Fashion Image Retrieval with Text Feedback by Additive Attention Compositional Learning

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Abstract

Effective fashion image retrieval with text feedback stands to impact a range of real-world applications, such as e-commerce. Given a source image and text feedback that describes the desired modifications to that image, the goal is to retrieve the target images that resemble the source yet satisfy the given modifications by composing a multi-modal (image-text) query. We propose a novel solution to this problem, Additive Attention Compositional Learning (AACL), that uses a multi-modal transformer-based architecture and effectively models the image-text contexts. Specifically, we propose a novel image-text composition module based on additive attention that can be seamlessly plugged into deep neural networks. We also introduce a new challenging benchmark derived from the Shopping100k dataset. AACL is evaluated on three large-scale datasets (FashionIQ, Fashion200k, and Shopping100k), each with strong baselines. Extensive experiments show that AACL achieves new state-of-the-art results on all three datasets.

1. Introduction

Image retrieval is a fundamental task in computer vision and serves as the cornerstone for a wide range of applications such as fashion retrieval [41, 53], geolocalization [40, 58], and face recognition [56]. There are several ways to formulate the search query such as keywords [2, 69], a query image [64, 62], or even a sketch [21, 34, 67, 8, 9, 51]. However, a core challenge in traditional image retrieval is that it is difficult for the user to refine the retrieved items based on their intentions. A range of approaches to incorporate user feedback to refine the retrieved images have been explored. Combining natural language feedback with a query image is a particularly promising framework since it provides a natural and flexible way for users to convey the image modifications that they have in mind.

In this work, we investigate image retrieval with text feedback where the goal is to retrieve images that are similar to a query image but incorporate the modifications described by the text. Such multi-modal and complementary input provides users with a powerful and intuitive visual search experience. However, as a multi-modal learning problem, it requires the synergistic understanding of both visual and linguistic content which can be a challenge. While image search with text feedback lies at the intersection of vision and language analysis, it differs from other extensively studied vision-and-language tasks, such as image-text matching [38, 36, 70, 28], image captioning [50, 47, 16], and visual question answering [22, 30, 12, 10]. This difference stems from the significant challenge of learning a composite representation that jointly captures the visual content of the query image and the linguistic information in the accompanying text to match the target image of interest.

A fundamental challenge in image-text compositional learning is characterizing global concepts from the query image and text representation simultaneously. For instance, when the text describes a modification to the color and neckline of a dress in a query image, the composition module should capture the concept of transforming the color and neckline, but it should also preserve the other visual concepts such as the trim, and material of the dress (Figure 1).
Another challenge is how to *selectively* modify the query image representation using the captured contextual information so that it is close to the target image representation in the latent space.

We propose a novel transformer-based Additive Attention Compositional Learning (AACL) model to address these challenges. The key idea is that we learn a contextual vector from the joint visiolinguistic representation. AACL then selectively modifies the query image tokens using the global context vector such that the composite features preserve the visual content of the image that should not be changed while transforming the relevant content according to the accompanying text.

We empirically compare our AACL approach with the state-of-the-art (SOTA) methods for visual search with text feedback on three large-scale fashion datasets: FashionIQ [23], Fashion200k [24], and a new challenging benchmark derived from Shopping100k [3]. We show that our proposed compositional learning method outperforms existing methods on all three datasets.

We make the following fundamental contributions:

- We propose a novel multi-modal additive attention layer capable of learning a global context vector which is used to selectively modify the image representation in an efficient way.
- We develop a fully transformer-based model for the challenging task of visual search with text feedback and demonstrate that it achieves state-of-the-art performance through extensive experiments on several large-scale fashion datasets.
- We create a new image-text retrieval dataset derived from Shopping100k. This new dataset features a wider range of fashion categories and attributes, resulting in an additional challenging benchmark for the research community.

