric of the vanilla contrastive pre-training quickly stagnates at an unsatisfactory level (around 0.15).

Intuitive Simulation. To clearly illustrate this, we also provide an intuitive simulation in Figure 4. As shown in Figure 4a, we take three image-text pairs as an example (represented by different colors). Their image and text embedding are denoted by circles and squares, respectively. Supposing that only one sample's text embedding (marked with a red edge) is changeable along the circle (denoted as a red dotted circle) of radius ε from its corresponding image embedding, and other embeddings with black edges are fixed. We simulate the training process by varying the radius ε of the circle (also the distance between cross-modal embedding) and the angle θ between the features. In the simulation, we monitor the changes in both the contrastive loss by Eq.(1)and affinity consistency by Eq.(4), as shown in Figure 4b. It can be observed that changes in radius ε significantly affect the contrastive loss, whereas changes in angle θ significantly affect the affinity consistency. This implies that during the training process, the contrastive loss only has a direct impact on the relative distance (similarity) between cross-modal features, but is less sensitive to their relative angular relationships. However, these angular relationships significantly affect affinity consistency, leading to the affinity inconsistency problem.

4. Methodology

In this section, we first present the design of our proposed SaCo loss in Sec. 4.1, and then introduce two strategies for incorporating our loss function into vision-language pre-training in Sec. 4.2.

4.1. SaCo Loss

To address the affinity inconsistency problem, we propose a simple yet powerful loss function, named sample-wise affinity consistency (SaCo) loss. The idea of our loss is quite intuitive. Specifically, given a batch of N image-text pair samples, they are passed through the corresponding encoder to extract the image embedding $\{\mathbf{I}_i\}_{i=1}^N$ and text embedding $\{\mathbf{T}_i\}_{i=1}^N$, respectively. Note that the embeddings are L2-normalized. First, for the *i*-th data point, we calculate the image embedding similarity vector \mathbf{S}_i^I and the text embedding similarity vector \mathbf{S}_i^T between the current data and each data within the same batch, check Eq.(2) for details. Then, our SaCo loss can be formulated as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{SaCo}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} D\left(\mathbf{S}_{i}^{I}, \mathbf{S}_{i}^{T}\right), \tag{5}$$

where $D(\cdot, \cdot)$ denotes the L1 distance between two input vectors as defined in Eq.(3). It measures the consistency degree between the vision-modality affinity and languagemodality affinity. Therefore, minimizing this SaCo loss can specifically bridge the gap between vision and language modality on sample-wise affinity. We will show that our SaCo loss is well-compatible with existing vision-language pre-training models via experimentation.

4.2. Vision-language Pre-training with SaCo Loss

Our SaCo loss has broad applicability and can be used as an additional loss function for existing vision-language models. The overall training loss can be expressed as a weighted combination of the original loss functions (such as the contrastive loss in the CLIP model, as shown in Eq. (1)) and our loss. The equation for the total loss is as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{total}} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{original}} + \alpha \mathcal{L}_{\text{SaCo}},\tag{6}$$

where α represents the weight coefficient. We then present two strategies for incorporating our SaCo loss into visionlanguage pre-training, along with detailed designs.

4.2.1 Pre-training from Scratch

Pre-training from scratch is the most commonly used strategy, in which the parameters are randomly initialized before



Figure 5. (a) The evolution of affinity accuracy during training. (b) Comparison of different solutions for the instability issue when pre-training from scratch. The pseudo-affinity mimicking strategy performs best. All the experiments are pre-trained on the CC3M dataset and utilize the CLIP with ViT-B/32 image encoder as the baseline model.

training. In practice, we observe some instabilities when pre-training from scratch with our SaCo loss. As shown in the yellow curve in Figure 3b, it first drops sharply, then starts to rise, and finally decreases again in the later training stage. To investigate the reason, we monitor how the accuracy of affinity varies with training. The accuracy is estimated by the correlation between the affinity from different training stages and that from a well-trained model, such as CLIP ViT-L/14. As shown in Figure 5a, in the early training stage, the correlation is quite low and the query results almost have no common visual components with the query image containing "Pastries". Obviously, the affinity in both modalities is extremely noisy in the early training stage. At this time, it is ineffective to overemphasize the affinity consistency and will hinder the optimization of embedding space. For the aforementioned problem, we design and compare several strategies as follows:

