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ABSTRACT

Recent advances in image-text pretraining have significantly enhanced visual understanding by aligning visual and textual representations. Contrastive Language-Image Pretraining (CLIP) has played a pivotal role in multimodal learning. However, its focus on single-label, single-granularity alignment limits its effectiveness in complex domains such as medical imaging, [where images often correspond to multiple high-level labels \(e.g., disease categories\) across different annotation granularities \(e.g., diagnostic description, clinical explanation\)](#). To address this, we propose Multi-Granular Language Learning (MGLL), a contrastive learning framework designed to improve both multi-label and cross-granularity alignment. MGLL leverages structured multi-label supervision, integrates textual descriptions across granularities, and introduces soft-label supervision with point-wise constraints to enhance alignment. MGLL employs smooth Kullback–Leibler (KL) divergence to ensure cross-granularity consistency while maintaining computational efficiency as a plug-and-play module for vision-language models. Pre-trained on our constructed large-scale multi-granular datasets and evaluated across multiple datasets, MGLL outperforms other state-of-the-art methods in downstream tasks. The code will be available on GitHub.

1 INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the large-scale image-text pretraining has significantly improved the performance of downstream computer vision tasks. Among these approaches, Contrastive Language-Image Pre-training (CLIP) Radford et al. (2021) has gained widespread popularity for its ability to learn aligned visual and textual representations from paired data. CLIP has been extensively utilized in multimodal learning, ensuring that representations from different modalities remain semantically consistent. Consequently, CLIP has been employed for pretraining vision foundation models and fine-tuning on various downstream tasks, such as classification, image segmentation, and object detection. Despite the success of CLIP and related pretraining methods in aligning images with textual categories, simple image-text pair matching remains inadequate in medical domains such as imaging, biosignal analysis, and genomics. A single medical image or signal often maps to multiple target categories, requiring both multi-label and multi-granularity alignment. As shown in Fig. 1, a retinal fundus image may present both Diabetic Macular Edema and Diabetic Retinopathy, along with finer-grained labels like Severe Diabetic Macular Edema and Moderate Non-Proliferative Diabetic Retinopathy. This calls for alignment across multiple semantic levels. Existing multi-label contrastive methods Wang et al. (2022b); Saporta et al. (2024); Naeem et al. (2024) focus on instance-label correlations but struggle with cross-granular semantics and generalization. Compared to natural images, medical images encode more complex, hierarchical information—spanning diagnoses, structures, lesions, and textures—yet suffer from data scarcity due to privacy and annotation costs, further compounding the challenge.

In this study, we aim to address the challenges of **multi-label alignment** and **cross-granularity alignment** through a generalizable image-text contrastive learning framework simultaneously. [Here, we define “label” as a high-level disease category that an image belongs to, whereas “granularity” represents different levels or aspects of medical annotations, such as diagnostic attributes or clinical explanations](#). Unlike previous image-text contrastive pretraining approaches, which rely on single-granular, single-label supervision, we construct a multi-granular, multi-label datasets by collecting rich textual descriptions associated with the labels. Furthermore, we extend the original CLIP image and text loss Radford et al. (2021) to incorporate soft-label supervision and introduce point-wise constraints to enhance multi-label alignment. At the same time, we define contrastive learning ob-

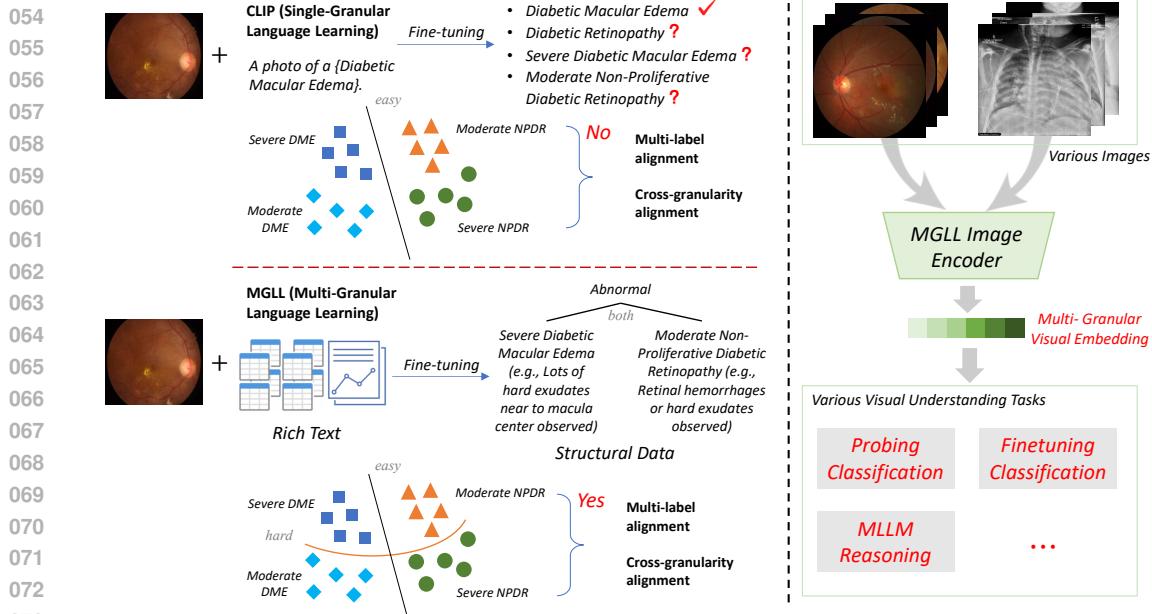


Figure 1: The illustrative comparison of input and outcome between CLIP and MGLL.

jectives for each granularity level and employ smooth Kullback–Leibler (KL) divergence to achieve cross-granularity alignment. By jointly optimizing these learning objectives, our proposed MGLL (Multi-Granular Language Learning) effectively aligns image-text pairs across both multiple labels and multiple granularities. Notably, our method does not introduce any granularity-sensitive encoders, ensuring no additional computational cost. This allows MGLL to function as a plug-and-play module that can be integrated into any vision foundation model or large vision-language model Touvron et al. (2023). We hope our method and experiments can provide new insights into medical vision-language pretraining and facilitate more effective visual representation learning. Our contributions are as follows:

- We propose MGLL, a novel contrastive learning framework using multi-granular language that enables simultaneous multi-label and cross-granularity alignment.
- We provide a set of architecture-agnostic, multi-label, multi-granularity learning objectives that can be seamlessly integrated into vision-language models and foundation models to enhance medical visual understanding.
- We design a structured multi-granular, multi-label system and construct large-scale multi-granular retinal and X-ray image-text datasets. Extensive experiments on over ten downstream datasets demonstrate that MGLL consistently outperforms other state-of-the-art (SOTA) methods, exhibiting superior generalization ability.

2 RELATED WORK

2.1 IMAGE-TEXT CONTRASTIVE LEARNING

Large-scale image-text pretraining underpins modern multimodal learning. Contrastive methods like CLIP Radford et al. (2021) align visual and textual features via paired data. Variants such as SILC Naeem et al. (2024) use local-to-global pairwise learning, Symile Saporta et al. (2024) models higher-order multimodal relations, and Long-CLIP Zhang et al. (2024) handles extended text via stretched embeddings. MedCLIP Wang et al. (2022b) addresses false negatives in medical data by semantic matching. Recent foundation models Silva-Rodriguez et al. (2025); Du et al. (2024); Li et al. (2025); Zhang et al. (2023) tailor contrastive learning to specific domains. Still, standard frameworks often underperform in medical settings due to data scarcity and complex semantics.

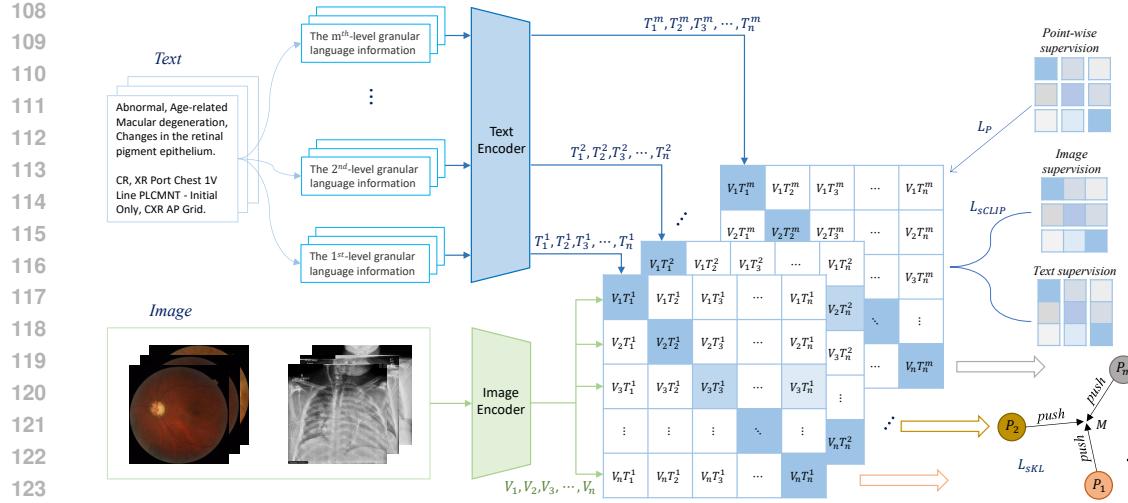


Figure 2: The overview of MGLL (Multi-Granular Language Learning) pretraining pipeline.

2.2 MULTI-LABEL LEARNING

While conventional deep networks perform well in single-label classification, real-world objects often carry multiple labels across entities, actions, and attributes Zhang et al. (2022); Khattak et al. (2024); Dai et al. (2024). Early work by Wang et al. Wang et al. (2016) learned joint image-label embeddings, and later introduced a recurrent attention module for interpretability Wang et al. (2017b). SupCon Khosla et al. (2020) extended contrastive learning to supervised settings using label structures, while Zhang et al. Zhang et al. (2022) proposed a hierarchy-preserving loss. Yet, these methods remain limited in vision-language integration, with fixed label spaces constraining semantic flexibility.

2.3 MULTI-GRANULARITY LEARNING

Visual and textual data convey semantics across multiple granularities. Recent work explores this via diverse frameworks Zhao et al. (2024); Li et al. (2024a); Liu et al. (2024a). Wang et al. Wang et al. (2022a) use bidirectional cross-attention for fine-grained alignment, Zhao et al. Zhao et al. (2024) propose a multi-granularity vision flow, and Xiong et al. Xiong et al. (2022) align inter-/intra-modal features with decision fusion. Du et al. Du et al. (2022) capture cross-modal multi-granular semantics for retrieval. **Most of the these approaches rely on fixed training pipelines that limit their ability to incorporate heterogeneous or hierarchical annotations. Our MGLL provides a more flexible and generalizable framework for learning both multi-label and cross-granularity visual–language representations. MGLL can effectively utilize different types of granularity information across diverse datasets without requiring specific annotation formats or model architectures. MGLL also displays robust performance under complex scenarios such as mixed granularity and noised annotations.**

3 MULTI-GRANULAR LANGUAGE LEARNING

3.1 OVERVIEW

To achieve multi-label and cross-granularity matching between images and text, we propose MGLL, a multi-granularity language-based contrastive learning framework. As shown in Fig. 2, our framework consists of an image encoder and a text encoder, where we use Vision Transformer Dosovitskiy et al. (2020) and BERT Devlin et al. (2019) as the default choices. First, we collect rich textual descriptions for both fundus and X-ray images, constructing two multi-granularity datasets: MGLL-Fundus and MGLL-Xray. Next, we leverage the encoded image representations and multi-granularity text representations for multi-label contrastive learning, employing smoothed KL divergence to align cross-granularity representations. We then describe how to transform multi-granularity text into hierarchical representations and detail the MGLL objective. Furthermore, we provide both empirical and theoretical analyses, demonstrating that MGLL captures richer image–text correlations than CLIP without additional parameters. This enables the learning of more dis-

162 discriminative visual features, improving downstream vision tasks. Finally, we introduce the construction
 163 of large-scale multi-granular datasets: MGLL-Fundus and MGLL-Xray.
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165 **3.2 THE MGLL OBJECTIVES**

166 Most contrastive learning methods rely on the traditional CLIP loss, but our primary goal is to
 167 achieve simultaneous multi-label and cross-granularity alignment between image-text pairs. To this
 168 end, we improve the standard CLIP loss by introducing the **soft CLIP loss**, the **point-wise loss**, and
 169 the **smooth KL (Kullback–Leibler) divergence loss** in our proposed multi-granularity language
 170 learning objective. The soft CLIP loss $\mathcal{L}_{\text{sCLIP}}$ enhances the visual encoder by enabling better align-
 171 ment with multi-label features. The point-wise loss optimizes the alignment of visual features with
 172 specific text features at a given granularity, further improving multi-label alignment. The smooth
 173 KL divergence loss helps different granularity features converge toward a unified feature space, fa-
 174 cilitating cross-granularity alignment of visual representations. To quantify the similarity between
 175 image and text features, we adopt a soft alignment strategy, allowing an image V_i to align not only
 176 with a single label T_i but also with multiple related labels $T_{ik}, k \in \{1, 2, \dots, M_i\}$ as Eqs. (1)
 177 and (2), where N is the total number of images, M_i is the number of text labels associated with
 178 the i -th image, V_i and T_{ik} represent the encoded features of the i -th image and its corresponding
 179 k -th text label, respectively. $\text{sim}(V_i, T_{ik})$ is the similarity function measuring their alignment. The
 180 temperature parameter τ controls the sharpness of the probability distribution, while the weight fac-
 181 tor w_{ik} determines the contribution of the k -th text label to the alignment of the i -th image. **The**
 182 **text-to-image loss l_{ki} can be obtained simply by swapping the roles of the image and text terms of**
 183 **the image-to-text loss l_{ik} in Eq. (2).**

$$l_{ik} = -w_{ik} \log \frac{\exp(\text{sim}(V_i, T_{ik})/\tau)}{\sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{m=1}^{M_n} \exp(\text{sim}(V_i, T_{nm})/\tau)} \quad (1)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{sCLIP}} = \frac{1}{2 \sum_{i=1}^N M_i} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^{M_i} (l_{ik} + l_{ki}) \quad (2)$$

190 Each image feature V_i is treated as multiple pairs $(V_i, T_{i1}), (V_i, T_{i2}), \dots, (V_i, T_{iM_i})$, and w_{ik} is the
 191 probability of selecting T_{ik} as a valid label for V_i . w_{ik} is derived from the co-occurrence matrix
 192 normalization as Eq. (3). Instead of forcing the model to align strictly with one label like CLIP,
 193 MGLL allows multi-label optimization and prevents the model from being biased toward a single
 194 label.

$$w_{ik} = \frac{\text{cooccurrence}(V_i, T_{ik})}{\sum_k \text{cooccurrence}(V_i, T_{ik})} \quad (3)$$

195 To further optimize the alignment between visual and textual features, we employ binary cross
 196 entropy as point-wise loss \mathcal{L}_P to refine multi-label alignment as Eq. (4), where $x'_{ij} = \sigma(x_{ij})$, $x_{ij} =$
 197 $\text{sim}(V_i, T_j)$ represents the similarity logits between the encoded image feature V_i and text feature
 198 T_j before applying activation. The binary label $y_{ij} \in \{0, 1\}$ indicates whether the image-text pair is
 199 a valid match. $\sigma(x)$ is the Sigmoid activation function, defined as $\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$, which normalizes
 200 the logits into a probability range. T_j denotes the annotation corresponding to a single label at a
 201 specific granularity level. M denotes the total number of annotations, and N represents the total
 202 number of images. These annotations are consistent with those defined in Eq. (1). Since the point-
 203 wise loss does not explicitly model the relationships among annotations, we omit the label subscripts
 204 of M and T_j for simplicity. By explicitly supervising individual image-text pairs, this loss enhances
 205 fine-grained multi-label alignment and improves the discriminability of visual representations.
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$$\mathcal{L}_P = - \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^M \frac{y_{ij} \log x'_{ij} + (1 - y_{ij}) \log(1 - x'_{ij})}{N} \quad (4)$$

207 To achieve cross-granularity alignment, we employ the smooth Kullback–Leibler (KL) divergence
 208 loss \mathcal{L}_{sKL} , formulated as follows. **Given m similarity logits between the encoded image feature and**
 209 **the text feature $\{P_i\}_{i=1}^m$** , we define the mean distribution as the average of all predicted distributions:
 210 $M = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m P_i$. Then, we compute the KL divergence between each predicted distribution and
 211 the mean distribution as Eqs. (5) and (6), where $P_i^{(j)}$ represents the predicted probability of the i -th

model for category j . This loss encourages consistency across different granularity levels by aligning their predicted distributions toward the mean distribution M , which achieves cross-granularity alignment.

$$D_{\text{KL}}(P_i \| M) = \sum_j P_i^{(j)} \log \frac{P_i^{(j)}}{M^{(j)}} \quad (5)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{sKL}} = \sum_{i=1}^m D_{\text{KL}}(P_i \| M) \quad (6)$$

The final loss with weight factors is as Eq. (7), where α_1 is 0.5, α_2 is 1, and α_3 is 1 by experimental setting.