2. Related Work

2.1. Image Retrieval with Text Feedback

Image retrieval with text feedback has been of interest to the computer vision research community for some time and a number of efforts (e.g., [5, 45, 60, 7]) have investigated effective ways to combine image and text representations. The text feedback can be provided in various ways, including absolute attributes (e.g., “red”) [2, 69, 24], simple relative attributes (e.g., “more red”) [48, 35, 65], or full natural language phrases [60, 4, 29, 14, 20, 55, 31]. Natural language is the preferred method of interaction between humans and computers in contemporary search engines. For image search in particular, it allows a user to convey detailed and precise specifications or modifications in a very natural way. We therefore focus on query-based image search with accompanying natural language phrases.

Previous methods [4, 13, 31, 20, 55] for image retrieval with text feedback rely heavily on convolution to aggregate features. In contrast, ours is the first approach to efficiently learn features globally via attention. Previous works have also relied on complicated hierarchical feature aggregation [14, 29], multiple forms of text feedback [14, 4], or multiple loss functions [14, 29, 4]. The winning solutions [31, 32, 54] for the FashionIQ 2020 challenge—an interactive image retrieval challenge—employed common performance boosting techniques such as careful hyperparameter tuning and model ensembles to improve the results. In contrast, AACL focuses on the *design of the image-text composition module* and achieves state-of-the-art performance via feature fusion in one step, which is more efficient and easier to adapt to other frameworks.

2.2. Image-Text Composition

While there has been much effort and different kinds of methods proposed to achieve the top scores on benchmarks involving images and text, relatively few have focused on the image-text composition module itself. In [33], the authors propose a multi-modal residual network (MRN) that learns representations by fusing visual and textual features through element-wise multiplication and residual learning. FiLM [49] utilizes a linear modulation component in which text information modifies the image representation via a feature-wise affine transformation. Vo et al. proposed TIRG [60], which uses a gating mechanism to determine the channels of the image representation that should be modified by the conditioning text. In ComposeAE [4], a complex embedding space that semantically ties the representations from text and image modalities is designed. Recently, MAAF [20] improved multi-modal image search via a Modality-Agnostic Attention Fusion model. This model uses a dot product attention mechanism as found in the standard transformer architecture. Additionally, resolution-wise pooling is proposed to aggregate fine-grained features from a ResNet [25] CNN. RTIC [55] consists of a residual text and image composer to encode the errors between the source and target images in the latent space and includes a graph convolutional network for regularization. Our work differs from these composition modules in that we utilize a novel image and text composition module via additive attention [6, 46] to model global contexts. Furthermore, we use an element-wise product to model the interaction between the global context and each input token, which both greatly reduces the computational cost and effectively captures the contextual information [33, 31, 63].

2.3. Attention Mechanism

The concept of attention has gained popularity recently in neural networks as it allows the models to learn representations from different modalities [33, 27, 20, 14, 5, 18]. The two most commonly used attention functions are additive [6], and dot-product (multiplicative) attention [59].
Dot-product attention has a drawback, however, in that it has to attend to all the tokens on the source side for each target token, which is expensive and can potentially be impractical for longer sequences. Additive attention has been shown experimentally to achieve higher accuracy than multiplicative attention in some scenarios [46, 63]. Inspired by this, we propose an additive attention composition module for feature fusion.

2.4. Vision-Language (VL) Pre-training

Although image retrieval with text feedback shares some similarity with VL pre-training [57, 15, 39, 68, 66, 37], the focus of our work is distinct. The goal of VL pre-training is to learn cross-modal representations, which can be adapted to serve various down-stream tasks via fine-tuning [39]. However, our work focuses on the image-text composition module itself, which performs single stage late feature fusion with image and text embeddings from separate transformer encoders.

3. Method

Figure 2 presents the overall architecture of our Additive Attention Compositional Learning (AACL) framework. Given a source image $x$ and text feedback $t$ as the input query, the goal of AACL is to learn a composite representation $o_{xt}$ that can be used to retrieve relevant images $y$ from a target database. AACL contains three key components: (1) an image encoder for visual semantic representation learning, (2) a text encoder for natural language representation learning, and (3) an additive attention composition module that modifies the source image representation according to the text representation. In contrast to other approaches that use multiple stages of feature composition and matching (e.g., [14]), AACL does this in one stage using the final output of the image and text encoders.

