# PEDVLM: PEDESTRIAN VISION LANGUAGE MODEL FOR INTENTIONS PREDICTION

Anonymous authors

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## ABSTRACT

Effective modeling of human behavior is crucial for the safe and reliable coexistence of humans and autonomous vehicles. Traditional deep learning methods have limitations in capturing the complexities of pedestrian behavior, often relying on simplistic representations or indirect inference from visual cues, which hinders their explainability. To address this gap, we introduce PedVLM, a visionlanguage model that leverages multiple modalities (RGB images, optical flow, and text) to predict pedestrian intentions and also provide explainability for pedestrian behavior. PedVLM comprises a CLIP-based vision encoder and a text-to-text transfer transformer (T5) language model, which together extract and combine visual and text embeddings to predict pedestrian actions and enhance explainability. Furthermore, to complement our PedVLM model and further facilitate research, we also publicly release the corresponding dataset, PedPrompt, which includes the prompts in the Question-Answer (QA) template for pedestrian intention prediction. PedVLM is evaluated on PedPrompt, JAAD, and PIE datasets demonstrates its efficacy compared to state-of-the-art methods. The dataset and code will be made available at https://github.com/abc/ped\_VLM.

#### 028 1 INTRODUCTION

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Understanding human social behavior is crucial for safely deploying autonomous vehicles in an urban environment. In literature, modeling and learning human social behavior is categorized into 031 pedestrian trajectory and intention prediction (Kothari et al., 2021a;b; Liu et al., 2021). Although the former approach has shown effective results in forecasting pedestrian motion using past trajectories, 033 it is often prone to failure when there is an abrupt change in pedestrian dynamics (Kothari et al., 034 2021a; Sharma et al., 2022). Pedestrian intention prediction<sup>1</sup>, on the other hand, offers a more robust approach by anticipating pedestrian decisions before they occur (Hoy et al., 2018). For instance, an intention prediction system can foresee a pedestrian's decision to cross a street well in advance, 037 allowing an autonomous vehicle to adjust its course preemptively. However, predicting pedestrian 038 intentions is complex and requires a holistic approach that integrates context, scene understanding, 039 pedestrian attributes, and careful analysis of past actions.

040 In the literature, addressing pedestrian intention typically involves using input features such as 041 pedestrian trajectories (Saleh et al., 2019; Bouhsain et al., 2020), environmental context (Rasouli 042 et al., 2017), and social interactions (Helbing & Molnar, 1995; Evans & Norman, 2003). These 043 features are then processed by sequential models, like RNNs (Lorenzo et al., 2020), LSTMs (Zhang 044 et al., 2020), and transformer-based models (Sui et al., 2021), or non-sequential models, such as CNNs and GNN-based models, to improve prediction accuracy and comprehensively understand 046 pedestrian behavior(Saleh et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2021). Although these traditional deep learningbased methods have shown promising results, they often struggle with explainability, particularly in 047 complex scenarios where extracting driving-related knowledge and performing effective reasoning 048 are crucial. 049

To address these challenges and develop a more holistic model to predict pedestrian intentions, the
 integration of multiple sources of information, such as vision and text, improves model's explain ability and provides a richer contextual representation. Vision-language models (VLMs) have been

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>We use "pedestrian intention" and "pedestrian intent" interchangeably throughout this paper.



Figure 1: Overview of PedVLM Framework: The PedVLM framework consists of two main components: a vision encoder and a large language model. Initially, RGB images and optical flow data are processed through a CLIP-ViT-based vision encoder to create vision embeddings. These embeddings are then combined with tokenized text prompts in a T5-Large Language Model to analyze pedestrian characteristics and scene information. The combined embeddings enable the prediction of pedestrian intentions (crossing/not crossing) and provide insights into the reasoning behind these 075 predictions.

