

Zero-Shot Visual Grounding of Referring Utterances in Dialogue

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Abstract

This work explores whether current pretrained multimodal models, which are optimized to align images and captions, can be applied to the rather different domain of referring expressions. In particular, we test whether one such model, CLIP, is effective in capturing two main trends observed for referential chains uttered within a multimodal dialogue, i.e., that utterances become less descriptive over time while their discriminativeness remains unchanged. We show that CLIP captures both, which opens up the possibility to use these models for reference resolution and generation. Moreover, our analysis indicates a possible role for these architectures toward discovering the mechanisms employed by humans when referring to visual entities.

1 Introduction

During a conversation, speakers can refer to an entity (e.g., the girl in Fig. 1) multiple times within different contexts. This has been shown to lead to subsequent referring expressions that are usually shorter and based on the most communicatively effective words from the previous mentions (Krauss and Weinheimer, 1967; Brennan and Clark, 1996). This well known trend has been confirmed in recent vision-and-language (V&L) work (Shore and Skantze, 2018; Haber et al., 2019; Takmaz et al., 2020; Hawkins et al., 2020): referring utterances become more compact (i.e., less descriptive), and yet participants are able to identify the intended referent (i.e., they remain pragmatically informative).

Several approaches have tackled the generation of image captions from the perspective of pragmatic informativity (Mao et al., 2016; Luo et al., 2018; Cohn-Gordon et al., 2018; Schüz et al., 2021, i.a.) and Coppock et al. (2020) have compared the informativity of image captions and of referring expressions. However, no work to date has investigated how these two dimensions, *descriptiveness* and *discriminativeness* or pragmatic informativity, interact in referring expressions uttered in dialogue.



Figure 1: Referring utterance chain from PhotoBook (Haber et al., 2019). The chain has 4 ranks (4 references to the target image, in red outline). For simplicity, only the 5 distractor images from rank 1 are shown.

In this work, we use a transformer-based pretrained multimodal model to study the interplay between descriptiveness and discriminativeness in human referring utterances produced in dialogue. Due to their unprecedented success in numerous tasks, pretrained V&L models—such as LXMERT (Tan and Bansal, 2019), VisualBERT (Li et al., 2019), UNITER (Chen et al., 2020) and ALIGN (Jia et al., 2021)—have recently attracted a lot of interest aimed at understanding the properties and potential of their learned representations. This includes probing them in a zero-shot manner, i.e., without any specific fine-tuning, on some diagnostic tasks, e.g., image-text alignment or counting (Hendricks and Nematzadeh, 2021; Parcalabescu et al., 2021); quantifying, via input ablations, the role of each modality on the resulting multimodal representations and model performance (Frank et al., 2021); inspecting models’ attention patterns when performing a specific task, i.e., visual coreference resolution (Cao et al., 2020); devising a unified experimental framework to compare various architectures fairly (Bugliarello et al., 2021).

Here, we focus on one model: Contrastive Language-Image Pre-training (CLIP, Radford et al., 2021), which has been shown to outperform several V&L models on zero-shot image-sentence alignment for object- and scene-level descriptions (Cafagna et al., 2021) and been proposed as

071 a reference-free image caption evaluator (Hessel
072 et al., 2021). However, CLIP’s ability to encode
073 discriminativeness in dialogue and to capture refer-
074 ring utterances in a zero-shot fashion has not yet
075 been demonstrated. Here, we evaluate it on this
076 capability for the first time, obtaining very promis-
077 ing results. This allows us to gain insight into both
078 the strategies used by humans in sequential refer-
079 ence settings and CLIP’s potential for reference
080 resolution and generation.

081 2 Data

082 We focus on PhotoBook (PB; Haber et al., 2019),
083 a dataset of multimodal task-oriented dialogues
084 where players aim to pick the images they have in
085 common without seeing each other’s visual con-
086 texts (which consist of 6 images coming from the
087 same domain). The game is played over several
088 rounds in which the previously seen images reap-
089 pear in different visual contexts, giving the players
090 an opportunity to refer to such images again. As
091 a result, *chains* of utterances referring to a single
092 image are formed over the rounds as the players
093 build common ground. See Fig. 1 for a simplified
094 representation of a chain.¹ In total, PB consists
095 of 2,500 games, 165K utterances, and 360 unique
096 images from COCO (Lin et al., 2014).