In the following, we first provide an overview of the two encoders in Section 3.1. We then detail our novel composition module in Section 3.2 and our model optimization in Section 3.3.

3.1. Image and text representation

**Image Representation:** We employ a Swin Transformer [44] to derive a discriminative representation of the visual content of an image. As a transformer inherently learns visual concepts of increasing abstraction in a compositional, hierarchical order, we conjecture that image features from the final layer may not fully capture the visual information of the lower levels. We thus concatenate image tokens extracted from the final (Stage 4) and penultimate (Stage 3) layers of the Swin Transformer. Unless otherwise specified, our model uses these $49 \times 49$ image tokens for multi-level image understanding. A learned linear projection maps each image token to $d$ dimensions so that the final image representation is $\phi_x \in \mathbb{R}^{49 \times d}$.

**Text Representation:** The DistilBERT language representation model [52] is used to encode the semantics of the accompanying text. DistilBERT naturally yields $m$ tokens for the input words, namely the hidden states of the last layer of the model. We concatenate these tokens to form the final text representation $\phi_t \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$.

3.2. Additive Attention Composition Module

In order to jointly represent the image and text components of the query, we seek to transform the visual features conditioned on language semantics. To accomplish this, we propose an additive attention composition module for feature fusion. This module consists of multiple composition blocks that each employ additive self-attention to learn a context vector which then selectively modifies the
joint visiolinguistic representation. The final output of these blocks yields a modified image representation that is meant to faithfully capture the input image and text information.

**Visiolinguistic Representation:** In order to obtain the input representation for our first composition block, the image tokens $\phi_i$ and text tokens $\phi_t$ are concatenated to obtain the visiolinguistic representation $\phi_{xt} = [\phi_i, \phi_t]$. The final representation is denoted as $\phi_{xt} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$, where $N$ is the combined count of image and text tokens.

**Additive Self-Attention Layer:** In order to discover the latent relationships essential for learning the transformation, we use the additive attention composition mechanism to learn a context vector $c$, then selectively suppress and highlight the representations from each token. Similar to [63], we first use a linear transformation layer to transform the input sequence into the hidden states: $h = F_h(\phi_i), i \in N$. The context vector $c$ that is learned to modify each token is generated as a weighted sum of these tokens $h_i$:

$$c = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i h_i.$$  

(1)

The weight $\alpha_i$ of each token $h_i$ is computed by

$$\alpha_i = \frac{\exp \left( w_h^T h_i / \sqrt{d} \right)}{\sum_{j=1}^{N} \exp \left( w_h^T h_j / \sqrt{d} \right)}.$$  

(2)

where $w_h \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ is learned during the training process, and $w_h^T h_i$ scores how much each input token contributes to the global context.

Next, to selectively suppress and highlight the visual content in $h$, a Hadamard product is introduced to reuse the global contextual information, which is motivated by its effectiveness in modeling the nonlinear relationship between two vectors [61, 63, 26]. It is formulated as $v_i = c \odot h_i$. Another linear transformation layer $F_c$ is applied to each token $v_i$ to learn its hidden representation. To form the final output of the additive attention layer, we add the hidden states $h_i$ that capture relevant source-side information to the transformed latent features. The final output of the additive self-attention layer is:

$$o_i = h_i + F_c(c \odot h_i).$$  

(3)

**Composition Block:** Following the standard transformer architecture [59], the additive attention composition module is composed of a stack of $L$ identical blocks with multiple heads. Different attention heads use the same formulation but different parameters, which allows the model to jointly attend to information from different representation subspaces at different positions. Each block has an additive self-attention layer followed by a linear layer and a feed-forward neural network. We also employ a residual connection and layer normalization after these linear and feed-forward components to get the composited image-text representation $o_{xt}$.

