Supplementary Materials for Unified Visual-Semantic Embeddings

This supplementary material is organized as follows. First, in Appendix A, we provide more details for the implementation of our model and the training method. Second, in Appendix B, we provide the experiment setups, metrics, baseline implementations, qualitative examples and analysis for each experiment we discussed in the main text. We end this section with the visualization of the learned unified VSE space of different semantic levels.

A. Implementation Details

A.1. Generating Negative samples

To generate negative samples in sentence level, we follow the sampling paradigm introduced by [1]: We sample negative examples from all other captions/images in the dataset in a training batch. Note that as [1] shown, the batch size will largely affect the models' performance. For a fair comparison, we set the batch size as 128 which is the same as [1, 4]. In the rest of this section, we discuss in detail how we sample negative semantic components.

As for nouns, we sample 16 negative nouns from a fixed set of nouns: This noun set is extracted from nouns with frequency more than 100 (in total 1,205 nouns extracted in MS-COCO dataset).

As for attribute-noun pairs, we randomly sample 8 other attributes in a fixed attribute set and replace the original attribute in the pair, as negative examples. The attribute set is composed by the frequently appeared attributes in the MS-COCO dataset. In detail, we extract in total 37 attributes, *i.e.*, white, black, red, green, brown, yellow, orange, pink, gray/grey, purple, young, wooden, old, snowy, grassy, cloudy, colorful, sunny, beautiful, bright, sandy, fresh, morden, cute, dry, dirty, clean, polar, crowded, silver, plastic, concrete, rocky, wooded, messy, square. We also randomly replace nouns in the pairs to generate another set of negative attribute-noun pairs. For each attribute-noun pair, we randomly draw 16 negative examples.

We separately compute the ranking loss corresponding to two types of negatives, denoted as $\ell_{attr_{negnoun}}$ and $\ell_{attr_{negattr}}$. Both of them are computed by a uni-directional ranking loss with negative examples drawn in text-domain. OHEM strategy is not applied on them. The final loss is the sum of them, *i.e.*, $\ell_{attr} = \ell_{attr_{negnoun}} + \ell_{attr_{negattr}}$.

Here we add a small note for the reproducibility. In cases with multiple modifiers on the nouns (*e.g.*, old black dog), for simplicity, in our implementation, we always extract the first modifier of each noun phrases as its attribute (old dog in this case).

As for relational triples, we randomly sample 4 relational words and 2 negatives subjects (nouns) and 2 negative objects (nouns) to replace the corresponding parts in the triple, as negative examples. In total, we have 8 negative triples for each relational triple The choice of this small number of negative examples is attributed to the trade-off between the computational efficiency and stability of training. Empirically, we find that increasing the number of negative triples does not bring much improvement to the performance.

We also sample negative relational triples from other captions within the training batch. In detail, we sample 1 negative rational triple for each other caption within the batch. This results in at most 128-1 = 127 negative examples for each relational triple ("at most" means some captions may not contain relational phrases). Similar as attribute-noun pairs, we individually compute the ranking loss on each type of negatives and sum them together as the ℓ_{rel} . The losses are computed by uni-directional ranking loss without OHEM.

As for negative bag-of-components, we sample negative ones in a similar manner as we do for sentences: We draw them from the bag-of-components in other captions within the training batch. We also draw other images from batch as negative images. The loss ℓ_{comp} is computed by bi-directional ranking loss with OHEM strategy.

A.2. Model settings and details

Weight of η_c , η_o , η_a , η_r . The choice of the 4 hyperparameters in Eq.(4) (*i.e.*, η_c , η_o , η_a , η_r) in the main text actually has no significant influence on the model's performance, as they all contribute to the better alignment between two modalities. To show this, we fix three of the η_s and test 5 different values for the rest one (*e.g.*, set $\eta_c \in \{0.1, 1, 2, 4, 8\}$). The bidirectional retrieval scores rsum of all 20 models are within the range of 468.2 ± 2 .