097 All our experiments are conducted on a sub-
098 set of 50 PB games with manually annotated refer-
099 ring utterances, which contains 364 referential
100 chains about 205 unique target images. We refer
101 to this subset as PB-GOLD.² Although a dataset
102 of automatically-extracted chains using all PB data
103 was recently made available (Takmaz et al., 2020),
104 as reported by the authors these chains may contain
105 errors. We therefore opt for using the relatively
106 small but high-quality PB-GOLD subset since, as
107 described in Sec. 3, we evaluate a pre-trained model
108 without fine-tuning and hence do not need large
109 amounts of data.

110 PB-GOLD’s chains contain 1,078 utterances, i.e.,
111 2.96 utterances per chain on average (min 1, max
112 4). We henceforth use the term ‘rank’ to refer to
113 the position of an utterance in a chain. The average
114 token length of utterances is 13.34, 11.03, 9.23, and
115 7.82, respectively, for ranks 1, 2, 3, and 4.³ This
116 decreasing trend, which is statistically significant

¹Only 1 player’s perspective for 1 context is represented.

²We use the gold set of the utterance-based chains v2
available at <https://dmg-photobook.github.io/>.

³We use TweetTokenizer: [https://www.nltk.org/
api/nltk.tokenize.html](https://www.nltk.org/api/nltk.tokenize.html)

117 at $p < 0.01$ with respect to independent samples
118 t-tests between the ranks, is in line with the trend
119 observed in the whole dataset (Haber et al., 2019).
120 PB-GOLD’s vocabulary consists of 926 tokens.

121 3 Model

122 We use CLIP (Radford et al., 2021), a model pre-
123 trained on a dataset of 400 million image-text pairs
124 collected from the internet using a contrastive ob-
125 jective to learn strong transferable vision represen-
126 tations with natural language supervision.⁴ In par-
127 ticular, we employ the ViT-B/32 version of CLIP,
128 which utilizes separate transformers to encode vi-
129 sion and language (Vaswani et al., 2017; Dosovit-
130 ski et al., 2021; Radford et al., 2019, 2021).

131 As the model learns to align images and texts,
132 this enables zero-shot transfer to various V&L tasks
133 such as image-text retrieval and image classifica-
134 tion and even certain non-traditional tasks in a
135 simple and efficient manner (Radford et al., 2019;
136 Agarwal et al., 2021; Shen et al., 2021; Cafagna
137 et al., 2021; Hessel et al., 2021). In this work,
138 we freeze CLIP’s weights and do not fine-tune the
139 model or perform prompt engineering, since we
140 aim to evaluate the model on referring utterances
141 taken out of dialogue in a zero-shot setting.

142 4 Descriptiveness

143 In our first experiment, we investigate whether
144 CLIP is effective in capturing the degree of de-
145 scriptiveness exhibited by referring utterances in
146 the PhotoBook game, i.e., the amount of informa-
147 tion they provide about the image out of context.
148 We consider each target image and correspond-
149 ing referential utterance at a give rank *in isola-*
150 *tion*, i.e., without taking into account the other
151 competing images. We quantify descriptiveness
152 as the alignment between an utterance and its
153 image referent using CLIPScore (Hessel et al.,
154 2021). For all the target image-utterance pairs
155 in the chains of PB-GOLD, we use CLIP to ob-
156 tain a vector t representing the utterance and a
157 vector v representing the image. CLIPScore
158 is then computed as the scaled cosine similarity
159 between these two vectors, with range $[0, 2.5]$:⁵
160 $\text{CLIPScore}(t, v) = 2.5 * \max(\cos(t, v), 0)$.

161 We compute the average CLIPScore per rank
162 over the whole PB-GOLD dataset.

⁴<https://github.com/openai/CLIP>

⁵The scaled factor was introduced by Hessel et al. (2021)
to account for the relatively low observed cosine values.

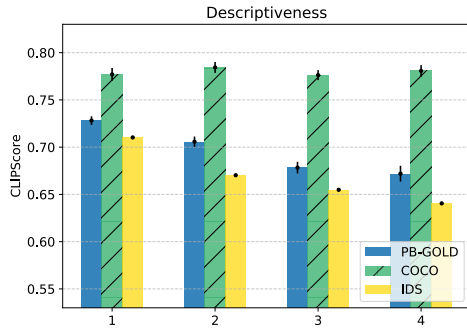


Figure 2: CLIPScore values for PB-GOLD, COCO and IDS. We only plot the first 4 ‘ranks’ (x-axis) for COCO and IDS for comparability with PB-GOLD. The error bars illustrate the standard error.