### 3.3. Deep Metric Learning

Our objective during training is to push the “modified” image representation $o_{xt}$ and the target image representations $\phi_y$ closer, while pulling apart the representations of dissimilar images. A batch-based classification loss as in [60] is used to train the model as early experiments showed that the triplet loss performs worse for the Recall@K metric. Each batch is constructed from $N$ pairs of a query (image and text) and its corresponding target image.

$$L = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^{B} - \log \left( \frac{\exp \left( \kappa (\phi_y, o_{xt}) \right)}{\sum_{j=1}^{B} \exp \left( \kappa (\phi_y, o_{xt}) \right)} \right)$$  

(4)

where $B$ is the batch size and $\kappa$ is a similarity kernel that is implemented as the dot product in our experiments.

### 4. Experiments

#### 4.1. Experimental Setup

**Datasets:** We evaluate our model on three datasets—FashionIQ, Fashion200k and our modified version of Shopping100k—in order to validate its ability to generalize to a variety of natural language expressions. We provide details of these datasets in Sections 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4, respectively.

**Implementation Details:** We use the PyTorch deep learning framework to conduct all our experiments. The Swin Transformer [44] is used as the backbone for the image encoder. The transformer model is initialized using weights first pre-trained on ImageNet-22K and then fine-tuned on ImageNet-1K [17].

We extract sequences of 1024-dimensional tokens from Stages 3 and 4 of the model and then project the tokens to $d$ dimensions, which for our experiments is 768. We learn the text embedding using a pre-trained DistilBERT model [52], which yields a 768-dimensional token for each input word. The original BERT model is pre-trained on BooksCorpus (800M words) and English Wikipedia (2,500M words) [19]. We employ 3 additive attention composition blocks and 8 parallel attention heads for each block. For training, we use SGD optimization with a learning rate of 0.035. We train all models using 4 GPUs with a batch size of 32 per GPU. For FashionIQ, we employ a learning rate decay of 0.1 every 10 epochs for 60 epochs. For Fashion200k and our modified Shopping100k, we use the same decay value but every 30 epochs for 100 epochs.

**Evaluation Metric:** Following [60, 55, 20], we adopt Recall@K (denoted as R@K for short) for evaluation, a standard metric in retrieval. The relative margin expresses the absolute changes as a percentage of the baseline value.

** Compared Methods:** We compare the results of AACL with several methods, namely: FiLM, MRN, TIRG, Com-
Table 1: Comparison of image search with text feedback on FashionIQ. Averaged R@10/50 computed over all three categories. * denotes results obtained with the same image encoder and text encoder as AACL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Shirt R@10</th>
<th>Shirt R@50</th>
<th>Dress R@10</th>
<th>Dress R@50</th>
<th>Topee R@10</th>
<th>Topee R@50</th>
<th>Average (R@10 + R@50)/2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MRN [33]</td>
<td>15.88</td>
<td>34.33</td>
<td>12.32</td>
<td>32.18</td>
<td>18.11</td>
<td>36.33</td>
<td>24.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FiLM [49]</td>
<td>15.04</td>
<td>34.09</td>
<td>14.23</td>
<td>33.34</td>
<td>17.30</td>
<td>37.68</td>
<td>25.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIRG [60]</td>
<td>16.12</td>
<td>37.69</td>
<td>19.15</td>
<td>43.01</td>
<td>21.21</td>
<td>47.08</td>
<td>30.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAAF [20]</td>
<td>21.30</td>
<td>44.20</td>
<td>23.80</td>
<td>48.60</td>
<td>27.90</td>
<td>53.60</td>
<td>36.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTIC [55]</td>
<td>22.03</td>
<td>45.29</td>
<td>27.37</td>
<td>52.95</td>
<td>27.33</td>
<td>53.60</td>
<td>38.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIRG*</td>
<td>21.38±0.54</td>
<td>46.28±0.78</td>
<td>25.82±0.39</td>
<td>53.21±0.33</td>
<td>26.73±0.72</td>
<td>53.17±0.29</td>
<td>37.77±0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAAF*</td>
<td>23.55±0.31</td>
<td>46.38±1.34</td>
<td>28.75±0.63</td>
<td>54.48±0.49</td>
<td>29.70±0.45</td>
<td>55.84±0.87</td>
<td>39.78±0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTIC*</td>
<td>23.03±0.63</td>
<td>46.68±0.52</td>
<td>26.86±0.74</td>
<td>52.80±0.61</td>
<td>27.21±0.89</td>
<td>53.24±0.66</td>
<td>38.31±0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AACL</td>
<td>24.82±0.62</td>
<td>48.85±0.77</td>
<td>29.89±0.65</td>
<td>55.85±0.87</td>
<td>30.88±1.2</td>
<td>56.85±1.16</td>
<td>41.19±0.88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3: Qualitative results of AACL on FashionIQ dataset. Blue/green boxes: query/target images.

