

Text-Guided Attention Model for Image Captioning

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Abstract

Visual attention plays an important role to understand images and demonstrates its effectiveness in generating natural language descriptions of images. On the other hand, recent studies show that language associated with an image can steer visual attention in the scene during our cognitive process. Inspired by this, we introduce a text-guided attention model for image captioning, which learns to drive visual attention using associated captions. For this model, we propose an exemplar-based learning approach that retrieves from training data associated captions with each image, and use them to learn attention on visual features. Our attention model enables to describe a detailed state of scenes by distinguishing small or confusable objects effectively. We validate our model on MS-COCO Captioning benchmark and achieve the state-of-the-art performance in standard metrics.

Introduction

Image captioning, which aims at automatically generating descriptions of an image in natural language, is one of the major problems in scene understanding. This problem has long been viewed as an extremely challenging task because it requires to capture and express low- to high-level aspects of local and global areas in an image containing a variety of scene elements as well as their relationships.

Despite such challenges, the problem has drawn wide attention and significant improvement has been achieved over the past few years through advance of deep neural networks together with construction of large-scale datasets. For example, the encoder-decoder framework (Kiros, Salakhutdinov, and Zemel 2015; Mao et al. 2015b; Vinyals et al. 2015; Wu et al. 2016) formulates the image captioning problem using a deep neural network trained end-to-end rather than a pipeline of separate subtasks such as detection of objects and activities, ordering words, etc.

Recently, one of major advances in image captioning has been made by incorporating a form of visual attention into the image encoder (Xu et al. 2015; You et al. 2016). Instead of compressing an entire image into a flat representation, attention models allow encoder to focus only on relevant features for image captioning. This helps to describe fine details in regions of interest even from a cluttered image.

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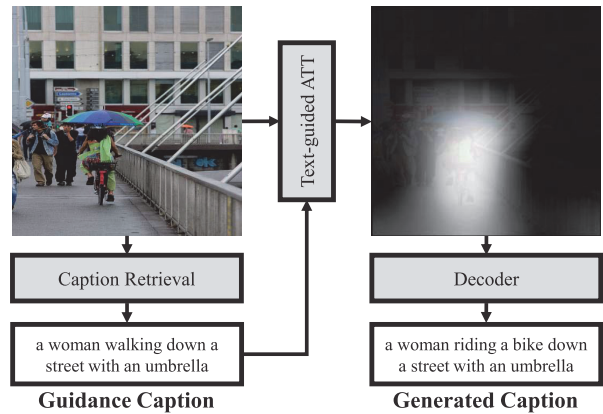


Figure 1: An overview of the proposed framework. In our approach, the caption associated with an image guides visual attention to better focus on relevant regions in the scene, resulting in proper and fine-grained image captions even from cluttered scenes.

On the other hand, recent studies in psychology reveal close relationships between language and visual attention (Mishra 2015). Spoken or text language that expresses objects and events leads a person to construct a mental representation about them. This representation contributes to anticipatory eye movements of the person, thus resulting in successful detection of objects and actions (Lupyan and Spivey 2010). This suggests that spoken or text language associated with a scene can provide useful information for visual attention in the scene.

In this paper, we introduce a text-guided attention model for image captioning, which learns visual attention from associated exemplar captions for a given image, referred to as *guidance captions*, and enables to generate proper and fine-grained captions for the image. In our approach, we extract the guidance captions by retrieving visually similar images in training dataset, which would share regions of interest with the given image. The guidance captions steer our attention model to focus only on relevant regions for image captioning. Figure 1 illustrates the process with an example result. The associated caption successfully guides the model to attend to important regions, and helps it generate detailed

and suitable captions.