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widely adopted for this purpose, leveraging both vision and text modalities to extract comprehensive 079 environmental models (Cui et al., 2024). Recent advances in VLMs have found significant applications in the autonomous driving domain, particularly in understanding driving scenes and informing 081 decision-making processes (Xu et al., 2024). One of the initial works using VLMs for pedestrian 082 intention prediction employed GPT-4V to interpret pedestrian behavior (Huang et al., 2023). This 083 study utilized GPT-4V for zero-shot evaluation on widely adopted pedestrian intention datasets. 084 Although GPT-4V's zero shot evaluation offers insight into how VLMs enhance environmental un-085 derstanding, especially human-vehicle interactions, the lower results it achieves in comparison to state-of-the-art models show that this approach does not fully exploit the potential of VLMs for 087 task-specific applications.

088 Building on the insights gained from the limitations of the GPT-4V approach (Huang et al., 2023), in 089 this work, we develop PedVLM: Pedestrian Vision Language Model for Intentions Prediction. Ped-090 VLM, as illustrated in Figure 1, employs multiple modalities, including RGB images, optical flow, 091 and text, to extract meaningful information for explaining pedestrian intention in driving scenes. 092 Formally, PedVLM consists of two major components: the vision encoder and the language model. PedVLM utilizes a vision transformer (ViT) variant of CLIP (Radford et al., 2021) for the vision encoder to extract visual embeddings from both RGB images and optical flow data. These embeddings 094 are concatenated and fed into a gated-attention pooling layer to create a unified representation. This 095 visual embdding is then combined with text embeddings and passed to a language model to predict 096 pedestrian actions, such as crossing or not crossing (C/NC), enhancing model explainability. We 097 chose the text-to-text transfer transformer (T5) (Raffel et al., 2020) as the language model due to its 098 low computational and inference cost. A key contribution of our work is creating the PedPrompt dataset, which includes Question-Answer (QA) prompts for pedestrian intention prediction and ex-100 plainability. To build this dataset, we have employed the TRANS dataset (Guo et al., 2022), inte-101 grating publicly available pedestrian intention datasets: JAAD (Rasouli et al., 2017), PIE (Rasouli 102 et al., 2019), and TITAN (Malla et al., 2020). We have evaluated PedVLM's performance on our 103 PedPrompt dataset against various baselines, demonstrating superior efficacy in pedestrian intention 104 prediction-specific metrics and linguistic evaluation metrics. Additionally, we compare PedVLM 105 with state-of-the-art methods on the JAAD and PIE datasets. PedVLM outperforms GPT-4V by 44% in the F1-score and 32.6% in the AUC score on the JAAD dataset. It also shows comparable 106 performance on the PIE dataset against traditional deep-learning methods, as there are no existing 107 evaluation results using VLMs for PIE in pedestrian intention prediction.

108 The main contributions of our work are:

- 1. We propose an application specific novel framework, PedVLM, which integrates the sensory inputs with common sense knowledge embedded in the language model to create a contextual representation of the environment and enable joint prediction of pedestrian intentions and the provision of interpretable explanations.
- 2. Another key contribution of our work is the creation of PedPrompt, a novel dataset specifically designed for pedestrian intention prediction, which includes a comprehensive set of prompts to facilitate research in this area. We make PedPrompt publicly available to support future research and development in the field.
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## 2 RELATED WORK

## 121 2.1 PEDESTRIAN INTENT PREDICTION

Pedestrian intent prediction is an important task that enables safe interactions between automated 123 vehicles and pedestrians. The models for predicting pedestrian intent use as an input various features 124 such as pedestrian bounding boxes (Bouhsain et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2022; Osman et al., 2023; 125 Kotseruba et al., 2021), poses (Fang & López, 2018; Cadena et al., 2019; Lorenzo et al., 2020; Yang 126 et al., 2022; Osman et al., 2023), ego vehicle speed or attributes (Neogi et al., 2020; Kotseruba 127 et al., 2021), visual features (Yang et al., 2022; Sakhai et al., 2024). Many works use combination 128 of different features (Neogi et al., 2020; Piccoli et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2022; Azarmi et al., 2023; 129 Huang et al., 2023; Osman et al., 2023; Munir & Kucner, 2024; Azarmi et al., 2024b;a). In this 130 work, we use visual and text modalities, where the visual features include the RGB images from 131 the scene and optical flow images, and the text prompts to the LLM include information about the 132 pedestrians, the ego vehicle and the environment. Various neural network architectures have been 133 used, such as CNN (Kotseruba et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2022; Azarmi et al., 2023), Graph CNN 134 (Zhang et al., 2022; Cadena et al., 2019), GRU+Attention (Gesnouin et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2022) and Transformers (Lorenzo et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2023; Osman et al., 2023; Rasouli & Kotseruba, 135 2023). 136