poseAE, MAAF and RTIC. We explained them briefly in Section 2.2.

4.2. FashionIQ

FashionIQ [23] is a natural language based interactive fashion product retrieval dataset. It contains 77,684 images crawled from Amazon.com, covering three categories: Dresses, Tops&Tees and Shirts. Among the 46,609 training images, there are 18,000 image pairs. Each pair is accompanied by average two natural language sentences that describe one or multiple visual properties to modify in the reference image, such as “is shiny” or “is blue in color and floral, and with white base”. We follow the same evaluation protocol as [23], using the same training split and evaluation. During training, pairwise images with attribute-based product descriptions on-the-fly, e.g., “beige v-neck bell-sleeve top”. Following [60], we use the training split of 172,049 images for training and the test set of 33,480 test queries for evaluation. During training, pairwise images with attribute-like modification texts are generated by comparing their product descriptions on-the-fly, e.g., “replace black with blue” or “replace mini with midi”.

Table 2 shows our model achieves compelling results compared to other methods, most notably for R@1 where AACL outperforms the best competitor MAAF by a relative margin of 9.4%. We also observe that token based methods, namely MAAF and AACL, perform better than residual based methods. This indicates that the rich information contained in tokens is beneficial for feature composition. Figure 4 shows our qualitative results on Fashion200k. Our model is able to retrieve new images that resemble the reference image, while changing certain attributes conditioned on average R@10 and R@50 scores. Figure 3 presents our qualitative results on FashionIQ. We show top-5 retrieved images for each query image-text pair. These results demonstrate that our model can handle complex and realistic text descriptions. We also observe that our model can jointly comprehend global appearance (e.g., colors, material), as well as local fine-grained details (e.g., straps and neckline, length of sleeves), for image search.

4.3. Fashion200k

Fashion200k [24] is a large-scale fashion dataset crawled from multiple online shopping websites. It contains more than 200k fashion images collected for attribute-based product retrieval covering five categories, namely, Dresses, Jackets, Pants, Skirts, Tops. It also covers a diverse range of fashion concepts, with a total vocabulary size of 5,590. Each image is tagged with descriptive text corresponding to a product description, such as “beige v-neck bell-sleeve top”. Following [60], we use the training split of 172,049 images for training and the test set of 33,480 test queries for evaluation. During training, pairwise images with attribute-like modification texts are generated by comparing their product descriptions on-the-fly, e.g., “replace black with blue” or “replace mini with midi”.