The main contributions of this paper are as follows:

- We introduce a novel attention model for image captioning, referred to as *text-guided attention model*, which directly exploits exemplar captions in training data as a guidance source for visual attention. This exemplar-based attention model is learned within our image captioning architecture in an end-to-end manner.
- We develop a sampling-based scheme to learn attention using multiple exemplar guidance captions. This avoids overfitting in training and alleviates the problem of learning misleading attention from noisy guidance captions.
- Our image captioning network with the proposed attention model achieves the state-of-the-art performance on MS-COCO Captioning benchmark (Lin et al. 2014), outperforming recent attention-based methods.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. We first review the related work and overview our architecture. Then, each component of our method is described in details, and training and inference procedures are discussed. Finally, we present experimental results and compare our algorithm with the existing ones.

Related Work

We briefly review existing algorithms in the context of image captioning and visual attention.

Image Captioning

Most of recent methods for image captioning are based on the encoder-decoder framework (Kiros, Salakhutdinov, and Zemel 2015; Mao et al. 2015b; Vinyals et al. 2015; Wu et al. 2016). This approach encodes an image using CNN and transforms the encoded representation into a caption using RNN. (Vinyals et al. 2015) introduces a basic encoder-decoder model that extracts an image feature using GoogLeNet (Szegedy et al. 2015) and feeds the feature as the first word into the Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) decoder. Instead of feeding the image feature into RNN, (Mao et al. 2015b) proposes a technique to transform the image feature and the hidden state of RNN into an intermediate embedding space. Each word is predicted based on the aggregation of the embedded features at each time step. On the other hand, image attributes are learned and the presence of the attributes, instead of an encoded image feature, is given to LSTM as an input to generate captions (Wu et al. 2016). In (Kiros, Salakhutdinov, and Zemel 2015), multi-modal space between an image and a caption is learned, and an embedded image feature is fed to a language model as visual information.

Attention Model

Inspired by the perceptual process of human being, attention mechanisms have been developed for a variety of tasks such as object recognition (Ba, Mnih, and Kavukcuoglu 2015; Kantorov et al. 2016), image generation (Gregor et al. 2015), semantic segmentation (Hong et al. 2016) and visual question answering (Andreas et al. 2016; Noh and Han 2016;

Xu and Saenko 2016; Yang et al. 2016). In image captioning, there are two representative methods adopting a form of visual attention. Spatial attention for a word is estimated using the hidden state of LSTM at each time step in (Xu et al. 2015) while the algorithm in (You et al. 2016) computes a semantic attention on word candidates for caption, uses it to refine input and output of LSTM at each step. While these methods demonstrate the effectiveness of visual attention in image captioning, they do not consider a more direct use of captions available in training data. Our method leverages the captions in both learning and inference, exploiting them as high-level guidance for visual attention. To the best of our knowledge, the proposed method is the first work for image captioning that combines visual attention with a guidance of associated text language.

Overview

For a pair of an image I and a caption c consisting of T words (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_T) , conventional image captioning approaches with an attention model (Xu et al. 2015) minimize a negative log-likelihood in training as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} &= -\log p(c|I) \\ &= \sum_{t=0}^T -\log p(w_{t+1}|w_t, h_{t-1}, f_{att}(I, h_{t-1})), \quad (1) \end{aligned}$$

where f_{att} is the attention model and h_{t-1} is the previous hidden state of LSTM. Note that we use two additional words in Eq (1): w_0 ($\langle \text{BOS} \rangle$) and w_{T+1} ($\langle \text{EOS} \rangle$) indicating the begin and end of a sentence, respectively. The attention is adaptively computed at each time step based on the previous hidden state.

In our approach, we leverage a guidance caption s as associated text language to steer visual attention. Our image captioning network is trained to minimize the following loss:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} &= -\log p(c|f_{T-att}(I, s)) \\ &= -\log p(w_1|w_0, f_{T-att}(I, s)) \\ &\quad + \sum_{t=1}^T -\log p(w_{t+1}|w_t, h_{t-1}), \quad (2) \end{aligned}$$

where f_{T-att} is the proposed text-guided attention model. Contrary to previous attention-based approaches, the attention of our model is driven not only by image features but also by text features obtained from the guidance captions. The attention is computed only once at the beginning and used to compute the initial hidden state h_{-1} .

