Aerial image captioning with different visual backbones and GPT-2

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Abstract—This work evaluates the performance of different visual encoders within an image captioning pipeline applied to aerial images. Specifically, I compaie the performance of VGG16 and CLIP as backbone encoders for extracting visual features, which are then integrated with a GPT-2 model to generate descriptive captions for aerial images.

I. INTRODUCTION

THE integration of computer vision and natural language processing has revolutionized the machine learning field. One important area of research in this domain is image captioning, where systems are trained to generate textual descriptions of images. This capability is very important for various applications, particularly in the field of remote sensing, where huge amounts of aerial and satellite imagery are collected daily. Unlike everyday photographs, aerial images capture a wide range of perspectives and often include specific details of urban environments, landscapes, and natural phenomena. Furthermore, these images require the ability to interpret complex spatial relationships and to identify objects and structures that may be unfamiliar to traditional image captioning models.

This project focuses on a pipeline consisting of three elements: an image encoder, an adaptation layer, and a decoder. The central point of this work is to analyze how different architectures and differently trained encoders influence the performance of a GPT-2 [6] decoder model. I employed three variants of encoders: the first is a VGG-16 [9] convolutional network, the second is a pre-finetuned version of CLIP [7], and the latter is the RemoteCLIP model [2].

II. RELATED WORKS

The ability to combine features from different modalities has always been a critical problem in machine learning, posing a significant obstacle to multimodal tasks. One of the biggest advancements in this field was the development of the CLIP model by OpenAI. CLIP has two encoders: one for images and another for text descriptions. It utilizes a contrastive loss to maximize the similarity between the image and the corresponding caption while pushing apart non-matching image caption pairs. This approach ensures that the embedding from both encoders closely represent the same concept, despite the different modalities.

CLIP was trained on a huge dataset of text-image pairs to learn a wide range of visual concepts with natural language supervision. This approach allows CLIP to perform zero-shot transfer learning, making it highly versatile and capable of generalizing to new tasks without requiring task-specific data. However, satellite images present a challenge due to their highly specialized and less frequently encountered visual data. As discussed by Radford et al., satellite images are not ideal candidates for zero-shot or few-shot learning settings. That is why for this domain it is usually finetuned on the specific dataset. In the field of remote sensing Liu et al. proposed a general-purpose visionlanguage foundation model for remote sensing, named RemoteCLIP. This model has the same architecture of CLIP but is trained on a huge collection of annotated data from 17 different datasets, with a total of almost 200.000 images and 5 caption per image. The author showed how this deeply trained model achieve state of the art abilities on zero-shot tasks on satellite and aerial images. Moreover they introduced a new counting task to show the object counting ability of such model.

In the context of text generation, transformer architecture became recently the state-of-the-art choice for all the tasks involving text. GPT-2, developed by Radford et al., is a powerful and light model for text generation. It predicts the next word in a sentence based on all the previous words, enabling it to generate coherent and contextually relevant text once trained on a large dataset.

Using images to create textual captions is not an easy task and ad-hoc architectures and pipelines are used to deal with this kind of tasks. Mokady et al. proposed a pipeline using a fine-tuned CLIP as backbone, a transformer block appended to the final image embeddings of CLIP that serves to project the CLIP embeddings to the GPT-2 embeddings, as depicted in 1. A similar approach is used by Silva et al., they propose RS-CapRet, a vision and language method specifically designed for remote sensing tasks such as image captioning and text-image retrieval. RS-CapRet utilizes a LLamaV2 [10] model along with a fine-tuned CLIP encoder adapted to remote sensing imagery. By training simple linear layers to bridge the image encoder and language decoder while keeping other parameters frozen, RS-CapRet achieves state-of-the-art or competitive performance.