Table 2 shows our model achieves compelling results compared to other methods, most notably for R@1 where AACL outperforms the best competitor MAAF by a relative margin of 9.4%. We also observe that token based methods, namely MAAF and AACL, perform better than residual based methods. This indicates that the rich information contained in tokens is beneficial for feature composition. Figure 4 shows our qualitative results on Fashion200k. Our model is able to retrieve new images that resemble the reference image, while changing certain attributes conditioned on average R@10 and R@50 scores. Figure 3 presents our qualitative results on FashionIQ. We show top-5 retrieved images for each query image-text pair. These results demonstrate that our model can handle complex and realistic text descriptions. We also observe that our model can jointly comprehend global appearance (e.g., colors, material), as well as local fine-grained details (e.g., straps and neckline, length of sleeves), for image search.
Table 2: Comparison of image search with text feedback on Fashion200k dataset. * denotes our implementation results obtained with the same image encoder and text encoder as AACL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R@1</th>
<th>R@10</th>
<th>R@50</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FIILM [49]</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>61.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MRN [33]</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>61.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIRG [60]</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>63.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ComposeAE [4]</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>45.4</td>
<td>63.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DCNet [31]</td>
<td>18.94</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAFF [20]</td>
<td>17.22±0.39</td>
<td>56.52±1.85</td>
<td>75.60±0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>TIRG</em></td>
<td>17.79±0.98</td>
<td>57.57±0.98</td>
<td>77.51±0.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
<sup>1</sup> RTIC

Figure 4: Qualitative results of AACL on Fashion200k dataset. Blue/green boxes: query/target images.

Table 3: Number of images in select categories (count > 2k) in Shopping100k dataset.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Jacket</th>
<th>Shirt</th>
<th>T-shirt</th>
<th>Jumper</th>
<th>Shorts</th>
<th>Trouser</th>
<th>Jean</th>
<th>Swim</th>
<th>Bottoms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>7,528</td>
<td>14,853</td>
<td>22,071</td>
<td>11,797</td>
<td>5,099</td>
<td>4,630</td>
<td>6,229</td>
<td>5,497</td>
<td>3,726</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

on text feedback—e.g., fit, color and length. We also observe that all retrieved images share the same semantics and are visually similar to the target image, indicating the quantitative performance is potentially underestimated.

4.4. Shopping100k

Shopping100k [3] is a large-scale fashion dataset of individual clothing items extracted from different e-commerce providers. It contains 101,021 images of 12 fashion attributes, covering the following categories: “collar”, “color”, “fabric”, “fastening”, “fit”, “gender”, “length”, “neckline”, “pattern”, “pocket”, “sleeve length”, and “sport”. A total of 151 different labels are generated by combinations of different attributes and the corresponding attributes values. Compared to FashionIQ and Fashion200k, the Shopping100k dataset is more diverse and only contains garments in isolation. In addition, FashionIQ and Fashion200k only contain 3 and 5 apparel categories, respectively.

Each image in Shopping100k is tagged with the attributes and attribute values, such as “Neckline: Backless, Sleeve: 3/4, Color: Navy, Fabric: Jersey, Pattern: Print, Category: Shirt, Fit: Large, Gender: Female”. There are 15 high-level apparel categories. To generate the dataset for image retrieval with text feedback, we remove categories that contain fewer than 2,000 images, namely “coat”, “suit”, “jumpsuit”, “pyjamas”, and “tracksuit”. The final set of 11 categories is listed in Table 3 along with the number of images in each category. A training split with 76,867 images and a validation split with 19,210 images is randomly sampled from these remaining categories.

To generate the training images pairs and modification text, we first derive a descriptive caption for each image using its tagged attribute values by concatenating the category with “is”, followed by attributes joined by “and”—e.g., “Shirt is Navy color and Jersey fabric and Large fit and Backless neckline and Print pattern and 3/4 sleeve”. Queries are created by selecting image pairs that differ in two attributes in the description. Note that we constrain the image pairs to be from the same apparel category and gender. The modification text is created with the apparel category plus the attribute modifications following the pattern “replace xx with xx”—i.e., “Shirt, replace Backless neckline with Square neckline, and replace 3/4 sleeve with Short sleeve” (Figure 5). During training, the query and target image pairs are selected on-the-fly based on the number of attributes we specify. For our experiments, 16,237 fixed test query pairs are generated from the validation set for performance evaluation.

Table 4 compares our approach to other methods on Shopping100k. Our model is shown to clearly outperform the SOTA baselines. Figure 6 presents some qualitative examples. These examples yield three observations. First, our model is capable of understanding rich image-text representations, including global attributes such as color, pattern, and fit, as well as local attributes such as collar, neckline, and sleeves. Second, our model is capable of using the text information to selectively modify the query images. As an example, for the first query the retrieved images preserve the striped pattern even though it is not requested in

<sup>1</sup> Full name of category “Bottoms” is “Tracksuit Bottoms”.