The overall architecture is illustrated in Figure 2. For a given image, we first retrieve visually similar images in training dataset and select a guidance caption. Then, the image and the guidance caption are transformed to separate multi-dimensional feature vectors, which are used to compute an attention weight map for the image. In the attention map, the regions relevant to the guidance caption are highlighted while irrelevant regions are suppressed. The decoder generates an output caption based on a weighted sum of the image feature vectors, where the weights are determined by the attention map.

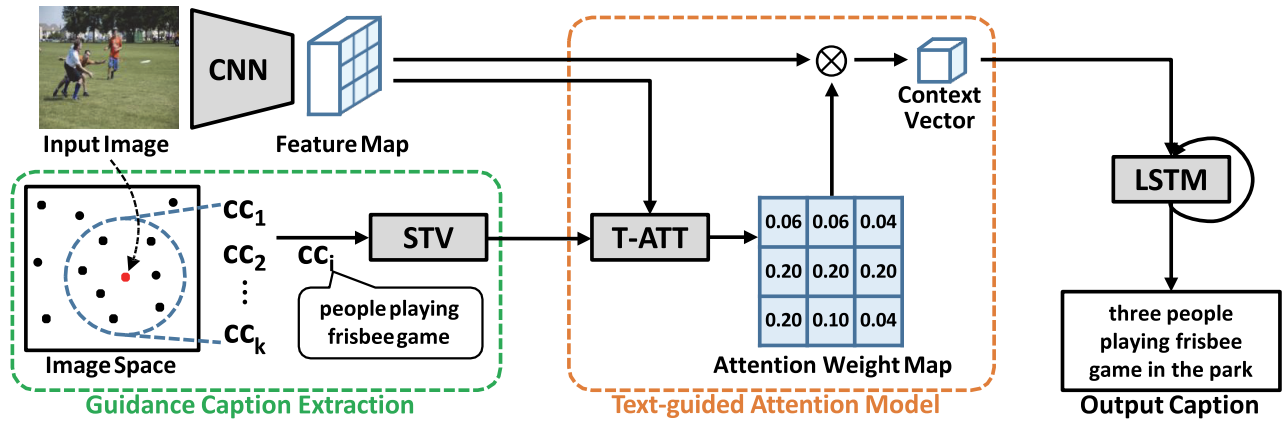


Figure 2: Overall architecture for image captioning with text-guided attention. Given an input image, we first retrieve top k candidate captions (CC) from training data using both visual similarity and caption consensus scores. We randomly select one among them as the guidance caption in training while using all candidates as guidance captions in testing time. The text-guided attention layer (T-ATT) computes an attention weight map where regions relevant to the given guidance caption have higher attention weights. A context vector is obtained by aggregating image feature vectors weighted by the attention map. Finally, the LSTM decoder generates an output caption from the context vector. For the details, see text.

Algorithm and Architecture

This section discusses the details of our algorithm and the proposed architecture.

Guidance Caption Extraction

Ground-truth captions would be ideal as guidance caption for visual attention, but unavailable during inference for image captioning. Therefore, we use an exemplar-based approach to obtaining guidance captions that provide useful information for visual attention. We observe that visually similar images tend to share the salient objects and events that are often described in their captions. Based on this observation, we use the consensus captions (Devlin et al. 2015) for guidance caption extraction. The consensus caption is defined as a representative caption consented by the captions of n nearest neighbors in a visual feature space. The caption is likely to coincide with the caption of the query image than that of the nearest neighbor in practice. For each image, we collect a set of captions C_{NN} from n nearest neighbor images in a visual feature space. The consensus score s_i for a caption c_i is computed by average similarity to all the other captions in C_{NN} :

$$s_i = \frac{1}{|C_{NN}| - 1} \sum_{c' \in C_{NN} \setminus \{c_i\}} \text{Sim}(c_i, c'), \quad (3)$$

where $\text{Sim}(c_i, c')$ is the similarity between two captions c_i and c' . We use CIDEr (Vedantam, Lawrence Zitnick, and Parikh 2015) as the similarity function. We maintain a set of top k captions ($k < |C_{NN}|$) in terms of the consensus score as guidance caption candidates rather than only a top one.

