

Diagnosing Hallucination Problem in Object Navigation

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Abstract

001 *This work investigates the hallucination problem in object*
002 *navigation, which leads agents to make incorrect navigation*
003 *decisions. We identify two kinds of hallucinations: visual*
004 *grounding and navigation policy. Visual grounding hallucina-*
005 *tions are grounding errors from a grounding model that*
006 *can mislead the agent policy. Policy hallucinations cause the*
007 *agent to make mistakes even with accurate visual grounding.*
008 *We analyze how these hallucinations contribute to navigation*
009 *errors and affect navigation performance, and find that hallu-*
010 *cinations about goal objects are the main bottleneck. Finally,*
011 *we explore the usage of factors like grounding confidence*
012 *to identify potential directions to mitigate hallucinations in*
013 *object navigation.*

014 1. Introduction

015 An embodied agent that is able to navigate to a target object
016 in novel environments has been a long-term goal of embod-
017 ied AI research [1]. To achieve this, a lot of work has been
018 done to build a better navigation policy [4, 10, 13, 15] and
019 improve the agent’s visual grounding [9, 11, 13]. However,
020 the performance of the state-of-the-art navigation agent is
021 still far from perfect [4]. In the navigation process, the agent
022 could make incorrect navigation decisions that lead to fail-
023 ures. For example, stopping at an incorrect object or not
024 navigating to a goal object. While these wrong decisions
025 affect navigation performance significantly, no study has
026 been conducted to deeply analyze why these decisions were
027 made and how we can mitigate them.

028 Incorrect navigation decision-making could be interpreted
029 as the model having an incorrect belief in the existence of the
030 target object. In this work, we analyze the source of incorrect
031 decisions from the **object hallucination** perspective and
032 diagnose the hallucination problems in object navigation.
033 We first define two main hallucination sources as in Fig. 1.
034 The first one is the visual grounding. In navigation, the
035 agent first needs to perform visual grounding and have an
036 understanding of the environment. The hallucination in
037 the grounding input may cause the agent to make incorrect

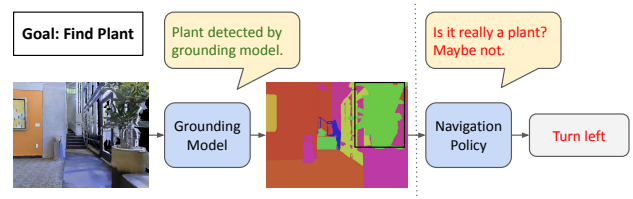


Figure 1. Two main sources of hallucination in object navigation. In the example, although the grounding model predicts correctly, the navigation policy hallucinates and leads to an navigation error.

038 decisions. The second source is the navigation policy, which
039 processes the grounding input and takes sequential actions.
040 The hallucination of navigation policy appears when the
041 agent makes incorrect decisions when the visual grounding
042 is correct, i.e., the policy does not trust the correct object
043 grounding.

044 First, for the grounding input, we show the influence of
045 grounding hallucination by comparing the performance be-
046 tween evaluating with ground truth grounding and predicted
047 grounding. Then, we further investigate the degree of in-
048 fluence from different kinds of objects and how navigation
049 policies leverage the grounding results by providing ground
050 truth for goal or non-goal objects. We then define two major
051 navigation errors and two navigation policy hallucinations
052 and show the correlation between them, from which we con-
053 clude that the navigation policy learns to ignore the positive
054 grounding input during imitation learning. Finally, we ana-
055 lyze what grounding factors may help the grounding policies
056 distinguish grounding input hallucinations, such as the area
057 and the confidence of the grounding results, to provide po-
058 tential directions to mitigate the hallucination problems in
059 object navigation.

060 In summary, our findings include: (1) The hallucination
061 about goal objects significantly influences navigation perfor-
062 mance. (2) The navigation policies can leverage the imper-
063 fect grounding of non-goal objects to explore the environ-
064 ment. Only seriously incorrect non-goal object grounding
065 will affect the navigation performance. (3) The navigation
066 policy learns to ignore the positive grounding input during
067 training. (4) In terms of hallucinations on goal objects, we

068 could potentially leverage more detection information, such
069 as grounding confidence, to mitigate them.