Dependency on the semantic parser. Recall that the semantic components are all extracted by the semantic parser and we evaluate the influence of the recall of the semantic parser on the model's performance by randomly dropping 30% relations and 30% attributes from the parser's output during training/test. Shown in Table 1, the recall of the parser on training captions has a small contribution to the performance. However, low recalls on test captions noticeably degenerate the performance on discriminating adversarial captions, because UniVSE relies on the parsed components to find unmatched components between images and texts. Thus, in Section 4.4, we show that UniVSE can facilitate the semantic parsing with visual cues.

Spatial aggregation method. For the spatial aggregation $\Psi(\cdot)$ of the 7 × 7 image feature maps, instead of using the max pooling which may drop most information in the feature map or the average pooling which tends to include noises, we adopt a specific pooling method called max-k pooling. Max-k pooling select k largest values in the feature map and return the average value of these k largest responses. Formally, for the feature map $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{7 \times 7 \times d}$, denoting the k-th largest value in i-th channel of \mathbf{V} as $\mathbf{V}_k[i]$, the max-k pooled global image embedding \mathbf{v} can be formalized as $\mathbf{v}[i] = \text{mean}(\{\mathbf{V}[x, y, i] | \mathbf{V}[x, y, i] \leq \mathbf{V}_k[i], x, y \in 7 \times 7\})$. Obviously, max pooling is the specific form of max-k pooling when k = 1 and average pooling can be regarded as max-49 pooling (for a 7 × 7 spatial resolution). In the experiments, we empirically set k to 10, as a trade-off between removing useful information and retaining unimportant information. Table 2 shows the performance of different spatial pooling methods. We can observe that the proposed max-k pooling achieves best performance among three pooling methods (*i.e.*, average pooling, however, the max-k pooling has to be trained under UniVSE structure (*i.e.*, trained with $\ell_{comp}, \ell_{obj}, \ell_{attr}, \ell_{rel}$), otherwise, the local correspondences will not be learned well. The results in Table 2 shows a significant performance drop on defending the adversarial captions, if UniVSE (with max-10 pooling) is trained without loss ℓ_{comp} .

Semantic aggregation method For the aggregation function $\Phi(\cdot)$ for semantic components to generate \mathbf{u}_{comp} , we have added some experiments. Specifically, we evaluate the performance of both hand-coded functions: average pooling, sum, and max pooling (by taking a channel-wise max of all components), as well as learnable functions: GRU and self-attentive pooling [2]. For the GRU alternative, we treat the set of components as a sequence (ordered randomly), encode it with a GRU module, and use the last hidden state as the \mathbf{u}_{comp} . The results are summarized in Table 3. GRU performs slightly better than other methods on the standard retrieval task. However, it requires extra computation cost. Max pooling outperforms others in discriminating adversarial captions, suggesting that it makes \mathbf{u}_{comp} more sensitive to the presence of unmatched components than the "average" alternative. However, it shows slightly inferior results on the standard retrieval task. In the experiments, we adopt average pooling as the implementation of semantic aggregation function $\Phi(\cdot)$.

Setting of α . One may argue that the combination coefficient α can also be learnable when training the model instead of being a fixed value (0.75 in the experiments). Informally, \mathbf{u}_{comp} imposes a prior that the caption embedding should cover all semantic components in the text. The hyperparameter α controls the strength of this prior (see Figure 8 in the main text for details). Directly learning α under the supervision of the standard retrieval task may encourage the model to focus on only part of the semantic components [4]. Our empirical results support this: α finally converges to 0.93 when treated as a learnable parameter, in contrast to the value of 0.75 suggested in our paper. Shown in Table 4, making α learnable does not affect the performance on the standard retrieval tasks. However, it shows a significant performance drop when there are adversarial captions. Thus, we treat α as a fixed value in UniVSE.

A.3. Hyperparameters

We set the dimension d_{basic} of basic semantic embeddings as 300. The embeddings are initialized by GloVe word embeddings pre-trained on the Common Crawl dataset: http://nlp.stanford.edu/data/glove.840B.300d. zip. The dimension d_{modif} of modifier semantic embeddings is set to 100. The embeddings are randomly initialized. During training, we fix the basic semantic embeddings of words $\mathbf{w}^{(basic)}$. The learning rate of the Adam optimizer is fixed to 0.001 at first 6 epochs and is exponentially decayed by 2 for each next epoch until it reaches 1e-5.