Encoder

There exist two encoders in our architecture, an image encoder and a guidance caption encoder. We employ a CNN

and an RNN for the image and the guidance caption encoder, respectively. The CNN image encoder extracts feature map $\mathbf{f}_I \in \mathbb{R}^{R \times R \times P}$, which contains P -dimensional features of corresponding receptive fields. For the RNN guidance caption encoder, we employ the Skip-Thought Vector model (STV) (Kiros et al. 2015). This sentence embedding model is trained in an unsupervised learning technique by predicting surrounding two sentences on a large corpus more than 74M sentences. The STV is composed of Gated Recurrent Units (GRU) (Chung et al. 2014), which is similar to but simpler than LSTM, and the guidance caption feature $\mathbf{f}_S \in \mathbb{R}^S$ is obtained from the last hidden state of GRU. Note that we fix the parameters of the two encoders during training.

Text-guided Attention Model

Given image feature \mathbf{f}_I and guidance caption feature \mathbf{f}_S , our next goal is to extract a context vector that describes relevant content of the image. Let us denote a region feature of i th location in image by \mathbf{f}_I^i . Our attention model computes an attention weight of \mathbf{f}_I^i for the guidance caption feature \mathbf{f}_S using a simple feedforward neural network:

$$\mathbf{e}_i = \mathbf{W}_{att}(\mathbf{W}_I \mathbf{f}_I^i + \mathbf{W}_S \mathbf{f}_S), \quad (4)$$

$$\alpha_i = \text{Softmax}(\mathbf{e}_i), \quad (5)$$

where \mathbf{W}_I , \mathbf{W}_S , \mathbf{W}_{att} are learned embedding matrices for image feature, guidance caption feature, and their weighted sum, respectively. After calculating attention weights for all regions, softmax is applied so that the sum of attention weight becomes one. Then, we obtain the context vector $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^P$ as a weighted sum of the image feature vectors:

$$\mathbf{z} = \sum_i \alpha_i \mathbf{f}_I^i. \quad (6)$$

In training the attention model, we regularize the attention weight in (5) by adding an entropy term $\alpha \log(\alpha)$ into (2),

which encourages attention weights to be uniform and penalizes excessive attention to a certain region. During training, the attention model gradually learns the regions of interest starting from uniform attention.

Decoder

The overall decoder consists of a word embedding layer, a LSTM unit, and a word prediction layer. Let us assume that the caption is composed of T words (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_T) . For a beginning of the sentence, we add the word w_0 , that is $\langle \text{BOS} \rangle$. Our decoder is formulated by

$$\mathbf{x}_{-1} = \mathbf{W}_z \mathbf{z}, \quad (7)$$

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{W}_e w_t, \quad (8)$$

$$\mathbf{h}_t = \text{LSTM}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{h}_{t-1}), \quad (9)$$

$$\mathbf{p}_{t+1} = \text{Softmax}(\mathbf{W}_h \mathbf{h}_t), \quad (10)$$

where \mathbf{W}_z , \mathbf{W}_e and \mathbf{W}_h are learned embedding matrices for the context vector, the input word and the hidden state. \mathbf{p}_{t+1} indicates a probability distribution over all words. At each time step t , the input word w_t is projected into the word vector space. The LSTM unit computes the current hidden state \mathbf{h}_t based on the word vector \mathbf{x}_t and the previous hidden state \mathbf{h}_{t-1} . Then, the word is predicted based on the current hidden state \mathbf{h}_t . The predicted word and the current hidden state is fed back into the decoder unit in the next time step and the entire process is repeated until emitting the word $\langle \text{EOS} \rangle$. At the initial step ($t=-1$), the context vector containing the image information is used as an initial word. Here, the context vector is embedded to match its dimension with that of the word vector. Given the embedded context vector \mathbf{x}_{-1} , LSTM unit computes the initial hidden state \mathbf{h}_{-1} using a vector with all zeros in the place of the previous hidden state \mathbf{h}_{-2} . The word embedding and prediction layers share their weights to reduce the number of parameters (Mao et al. 2015a).