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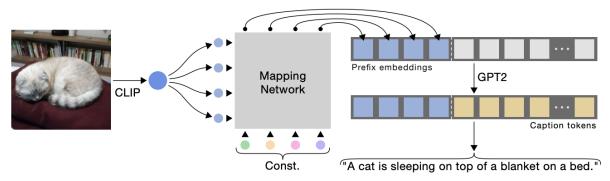


Figure 1: Overview of the pipeline used, in this work the mapping network is a single linear layer that projects the CLIP embeddings to the GPT-2 embedding size, the Const. values are not considered here. The image is taken from [4]

III. DATASETS

For this project, the CAP-4 dataset of annotated satellite images specifically designed for this task will be considered. This dataset is a composition of 4 different datasets: NWPU-Captions[1], RSICD-Captions[3], UCM-Captions[5], and Sydney-Captions[5].

- 1) NWPU-Captions: This dataset contains 31,500 images, each manually annotated with five unique sentences, with a total of 157,500 sentences. These images cover a broad range of 45 different scene classes, making the dataset diverse and comprehensive. The spatial resolution varies from 30 to 0.2 meters/pixel for most of the images. All the images are collected from Google Earth.
- 2) UCM-Captions: This dataset was constructed based on the UCMD dataset that was originally used for classification tasks [11]. It contains 2,100 images with 21 different categories. The image size is 256×256 pixels. Each image is describerd with five different captions with 10,500 descriptions in total. The images comes from aerial orthoimagery with a resolution of one foot per pixel.
- 3) Sydney-Captions: This dataset was built on top of the Sydney dataset, which was originally used for classification tasks. All the images are derived from a 18,000×14,000 big image of Sydney from Google Earth. The images are 500×500 pixels and belong to seven scene categories, with each image annotated by five different descriptions, totaling 3,065 sentences.
- 4) RSICD: In this dataset, all the images are collected from different sources and cropped to 224×224 pixels with various spatial resolutions. RSICD contains 10,921 images with 30 different categories, and the total number of descriptions is 24,333.

A. Merging datasets

Not all datasets has the same resolution and some do not always have five captions for each image. To solve the first problem I resized the images to a size of 224x224, which is the size that CLIP accepts as

input. For the latter, at training time, only one caption is randomly selected, this strategy helps augmenting data because at every epoch the model will receive a different caption for the same sample as input. All of these datasets are already split by design into training, validation, and test sets.

IV. METHOD

The pipeline proposed here is inspired by the work of Mokady et al. [4] where a fine-tuned version of CLIP is used to calculate the image embedding that are projected to the GPT-2 input token embedding. This is done with the help of a Transformer block that takes in input the CLIP embedding and project to a dimension of $gpt_embedding*prefix_lenght$ and then reshaped to create a sequence of embeddings of dimension [batch_size, prefix_lenght, gpt_embedding] as depicted in Fig.1. In my case I had to abstract the different encoders and assume that their output has already a shape $[batch_size, prefix_lenght, encoder_dim]$, in that way I can append a simple linear layer on top of the encoder to project and match the dimension of the GPT-2 decoder. I will detail in the relative subsections how this abstraction is achieved for each encoder.

For all training methods, I used the AdamW optimizer and a cosine scheduler with warmup. The warmup phase helps the AdamW optimizer achieve better convergence properties in the first stages of the training process. While the cosine scheduling gradually decreases the learning rate during the training to mitigate overfitting.

To effectively select the best models during training I decided to keep the model with the highest SPICE score on the validation set. This is because this metric considers the intrinsic meaning of the captions instead that raw words, making it more reliable than the other metrics to evaluate a captioning task in general terms. Using a metric like the BLUE score may lead to select a model that over-fits more on the datasets leading to poor results in a real case scenario.