Train Drop	Test Drop	Standard	Obj. Atk.	Attr. Atk.	Rel. Atk.
		469.5	210.9	189.9	202.2
\checkmark		468.9	213.7	191.5	199.4
\checkmark	\checkmark	468.7	211.2	182.2	197.1

Table 1. We evaluate the performance of UniVSE on the standard bidirectional retrieval task and the retrieval tasks with adversarial captions (object-typed, attribute-typed and relation-typed). We use rsum as the evaluation metric.

Spatial Aggregation Methods	Standard	Obj. Atk.	Attr. Atk.	Rel. Atk.
Avg	452.9	198.7	184.2	186.2
Max	462.5	209.6	184.1	193.6
Max-10	469.5	210.9	189.9	202.2
Max-10 (without ℓ_{comp})	466.1	202.9	182.1	192.2

Table 2. We evaluate the performance of UniVSE under different spatial aggregation settings on the standard retrieval task, and the retrieval tasks with adversarial captions (we report the rsums).

Semantic Aggregation Methods	Avg	Sum	Max	Self-Att.	GRU
Standard (rsum)	469.5	471.1	465.8	467.1	472.0
Adversarial (rsum)	603.0	604.3	628.4	599.5	603.7

Table 3. We evaluate the performance of UniVSE under different semantic aggregation settings on the standard retrieval task, and the retrieval tasks with adversarial captions (we report the sum of rsums under three types of attacks).

Model	Standard	Obj. Atk.	Attr. Atk.	Rel. Atk.
Fixed α (0.75)	469.5	210.9	189.9	202.2
Learnable α (0.93)	468.1	204.1	182.2	190.4

Table 4. The performance of UniVSE with a learnable or a fixed α on the standard retrieval task, and the retrieval tasks with adversarial captions (we report the rsums).

B. Experiment Details

B.1. Cross-modal Retrieval

Visualizations. We show a set of examples of the image-to-sentence retrieval in Fig. 1 and sentence-to-image retrieval in Fig. 2.

B.2. Retrieval under text-domain adversarial attack

Experiment setup. We use the 1K test split (including 5,000 captions) for generating adversarial attacks. For each caption, we generate five adversarial captions under one type of attack setting. The detailed settings of the three types of adversarial attack are listed below.

- 1. **Object attack**: We randomly replace / append by an irrelevant noun for both 50% probability. The replacing/appending place is randomly selected in nouns of the caption. For the case of appending extra noun, the word and is also added before the appended noun, *e.g.*, A dog eats meat \rightarrow A dog eats meat **and table**. The irrelevant nouns are drawn from the set containing nouns with high concreteness (manually extracted).
- 2. Attribute attack: If a caption contains attribute-noun pairs. We randomly select one pair and replace the attribute by a negative one. If a caption does not contain any attributes, we randomly choose one noun in the caption and append an attribute on it. The negative attribute is generated from the attribute set excluding the attributes (and its similar attributes) in the caption. The similar attribute group is defined as the following. {white, snowy, polar}, {red, pink}, {blue, cloudy}, {green, grassy}, {brown, sandy, yellow, orange}, {rocky, concrete}.

3. **Relational attack**: For those captions containing relational phrases, we randomly select one relation triple and with equivalent probability to choose one in the triple to be replaced by an irrelevant one. *e.g.*, A dog eats meat \rightarrow A dog **plays** meat. For those captions which do not have any relational phrases, we first randomly select one noun in the caption and regard it as a subject/object with 50% / 50% probability. Then we draw a relational word and an irrelevant noun as the object/subject to form a new fake relation. *e.g.*, A dog is sleeping \rightarrow A dog **in sky** is sleeping.