Learning and Inference

In our approach, the quality of guidance captions is crucial for both training and testing. Even though we manage to filter out many noisy guidance captions by the consensus caption scheme of Eq. (3), we observe that our attention model often suffers from overfitting when using a caption of the highest consensus score as the guidance caption. To tackle this issue, we use a set of top k consensus captions as candidates of the guidance caption in both training and testing.

In training, we randomly select a caption among the top k consensus captions for each image. This random sampling strategy allows our attention model to avoid overfitting and learn proper attention from diverse consensus captions.

In testing, we generate k captions using all the k consensus captions as guidance captions, and then select the best one by reranking the k captions. Note that we apply the beam search of size 2 while generating a caption with each consensus caption as the guidance caption. For the reranking, we adopt the scheme of (Mao et al. 2015b) that measures CIDEr similarity with captions of its n nearest neighbor images in the training data. In our experiments, we fix $n = 60$ and $k = 10$ in both training and testing.

Experiments

This section describes our experimental setting and presents quantitative and qualitative results of our algorithm in comparison to recent methods.

Dataset

We train our model on MS-COCO dataset (Lin et al. 2014), which contains 123,287 images. The images are divided into 82,783 training images and 40,504 validation images. Each image has five relevant captions. We adopt the widely used splits¹ for fair comparison. Each split of validation and testing data contains randomly selected 5,000 images from the original validation images. The vocabulary consists of all words that appear more than 5 times after lower-case conversion and tokenization. The size of vocabulary amounts to 9,568 including $\langle \text{BOS} \rangle$ and $\langle \text{EOS} \rangle$.

Metrics

We evaluate our model on three standard evaluation metrics, BLEU (Papineni et al. 2002), METEOR (Banerjee and Lavie 2005) and CIDEr (Vedantam, Lawrence Zitnick, and Parikh 2015). The metrics compute similarity to reference (ground-truth) captions. BLEU computes only the precision of n -gram words between generated and reference captions. To address the limitation of BLEU, METEOR computes both precision and recall by generating alignment between captions, where more weight is given to recall. These two metrics are designed for automatic evaluation of machine translation methods. Recently, CIDEr has been introduced specifically for image captioning. The CIDEr also measures both precision and recall by weighting n -gram words based on term frequency inverse document frequency (tf-idf). Since this metric is used in MS COCO Captioning challenge, we mainly focus on CIDEr in our experiments. In our experiments, we measure all performances using MS-COCO caption evaluation tool².

Implementation Details

For the image encoder, we adopt a fully convolutional network based on VGGNet (VGG-FCN), which is fine-tuned on the MS-COCO dataset to predict image attributes. Note that this network has often been used in other image captioning methods (Fang et al. 2015; You et al. 2016). In VGG-FCN, image feature maps are obtained from the last convolutional layer given 512×512 images, and our attention model is applied to the 10×10 feature map. We also test our algorithm using 101-layer Residual Network (ResNet) (He et al. 2016), where 14×14 feature maps are extracted from the layer below the global average pooling layer given 448×448 images.

The entire network is trained end-to-end; we fix the parameters of two encoders, but train the text-guided attention model and the decoder from scratch. In the decoder, the dimensionalities of the word embedding space and the hidden state of LSTM are set to 512. We use Adam (Kingma and Ba

¹<https://github.com/karpathy/neuraltalk>

²<https://github.com/tylin/coco-caption>

Table 1: Performance on MS-COCO test split. \diamond means model ensemble (single-model results are not reported) and \dagger stands for using domain-specific pretrained encoder. Numbers in red and blue denote the best and second-best algorithms, respectively.