- 1) Incremental loss weight. Considering that inaccurate affinity usually appears in the early training stage, we gradually increase the weight α of the SaCo loss in Eq.(6) as the training progresses.
- 2) Sample-wise masking. We utilize the similarity between image and text embeddings as a criterion to assess the representation quality. The larger the similarity, the more reliable the representations are. By thresholding the similarity, we obtain a binary mask that indicates whether each sample needs to be subjected to SaCo loss.
- 3) *Pseudo-affinity mimicking*. We allow the training model to mimic a pseudo-affinity predicted by a public well-trained model (*e.g.*, CLIP [55], DINOv2 [49]). Similar to the SaCo loss, this pseudo-affinity mimicking process can be formulated as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{mimic}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} D\left(\mathbf{S}_{i}^{I}, \tilde{\mathbf{S}}_{i}^{I}\right), \tag{7}$$

where $\tilde{\mathbf{S}}_{i}^{I}$ is the predicted pseudo-affinity, and $D(\cdot, \cdot)$ denotes L1 distance. This objective is also integrated via

weighted summation, and the total loss is an extension to Eq.(6), that is,

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{total}} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{original}} + \alpha \mathcal{L}_{\text{SaCo}} + \beta \mathcal{L}_{\text{mimic}}, \qquad (8)$$

where β is the weight for pseudo-affinity mimicking.

Experimentally, we find that the third solution is the most effective choice (see Figure 5b). Note that this mimicking is better to be only performed in the visual modality (detailed in Sec. 5.4 and Table 5). Please refer to supplementary materials for more motivations, details, analysis, and other potential solutions.

4.2.2 Continue Pre-training

Given a well-trained vision-language model (VLM), one can also continuously pre-train the well-trained model by incorporating our SaCo loss. In this case, we empirically find that it is no longer necessary to mimic the pseudoaffinity for training stability, as the affinity of a well-trained model has already been optimized to a good state. In addition, under this strategy, it is not indispensable to use the original pre-training dataset of the well-trained VLM. As shown in Table 3, even a relatively small public dataset can lead to significant improvement. Therefore, it is beneficial for models trained with private data and efficient training.

5. Experiments

We first briefly describe the experimental setups in Sec. 5.1. Then, we analyze the performance on various vision-language tasks in Sec. 5.2 and 5.3. Ablation studies are conducted in Sec. 5.4 to investigate the effect of each key design and hyper-parameter.

5.1. Experimental Setup

Datasets. For pre-training, the experiments are conducted on two open-source image-text datasets at different scales: CC3M [56] and YFCC15M [32]. We perform evaluations across a wide range of tasks. The datasets utilized for each task are detailed in the supplementary materials.

Baseline Models. In our experiments, the main baseline model is the CLIP [55] with three kinds of image encoders: ResNet-50 [55], ViT-B/32 [10], and ViT-B/16 [10].

Pre-train Settings. The experiments are conducted on 16 NVIDIA V100 GPUs, and implemented with PyTorch [50]. Details are listed in supplementary materials.

5.2. Comparison on Pre-training from Scratch

Zero-shot Classification. Zero-shot classification [57] requires a model to classify data it has never been explicitly trained on. Table 1 compares the zero-shot ImageNet-1K classification accuracy of the models pre-trained from scratch on datasets with different scales. When pre-training

Pre-train	Madaad	Image	ImageNet-1K		
Dataset	Method	Encoder	Top-1 Acc.	Top-5 Acc.	
	CLIP	R50	17.9	36.3	
	CLIP + Ours	R50	22.5 (+4.6)	41.3 (+5.0)	
CC2M	CLIP	ViT-B/32	11.9	26.2	
ССЭМ	CLIP + Ours	ViT-B/32	18.3 (+6.4)	35.1 (+8.9)	
	CLIP	ViT-B/16	16.6	33.1	
	CLIP + Ours	ViT-B/16	21.8 (+5.2)	40.0 (+6.9)	
	CLIP	R50	37.2	62.1	
YFCC15M	CLIP + Ours	R50	42.0 (+4.8)	67.6 (+5.5)	
	CLIP	ViT-B/32	31.2	55.7	
	CLIP + Ours	ViT-B/32	38.0 (+6.8)	63.2 (+7.5)	
	CLIP	ViT-B/16	37.6	63.5	
	CLIP + Ours	ViT-B/16	43.5 (+5.9)	69.3 (+5.8)	

Table 1. Zero-shot ImageNet-1K classification results for the models pre-trained from scratch. "Acc." is the short for "Accuracy".

on CC3M, our approach can bring consistent performance improvement to all the CLIP variants, for example, +4.6%, +5.2%, and +6.4% accuracy gain for R50, ViT-B/16, and ViT-B/32 respectively. The model with 15M pre-trained data still shows similar improvement from +4.8% to +6.8% top-1 accuracy across all variants.