Figure 5: Example of image pair and generated text query from Shopping100k dataset. Gray words indicate shared attributes.
Table 4: Comparison of image search with text feedback on our modified Shopping100k dataset. Averages are computed over all categories. * denotes our implementation results obtained with the same image encoder and text encoder as AACL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Dress</th>
<th>Jacket</th>
<th>Jean</th>
<th>Jumper</th>
<th>Shirt</th>
<th>Shorts</th>
<th>Skirt</th>
<th>Swimming</th>
<th>T-shirt</th>
<th>Bottoms</th>
<th>Trouser</th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recall@1</td>
<td>12.01</td>
<td>48.56</td>
<td>81.25</td>
<td>13.51</td>
<td>35.14</td>
<td>81.25</td>
<td>12.84</td>
<td>10.24</td>
<td>11.51</td>
<td>8.32</td>
<td>13.03</td>
<td>10.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIRG</td>
<td>11.92</td>
<td>48.78</td>
<td>80.74</td>
<td>12.62</td>
<td>49.20</td>
<td>81.29</td>
<td>12.81</td>
<td>10.22</td>
<td>11.51</td>
<td>8.32</td>
<td>13.03</td>
<td>10.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAAP</td>
<td>12.26</td>
<td>49.20</td>
<td>81.29</td>
<td>13.51</td>
<td>35.14</td>
<td>81.25</td>
<td>12.84</td>
<td>10.24</td>
<td>11.51</td>
<td>8.32</td>
<td>13.03</td>
<td>10.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTIC</td>
<td>12.01</td>
<td>48.56</td>
<td>81.25</td>
<td>13.51</td>
<td>35.14</td>
<td>81.25</td>
<td>12.84</td>
<td>10.24</td>
<td>11.51</td>
<td>8.32</td>
<td>13.03</td>
<td>10.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AACL</td>
<td>12.26</td>
<td>49.20</td>
<td>81.29</td>
<td>13.51</td>
<td>35.14</td>
<td>81.25</td>
<td>12.84</td>
<td>10.24</td>
<td>11.51</td>
<td>8.32</td>
<td>13.03</td>
<td>10.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Ablation of using tokens from different Swin Transformer stages on our modified Shopping100k dataset.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage(s)</th>
<th>Recall@10</th>
<th>Recall@50</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stage 2</td>
<td>69.21±0.37</td>
<td>83.30±1.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 3</td>
<td>67.30±1.12</td>
<td>81.92±2.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 4</td>
<td>66.17±0.80</td>
<td>81.50±2.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6: Qualitative results of AACL on Shopping100k dataset. Blue/green boxes: query/target images.

Table 5: Ablation of using tokens from different Swin Transformer stages on our modified Shopping100k dataset.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Recall@10</th>
<th>Recall@50</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Additive → Dot-Product</td>
<td>48.37</td>
<td>80.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product → Addition</td>
<td>48.56</td>
<td>80.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AACL</td>
<td>49.20</td>
<td>81.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5. Ablation Study

Image representation: Table 5 compares the performance of AACL when using different image representations from the Swin Transformer on our modified Shopping100k dataset. The experiments reveal that using image tokens from Stages 3 and 4 is most effective for this task. The concatenation of two stages from the encoder considers richer forms of image representation. Somewhat surprisingly, concatenating representations from Stage 2 does not seem to benefit the task. This may suggest that at some point, the lower level information may distract the model from capturing meaningful global contextual information.

Additive attention: To assess the importance of additive attention, we perform a comparison by substituting with dot-products. Table 6 shows the comparison on our modified Shopping100k dataset. From these results, we that AACL does benefit consistently from the additive attention. In addition, dot product attention is more computationally expensive than additive attention, indicating this form performs consistently better than addition, indicating this form of non-linear modeling is beneficial.