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{MGLL}} = \alpha_1 \mathcal{L}_{\text{sCLIP}} + \alpha_2 \mathcal{L}_{\text{p}} + \alpha_3 \mathcal{L}_{\text{sKL}} \quad (7)$$

3.3 EMPIRICAL AND THEORETICAL ANALYSIS OF MGLL

3.3.1 EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

CLIP aligns each image with a single text label, limiting its effectiveness in multi-label scenarios. MGLL addresses this by using soft CLIP loss and point-wise loss to align visual features with multiple correlated text labels on a shared manifold. For multi-granularity alignment, MGLL encodes each granularity in separate spaces and aligns image features accordingly. A smooth KL divergence loss further promotes consistency by aligning features across granularities with their mean distribution, preventing overfitting to any single level. This enables MGLL to distinguish both coarse and fine-grained categories (e.g., Glaucoma vs. Diabetic Macular Edema, and Severe vs. Moderate Diabetic Macular Edema), where CLIP typically fails.

3.3.2 THEORETICAL ANALYSIS

We provide a theoretical comparison between MGLL and CLIP. CLIP maximizes similarity between image and corresponding text features while minimizing contrastive loss for mismatched pairs, as defined in Eq. (8), where V_i and T_i are image and text features, $\text{sim}(I, T) = \frac{I \cdot T}{\|I\| \|T\|}$ is cosine similarity, and τ is a temperature parameter.

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{CLIP}} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \log \frac{\exp(\text{sim}(V_i, T_i)/\tau)}{\sum_{j=1}^N \exp(\text{sim}(V_i, T_j)/\tau)} \quad (8)$$

However, CLIP only aligns an image V_i with a single text label T_i , limiting its effectiveness in multi-label settings. It also projects text features of different granularities into the same space, which is suboptimal when finer semantic distinctions are needed. MGLL overcomes these issues by introducing Soft CLIP Loss, Point-wise Loss, and Smooth KL Divergence Loss to support multi-label and cross-granularity alignment in appropriate feature subspaces.

(1) Soft CLIP Loss: MGLL allows an image feature V_i to align with multiple text features $\{T_{i1}, T_{i2}, \dots, T_{iM_i}\}$. At optimality, this leads to the condition in Eq. (9), implying Eq. (10), where V_i converges to the weighted center of its associated text features. This contrasts with CLIP, which aligns each image to a single text feature, highlighting MGLL’s advantage in multi-label learning.

$$\sum_{k=1}^{M_i} w_{ik} \nabla_{V_i} \text{sim}(V_i, T_{ik}) = 0 \quad (9)$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{M_i} w_{ik} \frac{T_{ik}}{\|T_{ik}\|} = \frac{V_i}{\|V_i\|} \quad (10)$$

(2) Point-wise Loss: To enhance image-text alignment, we introduce a point-wise binary cross-entropy loss \mathcal{L}_{p} with its gradient shown in Eq. (11). If $y_{ij} = 1$, the objective is to maximize $\sigma(x_{ij})$, strengthening similarity between V_i and T_j . If $y_{ij} = 0$, it minimizes $\sigma(x_{ij})$, suppressing similarity with irrelevant text. This encourages alignment with all valid labels while filtering out noise, improving over CLIP’s single-label constraint.

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$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_p}{\partial x_{ij}} = \sigma(x_{ij}) - y_{ij} \quad (11)$$

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(3) Smooth KL Divergence Loss: To enforce cross-granularity consistency, we introduce Smooth KL Divergence Loss. The mean distribution is defined as $M = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m P_i$ where $\{P_i\}_{i=1}^m$ are predicted distributions. By the non-negativity of KL divergence, Eq. (12) achieves equality only when $P_i = M$. Minimizing \mathcal{L}_{KL} thus enforces $P_1 = P_2 = \dots = P_m = M$, encouraging consistent representations across granularities and improving alignment in feature space.

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$$D_{KL}(P_i \| M) \geq 0, \quad \forall i \quad (12)$$

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While CLIP optimizes image-text alignment, it overlooks feature variability across granularities and lacks consistency in visual alignment. By aligning each image feature V_i with a single text feature T_i , it risks biased representations. In contrast, MGLL drives text features of different granularities toward a shared mean distribution M , promoting common semantic grounding and aligning visual features with all granularity levels, not just one.

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3.4 LARGE-SCALE MULTI-GRANULAR DATASETS

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3.4.1 MGLL-FUNDUS DATASET

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In this study, we construct a large-scale multi-granularity fundus image-text dataset, MGLL-Fundus, consisting of 246,389 pairs of fundus images and corresponding multi-granularity textual descriptions. The image data in MGLL-Fundus originates from 49 public datasets, covering more than 50 disease categories (details are provided in the supplementary material). The multi-granularity textual descriptions mainly include two levels of granularity: disease category and clinical explanation. The disease-level granularity comprises normal/abnormal labels along with specific disease categories. The clinical explanation granularity provides detailed textual descriptions derived from label explanations in datasets and EyeWiki EyeWiki (2024). As shown in Fig. 2, the disease-level description is “Abnormal, Age-related Macular Degeneration”, while its corresponding clinical explanation is “Changes in the retinal pigment epithelium.” By incorporating multi-granularity textual descriptions, we establish a hierarchical labeling system for fundus images, including normal/abnormal classification, disease categorization, and detailed clinical descriptions, which enable cross-granularity image-text alignment and enhance performance across different granularity levels. Our multi-granularity approach can also be adopted to other modalities.

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3.4.2 MGLL-XRAY DATASET

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In radiology research, the heterogeneity of study descriptions in DICOM (Digital Imaging and Communications in Medicine) headers complicates patient cohort selection, especially with manual methods. MIDRC (Medical Imaging and Data Resource Center) MIDRC (2024) highlight this challenge, where over 138,000 studies are categorized into only 97 unique descriptions, while the rest are described by 1,300 different descriptions. Therefore, we need LOINC (Logical Observation Identifiers Names and Codes), which provides a standardized coding system to enhance data sharing and analysis. To facilitate data coordination with, we collect 190,882 X-ray images from the MIDRC repository MIDRC (2024). We convert the images from DICOM to PNG format while extracting key metadata. The extracted multi-granularity textual information includes modality, study description, and series description. Modality includes CR (Computed Radiography), which has a lower resolution and signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), and DX (Digital Radiography), which uses flat-panel detectors for higher-quality imaging. Study Description provides an exam-level overview, such as “Chest X-ray”, while Series Description details specific imaging sequences like “PA View” (posteroanterior) or “Lateral View”. These multi-granularity textual features serve as the textual component of MGLL-Xray dataset.

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4 EXPERIMENTS

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4.1 SETUP

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We construct a large-scale multi-granularity fundus image-text dataset for pre-training, with further details provided in the supplementary material. To evaluate our model’s performance, we conduct experiments on eleven downstream datasets: FIVES Jin et al. (2022), IDRiD Porwal et al. (2018), OIA-DDR Li et al. (2019b), ADAM Fang et al. (2022), PALM Fang et al. (2024), REFUGE Orlando et al. (2020), RIM-ONE Batista et al. (2020), RFMiD Pachade et al. (2021), MIDRC-XR MIDRC

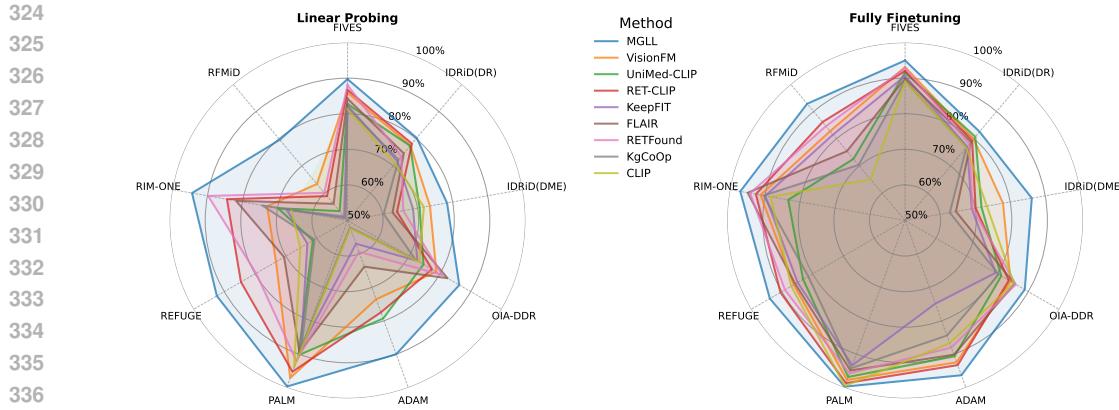


Figure 3: The quantitative comparison (AUC) between baseline methods and proposed MGLL on nine fundus downstream datasets.

(2024), MIDRC-XR-Portable MIDRC (2024), ChestX-ray14 Wang et al. (2017a) under both linear probing and full fine-tuning settings. In our quantitative evaluation, we employ AUC (Area Under the receiver operating characteristic Curve), mAP (mean Average Precision), and ACC (Accuracy) as assessment metrics. As for the multi-label setting, we report the category-wise average accuracy as ACC. We adopt ViT-L/14 Dosovitskiy et al. (2020) as the image encoder and BiomedicalBERT Alsentzer et al. (2019) as the text encoder by default. All experiments were conducted under identical settings, with baselines pre-trained on our self-constructed multi-granularity datasets to ensure fair comparison. **We strictly followed the official data splits of all downstream datasets. During pretraining, we only used the training sets for model training and the validation sets for pretraining evaluation, while the test sets were never accessed.**

4.2 COMPARISON WITH STATE-OF-THE-ART METHODS

4.2.1 EVALUATION ON RETINAL FUNDUS DATASETS

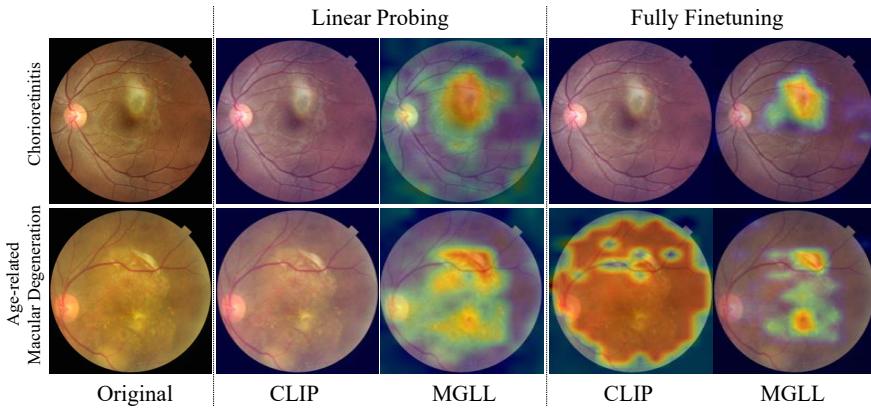
Utilizing the multi-granularity image-text fundus dataset we constructed, we pretrain our model within the Multi-Granular Language Learning (MGLL) framework to enhance its capability in feature representation for retinal fundus images. We conduct comprehensive experiments to compare the performance of MGLL against several state-of-the-art (SOTA) baseline methods across nine downstream datasets, covering a wide range of retinal diseases. The AUC results for both linear probing and full fine-tuning are presented in Fig. 3, while more detailed results can be found in the supplementary material (Tables 15 to 23). MGLL consistently achieves significant performance improvements across all nine datasets, with particularly strong gains in the linear probing setting. Notably, on the multi-label dataset RFMID Pachade et al. (2021), MGLL outperforms other methods by at least 16.6% in linear probing and 6.7% in full fine-tuning, demonstrating its superior capability in handling imbalanced data distributions. Fig. 4 visualizes class activation maps (CAMs) from CLIP and MGLL on two cases with different retinal diseases. It is evident that CLIP fails to extract meaningful features, instead assigning nearly uniform attention weights across the entire fundus image. In contrast, MGLL effectively localizes key regions of interest (ROIs) for different diseases. Specifically, MGLL accurately highlights hard exudates for chorioretinitis and the retinal pigment epithelium for age-related macular degeneration. These quantitative and qualitative evaluations collectively indicate that MGLL possesses extraordinary capability in effective feature extraction and performance enhancement across diverse retinal diseases.

4.2.2 EVALUATION ON X-RAY DATASETS

We pretrain MGLL on the MGLL-Xray dataset and conduct experiments on MGLL and other SOTA baseline methods (Radford et al. (2021); Tiu et al. (2022); Zhang et al. (2023); Zhou et al. (2023a); Dai et al. (2024); Khattak et al. (2024); Lai et al. (2024); Xie et al. (2025)) on the MIDRC-XR and MIDRC-XR-Portable datasets, which are shown in the Table 1. In the linear probe setting, MGLL achieves significant advancements over the second-best method (UniChest Dai et al. (2024) on MIDRC-XR and UniMed-CLIP Khattak et al. (2024) on MIDRC-XR-Portable), with improvements of 2.23% and 3.81% in AUC, respectively, indicating superior representation learning capa-

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 379 Table 1: The performance evaluation on MIDRC-XR, MIDRC-XR-Portable, and ChestX-ray14.
 380 **Bold** indicates best performance and underline shows second-best.

381 Method	382 MIDRC-XR						383 MIDRC-XR-Portable						384 ChestX-ray14					
	385 Linear Probe (%)			386 Fully Fine-tune (%)			387 Linear Probe (%)			388 Fully Fine-tune (%)			389 Linear Probe (%)			390 Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	391 ACC	mAP	AUC	392 ACC	mAP	AUC	393 ACC	mAP	AUC	394 ACC	mAP	AUC	395 ACC	mAP	AUC	396 ACC	mAP
CLIP (ICML-21)	54.72	397 51.18	398 16.62	399 88.52	400 80.83	401 62.04	402 71.43	403 78.22	404 22.31	405 91.83	406 90.08	407 83.94	408 69.75	409 78.09	410 18.33	411 82.05	412 87.58	413 31.79
CheXZero (Nat. BME-22)	51.31	43.85	12.71	80.11	73.26	55.46	72.84	80.13	23.56	92.47	92.42	85.23	68.72	76.98	15.97	81.81	87.39	31.52
KAD (Nat. Com-23)	53.44	47.13	14.86	85.74	78.39	60.12	73.53	80.71	23.88	93.41	92.98	85.96	73.72	78.95	21.87	83.80	89.13	34.01
MRM (ICLR-23)	56.23	53.61	17.73	90.67	83.95	64.76	79.38	86.05	27.72	96.52	95.07	86.95	74.63	79.87	23.23	84.28	89.57	35.62
UniChest (TMI-24)	<u>59.02</u>	<u>54.78</u>	<u>19.32</u>	92.51	86.32	66.93	78.49	85.28	27.37	95.44	94.32	86.38	76.15	81.72	25.52	<u>85.84</u>	<u>89.99</u>	<u>37.97</u>
UniMed-CLIP (arXiv-24)	57.33	54.07	18.06	<u>94.15</u>	87.47	68.49	80.05	86.63	28.16	94.31	93.55	86.19	75.54	81.21	24.96	82.59	88.36	32.19
CARZero (CVPR-24)	57.92	54.43	18.79	93.48	86.94	67.62	75.24	82.67	25.65	92.94	92.66	85.67	<u>77.32</u>	<u>83.94</u>	<u>26.88</u>	82.95	88.65	32.86
FG-CLIP (ICML-25)	58.31	54.59	19.03	93.29	86.71	67.44	<u>80.31</u>	<u>86.77</u>	<u>28.27</u>	<u>96.93</u>	<u>95.74</u>	<u>87.42</u>	76.62	82.35	25.98	85.10	89.73	37.02
MGLL	61.25	56.57	21.19	99.08	90.06	73.33	83.86	89.06	30.62	99.75	98.80	89.87	82.94	90.41	28.53	87.37	92.71	39.17



402 Figure 4: The Class Activation Maps of different diseases from CLIP and MGLL.
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405 bilities. The performance gap becomes even more significant in the fully fine-tuned setting. To
 406 demonstrate its generalization capability, we conduct additional experiments using multi-granular
 407 labels constructed from the MIMIC-CXR dataset Johnson et al. (2019), evaluating performance on
 408 the ChestX-ray14 benchmark Wang et al. (2017a). The results reveal its exceptional transferability,
 409 with substantial performance advantages across all other baseline methods. In the linear probe set-
 410 ting, MGLL achieves 82.94% AUC, 90.41% accuracy, and 28.53% mAP, surpassing the second-best
 411 method (CARZero Lai et al. (2024)) by 5.62%, 6.47%, and 1.65% respectively. The improvement
 412 highlights its superior representation learning capacity, suggesting that its multi-granular approach
 413 captures more generalizable features that transfer effectively across datasets. These consistent and
 414 substantial improvements also demonstrate that MGLL enables more robust feature extraction.