Zero-shot Image-Text Retrieval. The zero-shot retrieval experiments include image-to-text (I2T) retrieval and zeroshot text-to-image (T2I) retrieval. The recall performance on these two tasks is summarized in Table 2, considering two widely-used benchmarks. Strikingly, pre-training with our loss yields a significant improvement over the baseline by a large margin. Specifically, for the Flickr30K [52] dataset, we achieve a remarkable improvement ranging from +8.0% to +12.8% in Recall@1 for I2T retrieval, and +6.1% to +7.9% in Recall@1 for T2I retrieval, across different baseline variants. For the more challenging MS-COCO [38] dataset, our loss leads to an improvement of approximately +5% in Recall@1 for I2T retrieval, and a gain of +2.7% to +3.7% in Recall@1 for T2I retrieval. When considering the top-10 retrieval results (measured by Recall@10), the improvement more than doubles, achieving +8.0% to +11.5% for I2T retrieval, and +4.3% to +10.3% for T2I retrieval.

When pre-training on a larger dataset (YFCC15M [32]), our loss continues to achieve sustained improvements on the MS-COCO dataset. We observe an approximate increase of +3% to +5% in Recall@1 and +4% to +7% in Recall@5 for both I2T and T2I retrieval. On the Flickr30K dataset, although the improvement margin slightly narrows compared to that of the CC3M pre-trained model, it is still substantial. We observe an improvement of approximately +5% in Recall@1 for I2T retrieval and +4.8% to +6.4% in Recall@1 for T2I retrieval. It is worth highlighting the significant performance gain achieved with our loss on both datasets.

Dra train	Method	Image Encoder	Flickr30K (1K test set)	MS-COCO (5K test set)		
Dataset			Image \rightarrow Text R@1/R@5/R@10	Text \rightarrow Image R@1/R@5/R@10	Image \rightarrow Text R@1/R@5/R@10	$\begin{array}{c} \text{Text} \rightarrow \text{Image} \\ \text{R@1} / \text{R@5} / \text{R@10} \end{array}$	
	CLIP	R50	29.2 / 58.5 / 70.5	24.8 / 51.7 / 63.2	16.4 / 38.2 / 50.2	13.3 / 32.4 / 43.5	
	CLIP + Ours	R50	42.0 / 72.1 / 80.1 (+12.8 / +13.5 / +9.6)	31.8 / 57.8 / 67.9 (+7.0 / +6.1 / +4.7)	21.1 / 45.3 / 58.1 (+4.7 / +7.1 / +7.9)	16.0 / 36.5 / 47.8 (+2.7 / +4.1 / +4.3)	
	CLIP	ViT-B/32	16.0 / 39.1 / 51.7	12.2 / 30.1 / 40.3	8.2 / 22.5 / 32.0	6.5 / 18.2 / 25.8	
CC3M	CLIP + Ours	ViT-B/32	25.3 / 51.1 / 63.8 (+9.3 / +12.0 / +12.1)	18.3 / 40.0 / 50.5 (+6.1 / +9.9 / +10.2)	13.5 / 32.5 / 43.5 (+5.3 / +10.0 / +11.5)	10.2 / 25.8 / 36.1 (+3.7 / +7.6 / +10.3)	
	CLIP	ViT-B/16	26.7 / 54.4 / 65.9	18.8 / 41.0 / 52.4	13.2 / 31.5 / 43.2	10.0 / 25.6 / 35.8	
	CLIP + Ours	ViT-B/16	34.7 / 65.8 / 76.6 (+8.0 / +11.4 / +10.7)	26.7 / 51.4 / 62.0 (+7.9 / +10.4 / +9.6)	17.2 / 39.6 / 51.2 (+4.0 / +8.1 / +8.0)	13.3 / 32.1 / 43.1 (+3.3 / +6.5 / +7.3)	
YFCC15M	CLIP	R50	54.0 / 81.3 / 87.7	35.6 / 63.5 / 74.0	27.8 / 51.9 / 63.1	16.3 / 37.1 / 48.9	
	CLIP + Ours	R50	59.1 / 84.6 / 91.0 (+5.1 / +3.3 / +3.3)	40.4 / 66.8 / 76.1 (+4.8 / +3.3 / +2.1)	32.7 / 58.8 / 70.4 (+4.9 / +6.9 / +7.3)	20.9 / 43.8 / 55.6 (+4.6 / +6.7 / +6.7)	
	CLIP	ViT-B/32	42.1 / 68.9 / 78.8	25.3 / 50.1 / 61.9	23.1 / 46.0 / 57.8	13.8 / 32.6 / 43.7	
	CLIP + Ours	ViT-B/32	47.2 / 75.6 / 85.6 (+5.1 / +6.7 / +6.8)	31.7 / 57.7 / 67.7 (+6.4 / +7.6 / +5.8)	27.2 / 53.4 / 65.9 (+4.1 / +7.4 / +8.1)	17.9 / 39.3 / 50.6 (+4.1 / +6.7 / +6.9)	
	CLIP	ViT-B/16	53.5 / 80.5 / 89.1	34.5 / 61.6 / 72.8	30.3 / 55.6 / 66.7	18.0 / 40.4 / 51.8	
	CLIP + Ours	ViT-B/16	58.9 / 85.7 / 91.9 (+5.4 / +5.2 / +2.8)	40.5 / 67.9 / 77.0 (+6.0 / +6.3 / +4.2)	33.4 / 60.1 / 71.6 (+3.1 / +4.5 / +4.9)	22.7 / 45.4 / 56.7 (+4.7 / +5.0 / +4.9)	