Evaluation Dataset	Backbone	BLEU-1	BLEU-2	BLEU-3	BLEU-4	ROUGE	CIDEr	METEOR	SPICE
NWPU	VGG16	0.73	0.57	0.48	0.41	0.61	1.06	0.32	0.24
	fine-tuned CLIP	0.80	0.69	0.61	0.56	0.72	1.42	0.42	0.31
	RemoteCLIP	0.82	0.72	0.65	0.60	0.75	1.53	0.43	0.35
	RS-CapRet [8]	0.87	0.79	0.71	0.66	0.78	1.92	0.44	0.32
	VGG16	0.57	0.37	0.26	0.20	0.45	0.55	0.23	0.21
RSICD RemoteCLIP 0.	fine-tuned CLIP	0.62	0.43	0.33	0.26	0.49	0.72	0.26	0.25
	RemoteCLIP	0.68	0.50	0.40	0.32	0.54	0.94	0.30	0.30
	0.74	0.62	0.53	0.46	0.65	2.60	0.38	0.48	
	VGG16	0.48	0.28	0.19	0.14	0.39	0.65	0.19	0.18
UCM	fine-tuned CLIP	0.67	0.56	0.50	0.45	0.64	2.21	0.35	0.40
UCM	RemoteCLIP	0.86	0.80	0.75	0.71	0.83	3.40	0.48	0.54
	RS-CapRet [8]	0.83	0.76	0.70	0.65	0.79	3.42	0.44	0.53
Sydney	VGG16	0.49	0.31	0.24	0.19	0.37	0.71	0.19	0.24
	fine-tuned CLIP	0.55	0.45	0.37	0.30	0.57	0.87	0.32	0.35
	RemoteCLIP	0.57	0.50	0.43	0.37	0.62	0.98	0.38	0.41
	RS-CapRet [8]	0.78	0.69	0.61	0.54	0.70	2.40	0.38	0.43

Table I: Performance comparison of various models on different datasets using multiple evaluation metrics.

A. CLIP fine-tuning

In training the pipeline using CLIP, a two-stage training process is employed. The first stage involves CLIP fine-tuning, and the second focuses on both the decoder and the adapter layer. The objective during CLIP fine-tuning is to maximize the cosine similarity between the embeddings of the two modalities for each sample. I trained the CLIP model for 15 epochs, keeping the model with the lowest validation loss. The learning rate was set to 5e-05, and the batch size was 64. I employed a weight decay of 0.2 and set the second beta of the AdamW optimizer to 0.98. These hyperparameters are the same as those used in the original training of CLIP, with only the learning rate being smaller. The version of CLIP I used is the smaller transformer ViT-B/32.

To match the dimension output $[batch_size, prefix_lenght, encoder_dim],$ the linear head on top of the CLIP model, which matches embeddings from different modalities, is discarded. This way the output will be in the $form \ [batch_size, num_patches + 1, encoder_dim]$ allowing each patch to be considered a token input for the GPT-2 model. The "+1" is the [CLS] token used by the dropped final layer. This approach is preferable to using the final output of CLIP because every patch contains specific information about that part of the image, while the final CLIP embedding contains a more general description of the image. Secondly, if the adapter layer had to project to a dimension of gpt_embedding * prefix_lenght it would require way more parameters.

Once the CLIP model is trained, the next step is to fine-tune the GPT-2 model along with the adaptation layer, the second component of the pipeline. For this purpose, I utilized the smaller pretrained GPT-2 model available on HuggingFace. During the training phase, the model is provided with the entire embedded ground truth caption appended to the adapted CLIP embedding. The Hugging Face library automatically shifts

the output of GPT-2 to train the model on predicting the subsequent words and returns the correct loss. The training ran for 15 epochs with a learning rate of 1e-05 for the GPT-2 model and 3e-05 for the projection layer. The batch size was 32, with a weight decay of 1e-08 and a dropout rate of 0.2.

B. RemoteCLIP

In this case no training is involved and the pretrained model proposed by Liu et al. is used. The same model dimension, ViT-B/32, is used for consistency with the previous method. For the decoder training, the same procedure as the previous step is employed.

C. VGG encoder

In this experiment, a VGG16 encoder is used. In particular, only the features coming from the convolutional part of the VGG network are considered. The dimensionality of the output is in the form $[batch_size, out_channel, width, height]$ where $out_channel = 512$ and width = height = 7. To coherently transform the dimensionality of this output to [batch_size, prefix_lenght, encoder_dim] I first considered the out_channel dimension as the encoder_dim. Flattening the last two dimensions, width and height respectively, results in having a set of visual patches, thus $prefix_lenght = 49$. This approach alignes well to the method used for CLIP: in the 7x7 output, each pixel has 512 channels, which can be seen as an embedding containing high-level features. This provides a similar conceptual representation to CLIP, where each patch is embedded and represented by a high-dimensional vector.