	BLEU-1	BLEU-2	BLEU-3	BLEU-4	METEOR	CIDEr
NIC (Vinyals et al. 2015) \diamond	–	–	–	0.277	0.237	0.855
m-RNN (Mao et al. 2015b)	0.686	0.511	0.375	0.280	0.228	0.842
LRCN (Donahue et al. 2015)	0.669	0.489	0.349	0.249	–	–
MSR (Fang et al. 2015) \dagger	–	–	–	0.257	0.236	–
Soft-ATT (Xu et al. 2015)	0.707	0.492	0.344	0.243	0.239	–
Hard-ATT (Xu et al. 2015)	0.718	0.504	0.357	0.250	0.230	–
Semantic ATT (You et al. 2016) $\dagger\diamond$	0.709	0.537	0.402	0.304	0.243	–
Attribute-LSTM (Wu et al. 2016) \dagger	0.740	0.560	0.420	0.310	0.260	0.940
mCC	0.670	0.486	0.345	0.244	0.225	0.791
Ours-Uniform (VGG-FCN)	0.733	0.563	0.420	0.313	0.249	0.968
Ours-ATT-mCC (VGG-FCN)	0.732	0.563	0.421	0.313	0.250	0.972
Ours-ATT-kCC (VGG-FCN)	0.735	0.566	0.424	0.316	0.251	0.982
Ours-Uniform (ResNet)	0.741	0.572	0.429	0.319	0.253	0.996
Ours-ATT-mCC (ResNet)	0.743	0.575	0.432	0.323	0.255	1.010
Ours-ATT-kCC (ResNet)	0.749	0.581	0.437	0.326	0.257	1.024

Table 2: Performance comparison with the state-of-the-art results on MS-COCO Image Captioning Challenge. \diamond means model ensemble (single-model results are not reported) and \dagger stands for using domain-specific pretrained or fine-tuned encoder. Numbers in red and blue denote the best and second-best algorithms, respectively.

	BLEU-1		BLEU-2		BLEU-3		BLEU-4		METEOR		CIDEr	
	c5	c40	c5	c40	c5	c40	c5	c40	c5	c40	c5	c40
NIC (Vinyals et al. 2015) $\dagger\diamond$	0.713	0.895	0.542	0.802	0.407	0.694	0.309	0.587	0.254	0.346	0.943	0.946
m-RNN (Mao et al. 2015b)	0.716	0.890	0.545	0.798	0.404	0.687	0.299	0.575	0.242	0.325	0.917	0.935
LRCN (Donahue et al. 2015) \dagger	0.718	0.895	0.548	0.804	0.409	0.695	0.306	0.585	0.247	0.335	0.921	0.934
MSR (Fang et al. 2015) \dagger	0.715	0.907	0.543	0.819	0.407	0.710	0.308	0.601	0.248	0.339	0.931	0.937
Hard-ATT (Xu et al. 2015)	0.705	0.881	0.528	0.779	0.383	0.658	0.277	0.537	0.241	0.322	0.865	0.893
Semantic ATT (You et al. 2016) $\dagger\diamond$	0.731	0.900	0.565	0.815	0.424	0.709	0.316	0.599	0.250	0.335	0.943	0.958
Attribute-LSTM (Wu et al. 2016) \dagger	0.725	0.892	0.556	0.803	0.414	0.694	0.306	0.582	0.246	0.329	0.911	0.924
Ours-ATT-mCC (VGG-FCN)	0.727	0.901	0.558	0.812	0.414	0.701	0.305	0.585	0.247	0.330	0.930	0.942
Ours-ATT-kCC (VGG-FCN)	0.731	0.902	0.560	0.814	0.416	0.703	0.307	0.587	0.248	0.331	0.938	0.951
Ours-ATT-mCC (ResNet)	0.739	0.913	0.570	0.828	0.427	0.719	0.318	0.603	0.253	0.339	0.972	0.988
Ours-ATT-kCC (ResNet)	0.743	0.915	0.575	0.832	0.431	0.722	0.321	0.607	0.255	0.341	0.987	1.001

2015) to learn the model with mini-batch size of 80, where dropouts with 0.5 are applied to the output layer of decoder. The learning rate starts from 0.0004 and after 10 epochs decays by the factor of 0.8 at every three epoch. If the decoder is trained with words in the ground-truth caption at each time step, the model often fails to generate reliable captions because the ground-truth words are unavailable in inference. To handle this issue, we randomly choose each input word out of the ground-truth or the prediction by the intermediate model learned at the previous iteration. This technique is referred to as scheduled sampling (Bengio et al. 2015), which is integrated in our learning procedure after 10 epochs with ground-truth word selection probability fixed to 0.75. Scheduled sampling makes the environment for training and inference similar and facilitates to learn more robust models.