Table 2. Zero-shot image-text retrieval results. All the models are pre-trained from scratch. "R@k" is short for "Recall@k".

Method	Image Encoder	Image R@1	Flickr30K (→ Text R@5	1K test set) Text → R@1	Image R@5	Image R@1	$\begin{array}{c} \text{MS-COCO} \\ \rightarrow \text{Text} \\ R@5 \end{array}$	(5K test set) Text → R@1	Image R@5	ImageNet-1K Top-1 Acc.
CLIP	ViT-B/32	77.8	94.1	57.0	82.8	49.6	73.6	29.3	54.7	63.0
CLIP + Ours	ViT-B/32	81.7 (+3.9)	95.5 (+1.4)	64.9 (+7.9)	88.1 (+5.3)	54.6 (+5.0)	77.6 (+4.0)	36.1 (+6.8)	62.0 (+7.3)	64.0 (+1.0)
CLIP	ViT-B/16	81.7	96.0	60.8	85.1	51.8	75.7	32.0	57.2	68.2
CLIP + Ours	ViT-B/16	85.5 (+3.8)	96.5 (+0.5)	69.1 (+8.3)	90.1 (+5.0)	57.8 (+6.0)	80.0 (+4.3)	39.8 (+7.8)	64.7 (+7.5)	69.3 (+1.1)

Table 3. Performance of the continuously pre-trained models on zero-shot classification and image-text retrieval. We perform continue pre-training on the baseline CLIP model published by OpenAI. "R@k" is short for "Recall@k".

Summary and Analysis. Interestingly, we notice about $1\sim 2$ times the performance gain on I2T retrieval than T2I retrieval, which indicates that our loss brings a more prominent improvement for the text embedding space than image embedding space. It reveals that there is a greater improvement potential for text embedding space, as our design has no particular preference for the language modality. These findings demonstrate the benefits of our proposed loss for enhancing the joint embedding space across modalities.

5.3. Comparison on Continue Pre-training

We build upon OpenAI's publicly available $CLIP^1$ as the baseline and conduct continuous pre-training using our proposed loss on the LLaVA-595K dataset [41]. The superiority of our approach is demonstrated in Table 3. Notably, the most substantial improvement is observed in the image-text retrieval task, with a Recall@1 increase of approximately +3% to +4%. This improvement is approximately three

times larger than the improvement observed in the classification task. Here, the significant enhancement is actually due to the fact that the retrieval task places a higher demand on the quality of the affinity. Our proposed approach better aligns the affinities between images and their corresponding text descriptions, resulting in better affinity affinities and improved retrieval performance.

5.4. Ablation Study

Component Effect. Table 4 shows that both SaCo loss and pseudo-affinity label mimicking are essential components for achieving the best performance in our approach. Mimicking the pseudo affinity alone only brings a minor improvement, as it does not effectively constrain the crossmodal consistency of sample-wise affinity. This highlights the importance of cross-modal affinity consistency as an indispensable objective, while pseudo-affinity mimicking contributes to training stability and convergence to a better local optimum. For continue pre-training, solely using our

https://github.com/openai/CLIP

Pre-train Schedule	SaCo Loss	Pseudo Affinity	ImageNet-1K Top-1 Acc.	Flick I2T(R@1)	r30K T2I(R@1)
From Scratch	\checkmark	√ √	11.9 17.5 (+5.6) 12.4 (+0.5) 18.3 (+6.4)	16.0 23.2 (+7.2) 17.8 (+1.8) 25.3 (+9.3)	12.2 16.3 (+4.1) 13.7 (+1.5) 18.3 (+6.1)
Continue	√ √	√ √	63.0 64.0 (+1.0) 60.8 (-2.2) 63.2 (+0.2)	77.8 81.7 (+3.9) 76.3 (-1.5) 78.6 (+0.8)	57.0 64.9 (+7.9) 52.6 (-4.4) 59.8 (+2.8)

Table 4. Ablation on the effect of each component. The CLIP with ViT-B32 image encoder is used as the baseline model. We report the Top-1 Accuracy (Acc.) for zero-shot classification, and Recall@1 (R@1) for both zero-shot image-to-text (I2T) and text-to-image (T2I) retrieval.