415 4.3 PERFORMANCE WITH MGLL IN MLLMs

416 To evaluate MGLL’s impact as a specialized vision encoder within multimodal large language mod-
 417 els (MLLMs) for ophthalmological diagnostics, we design a multiple-choice benchmark involving
 418 2,233 clinical cases over ten ophthalmological conditions, where each fundus image prompted mod-
 419 els to select the correct diagnosis from four options (one correct, three random alternatives). We
 420 replace the standard vision encoders in seven advanced MLLMs with our pretrained MGLL: In-
 421 structBLIP Dai et al. (2023), Mini-Gemini Li et al. (2024b), Qwen-VL Bai et al. (2023), InternVL
 422 Chen et al. (2024a), LLaVA Liu et al. (2024a), LLaVA-Med Li et al. (2024a), Med-Flamingo Moor
 423 et al. (2023), and Janus-Pro Chen et al. (2025). All MLLMs were fine-tuned on the target dataset
 424 to ensure a fair comparison. Results demonstrate consistent and substantial improvements across all
 425 tested MLLMs, with average accuracy gains ranging from 4.6% (InternVL) to 34.1% (LLaVA-Med)
 426 as shown in Table 2. Notably, medically-specialized models exhibited the most dramatic enhance-
 427 ments, with Med-Flamingo and LLaVA-Med showing 31.7% and 34.1% increases respectively.
 428 This dramatic improvement can be attributed to the alignment between MGLL’s ophthalmology-
 429 specific visual feature extraction capabilities and the medical reasoning frameworks already embed-
 430 ded within these models. Even the high-performing general-purpose MLLMs like LLaVA (72.73%
 431 to 79.98%) also achieve significant gains with MGLL. The improvements across challenging con-
 432 ditions like Tessellation and Retinitis underscore MGLL’s capacity to extract clinically relevant visual
 433 features from fundus images, highlighting its robust adaptability across models.

432 Table 2: Comparison of multiple-choice accuracy with MGLL in multimodal large language models
 433 on selected ten representative diseases.

Method	AMD	Cataract	CSR	DR	Glaucoma	Media Haze	Myopia	Retinitis	DME	Tessellation	Average ↑
InstructBLIP Dai et al. (2023)	80.17%	80.00%	0.00%	76.51%	59.30%	16.13%	44.25%	11.11%	63.79%	41.67%	47.29%
+ MGLL	83.63%	85.00%	28.57%	82.55%	65.43%	45.16%	52.65%	44.44%	74.14%	58.33%	61.99% (14.7% ↑)
Mini-Gemini Li et al. (2024b)	76.61%	85.00%	14.29%	79.87%	67.90%	38.71%	58.41%	33.33%	60.34%	33.33%	54.78%
+ MGLL	82.46%	85.00%	42.86%	84.56%	72.22%	58.06%	64.16%	55.56%	65.52%	41.67%	65.21% (10.4% ↑)
Qwen-VL Bai et al. (2023)	81.87%	75.00%	28.57%	80.54%	78.40%	54.84%	76.55%	22.22%	84.48%	25.00%	60.75%
+ MGLL	85.96%	80.00%	42.86%	89.93%	87.04%	70.97%	80.97%	33.33%	89.66%	41.67%	70.24% (9.5% ↑)
Intern-VL Chen et al. (2024a)	81.29%	85.00%	71.43%	94.63%	89.51%	64.52%	88.05%	44.44%	87.93%	66.67%	77.35%
+ MGLL	86.55%	90.00%	71.43%	96.64%	90.74%	67.74%	91.15%	55.56%	94.83%	75.00%	81.96% (4.6% ↑)
LLaVA Liu et al. (2024a)	83.04%	90.00%	42.86%	87.25%	91.36%	48.39%	88.50%	44.44%	93.10%	58.33%	72.73%
+ MGLL	84.80%	90.00%	57.14%	93.96%	91.98%	61.29%	90.71%	66.67%	96.55%	66.67%	79.98% (7.3% ↑)
LLaVA-Med Li et al. (2024a)	16.37%	15.00%	42.86%	26.85%	25.31%	25.81%	23.89%	33.33%	16.67%	16.67%	24.28%
+ MGLL	58.48%	65.00%	57.14%	77.18%	59.26%	51.61%	57.08%	44.44%	55.17%	58.33%	58.37% (34.1% ↑)
Med-Flamingo Moor et al. (2023)	25.73%	30.00%	57.14%	36.91%	24.07%	22.58%	18.58%	22.22%	24.14%	8.33%	26.97%
+ MGLL	69.01%	75.00%	71.43%	80.54%	61.11%	54.84%	45.58%	44.44%	51.72%	33.33%	58.70% (31.7% ↑)
Janus-Pro Chen et al. (2025)	88.30%	75.00%	42.86%	93.29%	90.74%	58.06%	87.17%	33.33%	62.07%	58.33%	68.92%
+ MGLL	90.64%	85.00%	71.43%	96.64%	95.06%	67.74%	90.27%	55.56%	70.69%	75.00%	79.80% (10.88% ↑)

4.4 ABLATION STUDIES

4.4.1 ABLATION STUDY ON MGLL OBJECTIVES

We conduct an ablation study to analyze the effectiveness of each objective in MGLL on the RFMiD dataset, as shown in Table 3. The standard CLIP model performs the worst, highlighting its limitations in medical image understanding. Incorporating the point-wise Loss \mathcal{L}_P significantly improves performance, demonstrating its ability to enhance feature extraction. The soft CLIP loss \mathcal{L}_{sCLIP} also improves over CLIP, which enables soft alignment with multiple labels. Combining both losses ($\mathcal{L}_{sCLIP} + \mathcal{L}_P$) further boosts performance, indicating their complementary effects. Finally, adding the soft-KL loss \mathcal{L}_{sKL} leads to the best performance, demonstrating its role in refining feature consistency across different learning objectives. These results validate the effectiveness of each objective.

458 Table 3: Ablations of different MGLL objectives
 459 on RFMiD.

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP	44.66	92.53	7.28	65.10	92.86	17.31
\mathcal{L}_P	70.34	92.69	23.83	88.25	94.31	56.46
\mathcal{L}_{sCLIP}	67.86	92.63	20.52	85.13	93.58	50.67
$\mathcal{L}_{sCLIP} + \mathcal{L}_P$	75.73	92.77	30.16	90.31	94.87	62.27
$\mathcal{L}_{sCLIP} + \mathcal{L}_P + \mathcal{L}_{sKL}$	79.62	92.84	34.08	92.83	95.48	64.99

458 Table 4: Ablations of granularity count on
 459 MIDRC-XR-Portable.

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP	71.43	78.22	22.31	91.83	90.08	83.94
MGLL ₁	80.54	86.97	28.32	95.96	94.66	86.54
MGLL ₂	82.92	88.35	29.43	97.26	96.84	87.68
MGLL ₃	83.86	89.06	30.62	99.75	98.80	89.87

466 Table 5: Ablations of image encoder on RFMiD.

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP	44.66	92.53	7.28	65.10	92.86	17.31
ConvNext-Base	74.45	92.73	27.94	88.55	94.57	57.62
ConvNext-Large	78.34	92.80	32.03	91.29	94.95	62.93
ViT-B/16	75.53	92.76	30.11	89.46	94.83	61.84
ViT-L/14	79.62	92.84	34.08	92.83	95.48	64.99
ViT-H/14	79.18	92.81	33.42	92.07	95.29	63.85

466 Table 6: Ablations of text encoder on RFMiD.

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP	44.66	92.53	7.28	65.10	92.86	17.31
CLIP _{text}	68.93	92.66	22.14	88.76	94.58	58.14
BERT	79.62	92.84	34.08	92.83	95.48	64.99
LLaMA	74.89	92.75	29.38	90.97	95.04	62.86

4.4.2 ABLATION STUDY ON GRANULARITY COUNT

The ablation study on granularity count demonstrates the significant impact of multi-granular language supervision on model performance. As shown in Table 4, incrementally increasing the number of granularity levels consistently improves performance across all evaluation metrics. MGLL₃, which utilizes three distinct granularity levels (modality, study description, and series description), achieves superior results compared to both MGLL₁ (all textual information combined into a single granularity) and MGLL₂ (two granularity levels). Specifically, under linear probe evaluation, MGLL₃ outperforms the baseline CLIP by substantial margins (+12.43% AUC, +10.84% ACC, +8.31% mAP) and shows marked improvement over MGLL₁ (+3.32% AUC, +2.09% ACC, +2.30% mAP). The similar trend persists in fully fine-tuned scenarios. These results confirm that preserving the hierarchical structure of medical imaging information enables more comprehensive vision-language alignment than flattened representations, validating the core idea of the Multi-Granular Language Learning framework.

486 4.4.3 SELECTION OF IMAGE ENCODER AND TEXT ENCODER
487

488 The ablation study on image encoders reveals significant performance variations across different
489 architectural choices when evaluated on the RFMiD dataset as shown in Table 5. Vision Trans-
490 former (ViT) Dosovitskiy et al. (2020) generally outperforms CNN counterparts (ConvNeXt Liu
491 et al. (2022b)), with ViT-L/14 achieving optimal results across all metrics. Interestingly, the larger
492 ViT-H/14 model shows slightly diminished performance compared to ViT-L/14, suggesting a poten-
493 tial overfitting scenario or diminishing returns with increased model complexity in this domain.
494

495 The comparative analysis of text encoders demonstrates that the choice of language model signif-
496 icantly impacts the model’s ability to align textual and visual representations. BERT emerges as
497 the optimal text encoder, achieving the highest performance across all evaluation metrics as shown
498 in Table 6. The standard CLIP text encoder (denoted as $CLIP_{text}$) shows the limited performance
499 among the tested alternatives, though it still substantially improves upon the baseline CLIP model.
500 These findings suggest that the bidirectional attention mechanisms are suitable for the structured,
501 hierarchical medical terminology utilized in MGLL.

502 4.4.4 ABLATION STUDY ON IMAGE QUALITY AND TEXT QUALITY
503

504 Image resolution is a critical factor in the performance of MGLL as evidenced by the ablation ex-
505 periments on the MIDRC-XR-Portable dataset. The performance exhibits a clear monotonic relation-
506 ship with image resolution, with Standard-Resolution (512×512) significantly outperforming both
507 Low-Resolution (128×128) and Ultra Low-Resolution (64×64) configurations across all evaluation
508 metrics as shown in Table 7. These findings underscore the importance of preserving fine-grained
509 visual details in medical imaging applications, as higher resolution allows the model to capture sub-
510 tle radiological features. However, MGLL substantially outperforms the baseline CLIP even at Ultra
511 Low-Resolution, suggesting that MGLL provides robust improvements regardless of image quality.
512

513 The integrity of textual information significantly impacts model performance, as demonstrated
514 through controlled degradation experiments on the MIDRC-XR-Portable dataset. The analysis con-
515 trasts standard textual descriptions against two degraded conditions: “Error” (20% partial errors in
516 modality, study, or series descriptions) and “Missing” (20% partial omissions in these same fields).
517 Standard textual descriptions yield superior performance across all metrics as shown in Table 8. The
518 “Missing” condition demonstrates intermediate performance, while the “Error” condition shows
519 more performance degradation, suggesting that incorrect information is more detrimental than in-
520 complete information. Nevertheless, both degraded conditions still significantly outperform the
521 baseline CLIP model, indicating the robustness of MGLL to textual noise. These findings have
522 important practical implications for clinical deployment scenarios, where reporting systems may
523 contain documentation gaps or transcription errors, and suggest that MGLL maintains considerable
524 diagnostic utility even under suboptimal documentation conditions.
525

526 **Table 7: Ablations of image quality on MIDRC-
527 XR-Portable.**

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP	71.43	78.22	22.31	91.83	90.08	83.94
Ultra Low-Res	78.82	85.68	27.49	94.48	93.69	86.22
Low-Res	80.66	87.02	28.53	98.18	97.65	88.46
Standard-Res	83.86	89.06	30.62	99.75	98.80	89.87

528 **Table 8: Ablations of text quality on MIDRC-
529 XR-Portable.**

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP	71.43	78.22	22.31	91.83	90.08	83.94
Error	80.02	86.48	28.01	97.71	97.22	87.96
Missing	81.14	87.25	28.86	98.62	97.95	88.74
Standard	83.86	89.06	30.62	99.75	98.80	89.87

530

5 CONCLUSION

531 This study introduces Multi-Granular Language Learning (MGLL), a novel contrastive learning
532 framework that addresses limitations in existing vision-language pretraining methods. MGLL util-
533 izes textual information on different granular levels while employing soft-label supervision with
534 point-wise constraints to enhance representation quality, which advances multi-label and cross-
535 granularity alignment capabilities simultaneously. The implementation of smooth Kullback–Leibler
536 divergence also ensures cross-granularity consistency. Our evaluations across multiple downstream
537 datasets demonstrate that MGLL consistently outperforms state-of-the-art methods in downstream
538 tasks, particularly in domains requiring multi-label understanding at various granular levels. The
539 results validate its ability to capture complex semantics in visual data, establishing MGLL as an
540 advancement in developing future vision-language models.

540 **Ethics statement** This research uses exclusively publicly available medical imaging datasets and
 541 does not require Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval. All datasets utilized in this study, in-
 542 cluding the 49 public fundus imaging datasets comprising MGII-Fundus, the MIDRC repository
 543 for X-ray images, MIMIC-CXR, and other evaluation datasets, have been previously released for
 544 research purposes with appropriate ethical clearances and patient consent procedures handled by
 545 the original data providers. All patient identifiers have been removed from the datasets prior to our
 546 access, ensuring full de-identification in compliance with HIPAA and other relevant privacy regu-
 547 lations. We have strictly adhered to the usage terms and conditions specified by each dataset provider
 548 and have not attempted to re-identify any individuals. Our multi-granularity learning approach is
 549 designed to improve automated medical image analysis, particularly for diabetic retinopathy, glau-
 550 coma, age-related macular degeneration, and chest X-ray interpretation. The MIDRC dataset ap-
 551 plications focus on enhancing radiological assessment capabilities, which could potentially assist
 552 healthcare providers in resource-limited settings and improve diagnostic consistency. However, we
 553 emphasize that our models are intended as diagnostic support tools and should not replace clinical
 554 judgment. We commit to responsible AI development by ensuring transparent reporting of model
 555 limitations, encouraging rigorous clinical validation before any real-world deployment, and advo-
 556 cating for appropriate human oversight in all clinical applications. We do not claim our models are
 557 ready for direct clinical use without further validation and regulatory approval.