070 2. Related Work

071 2.1. Object Navigation

072 There are two main lines of work in object navigation re-
073 search. The first one is to build a better navigation policy
074 to explore the environment and get closer to the goal ob-
075 ject [10, 13, 15]. Among these methods, the learning-based
076 methods train an end-to-end navigation policy with imita-
077 tion learning or reinforcement learning [4, 10, 13] achieves
078 state-of-the-art results. The other line of research aims to im-
079 prove the visual perception of the navigation agent to better
080 understand the environment [9–13]. EmbCLIP [9] leverages
081 frozen clip embedding as a more robust visual representa-
082 tion. [11, 12] tried to improve the visual representation of
083 the environment using self-supervised pre-training. Beyond
084 RGB image visual embedding, [10, 13, 15] also leverages
085 more high-level visual information – object detection and se-
086 mantic segmentation in navigation. For different navigation
087 policies, previous work has shown that imperfect grounding
088 is a major bottleneck for navigation agent [6, 13, 15]. In this
089 work, we try to understand how exactly imperfect grounding
090 affects navigation and how to mitigate this problem.

091 2.2. Visual Navigation Model Analysis

092 Prior works in object navigation have used some evaluation
093 methods to understand the navigation models. First, various
094 metrics are proposed to evaluate a navigation episode, such
095 as success rate, distance to goal, SPL, SoftSPL, etc. Then,
096 [3, 13] tried to ablate the semantic segmentation input during
097 evaluation to see how much imperfect segmentation affects
098 the navigation performance. Further, modular navigation
099 methods [5, 6, 15] define different navigation errors to un-
100 derstand where the bottleneck is. However, these evaluations
101 are still relatively superficial, which mainly shows the mod-
102 els’ performance but lacks analysis on where and why the
103 performance gap exists. In the vision-and-language navi-
104 gation (VLN) task, some works performed in-depth model
105 behavior analysis. Zhang et al. [14] tried to diagnose the
106 reason why it is hard for VLN agents to generalize to novel
107 environments. Zhu et al. [16] tried to understand the be-
108 havior of VLN agents by designing ablation experiments
109 on the input during evaluation time. We perform detailed
110 analysis for the influence of imperfect grounding in object
111 navigation tasks, including both training and evaluation time,
112 and provide solutions to mitigate the grounding problems.

3. Object Navigation and Hallucination Problems 113 114

3.1. Object Navigation 115

In a typical object navigation task, an agent starts in an 116
unknown environment E with the goal of finding an object 117
from a specific category G , like a chair or cabinet. The agent 118
doesn’t know the exact location beforehand. At each step 119
 t , the agent receives sensory data O_t . This data typically 120
includes an egocentric RGB-D image, and might also include 121
its position and orientation P_t in some environments. Based 122
on this information, the agent chooses an action a from a 123
set of available actions \mathcal{A} , which includes a special ”stop” 124
action to indicate it has found the object. The navigation 125
is successful if the agent stops within a certain distance (1 126
meter) of the target object and can see it without moving. 127

3.2. Object Navigation Models 128

In our study, we consider *end-to-end* object navigation mod- 129
els. A typical end-to-end object navigation model first takes 130
the inputs and encodes them into embeddings. For the visual 131
input RGB-D images, there are two kinds of encoders. The 132
first one is a visual encoder like CNN [9], which encodes the 133
RGB-D image into an image feature. The second one is a 134
semantic encoder, which first performs semantic segmenta- 135
tion and then encodes the segmentation results into a visual 136
embedding [10]. Then, the input embeddings are fed into 137
a decision network based on a recurrent neural network or 138
a transformer. In this work, we select a transformer-based 139
architecture [4] that archives state-of-the-art results and fol- 140
lows their training and evaluation setting in experiments. 141
The pipeline of a navigation model is shown in Fig. 1 142

To better analyze and quantify the influence of grounding, 143
we use semantic-level visual encoders for object naviga- 144
tion models since their embedding is more explainable. For 145
instance, we could acquire the ground truth semantic embed- 146
ding from the simulator. Specifically, we experiment with 147
two kinds of semantic-level encoders. First, following Ram- 148
rakhya et al. [10], we use a Rednet [8] semantic segmentation 149
model trained on in-domain data to predict a semantic seg- 150
mentation map M_{sem} from the RGB-D image. Then, we use 151
a ResNet [7] to encode the semantic segmentation map into 152
a d dimension embedding. Secondly, following Zhang et al. 153
[14], we calculate the area of each object class from M_{sem} 154
and form a semantic embedding with a dimension of 21 – 155
the number of goal object classes in the MP3D dataset. The 156
value in each dimension is the proportion of pixels that an 157
object occupies in the image. We note these two embedding 158
methods as Rednet_{semseg} and Rednet_{sememb} respectively 159
in Table 1. 160