Baselines. We train the VSE-C according to the setting in [4] with the officially open-sourced code. In the original VSE-C paper, The VSE-C is trained by generating either noun-typed/numeral-typed/relation-typed or all of these three types of adversarial samples. We use the setting of training under all types of adversarial samples as a comparable competitor in this evaluation. For the ablation of UniVSE $(\mathbf{u}_{sent} + \mathbf{u}_{attr})$ (*i.e.*, use \mathbf{u}_{attr} as \mathbf{u}_{comp}) under attribute attack scenario, we additionally include \mathbf{u}_{obj} to \mathbf{u}_{comp} . The reason is that the attribute attack may add new attribute modifier on a sentence with *no* attributed phrases. \mathbf{u}_{comp} is not defined for such sentence if we only use \mathbf{u}_{attr} as \mathbf{u}_{comp} , since it does not contain any attributed phrases. As a solution, we additionally include \mathbf{u}_{obj} to \mathbf{u}_{comp} (*i.e.*, $\mathbf{u}_{comp} = \Phi(\{\mathbf{u}_{attr}\} \cup \{\mathbf{u}_{obj}\}))$ to ensure \mathbf{u}_{comp} is well defined even there is no attributed phrases in the sentence.

Visualizations. We show a set of examples of image-to-text retrieval under text-domain adversarial attack in Fig. 3.

B.3. Unified text-to-image retrieval

Experiment setup. We use the 1K test split as the retrieval set. The queries are generated from frequent semantic components extracted by the semantic parser from the training set. We regard a query as a valid one if at least 3 images (5 for noun-level retrieval) in the test set contain the query. For the obj(det) queries, we directly use the class names of the MS-COCO object detection / segmentation annotations.

Baselines. For VSE++ and VSE-C, as they do not have an object-level encoder. For any query, we always regard it as a short sentence and feed it into the sentence encoder to get the embedding of the query text. For UniVSE, as it has the object-level encoder which means a noun/attribute-noun pair can be either encoded by the object encoder ϕ or by neural combiner ψ by regarding the query as a short sentence. We select the encoder having higher performance on a validation set and report the results.

Visualizations. We show a set of retrieved image by queries of various types in Fig. 4.

B.4. Semantic Parsing

Experiment setup. We also use the 1K test split for this experiment. For each caption, we first extract nouns, adjectives and relational words. We call adjective and relational words as content words. The model should recover the dependencies linked with them. We exclude some relational words whose lexical meanings are usually ambiguous, such as include, to, of, etc.

Given a content word (either an adjective or a relational word), we generate all possible dependencies among nouns in the sentence to form candidate dependencies. Each candidate dependency, which is either an adjective-noun pair or a subject-relation-object triple, will get a matching score w.r.t. the image (the *visual cue*). We select the dependency that has the highest score as the recovered dependency w.r.t. the chosen content word.

Metrics. We report the accuracy of the recovered semantic dependencies. In detail, for an attribute-noun dependency, the model gets a correct count if the dependency having the highest matching score is identical to the ground-truth. For the dependency of a relation, the model gets 0.5 correct counts if the subject/object of the answer is the same as the ground-truth. If both of them are the same as the ground-truth, the model gets 1 correct count. The reported accuracy computed as the fraction between total correct counts and the total number of dependencies.

Visualizations and failure case study. Shown in Fig. 5, we visualize some successful and failure cases in semantic parsing with visual cues. Error source analysis is also provided.

B.5. Embedding Visualization

We visualize the semantic space of different semantic levels by t-SNE [3]. The result can be found in Fig. B.5. Through the joint learning of vision and language, our unified VSE space successfully recovers the similarities between semantic components at various levels.

References

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- [2] Z. Lin, M. Feng, C. N. d. Santos, M. Yu, B. Xiang, B. Zhou, and Y. Bengio. A Structured Self-attentive Sentence Embedding. arXiv:1703.03130, 2017. 2
- [3] L. v. d. Maaten and G. Hinton. Visualizing Data Using t-SNE. Journal of Machine Learning Research (JMLR), 9(Nov):2579–2605, 2008. 4
- [4] H. Shi, J. Mao, T. Xiao, Y. Jiang, and J. Sun. Learning Visually-Grounded Semantics from Contrastive Adversarial Samples. In *Proceedings of International Conference on Computational Linguistics (COLING)*, 2018. 1, 2, 4