In this case, the training is run end-to-end because this architecture does not allow for the application of any kind of contrastive pre-learning. The same hyperparameters were used as in the previous step, with a learning rate of 1e-05 for the VGG network.

V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

After the training of the models, both quantitative and qualitative analyses were performed. All metrics for the various models are reported in Table I. For comparison, the results of RS-CapRet [8] are also included in the table; these results derive from employing the same training strategy with the entire CAP-4 dataset. The data clearly indicate that the most effective model backbone is RemoteCLIP, which outperformed the other backbones. Specifically, for the UCM task, it generally surpassed the performance of the state-of-the-art method, RS-CapRet. It is clear that the least effective backbone model is VGG16.

1) Qualitative analysis: Figures 2, 3, 5 and 4 show some test images, captioned with the three different backbones. It is interesting to see how using RemoteCLIP the counting capabilities emerged from the original paper are not lost: the GPT-2 decoder is able to exploit such capability to output captions with a correct number of objects. This is evident in the second image in Fig. 2 with four planes and in the first two images in Fig. 4, the first showing two freeways and the second two tennis courts. In contrast, the other models struggle to accurately count the number of elements in these images.

In general, captions created using RemoteCLIP well captures and relates the objects present in the image, for example in Fig. 3 in the last image it captures the circular building surrounded by trees, while CLIP sees a bare land that is not present and VGG cannot even describe the main building.

Another interesting observation is that in the last image of Fig. 4, RemoteCLIP accurately finds the narrow road that goes through the area. Interestingly, while none of the ground truth captions mention a road, this is likely due to human tendency to focus on the central elements of an image, often not considering details at the borders. This highlights a key difference between how humans describe images and how RemoteCLIP (but in general any machine learning algorithm) processes them.

The model utilizing the VGG16 backbone sometime fails even to classify the image correctly: it is the case of the first image in Fig. 5 where it confuses the river with a railway station. Even on the second image of Fig. 5 it classifies an industrial area as a residential area.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

Different encoders and different training strategies lead to different results. As we have seen, Remote-CLIP is the most effective and ready-to-use foundation model and using it as a decoder for this kind of pipeline leads to very promising results, almost reaching state-of-the-art methods. The most important finding here is that the inner capabilities of Remote-CLIP, such as counting objects are transferred to the entire model. Moreover, from the qualitative analysis

emerged that all the models based on CLIP can always correctly find the category the image belongs to, while VGG16 can sometimes misclassify objects and categories in the image.

VII. FUTURE WORKS

To further improve this pipeline the first step to do is to use bigger models, for example using the ViT-L/14 version of RemoteCLIP and a more complex decoder such as a LLamaV2. With the limited amount of resources training such big models was infeasible for this work. Other techniques may be used such integrate in the pipeline a visual grounding element to further enhance the precision of the encoder.

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Table II: Occurrence of the most occurring captions in the datasets

	NWPU	RSICD	Sydney	UCM
Sentences from NWPU-Captions dataset, containing 157,500 capti	ons			
'This is a dense forest'	415 (0.003%)	2	0	8
'The entire image is dominated by grass'	435 (0.003%)	0	0	0
'The snow berg is consist of bare land and white snow'	448 (0.003%)	0	0	0
'The bare and green terrace is next to some trees'	290 (0.002%)	0	0	0
Sentences from RSICD-Captions dataset, containing 24,333 caption	ns			
'many buildings and green trees are in a dense residential area'	0	592 (0.024%)	0	0
'many pieces of farmlands are together'	0	434 (0.017%)	0	0
'many buildings are in an industrial area'	0	292 (0.012%)	0	0
'it is a piece of green meadow'	0	218 (0.009%)	0	0
Sentences from UCM-Captions dataset, containing 10,500 captions	s			
'There is a piece of farmland'	0	0	0	111 (0.011%)
'There is a piece of cropland'	0	0	0	111 (0.011%)
'It is a piece of farmland'	0	0	0	111 (0.011%)
'It is a piece of cropland.	0	0	0	111 (0.011%)
Sentences from Sydney-Captions dataset, containing 3,065 caption	is			
'a residential area with houses arranged neatly and some roads go through this area'	0	0	79 (0.026%)	0
'a residential area with houses arranged neatly while many plants on the roadside'	0	0	59 (0.019%)	0
'this is a part of deep green sparkling sea'	0	0	165 (0.054%)	0
'a part of ocean with deep green waters'	0	0	56 (0.018%)	0