558 **Reproducibility statement** We have made extensive efforts to ensure the reproducibility of our
 559 work. The complete implementation, including the original source code and a README file with
 560 detailed instructions, is provided in the supplementary materials. Training configurations and hyper-
 561 parameters are fully documented in both the source code and Section 4.1. Step-by-step mathematical
 562 derivations of the proposed methodology are presented in Section 3.3 and Appendix A. All datasets
 563 employed in this study are publicly available, with references and preprocessing procedures de-
 564 scribed in Section 3.4 and Appendix B. The experimental setup is described in Section 4.1 and more
 565 details are described in Appendix C. To ensure fair comparison and reproducibility, all experiments
 566 used identical settings with baseline models pre-trained on our custom multi-granularity datasets.

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925 **APPENDIX**926 **Table of Contents**
927
928
929
930
931
932
933
934
935
936
937
938
939
940
941
942
943
944
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961
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964
965
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967
968
969
970
971

A Detailed Theoretical Analysis of MGLL	19
A.1 Soft CLIP Loss	19
A.2 Point-wise Loss	20
A.3 Smooth KL Divergence Loss	22
B Dataset Details	24
B.1 Pretrain Datasets	24
B.2 Downstream Datasets	26
C Setup Details	28
C.1 Evaluation Metrics	28
C.2 Implementation Details	28
D More Detailed Experimental Results	29
D.1 Detailed Results on Retinal Fundus Datasets	29
D.2 Zero-Shot Comparisons Across Medical and Natural Domains	32
D.3 Performance Evaluation on Region Segmentation	32
D.4 More Detailed Results of MGLL in MLLMs	33
D.5 More CAMs on Retinal Fundus Datasets	37
D.6 Ablation Study on Weight Factors of Loss	37
D.7 Ablation studies on the temperature coefficient (τ)	38
D.8 Performance on datasets with artificially introduced noise	38
D.9 Performance on datasets with mixing granularity levels	38
E Discussion and Future Work	39

972 **A DETAILED THEORETICAL ANALYSIS OF MGLL**
 973

974 **A.1 SOFT CLIP LOSS**
 975

976 *Formulation of the Soft CLIP Loss* In contrast to standard CLIP, which forces an image representation V_i to align with a single text label T_i . MGLL uses the Soft CLIP Loss to allow an image to align with multiple text features $\{T_{i1}, T_{i2}, \dots, T_{iM_i}\}$. In doing so, the loss is designed so that the optimal image feature becomes the weighted “center” of its associated text features. This mitigates bias toward any single label and better captures the multi-label nature of the data. The loss for an image–label pair is defined as the following formula:
 981

982
$$l_{ik} = -w_{ik} \log \frac{e^{\text{sim}(V_i, T_{ik})/\tau}}{\sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{m=1}^{M_n} e^{\text{sim}(V_i, T_{nm})/\tau}} \quad (13)$$

 983
 984

985 where w_{ik} is the weight assigned to the k -th text label for image i , derived via the following formula:
 986

987
$$w_{ik} = \frac{\text{cooccurrence}(V_i, T_{ik})}{\sum_k \text{cooccurrence}(V_i, T_{ik})} \quad (14)$$

 988
 989

990 where $\text{sim}(V_i, T_{ik})$ measures the similarity between image and text features (typically cosine simi-
 991 larity). τ is the temperature parameter controlling the sharpness of the resulting probability distri-
 992 bution. The overall loss is given by
 993

994
$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{sCLIP}} = \frac{1}{2 \sum_{i=1}^N M_i} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^{M_i} (l_{ik} + l_{ki}) \quad (15)$$

 995
 996

997 *Derivation of the Optimality Condition*
 998

999 **(a) The Goal of the Optimization**

1000 For the purposes of our analysis, we focus on how the loss aligns V_i with its multiple text features
 1001 T_{ik} . At an optimum, the gradient of the loss with respect to the image feature V_i must vanish. That
 1002 is, we require
 1003

1004
$$\nabla_{V_i} \mathcal{L}_{\text{sCLIP}} = 0. \quad (16)$$

 1005

1006 Focusing on the part of the loss involving the alignment between V_i and its labels, we can write a
 1007 simplified optimality condition (ignoring symmetric contributions from text-to-image terms):
 1008

1009
$$\sum_{k=1}^{M_i} w_{ik} \nabla_{V_i} \text{sim}(V_i, T_{ik}) = 0. \quad (17)$$

 1010
 1011

1012 **(b) Computing the Gradient**

1013 Assume for simplicity that both image and text features are normalized to unit norm:
 1014

1015
$$\|V_i\| = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \|T_{ik}\| = 1. \quad (18)$$

 1016

1017 Under this assumption, the cosine similarity reduces to a dot product:
 1018

1019
$$\text{sim}(V_i, T_{ik}) = V_i \cdot T_{ik}. \quad (19)$$

 1020

1021 The derivative with respect to V_i is then straightforward:
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$$\nabla_{V_i} (V_i \cdot T_{ik}) = T_{ik}. \quad (20)$$

 1024

1025 Thus, the optimality condition becomes

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$$\sum_{k=1}^{M_i} w_{ik} T_{ik} = \lambda V_i, \quad (21)$$

where λ is a scalar (a Lagrange multiplier that arises from the normalization constraint on V_i). Because V_i is unit norm, this equation can be re-arranged to yield

$$V_i = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{M_i} w_{ik} T_{ik}}{\left\| \sum_{k=1}^{M_i} w_{ik} T_{ik} \right\|}. \quad (22)$$

This result shows that at the optimal solution, the visual feature V_i is aligned with the weighted average (or the “center”) of its associated text features.

(c) Rewriting in Normalized Form

More generally, even when the features are not explicitly normalized in the network, one can express the optimality condition in terms of normalized vectors:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{M_i} w_{ik} \frac{T_{ik}}{\|T_{ik}\|} = \frac{V_i}{\|V_i\|}. \quad (23)$$

This is equivalent to the expression provided earlier, emphasizing that V_i converges to the weighted centroid of the normalized text features.

Interpretation and Discussion Unlike CLIP, which uses a one-to-one image–text matching—the Soft CLIP Loss allows each image to be simultaneously aligned with multiple text descriptions. The weighting w_{ik} (derived from the co-occurrence matrix) ensures that each text label contributes to the final image representation in proportion to its relevance. The optimality condition guarantees that the image representation V_i is not overly biased by any single text feature but is instead the “center” of all its semantic descriptors. This is crucial in multi-label settings where an image may contain several objects or concepts. In standard CLIP, the loss encourages V_i to align closely with a single text label T_i . Here, the Soft CLIP Loss’s optimality condition shows that the ideal V_i is instead a weighted aggregate of multiple text labels, overcoming the limitation of forcing one-to-one alignment in a multi-label context. The detailed derivation shows that under the Soft CLIP Loss, the following gradient condition

$$\sum_{k=1}^{M_i} w_{ik} \nabla_{V_i} \text{sim}(V_i, T_{ik}) = 0 \quad (24)$$

leads directly to the interpretation that the optimal image feature V_i is the normalized weighted sum of its associated text features. This theoretical result underpins MGLL’s capability to perform multi-label alignment, ensuring that image representations capture the combined semantic information provided by multiple labels.

A.2 POINT-WISE LOSS

Formulation of the Point-wise Loss The point-wise loss \mathcal{L}_P is designed to refine the alignment between visual and textual features on a per-pair basis. Unlike global or batch-level losses, this loss explicitly supervises each image–text pair, ensuring that every valid pair (where $y_{ij} = 1$) is pulled closer together in the feature space while non-matching pairs (where $y_{ij} = 0$) are pushed apart. This detailed supervision is achieved via a binary cross-entropy formulation applied to the similarity logits between an image feature V_i and a text feature T_j . The point-wise loss is defined as

$$\mathcal{L}_P = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^M \frac{y_{ij} \log x'_{ij} + (1 - y_{ij}) \log(1 - x'_{ij})}{-1 \times N} \quad (25)$$

where $x_{ij} = \text{sim}(V_i, T_j)$ are the similarity logits (before activation) between the i -th image and the j -th text. $x'_{ij} = \sigma(x_{ij}) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x_{ij}}}$ is the probability computed by the Sigmoid activation. $y_{ij} \in$

1080 $\{0, 1\}$ is the binary label indicating whether the image-text pair is a valid match. This formulation
 1081 is typical for binary classification tasks and allows the network to learn to distinguish relevant from
 1082 irrelevant image-text pairs.

1083 *Derivation of the Gradient* To understand how the loss drives the optimization, we derive the gradient
 1084 with respect to the logits x_{ij} .

1086 **(a) Loss for a Single Pair**

1087 Consider the binary cross-entropy loss for a single image-text pair (i, j) :

$$1089 \quad \ell_{ij} = -[y_{ij} \log \sigma(x_{ij}) + (1 - y_{ij}) \log(1 - \sigma(x_{ij}))] \quad (26)$$

1090 **(b) Derivative with Respect to x_{ij}**

1092 We can let $p_{ij} = \sigma(x_{ij})$. Using the chain rule, the derivative of ℓ_{ij} with respect to x_{ij} is:

$$1094 \quad \frac{\partial \ell_{ij}}{\partial x_{ij}} = \frac{\partial \ell_{ij}}{\partial p_{ij}} \cdot \frac{dp_{ij}}{dx_{ij}} \quad (27)$$

1097 Step 1. Compute $\frac{\partial \ell_{ij}}{\partial p_{ij}}$. We can differentiate ℓ_{ij} with respect to p_{ij} as follows:

$$1099 \quad \frac{\partial \ell_{ij}}{\partial p_{ij}} = -\left(\frac{y_{ij}}{p_{ij}} - \frac{1 - y_{ij}}{1 - p_{ij}}\right) \quad (28)$$

1102 Step 2. Compute $\frac{dp_{ij}}{dx_{ij}}$. Since $p_{ij} = \sigma(x_{ij})$ and the derivative of the sigmoid function is as follows:

$$1104 \quad \frac{d\sigma(x_{ij})}{dx_{ij}} = \sigma(x_{ij})(1 - \sigma(x_{ij})) = p_{ij}(1 - p_{ij}) \quad (29)$$

1107 So we have

$$1108 \quad \frac{dp_{ij}}{dx_{ij}} = p_{ij}(1 - p_{ij}) \quad (30)$$

1110 Step 3. Combine the Derivatives. We can multiply the two derivatives gives as follow:

$$1112 \quad \frac{\partial \ell_{ij}}{\partial x_{ij}} = -\left(\frac{y_{ij}}{p_{ij}} - \frac{1 - y_{ij}}{1 - p_{ij}}\right) \cdot p_{ij}(1 - p_{ij}) \quad (31)$$

1115 Expanding and simplifying, we have:

$$1117 \quad \frac{\partial \ell_{ij}}{\partial x_{ij}} = -(y_{ij}(1 - p_{ij}) - (1 - y_{ij})p_{ij}) \quad (32)$$

1119 Distributing the negative sign results in:

$$1121 \quad \frac{\partial \ell_{ij}}{\partial x_{ij}} = p_{ij} - y_{ij} \quad (33)$$

1124 Thus, for each image-text pair, the gradient is:

$$1126 \quad \frac{\partial \ell_{ij}}{\partial x_{ij}} = \sigma(x_{ij}) - y_{ij} \quad (34)$$

1128 Since the overall point-wise loss \mathcal{L}_P is the average over all pairs, the gradient with respect to each
 1129 x_{ij} remains the same:

$$1130 \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_P}{\partial x_{ij}} = \sigma(x_{ij}) - y_{ij} \quad (35)$$

1133 *Interpretation and Discussion* This gradient expression, $\sigma(x_{ij}) - y_{ij}$, provides clear insights into
 the optimization dynamics:

For a Positive Pair ($y_{ij} = 1$): The gradient becomes $\sigma(x_{ij}) - 1$. If the predicted probability $\sigma(x_{ij})$ is less than 1, the gradient is negative, prompting an increase in x_{ij} (and hence $\sigma(x_{ij})$). This drives the features V_i and T_j closer together.

For a Negative Pair ($y_{ij} = 0$): The gradient simplifies to $\sigma(x_{ij})$. If $\sigma(x_{ij})$ is positive (which it always is, since $\sigma(x) \in (0, 1)$), the gradient is positive, pushing x_{ij} downward. This reduces the similarity, ensuring that irrelevant image–text pairs are further separated.

Thus, the gradient directs the model to increase similarity for valid pairs (driving $\sigma(x_{ij})$ towards 1). And it also decreases similarity for invalid pairs (driving $\sigma(x_{ij})$ towards 0). In contrast to the standard CLIP framework, which optimizes a global alignment between an image and a single text description, the point-wise loss enables the model to adjust each image–text pair individually, leading to a more discriminative and robust feature space. Every potential image–text pair is evaluated, allowing the model to learn subtle distinctions. By penalizing both false positives and false negatives at the individual pair level, the loss helps to create a more separable and robust embedding space. The derivation of its gradient, $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_p}{\partial x_{ij}} = \sigma(x_{ij}) - y_{ij}$, clearly shows that the optimization encourages high similarity for valid pairs and low similarity for invalid pairs. Point-wise Loss not only enhances the discriminability of the visual representations but also supports the multi-label learning methods.

A.3 SMOOTH KL DIVERGENCE LOSS

Overview and Motivation The Smooth KL Divergence Loss is introduced to enforce consistency across predictions obtained at different granularities. In scenarios where multiple predicted logits $\{\mathbf{z}_i\}_{i=1}^m$ are available (each corresponding to a different granularity or viewpoint), we wish to align their probability distributions so that they all “agree” on the prediction. This is achieved by first converting the logits into probability distributions via the Softmax function:

$$P_i = \text{Softmax}(\mathbf{z}_i) \quad (36)$$

and then encouraging each P_i to be close to the average (mean) distribution:

$$M = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m P_i \quad (37)$$

The overall loss is given by

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{sKL}} = \sum_{i=1}^m D_{\text{KL}}(P_i \| M) \quad (38)$$

where for each i the KL divergence is defined as

$$D_{\text{KL}}(P_i \| M) = \sum_j P_i^{(j)} \log \frac{P_i^{(j)}}{M^{(j)}} \quad (39)$$

Properties of KL Divergence There are two key properties of the KL divergence:

1 Non-negativity (Gibbs' Inequality):

$$D_{\text{KL}}(P\|Q) \geq 0 \quad (40)$$

for any two probability distributions P and Q

2. Zero if and Only if Equality:

$$D_{\text{KL}}(P\|Q) = 0 \quad \text{if and only if} \quad P = Q \quad (41)$$

These properties imply that the divergence is minimized (and equals zero) when the two distributions are identical.

Detailed Derivation and Proof

(a) Examining the Loss

Given the predicted distributions $\{P_i\}_{i=1}^m$ and the mean distribution M , the loss is

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{sKL}} = \sum_{i=1}^m \underbrace{\left[\sum_j P_i^{(j)} \log \frac{P_i^{(j)}}{M^{(j)}} \right]}_{D_{\text{KL}}(P_i \| M)} \quad (42)$$

Because each $D_{\text{KL}}(P_i \| M) \geq 0$, it follows that

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{sKL}} \geq 0 \quad (43)$$

(b) Conditions for Zero Loss

The loss for a single term, $D_{\text{KL}}(P_i \| M)$, equals zero if and only if

$$P_i^{(j)} = M^{(j)} \quad \text{for every category } j \quad (44)$$

Since this must hold for every i , we have:

$$P_1 = P_2 = \dots = P_m = M \quad (45)$$

This is the necessary and sufficient condition for minimizing the loss:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{sKL}} = 0 \iff P_1 = P_2 = \dots = P_m \quad (46)$$

Thus, by minimizing \mathcal{L}_{sKL} , the model is encouraged to produce consistent predictions across different granularities. So the mean distribution is defined as

$$M = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m P_i \quad (47)$$

If all P_i are equal, then it is trivial to see that

$$M = P_i \quad \forall i \quad (48)$$

Therefore, the minimization process pushes each individual P_i toward the common distribution M , ensuring consistency across different predictions.

(c) Gradient Considerations

While the explicit gradient derivation is more involved due to the dependency of M on every P_i , we can outline the intuition of individual KL divergence and the intuition of coupled optimization.