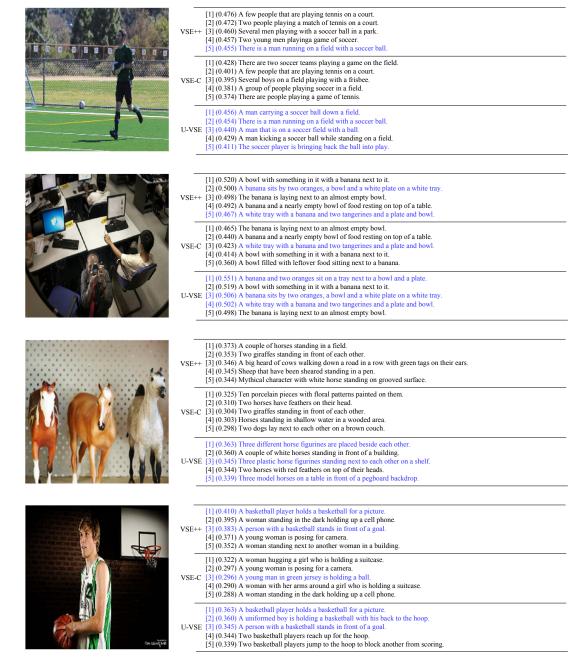
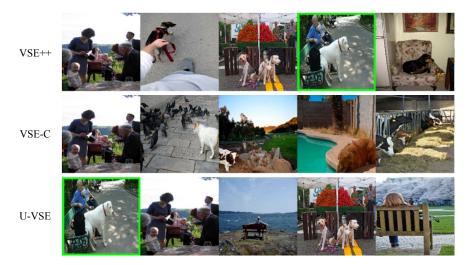


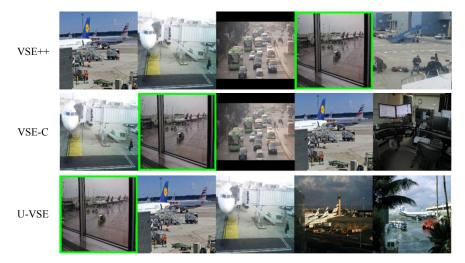
Figure 1. Examples showing the top-5 image-to-text retrieval results. We highlight the positive captions in blue. The score in the front of each sentence is the similarity score of the caption and image computed by different model. Best viewed in color.



 $(a) \ Query: \mbox{A}$ white chair, books and shelves and a TV on in this room.



(b) Query: A couple of people sitting on a bench next to a dog.



(c) Query: Window view from the inside of airplanes, baggage carrier and tarmac. Figure 2. Examples showing the top-5 sentence-to-image retrieval results. We highlight the correct images in green box.

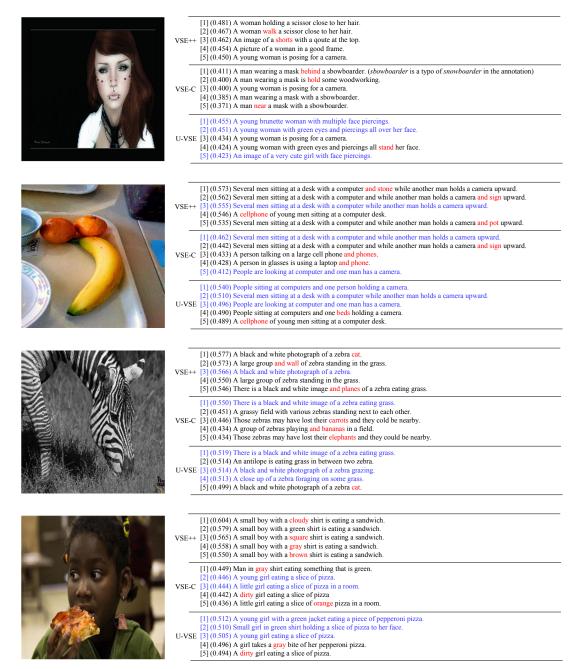


Figure 3. Examples showing the top-5 image-to-sentence retrieval results with the presence of adversarial samples. We highlight the positive captions in blue. Captions with red words are adversarial samples generated from the original captions. Words in red indicates the irrelevant words in the adversarial captions. Best viewed in color.



Figure 4. The top-20 retrieved image in the 1K test split set by queries different types: attribute-object pairs and relational triples.