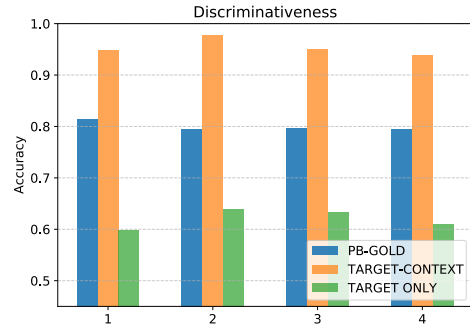


Figure 3: Reference resolution accuracy per rank with PB-GOLD utterances, word retrieved in context (TARGET-CONTEXT) and word retrieved from the image in isolation (TARGET ONLY).

Results. We find that earlier utterances are better aligned with the target image features and that there is a monotonically decreasing trend over the 4 ranks (Fig. 2, blue bars). The differences between all pairs of ranks are statistically significant (according to independent samples t-tests, $p < 0.01$), except for the comparison between the last 2 ranks ($p > 0.05$). Since earlier referring utterances tend to be longer (see Sec. 2), we check to what extent length may be a confounding factor. We find that there is only a weak correlation between token length and CLIPScore (Spearman’s $\rho = 0.29$, $p < 0.001$).

Analysis. Our results indicate that CLIP is able to capture that earlier referring utterances contain more descriptive information about the target image than later referring utterances, and that this is only weakly related to length. We compare these results on PhotoBook with text-to-image alignment computed with the same method on two other datasets: (1) COCO (Lin et al., 2014),⁶ which includes 5 captions per image provided independently by different annotators; here we do not expect to find significant differences in the level of descriptiveness across the captions, and (2) Image Description Sequences (IDS, Ilinykh et al., 2019)⁷ where one participant describes an image incrementally, by progressively adding sentences with further details; here we do expect a similar pattern to PhotoBook, albeit for different reasons (because participants mention the most salient information at the beginning; Ilinykh et al., 2019).

Fig. 2 shows that these expectations are confirmed. According to CLIP, COCO captions (green bars) are more descriptive than IDS descriptions

and PB referring utterances, and are equally aligned with the image across ‘ranks’ (the order is arbitrary in this case). In contrast, IDS incremental descriptions (yellow bars) are intrinsically ordered and show a significant decreasing trend.

Overall, these findings show that CLIP is effective as a *reference-free image caption evaluator*, as claimed by Hessel et al. (2021), as well as being able to capture the trends in sequential settings such as IDS and PB. However, this does not shed light on whether (and how) the model accounts for the degree of discriminativeness of a referring utterance in a given context, which is critical in PB. We explore this issue in the next section.

5 Discriminativeness

In order for a listener to select the target image among distractor images, a referring utterance should be discriminative in its visual context. Our results in the previous section show that descriptiveness decreases over time—what is the trend in discriminativeness when we encode the utterances in CLIP? To address this question, in our second experiment we investigate the use of CLIP from the perspective of reference resolution and generation.

We focus on local text-to-image alignment, ignoring the previous dialogue history. To this end, we feed CLIP a single referring utterance together with the visual context of the speaker who produced that utterance. CLIP yields softmax probabilities for each image contrasted with the single text. As a metric, we use accuracy: 1 if the target image gets the highest probability; 0 otherwise.

Results. The overall accuracy is 80.15%, which shows that CLIP performs well above the random baseline of 16.67%. In Fig. 3, we break down the

⁶We use the set of COCO images in PB-GOLD ($N=205$).

⁷The images are from ADE20k corpus (Zhou et al., 2017)

232 results per rank (blue bars). A 4×2 chi-square
233 test (4 ranks vs. correct/incorrect) did not yield
234 significant differences in accuracy between the
235 ranks, $p > 0.05$. Thus, although descriptiveness
236 decreases over time, discriminativeness is not sig-
237 nificantly affected. Interestingly, an analysis of the
238 entropy of the softmax distributions reveals that en-
239 tropy increases monotonically over the ranks (this
240 difference is statistically significant according to
241 an independent samples t-test between ranks 1 and
242 4, $p < 0.01$). That is, the model is more uncertain
243 when trying to resolve less descriptive utterances,⁸
244 yet still performs remarkably well at this task.