SaCo loss performs best while mimicking pseudo-affinity leads to a significant decline in overall performance. This can be attributed to the fact that a well-trained model has already learned a relatively optimal sample-wise affinity, and forcibly aligning its affinity with the pseudo-affinity predicted by another model will excessively disrupt its embedding space.

Investigate the Pseudo-affinity. Table 5 highlights several important findings. Firstly, replicating pseudo-affinity in both modalities simultaneously (row 1 vs 7) conflicts with the purpose of our approach, which is to address the poor cross-modal consistency of pseudo-affinity in existing models. Secondly, mimicking visual pseudo-affinity is better than linguistic counterpart due to noisy textual information in image-text datasets (see row 2-3 vs 7). Images provide more comprehensive information. Thirdly, visionlanguage models like CLIP [55] yield better pseudo-affinity than vision-only models like DINOv2 [49]. ImageNet-1K pre-trained models have the worst results (see line 9,10) due to limited semantic concepts in the training data. In addition, It is better to use a similar architecture vision model to generate pseudo-affinity for training vision-language models.

Loss Weights. Figure 6 shows the effect of weight coefficient α and β corresponding to our SaCo loss and pseudoaffinity mimicking, respectively. For both of them, the performance shows an unimodal shape as weight varies. We empirically set $\alpha = \beta = 5$.

6. Conclusion

This paper investigates and analyzes a problem of inconsistent cross-modal affinity in vision-language models, namely "Affinity Inconsistency Problem". To solve this problem, we propose a novel loss function, named Sample-wise affinity Consistency (SaCo) loss, which aims to enhance the

		Pseudo Affinity Source		ImageNet-1K	Flickr30K	
	Model	Modality	Model	Top-1 Acc.	I2T R@1	T2I R@1
1		Vision- Language	CLIP ViT-L/14	18.5	26.1	20.1
2		Language	CLIP-Text	20.7	32.5	24.5
3			BERT-Base	20.5	31.5	23.3
4	CLIP	Vision	R50 [†]	20.6	32.4	23.7
5	ViT-B/16		ViT-B/32 [†]	21.3	33.6	25.8
6			ViT-B/16 [†]	21.7	34.0	26.2
7			ViT-L/14 [†]	21.8	34.7	26.7
8			ViT-L/14*	21.6	34.0	26.3
9			ViT-L/14 [‡]	19.4	29.8	22.0
10		T 7	R50 [‡]	18.8	31.0	26.0
11	CLIP		R50 [†]	22.5	42.0	31.8
12	R50	vision	ViT-B/16 [†]	22.5	40.1	30.8
13			ViT-L/14 [†]	22.2	39.5	30.7

Table 5. Ablation on the effect of pseudo-affinity. All the experiments are pre-trained from scratch on CC3M. We report the Top-1 Accuracy (Acc.) for zero-shot classification, and Recall@1 (R@1) for both zero-shot image-to-text (I2T) and text-to-image (T2I) retrieval. "‡" denotes the model is supervised pre-trained on ImageNet-1K. "‡" represents the official CLIP [55] published by OpenAI. "*" indicates the model is self-supervised pre-trained via DINOv2 [49].



Figure 6. Ablation on loss weights. α is the weight coefficient for our SaCo loss. β corresponds to the pseudo-affinity mimicking objective.

sample-wise affinity consistency by minimizing the distance between image embedding similarity and text embedding similarity for any two samples. Our loss can either be used to pre-train models from scratch or applied to welltrained models via continue pre-training. Extensive experiments indicate that our SaCo loss can bring significant improvement in a broad range of tasks, which highlights the importance of sample-wise affinity consistency across different modalities.

Acknowledgements. This work was supported in part by the Research Grants Council under the Areas of Excellence scheme grant AoE/E-601/22-R, Hong Kong Research Grant Council - Early Career Scheme (Grant No. 27209621), General Research Fund Scheme (Grant No. 17202422), and RGC Matching Fund Scheme (RMGS).

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