Performance on MS-COCO dataset

We compare our full algorithm, denoted by Ours-ATT-kCC, with three baselines and several recent algorithms. The first baseline method (mCC) returns the caption with the most consensus. The second approach (Ours-Uniform) is based on uniform attention, and replaces the attention layer with the average pooling layer. The last one (Ours-ATT-mCC) is our method based only on a single guidance caption with

the most consensus during inference. As competing algorithms, we use several state-of-the-art methods, which are divided into three groups: encoder-decoder based methods (NIC (Vinyals et al. 2015), m-RNN (Mao et al. 2015b), LRCN (Donahue et al. 2015), Attribute-LSTM (Wu et al. 2016)), attention-based approaches (Semantic ATT (You et al. 2016) and Soft- and Hard-ATT (Xu et al. 2015)) and a composite network consisting of a series of separate sub-tasks (MSR (Fang et al. 2015)).

Table 1 summarizes the results on the test split of MS-COCO dataset. The best performance among all algorithms in each metric is marked with bold-faced red number while the best accuracy without ResNet is marked in bold-faced blue. Our model trained with VGG-FCN, Ours-ATT-kCC (VGG-FCN), outperforms all the compared methods in most metrics. Interestingly, although the accuracy of retrieved captions by mCC is far from the state-of-the-art, Ours-ATT-kCC successfully learns proper attention using those captions as guidance. Ours-ATT-kCC also outperforms Ours-Uniform and Ours-ATT-mCC consistently. This fact shows the effectiveness of the text-guided attention and the use of multiple guidance captions in inference that makes model robust to incorrect guidance caption. We also observe that our model improves performance substantially by adopting