245 **Analysis.** Our results show that CLIP is very ef-
246 fective in resolving referring utterances, even for
247 later ranks where their form is more likely to rely
248 on common ground established over the previous
249 dialogue history, which we do not exploit in our
250 setup. To better understand CLIP’s abilities, we ex-
251 plore to what extent the model can *extract* what is
252 discriminative in the images, which would provide
253 a basis for using CLIP not only for resolution but
254 also for referring expression generation.

255 We encode all the words in the vocabulary of PB-
256 GOLD using CLIP. For each target image, we re-
257 trieve two words: the word whose representation is
258 the closest to the features of the target image in iso-
259 lation (TARGET ONLY); the word whose represen-
260 tation is the closest to the discriminative features of
261 the target image in context (TARGET-CONTEXT).
262 For the latter, we compute the discriminative fea-
263 tures by average-pooling the visual representations
264 of distractor images to end up with the mean con-
265 text vector and then subtracting this vector from
266 the visual representation of the target image.

267 To check whether these retrieved one-word ut-
268 terances would be enough to identify the target image
269 in context, we plug them into the CLIP-based refer-
270 ence resolution mechanism described earlier.⁹ We
271 observe very high resolution performance with the
272 discriminative words (TARGET-CONTEXT; orange
273 bars in Fig. 3), with all ranks achieving above 94%
274 accuracy. The accuracies obtained from TARGET
275 ONLY (green bars), however, are lower than those
276 of the original utterances.

277 We also check whether at least one of the top-

⁸There is indeed a negative correlation between entropy and CLIPScore (Spearman’s $\rho = -0.5$, $p < 0.001$).

⁹Note that since for resolution CLIP compares the word to the images one by one, this mechanism is independent from the subtraction method used to generate the TARGET-CONTEXT words.

278 10 retrieved words are mentioned in the original
279 human utterance: words retrieved in context are
280 less frequently (59.83%) mentioned than the words
281 retrieved for the image on its own (77.09%). As an
282 illustration, the TARGET ONLY word retrieved for
283 the example in Fig. 1 is *umbrella*, which is present
284 in all the human utterances in this chain, although
285 not discriminative. The TARGET-CONTEXT words
286 retrieved are *beach*, *teal*, *blue*, and *beach* for ranks
287 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively. As can be seen, the
288 word is either present in the human utterance (*blue*
289 in rank 3) or similar to other words mentioned (*teal*
290 instead of *blue*, *beach* instead of *water*). Reference
291 resolution succeeds with both the human utterances
292 and the generated TARGET-CONTEXT words, but
293 fails with the TARGET ONLY word.

294 6 Conclusion

295 We explored whether a pretrained multimodal
296 model claimed to be a reference-free caption eval-
297 uator, CLIP (Radford et al., 2021), is effective in
298 capturing two main trends observed for referen-
299 tial chains uttered within a multimodal dialogue,
300 i.e., that (1) the utterances become less descrip-
301 tive over time while (2) their discriminativeness
302 remains unchanged. We showed that CLIP cap-
303 tures both, which sheds new light on the abilities
304 of this model to deal with referential utterances
305 besides standard image descriptions.

306 At the same time, the findings that CLIP can
307 identify the correct referent without exploiting any
308 dialogue history and that the retrieved TARGET
309 ONLY words are more often used by the partici-
310 pants than the retrieved TARGET-CONTEXT words
311 are intriguing, and suggest that participants playing
312 the PhotoBook game (Haber et al., 2019) seek a
313 trade-off between relying on contrastive and non-
314 contrastive information. This could be due to per-
315 ceptual salience, previously established conceptual
316 pacts (Brennan and Clark, 1996), or to control refer-
317 ential entropy even though the discriminative utility
318 of such information is not necessarily high (Rehrig
319 et al., 2021; Tourtouri et al., 2018; Gatt et al., 2013).
320 Interestingly, this opens up the possibility, parallel
321 to the present work, to use CLIP to identify the
322 mechanisms employed by humans when referring
323 to visual entities. Moreover, future work could ex-
324 plore novel ways to incorporate the CLIP model or
325 its representations into a reference resolution model
326 embedding dialogue history and visual context.

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