Grounding	Pred		GT All		GT Goal		GT Non-Goal		Shuf Non-Goal	
	SR	SPL	SR	SPL	SR	SPL	SR	SPL	SR	SPL
Rednet _{semseg}	45.3	15.2	58.0	18.8	57.6	19.1	43.0	14.7	38.0	12.4
Rednet _{sememb}	43.1	13.7	54.9	17.5	56.5	17.6	41.2	13.6	36.6	10.5

Table 1. Comparison of object navigation performance with different ground truth and predicted grounding information provided on different semantic embeddings.

Grounding	PoHall 1	Error 1	PoHall 2	Error 2
Rednet _{semseg}	14.8	38.4	0.03	0.36
Rednet _{sememb}	15.0	36.2	0.03	0.33

Table 2. Quantitative evaluation of two kinds of navigation errors and policy hallucinations in object navigation. The number indicates the average number of hallucinations or errors per episode.

3.3. Hallucinations in Object Navigation

We define two sources of navigation hallucinations to better diagnose the hallucination errors in navigation. The first one is the grounding input hallucinations. In the context of semantic segmentation or object detection, this hallucination can be reflected by grounding metrics like Intersection over Union (IoU). The second one is the hallucinations from the navigation policy. It happens when the grounding input is correct while the navigation policy still makes incorrect decisions. For example, even when the visual grounding part successfully captures the goal object, the agent could still make the wrong decision not to navigate to the detected object.

4. Diagnose Hallucinations in Navigation

4.1. Dataset and Metrics

We use MP3D [2] object navigation dataset for training and evaluation in our experiments. We use imitation learning for model training with the imitation learning dataset collected by Ramrakhya et al. [10], which contains 60k¹ trajectories in 56 training environments with 21 goal object categories. We report the evaluation results on the validation split, containing 2195 episodes in 11 unseen validation environments. For evaluation metrics, we use Success Rate (SR) and Success rate weighted by Path Length (SPL) [1].

4.2. Grounding Hallucination in Object Navigation

How is navigation success affected by grounding hallucination? First, to show the influence of grounding hallucination, in Table. 1, we compare the models trained with Red-

¹We exclude the training episodes where the goal object does not belong to the 21 goal objects.

net predicted semantic segmentation and test with predicted (Pred) or ground truth (GT All) semantic segmentation. We find that, for both semantic encoding methods, testing with ground truth semantic segmentation improves the navigation performance significantly. This shows that grounding hallucination strongly affects navigation performance.

Is the goal object grounding the only grounding feature that matters?

To better understand how grounding hallucinations from Rednet affect navigation performance, we break down the influence of grounding hallucinations in different object categories. During the evaluation time, we provide ground truth segmentation of goal objects (GT Goal) and non-goal objects (GT Non-Goal) to the navigation policy. Surprisingly, we find that providing the ground truth grounding of the goal object achieves a similar performance to providing all the ground truth grounding. This shows that *better utilizing the grounding information of goal object is the main bottleneck for the navigation agent.*

We can also observe that providing ground truth non-goal objects does not improve the navigation performance. This raises the question of whether the grounding information of non-goal objects is not essential for navigation. To answer this, we randomly shuffle the 20 non-goal object categories in the semantic embedding during evaluation time. In this case, the grounding information of other objects will be totally incorrect, e.g. a table will become a sofa. For consistency, we keep the shuffle order the same for each step within one episode. From Table. 1, we observe that shuffling non-goal objects (Shuf Non-Goal) decreases navigation performance by a large margin – 6.9% in success rate. This shows that the navigation policy suffers from serious hallucinations of non-goal object grounding. However, imperfect grounding information for non-goal objects from Rednet can already benefit navigation decision-making as well as ground truth information. Therefore, *it is not a significant grounding bottleneck for navigation.*

4.3. Policy Hallucination in Object Navigation

In the last section, we showed that the grounding hallucination of goal objects is the main bottleneck of navigation performance. In this section, we will further investigate the policy hallucination in terms of goal objects.