1. Individual KL Divergence: For each i , consider the derivative of

$$D_{\text{KL}}(P_i \| M) = \sum_j P_i^{(j)} \log \frac{P_i^{(j)}}{M^{(j)}} \quad (49)$$

with respect to $P_i^{(j)}$. If we ignore the dependence of M on P_i (as an approximation), the derivative is

$$\frac{\partial D_{\text{KL}}(P_i \| M)}{\partial P_i^{(j)}} \approx \log \frac{P_i^{(j)}}{M^{(j)}} + 1 \quad (50)$$

The condition for a minimum (when this derivative is zero for all j) is then

$$\log \frac{P_i^{(j)}}{M^{(j)}} + 1 = 0 \implies \frac{P_i^{(j)}}{M^{(j)}} = e^{-1} \quad (51)$$

which alone does not yield $P_i = M$; however, when accounting for the normalization constraint $\sum_j P_i^{(j)} = 1$ and the simultaneous optimization across all P_i , the equilibrium is reached only when $P_i^{(j)} = M^{(j)}$ for every i and j .

2. Coupled Optimization: Since M is the average of all P_i , any deviation in one P_i from the others will increase its corresponding KL divergence. Thus, the overall optimization drives all predictions to align with each other.

1242 *Interpretation and Discussion* By minimizing \mathcal{L}_{SKL} , we force the different predictions (from various
 1243 granularities) to become consistent. Every P_i is toward the common mean M , ensuring that the
 1244 predictions from different parts of the model or from different feature granularities agree with each
 1245 other. This consistency also contributes to a more stable and robust feature space, as the model learns
 1246 to reconcile variations in prediction across granularities. The Smooth KL Divergence Loss $\mathcal{L}_{\text{SKL}} =$
 1247 $\sum_{i=1}^m D_{\text{KL}}(P_i \| M)$ is fundamentally designed to enforce that all predicted probability distributions
 1248 P_i (across different granularities) become identical by driving them toward the mean distribution
 1249 M .

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B DATASET DETAILS

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B.1 PRETRAIN DATASETS

1253 **MGLL-Fundus:** We develop MGLL-Fundus, a comprehensive multi-granularity fundus image-text
 1254 dataset comprising 246,389 image-text pairs. This dataset integrates fundus images from 49 public
 1255 datasets, encompassing more than 50 disease categories. The data distribution of the MGLL-Fundus
 1256 dataset is presented in Table 9. The textual descriptions in MGLL-Fundus are structured across two
 1257 distinct granularity levels: disease category and clinical explanation. The disease-level granularity
 1258 includes normal/abnormal classification and specific disease categorization, while the clinical expla-
 1259 nation granularity provides detailed textual descriptions derived from dataset label explanations and
 1260 EyeWiki EyeWiki (2024). Some multi-granularity textual description examples from the dataset are
 1261 illustrated in Table 10.

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1265 **Table 9: The data distribution of MGLL-Fundus dataset.**

Dataset	Num	Dataset	Num	Dataset	Num
HRF Budai et al. (2013)	45	INSPIRE-AVR Niemeijer et al. (2011)	40	IOSTAR Zhang et al. (2016)	30
RITE Hu et al. (2013)	40	G1020 Bajwa et al. (2020)	1020	GAMMA Wu et al. (2023)	100
ORIGA Zhang et al. (2010)	650	REFUGE Orlando et al. (2020)	1200	ODIR Larzel (2021)	7000
PALM Fang et al. (2024)	1200	RFMiD Pachade et al. (2021)	3200	RFMiDv2 Panchal et al. (2023)	860
APTSO Karthik et al. (2019)	3662	DeepDRiD Liu et al. (2022a)	1600	EyePACS Dugas et al. (2015)	35126
IDRID Porwal et al. (2018)	516	ADAM Fang et al. (2022)	1200	ACRIMA Diaz-Pinto et al. (2019)	705
MESSIDOR-2 Abràmoff et al. (2013)	1748	JSIEC Cen et al. (2021)	1000	AIROGS De Vente et al. (2023)	101442
LAG Li et al. (2019a)	4854	PARAGUAY Benítez et al. (2021)	757	PAPILA Kovályk et al. (2022)	488
BiDR Darabi (2024)	2838	FIVES Jin et al. (2022)	800	FUND Hassan et al. (2022)	179
E-ophtha Decenciere et al. (2013)	463	BRSET Nakayama et al. (2023)	16266	MuReD Rodríguez et al. (2022)	2208
OIA-DDR Li et al. (2019b)	12522	SUSTech-SYSU Lin et al. (2020)	1219	Cataract 202 (2020)	601
DGOCF Takahashi et al. (2017)	9939	BoVW Pires et al. (2014)	2013	HarvardGlaucoma Kim (2018a)	1544
RIM-ONE Batista et al. (2020)	485	CHAKSU Kumar et al. (2023)	1345	DiaRetDB Kauppi et al. (2007)	89
LSD Wei et al. (2019)	175	GNG Nandi (2022)	400	AOD 202 (2021)	14813
DHRF 202 (2022)	2757	VietAI vie (2020)	3435	ToxoFundus Alam et al. (2024)	411
Papilledema Kim (2018b)	1369	BEH Islam et al. (2021)	634	ROD Binu (2023)	281
ROI Adal et al. (2015)	1120				
Summary			246,389 images		

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MGLL-Xray: To enhance data compatibility, we assembled 190,882 X-ray images from the MIDRC repository MIDRC (2024). We transformed these images from DICOM to PNG format while preserving essential metadata. The extracted multi-granularity textual information encompasses three levels: modality, study description, and series description. The modality category distinguishes between CR (Computed Radiography), characterized by relatively lower resolution and signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), and DX (Digital Radiography), which employs flat-panel detectors to achieve superior image quality. Study Description provides examination-level context (e.g., "Chest X-ray"), while Series Description specifies imaging protocols such as "PA View" (posteroanterior) or "Lateral View." These hierarchical textual elements constitute the textual component of our MGLL-Xray dataset. Some multi-granularity textual description examples from this dataset are presented in Table 11.

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MIMIC-CXR: To further evaluate the generalization capability of our approach, we conducted supplementary experiments using multi-granular labels from MIMIC-CXR dataset Johnson et al. (2019), with performance assessed on the ChestX-ray14 benchmark Wang et al. (2017a). The MIMIC-CXR dataset represents one of the largest publicly available collections of chest radiographs, comprising 377,110 images associated with 227,835 imaging studies. This dataset encompasses 14 common thoracic pathologies, including atelectasis, cardiomegaly, consolidation, edema,

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Table 10: The multi-granularity textual description examples of MGLL-Fundus dataset.

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Disease Category	Clinical Explanation
Abnormal, Mild Non-Proliferative Diabetic Retinopathy	Only microaneurysms observed
Abnormal, Moderate Non-Proliferative Diabetic Retinopathy	Retinal hemorrhages or hard exudates observed
Abnormal, Severe Non-Proliferative Diabetic Retinopathy	Many intraretinal hemorrhages or definite venous beading observed
Abnormal, Proliferative Diabetic Retinopathy	Neovascularization or vitreous/preretinal hemorrhage
Abnormal, Cataract	Opacification of crystalline lens observed
Abnormal, Myopia	Leopard fundus observed
Abnormal, Media Haze	Opacity of media observed
Abnormal, Branch Retinal Vein Occlusion	Occlusion of the central retinal vein
Abnormal, Tesselation	The choroidal vessels are visible due to the reduced density of the pigments
Abnormal, Laser Scars	Circular or irregular shaped scars on the retinal surface observed
Abnormal, Central Serous Retinopathy	Fluid accumulation under the retina observed
Abnormal, Optic Disk Cupping	The thinning of neuroretinal rim such that optic disc appears excavated
Abnormal, Central Retinal Vein Occlusion	Occlusion of the central retinal vein and the presence of flame-shaped hemorrhages
Abnormal, Tortuous Vessels	Marked tortuosity of the retinal blood vessels
Abnormal, Asteroid Hyalosis	Numerous asteroid bodies are dispersed in vitreous
Abnormal, Optic Disc Pallor	Pale yellow discoloration of the optic disc
Abnormal, Optic Disc Edema	Swelling of the optic disc
Abnormal, Optociliary Shunt	Presence of prepapillary vascular loops or optociliary shunt vessels
Abnormal, Anterior Ischemic Optic Neuropathy	Optic disc swelling and pallor
Abnormal, Parafoveal Telangiectasia	Yellow, lipid-rich exudation or parafoveal graying or tortuous blood vessels
Abnormal, Retinal Traction	Presence of traction and retinal traction detachment
Abnormal, Retinitis	Presence of vitreous inflammation or intraretinal hemorrhage
Abnormal, Chororetinitis	The hard exudates observed
Abnormal, Macular Hole	A small retinal break located in the center of the fovea observed
Abnormal, Retinitis Pigmentosa	The presence of bone-spicule deposits and arterial narrowing
Abnormal, Cotton Wool Spots	The presence of soft exudates
Abnormal, Coloboma	The missing of portion of tissue in both the choroid and retina
Abnormal, Preretinal Hemorrhage	Boat-shaped hemorrhage which obscures the underlying retina
Abnormal, Myelinated Nerve Fibers	Gray-white opaque lesions with feathery edges observed
Abnormal, Hemorrhagic Retinopathy	The presence of flame-shaped hemorrhages
Abnormal, Central Retinal Artery Occlusion	The presence of pale, whitening, and retinal swelling
Abnormal, Tilted Disk	The tilting presence of the oval optic disc
Abnormal, Cystoid Macular Edema	The presence of multiple cystoid areas in the macula and causes retinal edema
Abnormal, Post-traumatic Choroidal Rupture	The breaks in the choroid, Bruch's membrane, and RPE
Abnormal, Choroidal Folds	The presence of folds in the choroid
Abnormal, Vitreous Hemorrhage	The presence of extravasated blood in one of the spaces created around the vitreous body
Abnormal, Macroaneurysm	Fusiform or round dilation of the retinal arterioles which occur in the temporal retina observed
Abnormal, Vasculitis	The presence of inflammation of retinal blood vessels
Normal, Healthy	Clear optic disk boundaries, Normal fundus color, No apparent retinopathy

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Table 11: The multi-granularity textual description examples of MGLL-Xray dataset.

Modality	Study Description	Series Description
CR	CHEST PORT 1 VIEW (RAD)-CS	AP(shutter)
CR	XR CHEST AP PORTABLE	AP
CR	XR RIBS RIGHT WITH CHEST AP OR PA - SINGLE VIEW	PA Ribs LOWER
CR	XR PORT CHEST 1V	CXR AP GRID
CR	XR CHEST 2 VIEWS	W Chest Lat.
CR	XR CHEST AP PA LATERAL 2 VW	Lateral
CR	XR PORT CHEST 1V	ClearRead Bone Suppression
CR	XRAY CHEST ONE VIEW	XRAY CHEST FRONTAL AND LATERAL VIEWS
CR	XR RIGHT HIP 2+ VIEWS ORTHOPEDICS PRE OPERATIVE	X Hip X-Table Lat
CR	XR CHEST PA AND LATERAL	X Chest a.p.
DX	XR CHEST 2 VIEWS, FRONTAL AND LATERAL	PA
DX	XR WRIST LEFT (ROUTINE: APLAT,OBL)	XR WRIST LEFT (ROUTINE: APLAT,OBL)
DX	XR CHEST 2 VIEWS PA AND LATERAL	Chest
DX	XR THORACOLUMBAR SPINE STANDING 2 OR 3 VIEWS	Thoraco Lumbar
DX	XR THORACIC SPINE AP AND LATERAL	Thoracic-spine
DX	XR SCOLIOSIS STUDY 2 OR 3 VIEWS (NEURO INTERPRETATION)	DR Long Spine
DX	XR RIGHT RIBS 2 VIEWS UNILATERAL	Rib
DX	XR RIGHT SHOULDER 1 VIEW	AP Ext Rot(shutter)
DX	XR RIGHT KNEE 4+ VIEWS (NON-TRAUMA, PAIN/ARTHRITIS)	Patella
DX	XR RIGHT HIP 2-3 VIEWS (UNILATERAL) WITH PELVIS WHEN PERFORMED	Hip-joint
DX	XR CHEST 1 VW, FRONTAL	PA CHEST LANDSCAPE

effusion, emphysema, fibrosis, hernia, infiltration, mass, nodule, pleural thickening, pneumonia, and pneumothorax, along with a "No Finding" category for normal cases. For our multi-granularity framework, we leveraged two distinct levels of textual information available in MIMIC-CXR: the structured disease labels (coarse granularity) and the detailed radiology reports (fine granularity). The disease labels provide categorical classification, while the reports offer comprehensive clinical interpretations with anatomical specificity, disease progression details, and differential diagnoses. This hierarchical representation allows our model to simultaneously process high-level disease categorization and nuanced clinical descriptions. Some examples of these multi-granularity textual descriptions are presented in Table 12.

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Table 12: The multi-granularity textual description examples of MIMIC-CXR dataset.

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B.2 DOWNSTREAM DATASETS

We evaluate our proposed MGLL alongside several baseline methods on multiple downstream datasets. The details of these datasets are presented in Table 13. The multiple-choice evaluation benchmark details are in Table 14.

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Fundus Imaging Datasets:

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FIVES Jin et al. (2022): A collection of 800 retinal images categorized into four diagnostic classes: normal, age-related macular degeneration, diabetic retinopathy, and glaucoma.

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IDRiD Porwal et al. (2018): Contains 516 retinal images with annotated severity grades for diabetic retinopathy (DR) and diabetic macular edema (DME).

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OIA-DDR Li et al. (2019b): Comprises 12,523 fundus images labeled with diabetic retinopathy severity classifications.

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ADAM Fang et al. (2022): A dataset of 1,200 fundus images specifically designed for age-related macular degeneration detection.

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PALM Fang et al. (2024): Consists of 1,200 fundus images annotated for pathological myopia diagnosis.

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REFUGE Orlando et al. (2020): Includes 1,200 retinal images with binary classification for glaucomatous and non-glaucomatous.

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RIM-ONE Batista et al. (2020): A retinography collection of 485 images developed for glaucoma evaluation.

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RFMiD Pachade et al. (2021): Encompasses 3,200 retinal images with multi-label annotations across 45 categories. Our evaluation focuses on 12 labels where positive cases exceed 2% prevalence.

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Radiographic Imaging Datasets:

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MIDRC-XR MIDRC (2024): A dataset contains 111,816 X-ray images across 14 LOINC-coded categories (including XR Chest AP views).

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Table 13: The details of downstream datasets.

Name	Numer (Train : Val : Test)	Label Categories
FIVES Jin et al. (2022)	480 : 120 : 200	Normal, Age-related Macular Degeneration, Diabetic retinopathy, and Glaucoma
IDRiD Porwal et al. (2018)	319 : 94 : 103	Severity levels of Diabetic Retinopathy (no apparent, mild non-proliferative, moderate non-proliferate, severe non-proliferate, proliferative) and Diabetic Macular Edema (no apparent, mild, moderate, severe)
OIA-DDR Li et al. (2019b)	6260 : 2503 : 3759	Severity levels of Diabetic Retinopathy (no apparent, mild non-proliferative, moderate non-proliferate, severe non-proliferate, proliferative)
ADAM Fang et al. (2022)	400 : 400 : 400	Age-related Macular Degeneration and no Age-related Macular Degeneration
PALM Fang et al. (2024)	400 : 400 : 400	Pathological myopia and Healthy
REFUGE Orlando et al. (2020)	400 : 400 : 400	Glaucoma and Healthy
RIM-ONE Batista et al. (2020)	270 : 69 : 146	Glaucoma and Healthy
RFMiD Pachade et al. (2021)	1920 : 640 : 640	Diabetic Retinopathy, Age-related Macular Degeneration, Media haze, drusens, Myopia, Branch Retinal Vein Occlusion, Tessellation, Laser scars, Optic disc cupping, Optic disc pallor, Optic disc edema, and Retinitis
MIDRC-XR MIDRC (2024)	89453 : 11182 : 11181	XR Chest AP, XR Chest 2 Views, XR Unspecified body region Views, XR Chest Single view, XR Chest PA and Lateral, XR Chest Views, XR Chest AP and Lateral, XR Chest and Abdomen Single view, XR Ribs Views, XR Abdomen AP, XR Abdomen Single view, XR Chest View and Abdomen Supine and Upright, XR Abdomen Supine and Upright, XR Ribs Views and Chest PA
MIDRC-XR-Portable MIDRC (2024)	63253 : 7906 : 7907	Portable XR Chest AP single view, Portable XR Chest Views AP, Portable XR Abdomen AP, Portable XR Chest Views, Portable XR Chest Views W inspiration and expiration, Portable XR Abdomen Supine and Upright
ChestX-ray14 Wang et al. (2017a)	77872 : 8652 : 25596	Atelectasis, Cardiomegaly, Effusion, Infiltration, Mass, Nodule, Pneumonia, Pneumothorax, Consolidation, Edema, Emphysema, Fibrosis, Pleural Thickening, Hernia

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MIDRC-XR-Portable MIDRC (2024): Focuses on portable radiography with 79,066 X-ray images across 6 LOINC-coded categories (including Portable XR Chest AP single views).