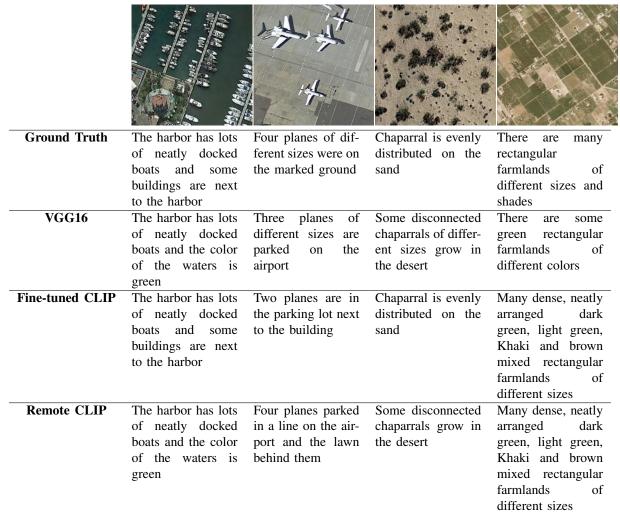


Figure 2: Results on some of the NPWU samples

Ground Truth	several planes are parked	several green trees are	a circle gray center build-
	in an airport near several	around a baseball field.	ing is surrounded by some
	buildings with a parking lot		green trees and a circle
			road with several cars
VGG16	Several planes are parked	A baseball field is near sev-	Many green trees and sev-
	in an airport near some	eral green trees and several	eral buildings are near a
	buildings and green trees	buildings	viaduct with many cars
Fine-tuned CLIP	Many planes are in an air-	There are two baseball di-	The palace is on the bare
	port near some buildings	amonds in the grass sur-	land next to some trees
		rounded by the houses and	
		the forests	
Remote CLIP	Many planes are parked	A baseball field is near sev-	Some green trees are
	near a terminal in an air-	eral green trees and a build-	around a circle building
	port	ing	

Figure 3: Results on some of the RSICD samples

Ground Truth	Two straight freeways par-	There are two tennis courts	A medium residential area
	rallel forward with some	surrounded by some trees	with houses surrounded by
	cars on them		lawn
VGG16	There are some green trees	The tennis court is on the	Many buildings and green
	beside the overpass	grass next to some build-	trees are in a medium resi-
		ings and trees	dential area
Fine-tuned CLIP	The freeway goes through	The tennis court is on the	There are many roads and
	the forest with some cars	bare land next to some	neatly arranged houses and
		trees	trees and large lawns in
			densely populated areas
Remote CLIP	There are two straight free-	There are two tennis courts	This is a medium residen-
	ways closed to each other	arranged neatly and sur-	tial area with a narrow road
	with some plants beside them	rounded by some trees	goes through this area

Figure 4: Results on some of the UCM samples

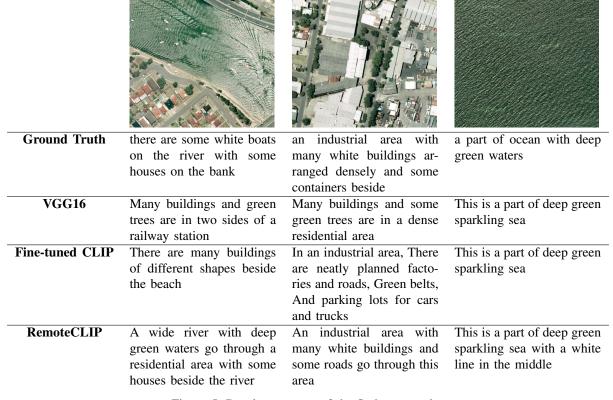


Figure 5: Results on some of the Sydney samples