4.6. Additional Qualitative Results

Figure 7 qualitatively compares our AACL model with TIRG, RTIC and MAAP on the FashionIQ dataset. Note that the query text of FashionIQ most closely resembles natural language as the queries are provided by annotators from English-speaking countries. Even though for each query image a single target image is defined, there can be multiple “perceptually acceptable” images. This is because there may exist multiple items in the database that are similar to the target image and satisfy the modifying text components of the query. In Figure 7a, for example, there is more than one tophoe that is short sleeved with gray and white stripes among the retrieved items, but only the target image is considered a correct match. Compared to the other models considered, our AACL model tends to find the best matching images that satisfy all conditions in the queries. In product attention. Table 6 “Additive → Dot-Product” shows the comparison on our modified Shopping100k dataset. From these results, we that AACL does benefit consistently from the additive attention. In addition, dot product attention is more computationally expensive than additive attention ($O(n^2)$ vs. $O(n)$) and as such the benefits of additive attention extend beyond evaluation performance gains.

Interaction function: We study the effect of using different functions, namely addition and Hadamard product, to model the interactions between the context vector and the individual tokens. We compare the standard AACL and this variant on Shopping100k. The results are shown in Table 6 “Product → Addition”. The Hadamard product performs consistently better than addition, indicating this form of non-linear modeling is beneficial.
Toptee is a short sleeve with gray and white stripes and it is pale grey and white stripes.

(a) Successful examples

Shirt has a brighter color and art and it has logo and light yellow color.

(b) Failed examples

Figure 7: Qualitative comparison on FashionIQ dataset. We present the query image and query text in the first row, followed by the top-5 retrieved images from the various models in subsequent rows. Blue/green boxes: query/target images.

Figure 8: Attention visualization of AACL model on FashionIQ dataset. Words with highest attention value in red.

Contrast, Figure 7b shows a failure case. Here, our AACL retrieves several “perceptually acceptable” results, though, this is treated as a failed case.

To interpret the attention learned by AACL, we visualize the attended regions in Figure 8. We apply a mask based on the attention flow to the input query image. The attention flow is generated as follows: We first multiply the $\alpha_{ij}$ in Equation 2 across all blocks to get the total attention flow for each token. Subsequently, the minimum word token flow score is mapped to zero and the maximum to one. Note that, since we are using the Swin Transformer as the image encoder, the encoded feature maps are $7 \times 7$ and the resulting visualization resolution appears lower than with other models. Nevertheless, given the same query image, we do observe that the spatially attended regions vary with different query text. This indicates that the additive self-attention selects different visual content to transform conditioned on the text query.

4.7. Limitations

The retrieved images are, to some extent, limited by what images are present in the target datasets. We note that the retrieved images may not fully fulfill the desired changes described by the text modifier while keeping the rest of the query image the same if there is no such target images. Another limitation is the attention visualization. As an active research topic, current attention visualization methods mainly focus on dot-product attention [1, 11]. Those widely adopted methods are not compatible with our additive attention module, and as such we adopted a simpler—and potentially less precise—visualization approach. How to obtain accurate labeled data is critical for the success of training models [42, 43]. However, the template-based relative caption generation method, although widely used, is not as accurate and diverse as human annotations.

5. Conclusion And Future Work

We present AACL, a novel and general-purpose solution to the challenging task of image search with text feedback. This framework features an additive self-attention layer that selectively preserves and transforms multi-level visual features conditioned on text semantics to derive an expressive composite representation. We validate the efficacy of AACL on three datasets, and demonstrate its consistent superiority in handling various text feedback for natural language expression. Overall, our work provides a novel approach along with a comprehensive evaluation, which collectively advance the research in interactive visual search using text feedback.

In addition to addressing some limitations mentioned above, there are many possible future research directions. First of all, we plan to leverage the recent advances in image generation to create realistic and desired images based on the query image-text pair. Second, automated relative captioning can be applied to generate text modifiers that better resemble natural language and reduce noisy query text.
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Neural Information Processing Systems


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