Grounding	Area	Conf
Rednet _{semseg}	0.62	0.67
Rednet _{sememb}	0.61	0.67

Table 3. Results of using the grounding area or confidence to judge the navigation success using a naive Bayesian classifier. The number reported is classification accuracy.

We first define two major navigation errors in object navigation: ignoring the goal object (**Error 1**), which means the goal object appears, but the agent did not navigate to it, and stopping incorrectly (**Error 2**), which means that the agent decides to stop in a place not within 1 meter of a goal object. To remove the influence of grounding hallucination, we then define two kinds of **policy hallucinations** about the goal object. The first one is that when the goal object is correctly detected by the grounding model, the policy does not choose to navigate to it and stop (**PoHall 1**). The second one is that the policy decides to stop when the goal object is not detected by the grounding model (**PoHall 2**). We quantitatively calculate these two policy hallucinations in the following ways. For the first one, we calculate the frequency when the goal object appears and is correctly detected by the grounding model (IoU is larger than 0.1), and the agent didn't successfully stop within 40 steps. For the second one, we calculate the frequency when the agent decides to stop in an incorrect location when no goal object is detected within the last 5 steps of navigation. To compare, we also count the number of two navigation errors during navigation.

The results are shown in Table. 2, we find that PoHall 1 happens frequently and contributes more to navigation Error 1. This means that the policy will usually ignore the correct grounding input and not navigate to it. Meanwhile, since PoHall 2 appears only less than 10% of times when Error 2 occurs, when the policy decides to stop, typically, a goal object is detected, whether correct or not, within the last 5 steps. This could be because, during imitation learning, the human labeler sometimes did not see the goal objects, or the Rednet model made hallucinations of false positive predictions, resulting in the demonstration not navigating to a detected goal object. Therefore, the navigation policy learns to ignore some positive grounding results. When the human demonstration stops at the goal object, the grounding model can usually make correct predictions. Therefore, the policy is less likely to stop when there is no goal detected. On the other hand, Error 2 is mainly due to grounding input hallucinations. Since most of the time, when the agent stops incorrectly, a goal object is detected, leading to the wrong decision.

4.4. Mitigating Hallucinations in Object Navigation 271

After learning more about hallucinations in navigation, we now investigate how we can potentially mitigate them. We look at the second kind of navigation error (**Error 2**), which is the most serious error since it directly causes navigation failure. We already know that Error 2 is mainly caused by grounding input hallucinations. Although grounding hallucinations are inevitable, enabling navigation policies to distinguish these grounding hallucinations and make correct navigation decisions can reduce these navigation errors. To investigate how we can improve the policy network on this, we calculate two key grounding features, grounding confidence and grounding areas, when Error 2 occurs, and the opposite of it occurs – the agent stops successfully. To show whether these features are helpful, we use a naive Bayesian classifier to take their values as input and predict whether the episode is successful or not:

$$P(S_k|f) = \frac{P(f|S_k)P(S_k)}{P(f)} \quad (1) \quad 288$$

Where S_k indicates episode success or not, and the prior $P(S_k)$ is set to a uniform distribution. f is the average grounding confidence or area in the last 5 steps. We collect the data from all the validation trajectories and randomly split them into training and evaluation sets for the naive Bayesian classifier.

The results are shown in Table. 3, we find that the classification accuracy using grounding confidences is significantly higher than using grounding areas as features. This could be because the navigation area is known by the agent and is one of the reasons for the decision to stop by the agent policy. We also noticed that the classification accuracy using either feature is significantly higher than that of a random guess – 50%. Therefore, *grounding features like confidence that are not currently utilized by the navigation agent could be helpful in mitigating grounding hallucinations.*

5. Conclusion and Discussion 305

In this work, we study the hallucination problem in object navigation, where the agent has incorrect beliefs about objects. We define the two sources of navigation hallucination and quantitatively analyze their contributions to navigation errors and their influence on navigation performance. For the most critical navigation error, we analyzed the main cause and proposed potential solutions. We hope this work can help the research community understand the hallucination problems in object navigation and provide insights on mitigating them. The limitation is that our analysis focuses on the hallucination problem for end-to-end object navigation models. Therefore, the conclusions may not be generalized to those modular-based navigation models that leverage explicit semantic mapping.

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