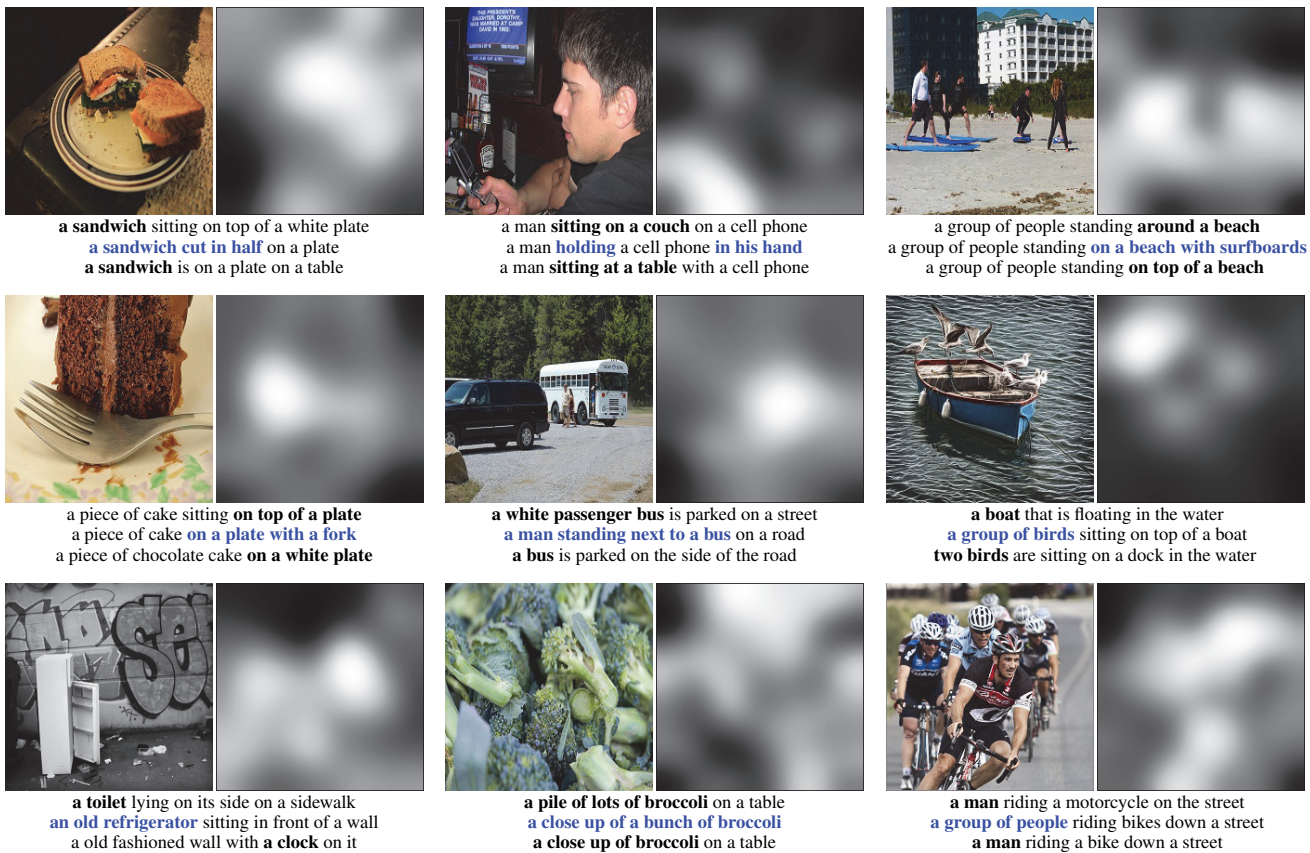


Figure 3: Qualitative results of our text-guided attention model. Two images in each example mean input image (left) and attention map (right). Three captions below two images represent the guidance caption (top), the generated captions from Our-ATT-kCC (middle) and Our-Uniform (bottom), respectively. The more appropriate expressions generated by our attention model are marked in bold-faced blue and the corresponding phrases in the two other models are marked in bold-faced black.

ResNet as the image encoder as presented in Table 1.

We also evaluate our models on the MS-COCO Image Captioning Challenge. The results are presented in Table 2, where c5 and c40 mean the numbers of reference captions for evaluation. In the challenge, some models improve performance by using several additional techniques such as adopting better image encoder, fine-tuning the encoder and constructing ensemble models, while our results are obtained from the identical models tested in Table 1. Ours-ATT-kCC (VGG-FCN) shows outstanding results even in the condition. Note that NIC and Semantic ATT are very competitive but rely on ensemble models while the result of ours is obtained from a single model. Note that Ours-ATT-kCC (ResNet) still outperforms all methods with significant performance margins.

Qualitative Analysis

Figure 3 demonstrates qualitative results for better understanding of our model, where guidance captions and attention maps are shown together. We also compare the generated captions by our model with the uniform attention model. The guidance caption drives our attention model to focus on relevant regions and generate detailed descriptions

as shown in the first row of Figure 3. For example, our model describes a specific state of a sandwich (‘sandwich cut in half’) accurately while the methods relying on the guidance caption only or the caption from uniform attention model just depict it as ‘sandwich’. Our model sometimes captures objects not described in guidance caption through attention as demonstrated in the second row. The examples in the third row show that our attention model successfully attends to proper regions and generates correct caption even with noisy guidance captions.

Conclusion

We propose a text-guided attention model, where the visual attention is obtained using guidance captions. Our model adopts exemplar-based learning approach that retrieves associated captions of visually similar images in a given training dataset. The guidance captions highlight relevant regions and suppress unimportant ones, enabling to generate detailed captions. To handle noise in guidance captions, we present a robust approach that exploits a set of consensus captions as guidance captions in training and testing time. We achieve the state-of-the-art performance using our text-guided attention model on MS-COCO Captioning dataset.

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