A traffic light hanging over a street next to tall buildings.

A large wooden pole with a green street sign hanging

A couple of traffic lights sitting under a cloudy sky.



(d)

from it

Prediction light - hang - street light - next - building

Ground Truth light - hang - street light - next - building

Prediction

wooden - pole

wooden - pole

green - sign

Prediction

Ground Truth

Prediction

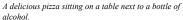
white - sink

lights - under - sky

couple - under - sky

green - sign

Ground Truth





(b)

A bathroom with a pink sink and blue tiles.



(e)

Prediction pink - sink blue - tiles

Prediction

Ground Truth

pizza - sit - table

pizza - sit - table

pizza - next - bottle

pizza - next - bottle

Ground Truth pink - sink blue - tiles

A grey cat sitting in chair next to a table.



Prediction cat - sit - chair cat - next - chair

> **Ground Truth** cat - sit - chair cat - next - table

(h)



Ground Truth wooden - tool



A boy wearing a hat is laying on a grass field.



(c)

Ground Truth

Prediction boy - wear - hat

boy - wear - hat boy - lay - field

boy - lay - field

A polar bear looks toward the camera in front of his orange disc tov



(f)

polar - bear orange - toy

Prediction

Ground Truth

polar - bear orange - tov

Prediction

Woman taking a picture of someone standing behind a sculpture and a child pushing another woman towards the sculpture.



child - behind - woman child - push - woman child - towards - woman Ground Truth woman - take - picture

child - take - woman

someone - behind - sculpture child - push - woman child - towards - sculpture

A person wearing a hat made out of yellow bananas.



Ground Truth

(j)

(g) A white toilet sitting next to a sink

> **Ground Truth** white - toilet



wooden - table



Figure 5. Examples showing the result of semantic parsing based on visual cues. The first and second rows visualize the examples of corrected dependency resolution and the last two rows are the failure cases (dependency resolutions differs from the one by our semantic parser). Words in italic are the content words whose dependency is to be recovered, and the words in red are wrong predictions. Fig. (g) is a failure case of our semantic parser: the word couple does not refer to a specific object in the scene. In Fig. (h), both dependencies cat-next-chair and cat-next-table are actually valid based only on visual cue. Similarly, Fig. (i), (j) and (k) are all cases where only visual cues can not recover the dependency. The result in Fig. (i) shows that our model has the tendency of linking spatially closer objects. In Fig. (1), hat and bananas actually refers to the same object. Best viewed in color.

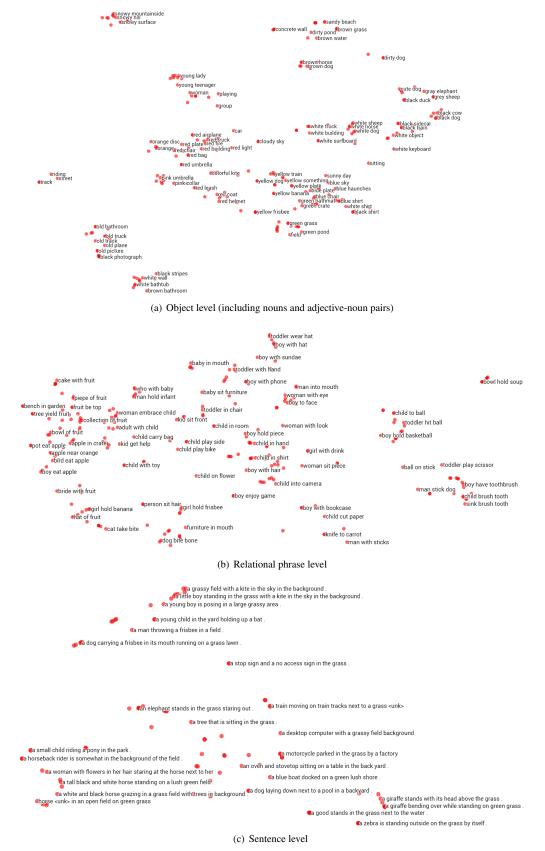


Figure 6. The visualization of the semantic embedding space of different semantic levels. The unified VSE space successfully recovers the similarities between semantic components at various levels.