ChestX-ray14 Wang et al. (2017a): A comprehensive medical imaging repository contains 112,120 frontal-view chest radiographs annotated with 14 labels. Labels are extracted from corresponding radiological reports.

Evaluation Benchmark on MLLMs (Multiple-choice Benchmark): A comprehensive ophthalmic evaluation dataset comprising 2,233 images across 25 distinct diagnostic categories. The label distribution of the multiple-choice evaluation benchmark is in Table 14.

Table 14: The label distribution of the multiple-choice evaluation benchmark.

Label	Num	Label	Num
Health	890	Other disease (Other)	50
Myopia	226	Tessellation	12
Retinitis	9	Chorioretinitis	3
Diabetic Retinopathy (DR)	149	Drusen	30
Media Haze (MH)	31	Central Serous Retinopathy (CSR)	7
Cataract	20	Arteriosclerotic Retinopathy (AR)	2
Optic Disk Cupping (ODC)	32	Optic Disc Edema (ODE)	11
Optic Disc Pallor (ODP)	2	Hypertensive Retinopathy (HR)	3
Branch Retinal Vein Occlusion (BRVO)	16	Central Retinal Vein Occlusion (CRVO)	11
Age-related Macular Degeneration (AMD)	171	No Age-related Macular Degeneration (No AMD)	311
Diabetic Macular Edema (DME)	58	No Diabetic Macular Edema (No DME)	11
Glaucoma	162	No Glaucoma	12
Choroidal Neovascularization (CN)	4	Summary	2233 images

C SETUP DETAILS

C.1 EVALUATION METRICS

In our quantitative evaluation, we employ Area Under the Receiver Operating Characteristic Curve (AUC), mean Average Precision (MAP), and Accuracy (ACC) as assessment metrics. Among these, AUC serves as our primary evaluation metric, as it reflects overall model performance. MAP is particularly useful for handling long-tailed label distributions. To better assess performance on the imbalanced multi-label dataset such as RFMiD Pachade et al. (2021), we report the category-wise average accuracy instead of overall accuracy. As for the accuracy on the multiple-choice benchmark, we implement a four-option forced-choice classification approach utilizing the MGLL-Fundus dataset. For each fundus image presented, the model must select the most probable diagnostic classification from among four distinct disease labels. These options comprise the correct diagnostic label along with three additional labels randomly sampled from the complete disease names available in the dataset. The randomized inclusion of incorrect options helps evaluate model performance in distinguishing the correct diagnosis from plausible alternatives, which also enables quantitative assessment of diagnostic accuracy.

C.2 IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

We adopt ViT-L/14 Dosovitskiy et al. (2020) as the image encoder and BiomedicalBERT Alsentzer et al. (2019) as the text encoder. All images are resized to 224×224 , and data preprocessing includes random flipping (probability = 0.5) and color jittering (factor = 0.1). We set the batch size to 32, the feature vector dimension to 768, and the temperature coefficient to 0.07. Optimization is performed using AdamW Loshchilov & Hutter (2017) with a learning rate of $1e-4$, weight decay of 0.0001, and hyperparameters $\beta_1 = 0.9$, $\beta_2 = 0.98$, and $\epsilon = 1e - 6$. All experiments are conducted with the NVIDIA RTX A6000 GPU.

1512 **D MORE DETAILED EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS**
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1514 **D.1 DETAILED RESULTS ON RETINAL FUNDUS DATASETS**
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1516 We present the complete experimental results for performance comparison with eight baselines
 1517 (Radford et al. (2021); Yao et al. (2023); Zhou et al. (2023b); Silva-Rodriguez et al. (2025); Wu
 1518 et al. (2024); Du et al. (2024); Khattak et al. (2024); Qiu et al. (2024)) on downstream retinal fundus
 1519 datasets in Table 15 to Table 23. The experimental results demonstrate that the MGLL
 1520 consistently outperforms existing approaches across nine retinal fundus datasets in both linear probing and
 1521 full fine-tuning evaluation settings. Notably, MGLL demonstrates particularly strong gains in the
 1522 linear probing setting, where it demonstrates substantial improvements over second-best methods
 1523 (e.g., achieving 90.02% AUC in ADAM compared to UniMed-CLIP’s 79.33%, and 92.42% AUC
 1524 in REFUGE versus RET-CLIP’s 84.59%). To further analyze these results, we observe consistent
 1525 performance improvements across multiple evaluation metrics. For instance, in the FIVES dataset,
 1526 MGLL achieved 89.73% AUC, 52.00% ACC, and 75.32% mAP in linear probing, significantly out-
 1527 performing RETFound (88.09% AUC, 49.00% ACC, 72.55% mAP). When fully fine-tuned on this
 1528 dataset, MGLL maintained its advantage with 94.98% AUC, 72.00% ACC, and 86.34% mAP.

1529 The robust performance of MGLL can be attributed to its multi-granularity learning approach, which
 1530 effectively captures both local and global features in retinal fundus images. This architectural advan-
 1531 tage enables MGLL to identify subtle pathological patterns that may be overlooked by conventional
 1532 methods. For example, in the REFUGE dataset (glaucoma detection), MGLL achieved a 7.83%
 1533 improvement in AUC over the second-best method in linear probing setting.

1534 Additionally, the exceptional performance on the PALM dataset (99.66% AUC, 96.00% ACC, and
 1535 99.72% mAP in linear probing) demonstrates MGLL’s capacity to achieve near-perfect diagnostic
 1536 accuracy in certain retinal conditions. When compared to previous state-of-the-art methods such as
 1537 VisionFM (97.12% AUC) and RET-CLIP (95.25% AUC), MGLL offers clinically significant im-
 1538 provements in detection reliability. This superior performance indicates excellent feature repres-
 1539 entation quality and transferability of our pretrained MGLL, enabling effective adaptation to diverse
 1540 diagnostic tasks with fine-tuning.

1541 Table 15: The performance evaluation on FIVES. **Bold** indicates best performance and underline
 1542 shows second-best.

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP (ICML-21)	81.25	37.00	64.21	88.96	64.00	76.22
KgCoOp (CVPR-23)	81.63	39.50	64.72	89.16	64.50	76.53
RETFound (Nature-23)	<u>88.09</u>	<u>49.00</u>	<u>72.55</u>	92.83	69.50	81.36
FLAIR (MedIA-25)	84.24	43.50	67.17	89.85	66.00	77.14
KeepFIT (MICCAI-24)	82.31	41.00	64.98	90.62	67.00	77.96
RET-CLIP (MICCAI-24)	86.74	47.50	69.35	92.04	68.50	79.89
UniMed-CLIP (arXiv-24)	82.75	41.50	65.46	91.59	68.00	79.23
VisionFM (NEJM AI-24)	85.98	45.00	68.73	<u>93.11</u>	<u>70.50</u>	<u>82.76</u>
MGLL	89.73	52.00	75.32	94.98	72.00	86.34

1566

1567 Table 16: The performance evaluation on IDRiD (DR). **Bold** indicates best performance and
1568 underline shows second-best.

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP (ICML-21)	70.83	35.92	34.44	76.74	44.66	44.01
KgCoOp (CVPR-23)	72.34	40.78	36.29	76.81	46.60	44.86
RETFound (Nature-23)	73.51	43.69	37.48	78.14	53.40	47.05
FLAIR (MedIA-25)	74.62	45.63	39.16	78.82	55.34	48.54
KeepFIT (MICCAI-24)	71.81	37.86	35.37	77.13	48.54	45.32
RET-CLIP (MICCAI-24)	<u>78.18</u>	<u>52.43</u>	<u>47.42</u>	79.32	56.31	49.42
UniMed-CLIP (arXiv-24)	77.39	49.51	45.75	80.72	58.25	52.84
VisionFM (NEJM AI-24)	77.52	51.46	46.22	79.95	57.28	51.38
MGLL	80.28	58.25	51.19	82.57	60.19	54.30

1579

1580

1581 Table 17: The performance evaluation on IDRiD (DME). **Bold** indicates best performance and
1582 underline shows second-best.

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP (ICML-21)	71.81	77.67	56.67	73.34	76.70	57.87
KgCoOp (CVPR-23)	60.33	65.05	48.86	62.78	66.02	50.11
RETFound (Nature-23)	65.92	69.90	52.05	69.26	72.82	55.39
FLAIR (MedIA-25)	62.85	66.99	50.31	64.52	68.93	51.83
KeepFIT (MICCAI-24)	68.71	70.87	54.76	69.03	71.84	54.97
RET-CLIP (MICCAI-24)	64.13	67.96	51.28	70.14	73.79	55.75
UniMed-CLIP (arXiv-24)	70.59	74.76	56.04	71.81	75.73	56.85
VisionFM (NEJM AI-24)	<u>73.53</u>	<u>78.64</u>	<u>59.98</u>	77.95	79.61	62.23
MGLL	78.41	79.61	64.72	86.17	80.58	67.80

1593

1594

1595 Table 18: The performance evaluation on OIA-DDR. **Bold** indicates best performance and underline
1596 shows second-best.

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP (ICML-21)	73.30	55.41	39.21	85.29	71.75	49.91
KgCoOp (CVPR-23)	72.09	53.68	37.87	80.39	65.47	45.92
RETFound (Nature-23)	80.77	61.13	46.94	<u>85.96</u>	<u>72.12</u>	<u>52.21</u>
FLAIR (MedIA-25)	<u>82.48</u>	<u>63.36</u>	48.09	85.54	70.63	50.27
KeepFIT (MICCAI-24)	72.68	54.46	38.72	79.42	64.03	44.53
RET-CLIP (MICCAI-24)	77.43	58.18	43.31	83.68	68.82	48.05
UniMed-CLIP (arXiv-24)	74.67	56.19	40.18	81.23	66.69	46.88
VisionFM (NEJM AI-24)	78.85	59.35	44.27	84.25	69.46	48.77
MGLL	86.28	72.09	50.92	88.85	73.13	56.67

1606

1607

1608 Table 19: The performance evaluation on ADAM. **Bold** indicates best performance and underline
1609 shows second-best.

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP (ICML-21)	52.41	76.50	25.05	86.70	83.00	65.48
KgCoOp (CVPR-23)	52.13	74.75	24.36	84.42	82.75	60.54
RETFound (Nature-23)	59.34	78.25	33.53	88.02	83.50	65.86
FLAIR (MedIA-25)	63.82	79.50	39.27	90.16	84.75	66.91
KeepFIT (MICCAI-24)	56.97	77.75	29.88	74.88	82.00	52.26
RET-CLIP (MICCAI-24)	77.48	82.25	53.76	<u>93.27</u>	<u>86.25</u>	<u>79.92</u>
UniMed-CLIP (arXiv-24)	<u>79.33</u>	<u>82.50</u>	<u>55.63</u>	90.64	85.25	69.22
VisionFM (NEJM AI-24)	73.56	81.75	51.42	92.43	85.50	75.89
MGLL	90.02	85.00	62.40	96.30	90.00	90.08

1620

1621

1622 Table 20: The performance evaluation on PALM. **Bold** indicates best performance and underline
1623 shows second-best.

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP (ICML-21)	93.94	91.75	94.62	<u>99.51</u>	96.00	<u>99.58</u>
KgCoOp (CVPR-23)	87.94	88.25	88.11	94.21	92.00	94.81
RETFound (Nature-23)	92.02	90.50	92.87	95.75	93.00	96.39
FLAIR (MedIA-25)	89.42	89.25	90.03	94.88	92.25	95.24
KeepFIT (MICCAI-24)	88.21	88.50	88.46	93.34	91.50	94.18
RET-CLIP (MICCAI-24)	95.25	92.50	95.89	98.67	95.25	98.42
UniMed-CLIP (arXiv-24)	90.31	89.75	91.12	96.82	93.75	97.02
VisionFM (NEJM AI-24)	<u>97.12</u>	<u>94.25</u>	<u>97.45</u>	97.73	94.50	97.84
MGLL	99.66	96.00	99.72	99.72	<u>95.75</u>	99.76

1633

1634

1635 Table 21: The performance evaluation on REFUGE. **Bold** indicates best performance and underline
1636 shows second-best.

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP (ICML-21)	65.33	88.75	15.68	86.96	93.00	58.37
KgCoOp (CVPR-23)	60.69	86.25	11.52	81.45	90.75	49.07
RETFound (Nature-23)	79.67	90.50	45.39	89.02	93.50	63.84
FLAIR (MedIA-25)	70.59	89.25	27.82	85.67	92.25	56.82
KeepFIT (MICCAI-24)	63.04	88.25	14.15	84.89	91.50	55.78
RET-CLIP (MICCAI-24)	<u>84.59</u>	<u>91.25</u>	<u>55.06</u>	<u>90.46</u>	<u>93.75</u>	<u>70.45</u>
UniMed-CLIP (arXiv-24)	61.25	87.50	12.87	83.11	91.00	52.84
VisionFM (NEJM AI-24)	73.21	89.50	33.42	86.13	92.50	57.68
MGLL	92.42	94.50	75.65	93.90	94.75	80.99

1647

1648

1649 Table 22: The performance evaluation on RIM-ONE. **Bold** indicates best performance and underline
1650 shows second-best.

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP (ICML-21)	65.96	66.44	54.11	88.38	82.88	84.00
KgCoOp (CVPR-23)	74.34	73.97	63.45	90.39	84.25	85.88
RETFound (Nature-23)	<u>89.79</u>	<u>83.56</u>	<u>83.92</u>	94.22	86.99	90.35
FLAIR (MedIA-25)	81.83	79.45	70.14	<u>94.93</u>	<u>88.36</u>	<u>92.41</u>
KeepFIT (MICCAI-24)	67.35	67.81	55.24	89.91	83.56	85.22
RET-CLIP (MICCAI-24)	84.42	82.19	79.85	92.58	86.30	89.19
UniMed-CLIP (arXiv-24)	69.87	70.55	58.43	83.37	81.51	78.14
VisionFM (NEJM AI-24)	72.97	72.60	61.86	91.27	84.93	87.21
MGLL	94.39	87.67	86.68	97.05	89.73	94.97

1660

1661

1662

1663 Table 23: The performance evaluation on RFMiD. **Bold** indicates best performance and underline
shows second-best.

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP (ICML-21)	44.66	92.53	7.28	65.10	92.86	17.31
KgCoOp (CVPR-23)	50.82	92.21	7.96	70.36	92.28	21.49
RETFound (Nature-23)	60.16	92.55	16.37	84.62	93.48	50.21
FLAIR (MedIA-25)	56.11	92.38	14.85	75.43	92.62	23.24
KeepFIT (MICCAI-24)	51.48	92.19	10.24	81.52	93.09	42.39
RET-CLIP (MICCAI-24)	58.94	92.46	16.02	<u>86.12</u>	<u>93.92</u>	<u>51.27</u>
UniMed-CLIP (arXiv-24)	53.44	92.25	13.68	72.59	92.57	22.54
VisionFM (arXiv-24)	<u>63.38</u>	<u>92.59</u>	<u>17.84</u>	82.78	93.17	48.92
MGLL	79.62	92.84	34.08	92.83	95.48	64.99

1674 D.2 ZERO-SHOT COMPARISONS ACROSS MEDICAL AND NATURAL DOMAINS
1675

1676 As summarized in Table 24, we evaluate the zero-shot classification performance of MGLL across
1677 three representative datasets to demonstrate its strong generalization ability across diverse modal-
1678 ities. On the COVIDx dataset Wang et al. (2020), MGLL achieves 39.0% accuracy, outper-
1679 forming strong medical vision-language baselines such as CheXAgent Chen et al. (2024b) (34.3%)
1680 and MedVersa Zhou et al. (2024) (35.5%), as well as recent contrastive methods including FG-
1681 CLIP Xie et al. (2025), MGCA Wang et al. (2022a), RetiZero Wang et al. (2025), MAVL Phan et al.
1682 (2024), and Ark+ Ma et al. (2025). For anatomical recognition on the CT-based OrganAMNIST
1683 dataset Yang et al. (2023), MGLL again surpasses FG-CLIP Xie et al. (2025) with a significant
1684 margin (52.7% vs. 47.9%). Moreover, MGLL achieves the best performance on the natural image
1685 dataset CC3M Sharma et al. (2018) (evaluated on ImageNet), outperforming FG-CLIP Xie et al.
1686 (2025) with an accuracy of 23.5%. These results collectively highlight MGLL’s flexibility and uni-
1687 versal applicability across both medical and natural image domains in zero-shot settings.
1688

1689 Table 24: Comparisons of Zero-Shot classification on MGLL and others methods. * denotes using
1690 published pretrained model.

Method	Pretrain Data	Downstream Data	ACC (%)
FG-CLIP (ICML-25)	CC3M	ImageNet	21.4
MGLL	CC3M	ImageNet	23.5
FG-CLIP (ICML-25)	PMC-OA	OrganAMNIST	47.9
MGLL	PMC-OA	OrganAMNIST	52.7
CheXAgent (Arxiv-24)	*	COVIDx	34.3
MedVersa (Arxiv-24)	*	COVIDx	35.5
FG-CLIP (ICML-25)	MIMIC-CXR	COVIDx	36.3
MGCA (NIPS-22)	MIMIC-CXR	COVIDx	37.3
RetiZero (Nat. Com-25)	MIMIC-CXR	COVIDx	35.8
MAVL (CVPR-24)	MIMIC-CXR	COVIDx	37.0
Ark+ (Nature-25)	MIMIC-CXR	COVIDx	37.8
MGLL	MIMIC-CXR	COVIDx	39.0

1706 D.3 PERFORMANCE EVALUATION ON REGION SEGMENTATION
1707

1708 We have evaluated MGLL on region segmentation tasks, and the results are reported in Table 25.
1709 Medical image segmentation is inherently challenging due to the subtle differences between adja-
1710 cent pixels of heterogeneous classes. We compared our MGLL with several excellent methods such
1711 as GLoRIA Huang et al. (2021), CLIP Radford et al. (2021), LAVT Yang et al. (2022), UniLSeg Liu
1712 et al. (2024b), and STPNet Shan et al. (2025). By incorporating multi-level semantic alignment,
1713 MGLL enhances the model’s language-guided spatial understanding and achieves the best per-
1714 formance among compared methods.
1715

1716 Table 25: Comparisons of COVID-19 lesion segmentation between MGLL and others methods on
1717 COVID-Xray dataset Degerli et al. (2021).

Method	Dataset	Dice (%)	IoU(%)
GLoRIA (ICCV-21)	COVID-Xray	79.94	70.68
CLIP (ICML-21)	COVID-Xray	79.81	70.66
LAVT (CVPR-22)	COVID-Xray	79.28	69.89
UniLSeg (CVPR-24)	COVID-Xray	79.99	70.29
STPNet (TIP-25)	COVID-Xray	80.63	71.42
MGLL	COVID-Xray	81.69	73.06

1728 D.4 MORE DETAILED RESULTS OF MGLL IN MLLMs
1729

1730 To evaluate MGLL’s impact on multimodal large language models’ diagnostic capabilities, we con-
1731 duct comprehensive multiple-choice evaluations across 25 distinct ophthalmological conditions as
1732 shown in Table 27 to Table 34. This expanded analysis provides more insights into MGLL’s perfor-
1733 mance beyond the ten primary conditions highlighted in previous experiments.

1734
1735 Table 26: Brief summary of recent vision-language models.
1736

Model Name	Key Features and Description
InstructBLIP	Combines vision and language with instruction tuning to enable versatile zero-shot performance across tasks.
Mini-Gemini	A lightweight and efficient multimodal model designed for fast inference and strong performance.
Qwen-VL	Supports multimodal reasoning with a strong focus on Chinese vision-language understanding.
InternVL	Achieves strong cross-modal alignment and generalization across image-text benchmarks.
LLaVALiu	Integrates CLIP and LLaMA for open-ended visual question answering and dialogue.
LLaVA-MedLi	Adapts LLaVA for medical vision-language tasks including medical image question answering.
Med-Flamingo	Extends Flamingo to the medical domain with few-shot learning capabilities.
Janus-ProChen	Uses bidirectional multimodal modeling to enhance multi-turn visual-language interactions.

1743 Our detailed analysis reveals that MGLL integration yields significant improvements across all
1744 seven multimodal architectures. InstructBLIP demonstrates a 9.76% overall accuracy improve-
1745 ment (55.17% to 64.94%), with particularly notable enhancements in challenging conditions such
1746 as Retinitis (11.11% to 44.44%) and Media Haze (16.13% to 45.16%). These improvements high-
1747 light MGLL’s capacity to enhance feature extraction for complex ophthalmological pathologies.
1748 MGLL integration showcases substantial performance gains across multiple diagnostic tasks and
1749 architectures. Qwen-VL with MGLL integration exhibits a 6.58% overall improvement (76.80% to
1750 83.39%), with remarkable advances in low-prevalence conditions including Astigmatic Refractive
1751 Error (0.00% to 50.00%) and Hypertensive Retinopathy (0.00% to 66.67%). Even high-performing
1752 models benefit significantly, InternVL achieves a 5.19% improvement with MGLL integration,
1753 enhancing diagnostic accuracy particularly for conditions such as Optic Disc Edema (45.45% to
1754 63.64%) and Central Retinal Vein Occlusion (36.36% to 63.64%). LLaVA exhibits similarly ro-
1755 bust baseline performance (85.22%), yet MGLL integration yields a 5.55% improvement, achiev-
1756 ing near-perfect accuracy in several categories including No Diabetic Macular Edema (90.91% to
1757 100.00%) and miscellaneous conditions (90.00% to 100.00%). The most dramatic improvements
1758 occur in medical-specialized models. Med-Flamingo demonstrates a substantial 21.76% improve-
1759 ment (49.17% to 70.94%), with particularly significant gains in Glaucoma (24.07% to 61.11%) and
1760 Diabetic Retinopathy (36.91% to 80.54%). Similarly, LLaVA-Med shows a 20.78% improvement
1761 (56.47% to 77.25%), with exceptional gains in AMD (16.37% to 58.48%) and Diabetic Retinopathy
1762 (26.85% to 77.18%). Across all evaluated models, we observe consistent patterns of improvement
1763 that highlight MGLL’s particular efficacy with complex retinal conditions, vascular pathologies, and
1764 conditions requiring fine-grained feature discrimination. The results demonstrate that MGLL pro-
1765 vides substantial benefits regardless of the underlying model architecture. The multiple-choice eval-
1766 uation framework presented models with standardized diagnostic queries. Some prompt examples
1767 of the multiple-choice evaluation benchmark are as follows:

1768 **Question 1:** “What is the most reasonable diagnosis? A. Glaucoma B. Drusen C. Chorioretinitis D.
1769 Hypertensive Retinopathy Answer with the option’s letter from the given choices directly.”

1770 **Answer 1:** A.

1771 **Question 2:** “What diagnosis is most likely? A. Central Serous Retinopathy B. Media Haze C.
1772 Diabetic Retinopathy D. Age-related Macular degeneration Answer with the option’s letter from the
1773 given choices directly.”

1774 **Answer 2:** D.

1775 **Question 3:** “What diagnosis is most probable? A. Optic Disk Cupping B. Mild Non-Proliferative
1776 Diabetic Retinopathy C. Central Serous Retinopathy D. Central Retinal Vein Occlusion Answer with
1777 the option’s letter from the given choices directly.”

1778 **Answer 3:** B.

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1782

1783 Table 27: Comparison of multiple-choice accuracy with MGLL in InstructBLIP on the multiple-
1784 choice evaluation benchmark.

Label Name	AMD	AR	BRVO	Cataract	Chorioretinitis	CN	CRVO	CSR
InstructBLIP Dai et al. (2023)	80.17%	0.00%	50.00%	80.00%	0.00%	75.00%	45.45%	0.00%
+ MGLL	83.63%	50.00%	62.50%	85.00%	33.33%	75.00%	63.64%	28.57%
Diabetic Retinopathy	Drusen	Glaucoma	Health	HR	DME	MH	Myopia	No AMD
76.51%	36.67%	59.30%	51.57%	0.00%	63.79%	16.13%	44.25%	54.34%
82.55%	50.00%	65.43%	60.22%	33.33%	74.14%	45.16%	52.65%	70.10%
No Glaucoma	No DME	ODC	ODE	ODP	Other	Retinitis	Tessellation	Overall ↑
41.67%	63.64%	65.63%	27.27%	50.00%	58.00%	11.11%	41.67%	55.17%
58.33%	72.73%	75.00%	45.45%	50.00%	70.00%	44.44%	58.33%	64.94% (9.76% ↑)

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1793

1794 Table 28: Comparison of multiple-choice accuracy with MGLL in Mini-Gemini on the multiple-
1795 choice evaluation benchmark.

Label Name	AMD	AR	BRVO	Cataract	Chorioretinitis	CN	CRVO	CSR
Mini-Gemini Li et al. (2024b)	76.61%	0.00%	43.75%	85.00%	0.00%	25.00%	27.27%	14.29%
+ MGLL	82.46%	0.00%	56.25%	85.00%	66.67%	50.00%	54.55%	42.86%
Diabetic Retinopathy	Drusen	Glaucoma	Health	HR	DME	MH	Myopia	No AMD
79.87%	23.33%	67.90%	61.46%	0.00%	60.34%	38.71%	58.41%	63.02%
84.56%	46.67%	72.22%	68.99%	33.33%	65.52%	58.06%	64.16%	72.99%
No Glaucoma	No DME	ODC	ODE	ODP	Other	Retinitis	Tessellation	Overall ↑
66.67%	72.73%	62.50%	36.36%	50.00%	66.00%	33.33%	33.33%	62.65%
75.00%	81.82%	78.13%	45.45%	50.00%	74.00%	55.56%	41.67%	70.58% (7.93% ↑)

1803

1804

1805 Table 29: Comparison of multiple-choice accuracy with MGLL in Qwen-VL on the multiple-choice
1806 evaluation benchmark.

Label Name	AMD	AR	BRVO	Cataract	Chorioretinitis	CN	CRVO	CSR
Qwen-VL Bai et al. (2023)	81.87%	0.00%	43.75%	75.00%	0.00%	25.00%	9.09%	28.57%
+ MGLL	85.96%	50.00%	62.50%	80.00%	33.33%	75.00%	36.36%	42.86%
Diabetic Retinopathy	Drusen	Glaucoma	Health	HR	DME	MH	Myopia	No AMD
80.54%	26.67%	78.40%	79.89%	0.00%	84.48%	54.84%	76.55%	82.96%
89.93%	43.33%	87.04%	85.39%	66.67%	89.66%	70.97%	80.97%	87.14%
No Glaucoma	No DME	ODC	ODE	ODP	Other	Retinitis	Tessellation	Overall ↑
75.00%	72.73%	56.25%	27.27%	50.00%	84.00%	22.22%	25.00%	76.80%
83.33%	72.73%	68.75%	54.55%	100.00%	86.00%	33.33%	41.67%	83.39% (6.58% ↑)

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1815

1816 Table 30: Comparison of multiple-choice accuracy with MGLL in InternVL on the multiple-choice
1817 evaluation benchmark.

Label Name	AMD	AR	BRVO	Cataract	Chorioretinitis	CN	CRVO	CSR
InternVL Chen et al. (2024a)	81.29%	0.00%	37.50%	85.00%	0.00%	25.00%	36.36%	71.43%
+ MGLL	86.55%	50.00%	56.25%	90.00%	0.00%	50.00%	63.64%	71.43%
Diabetic Retinopathy	Drusen	Glaucoma	Health	HR	DME	MH	Myopia	No AMD
94.63%	43.33%	89.51%	85.73%	33.33%	87.93%	64.52%	88.05%	85.85%
96.64%	53.33%	90.74%	91.46%	66.67%	94.83%	67.74%	91.15%	90.68%
No Glaucoma	No DME	ODC	ODE	ODP	Other	Retinitis	Tessellation	Overall ↑
91.67%	81.82%	87.50%	45.45%	50.00%	90.00%	44.44%	66.67%	84.33%
100.00%	90.91%	93.75%	63.64%	50.00%	96.00%	55.56%	75.00%	89.52% (5.19% ↑)

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1826

1827 Table 31: Comparison of multiple-choice accuracy with MGLL in LLaVA on the multiple-choice
1828 evaluation benchmark.

Label Name	AMD	AR	BRVO	Cataract	Chorioretinitis	CN	CRVO	CSR
LLaVA Liu et al. (2024a)	83.04%	0.00%	50.00%	90.00%	0.00%	25.00%	9.09%	42.86%
+ MGLL	84.80%	100.00%	68.75%	90.00%	33.33%	25.00%	45.45%	57.14%
Diabetic Retinopathy	Drusen	Glaucoma	Health	HR	DME	MH	Myopia	No AMD
87.25%	36.67%	91.36%	88.65%	0.00%	93.10%	48.39%	88.50%	90.68%
93.96%	50.00%	91.98%	94.38%	33.33%	96.55%	61.29%	90.71%	96.78%
No Glaucoma	No DME	ODC	ODE	ODP	Other	Retinitis	Tessellation	Overall ↑
100.00%	90.91%	62.50%	45.45%	100.00%	100.00%	66.67%	66.67%	90.77% (5.55% ↑)

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1841 Table 32: Comparison of multiple-choice accuracy with MGLL in LLaVA-Med on the multiple-
1842 choice evaluation benchmark.

Label Name	AMD	AR	BRVO	Cataract	Chorioretinitis	CN	CRVO	CSR
LLaVA-Med Li et al. (2024a)	16.37%	100.00%	31.25%	15.00%	0.00%	0.00%	45.45%	42.86%
+ MGLL	58.48%	100.00%	50.00%	65.00%	66.67%	25.00%	63.64%	57.14%
Diabetic Retinopathy	Drusen	Glaucoma	Health	HR	DME	MH	Myopia	No AMD
26.85%	16.67%	25.31%	91.46%	33.33%	16.67%	25.81%	23.89%	66.56%
77.18%	40.00%	59.26%	97.42%	33.33%	55.17%	51.61%	57.08%	78.46%
No Glaucoma	No DME	ODC	ODE	ODP	Other	Retinitis	Tessellation	Overall ↑
16.67%	36.36%	21.88%	27.27%	0.00%	28.00%	33.33%	16.67%	56.47%
41.67%	72.73%	40.63%	63.64%	50.00%	62.00%	44.44%	58.33%	77.25% (20.78% ↑)

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1859 Table 33: Comparison of multiple-choice accuracy with MGLL in Med-Flamingo on the multiple-
1860 choice evaluation benchmark.

Label Name	AMD	AR	BRVO	Cataract	Chorioretinitis	CN	CRVO	CSR
Med-Flamingo Moor et al. (2023)	25.73%	100.00%	31.25%	30.00%	0.00%	25.00%	63.64%	57.14%
+ MGLL	69.01%	100.00%	56.25%	75.00%	33.33%	50.00%	72.73%	71.43%
Diabetic Retinopathy	Drusen	Glaucoma	Health	HR	DME	MH	Myopia	No AMD
36.91%	20.00%	24.07%	74.16%	33.33%	24.14%	22.58%	18.58%	52.73%
80.54%	43.33%	61.11%	83.37%	66.67%	51.72%	54.84%	45.58%	69.13%
No Glaucoma	No DME	ODC	ODE	ODP	Other	Retinitis	Tessellation	Overall ↑
16.67%	36.36%	43.75%	36.36%	0.00%	28.00%	22.22%	8.33%	49.17%
50.00%	63.64%	59.38%	63.64%	50.00%	70.00%	44.44%	33.33%	70.94% (21.76% ↑)

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1877 Table 34: Comparison of multiple-choice accuracy with MGLL in Janus-Pro on the multiple-choice
1878 evaluation benchmark.

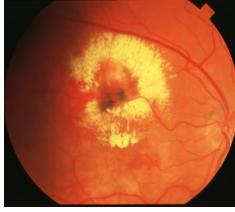
Label Name	AMD	AR	BRVO	Cataract	Chorioretinitis	CN	CRVO	CSR
Janus-Pro Chen et al. (2025)	88.30%	50.00%	56.25%	75.00%	33.33%	25.00%	36.36%	42.86%
+ MGLL	90.64%	100.00%	62.50%	85.00%	66.67%	75.00%	63.64%	71.43%
Diabetic Retinopathy	Drusen	Glaucoma	Health	HR	DME	MH	Myopia	No AMD
93.29%	40.00%	90.74%	96.40%	33.33%	62.07%	58.06%	87.17%	92.28%
96.64%	53.33%	95.06%	96.63%	66.67%	70.69%	67.74%	90.27%	94.21%
No Glaucoma	No DME	ODC	ODE	ODP	Other	Retinitis	Tessellation	Overall ↑
58.33%	72.73%	81.25%	36.36%	50.00%	82.00%	33.33%	58.33%	88.54%
83.33%	90.91%	87.50%	54.55%	50.00%	92.00%	55.56%	75.00%	91.85% (3.31% ↑)

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1904		What is the probable diagnosis? A. Hypertensive Retinopathy B. Optic Disc Pallor C. Central Serous Retinopathy D. Choroidal Neovascularization	Answer with the option's letter from the given choices directly. Ground Truth: D
1905	InstructBLIP: D	Mini-Gemini: C	Qwen-VL: C
1906	InstructBLIP + MGLL: D	Mini-Gemini + MGLL: D	InternVL: C
1907		Qwen-VL + MGLL: D	InternVL + MGLL: D
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1911	Med-Flamingo: A	LLaVA-Med: A	LLaVA: C
1912	Med-Flamingo + MGLL: D	LLaVA-Med + MGLL: D	Janus-Pro: C
1913			Janus-Pro + MGLL: D
1914			
1915			
1916		What diagnosis is most probable? A. Arteriosclerotic Retinopathy B. Chorioretinitis C. Retinitis D. Healthy	Answer with the option's letter from the given choices directly. Ground Truth: B
1917	InstructBLIP: A	Mini-Gemini: A	Qwen-VL: D
1918	InstructBLIP + MGLL: B	Mini-Gemini + MGLL: B	InternVL: D
1919		Qwen-VL + MGLL: B	InternVL + MGLL: C
1920			
1921	Med-Flamingo: C	LLaVA-Med: C	LLaVA: D
1922	Med-Flamingo + MGLL: B	LLaVA-Med + MGLL: B	Janus-Pro: D
1923			Janus-Pro + MGLL: B
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1929	Figure 5: Case Studies (Top: Case 1, Bottom: Case 2) Demonstrating MGLL Integration Impact on		
1930	Diagnostic Accuracy of Different Multimodal Large Langue Models (MLLMs).		
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1944 The Fig. 5 presents two representative case studies demonstrating the diagnostic impact of MGLL
 1945 integration across multiple MLLMs.
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1947 Case 1 displays a fundus image with characteristic features of choroidal neovascularization (CNV),
 1948 including a well-defined yellowish lesion with surrounding subretinal hemorrhage in the macula.
 1949 Only InstructBLIP correctly identifies this pathology in its baseline configuration, whereas five mod-
 1950 els with MGLL integration provide accurate diagnoses, demonstrating MGLL’s capacity to enhance
 1951 the detection of vascular abnormalities.
 1952

1953 Case 2 exhibits subtle inflammatory changes consistent with chorioretinitis, characterized by chori-
 1954 oretinal infiltrates against a background of mild vitreous haze, which is a condition none of the base-
 1955 line models correctly identify. Following MGLL integration, six models accurately diagnose this in-
 1956 flammatory condition, with responses shifting from incorrect options (Arteriosclerotic Retinopathy,
 1957 Retinitis, or Healthy) to the correct identification.
 1958

D.5 MORE CAMS ON RETINAL FUNDUS DATASETS

1959 We present additional class activation maps (CAMs) from CLIP and MGLL on downstream retinal
 1960 datasets in Fig. 6. These images include cases of diabetic retinopathy, diabetic macular edema, and
 1961 glaucoma. Through both linear probing and full fine-tuning approaches, MGLL consistently demon-
 1962 strates more precise lesion localization than CLIP, specifically highlighting pathological features
 1963 rather than producing diffuse, non-specific activations. In diabetic retinopathy cases spanning mild
 1964 to proliferative stages, MGLL accurately identifies microaneurysms, hemorrhages, venous beading,
 1965 and neovascularization sites. While in diabetic macular edema, it effectively localizes retinal
 1966 thickening and exudate formation with activation intensity proportional to disease severity. For glau-
 1967 coma, MGLL appropriately focuses on optic disc abnormalities, cup enlargement, and neural rim
 1968 thinning—critical diagnostic markers often missed by CLIP, which tends to highlight anatomical
 1969 landmarks regardless of pathological relevance. These findings demonstrate MGLL’s advantages
 1970 for ophthalmological applications, offering more robust performance for clinical feature detection
 1971 that supports diagnostic confidence.
 1972

D.6 ABLATION STUDY ON WEIGHT FACTORS OF LOSS

1973 To investigate the impact of different weight factors in our composite loss function, we conducted
 1974 an extensive ablation study using the RFMiD dataset as shown in Table 35. Our loss function in-
 1975 incorporates three components with corresponding weight factors (α_1 , α_2 , and α_3), and the results
 1976 demonstrate that weight selection significantly influences model performance across all metrics.
 1977 Compared to the baseline CLIP model, all our weight configurations show substantial improve-
 1978 ments, with the optimal configuration ($\alpha_1 = 0.5$, $\alpha_2 = 1.0$, and $\alpha_3 = 1.0$) achieving the best
 1979 performance in both linear probing (79.62% AUC, 92.84% ACC, 34.08% mAP) and full fine-tuning
 1980 (92.83% AUC, 95.48% ACC, 64.99% mAP) scenarios. Notably, reducing the weight of the first
 1981 component improved performance, while reducing either the second or third component weights
 1982 resulted in performance degradation, suggesting that the information captured by these components
 1983 is particularly valuable for medical image classification tasks and should be emphasized during
 1984 training. These findings highlight the importance of appropriate loss weighting in multi-component
 1985 objective functions and provide empirical evidence for the optimal configuration selection.
 1986

1987
 1988 Table 35: Ablations of Weight Factors on RFMiD. **Bold** indicates best performance and underline
 1989 shows second-best.
 1990

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP Radford et al. (2021)	44.66	92.53	7.28	65.10	92.86	17.31
$\alpha_1: 1.0, \alpha_2: 1.0, \alpha_3: 1.0$	<u>79.29</u>	<u>92.83</u>	<u>33.82</u>	<u>92.51</u>	<u>95.35</u>	<u>64.57</u>
$\alpha_1: 0.5, \alpha_2: 1.0, \alpha_3: 1.0$	79.62	92.84	34.08	92.83	95.48	64.99
$\alpha_1: 1.0, \alpha_2: 0.5, \alpha_3: 1.0$	78.11	92.79	32.42	91.46	94.99	63.28
$\alpha_1: 1.0, \alpha_2: 1.0, \alpha_3: 0.5$	78.85	92.80	33.39	92.01	95.18	63.77

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1999D.7 ABLATION STUDIES ON THE TEMPERATURE COEFFICIENT (τ)2000
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We have conducted the ablation studies of temperature coefficient and observe that the performance first improves and then drops as the temperature coefficient τ increases, as shown in Table 36. A smaller τ sharpens the similarity distribution, enhancing discrimination but causing training instability. Conversely, a larger τ produces smoother gradients but weakens alignment. The best results are achieved when $\tau = 0.07$, which provides a good balance between discriminative alignment and stable optimization.

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Table 36: Ablations of temperature coefficient (τ) on MIDRC-XR-Portable.

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP, $\tau = 0.07$	71.43	78.22	22.31	91.83	90.08	83.94
MGLL, $\tau = 0.05$	83.55	88.91	30.49	99.60	98.67	89.71
MGLL, $\tau = 0.20$	81.89	87.02	28.93	97.89	97.26	87.92
MGLL, $\tau = 0.50$	79.52	86.19	27.74	95.53	94.57	85.95
MGLL, $\tau = 0.07$	83.86	89.06	30.62	99.75	98.80	89.87

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D.8 PERFORMANCE ON DATASETS WITH ARTIFICIALLY INTRODUCED NOISE

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We evaluated the robustness of MGLL under varying levels of artificially introduced noise, where 10%–30% of granularity labels were randomly removed. As shown in Table 37, even with 30% missing labels, MGLL achieves AUCs of 79.61% (linear probing) and 96.74% (full fine-tuning), which remain substantially higher than CLIP trained with complete labels (71.43% and 91.83%, respectively). These results demonstrate that MGLL maintains strong robustness against incomplete or noisy granularity supervision.

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Table 37: Ablations of missing granularity labels on MIDRC-XR-Portable.

Method	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
	AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
CLIP, No Missing	71.43	78.22	22.31	91.83	90.08	83.94
MGLL, 10% Missing	82.58	88.15	29.97	99.31	98.39	89.30
MGLL, 20% Missing	81.14	87.25	28.86	98.62	97.95	88.74
MGLL, 30% Missing	79.61	86.23	27.75	96.74	96.02	87.28
MGLL, No Missing	83.86	89.06	30.62	99.75	98.80	89.87

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D.9 PERFORMANCE ON DATASETS WITH MIXING GRANULARITY LEVELS

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We have evaluated MGLL on datasets with mixed granularity levels, and the results are reported in Table 38. Specifically, the pretraining dataset was randomly divided into two subsets of equal size: Set A with two levels of granularity and Set B with a single level. MGLL achieves comparable performance across both subsets and their combination, demonstrating its robustness to heterogeneous annotation structures and its applicability to real-world scenarios with mixed-granularity data.

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Table 38: Ablations of mixing granularity levels on MIDRC-XR-Portable. The dataset is randomly divided into two subsets of equal size for the ablation study, Set A (50% data) and Set B (50% data).

Study Desc.	Series Desc.	Linear Probe (%)			Fully Fine-tune (%)		
		AUC	ACC	mAP	AUC	ACC	mAP
Set A	Set B	78.93	85.47	27.04	94.81	93.58	85.14
Set A	Set A + Set B	80.25	86.46	27.97	96.21	94.87	86.72
Set A + Set B	Set B	80.92	87.07	28.63	97.03	96.56	87.45
MGLL (Ours)		83.86	89.06	30.62	99.75	98.80	89.87

2052 E DISCUSSION AND FUTURE WORK 2053

2054 Our investigation into Multi-Granular Language Learning (MGLL) reveals several important in-
2055 sights about vision-language alignment in complex domains. The consistent performance improve-
2056 ments across various medical imaging datasets demonstrate that hierarchical textual information
2057 substantially enhances visual understanding, particularly when images correspond to multiple clin-
2058 ical findings at different levels of specificity. The ablation studies confirm that performance gains
2059 scale with both the number of granularity levels and the quality of input data, suggesting that MGLL
2060 effectively leverages the complementary information contained in multi-granular textual descrip-
2061 tions.

2062 While MGLL achieves simultaneous multi-label and cross-granularity alignment without additional
2063 computational cost, further optimization could potentially improve its generality. Future work
2064 should explore several directions: (1) extending MGLL to incorporate multimodal inputs beyond
2065 images and text, such as patient metadata or temporal information; (2) investigating domain adap-
2066 tation techniques to improve generalization to unseen medical conditions or imaging modalities;
2067 and (3) exploring the integration of MGLL with large language models to generate more nuanced
2068 textual descriptions at multiple granularities. Additionally, applying MGLL to other domains with
2069 inherently hierarchical structures, such as satellite imagery or scientific visualization, could fur-
2070 ther validate its broader applicability beyond medical imaging. These extensions would strengthen
2071 MGLL’s position as a generalizable framework for improved multimodal understanding.

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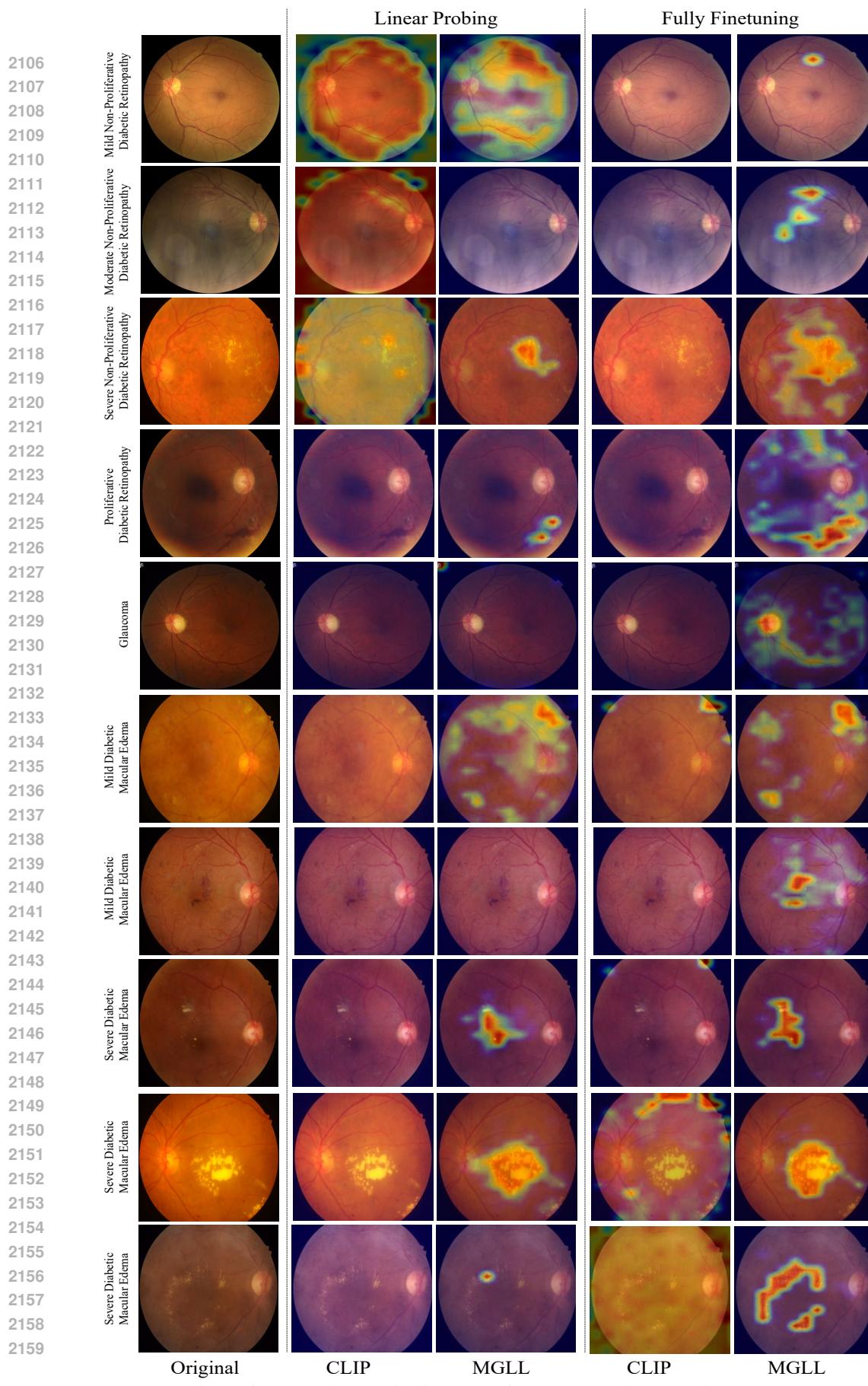


Figure 6: More Class Activation Maps from CLIP and Proposed MGLL.