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## 2.2 LARGE (VISUAL-)LANGUAGE MODELS FOR PEDESTRIAN INTENT PREDICTION

Large language models (LLMs) and large visual-language models (VLMs) have recently been used 140 in the context of predicting pedestrian behavior in driving situations. Recent work (Park et al., 2024) 141 focuses on detecting the pedestrians in the scene, by passing the images and descriptions of appear-142 ances of pedestrians to a VLM. A combination of knowledge graphs and LLMs has been used for 143 predicting pedestrian's intention to cross and providing explanation of the decision (Hussien et al., 144 2024). Zero-shot pedestrian intent prediction with GPT-4V (Huang et al., 2023) shows that the 145 models need to be fine-tuned to adapt to the task of predicting intent. (Gopalkrishnan et al., 2024) 146 address questions regarding driving scenes, including the intention of pedestrians to cross. Drawing 147 inspiration from previous work, we build upon their architecture by integrating optical flow images to capture the scene's motion dynamics. Instead of applying the model for broad scene understand-148 ing, we specifically fine-tune it for pedestrian intent prediction, thus enhancing its suitability and 149 performance for this particular task. 150

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## 3 PEDPROMPT DATASET

This section introduces "PedPrompt", our proposed dataset built upon the TRANS dataset (Guo et al., 2022), designed for pedestrian intention prediction using vision-language models. In the following subsections, we will detail the TRANS dataset's composition, explain our prompt generation approach, and outline the PedPrompt dataset statistics.

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159 3.1 TRANS DATASET OVERVIEW

161 The TRANS dataset is built upon three publicly adopted datasets, JAAD, PIE, and TITAN, used for analyzing the pedestrian "*stop*" and "*go*" movements. Since the existing JAAD, PIE, and TITAN



Figure 2: **Overview of PedPrompt Generation:** The generation pipeline involves extracting scene details, pedestrian attributes, actions, and bounding box information from the TRANS dataset. These elements are used to manually create prompts with specific instantiation parameters. A baseline prompt is then formulated in a question-answer template. To enhance linguistic diversity, a data augmentation process generates varied and enriched prompts for the driving scene.

datasets do not provide the annotations for explicitly studying the "stop" and "go" movements, 192 this limitation is catered by the TRANS dataset. The TRANS dataset is equipped with RGB videos 193 captured from uncalibrated monocular cameras on moving platforms, along with detailed pedestrian 194 localization and walking annotations. In the TRANS dataset, walking motion annotations are integrated with the original datasets, identifying state changes during transition periods. A pedestrian 196 is annotated as "go" when transitioning from standing to walking and as "stop" for the reverse. To 197 ensure meaningful samples, transitions are considered valid if they last at least 0.5 seconds, making the dataset more challenging by focusing on pedestrian intentions at critical moments. The TRANS 199 dataset categorizes pedestrians into "walk", "stand", "stop", and "go". To generate the PedPrompt 200 dataset, we classify "walk" and "go" as crossing actions, while "stand" and "stop" are considered non-crossing. It is important to note that in the original JAAD, PIE, and TITAN datasets, there is an 201 imbalance in the number of crossing and non-crossing samples, leading to inefficiencies in model 202 learning for pedestrian intention prediction. 203

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3.2 PROMPT GENERATION

Transforming raw data into linguistic prompts improves the explainability of pedestrian intentions. To achieve this, we first convert the raw data from the TRANS dataset into text prompts. In generating the PedPrompt dataset, we focus on formulating driving scenes, pedestrian attributes, and actions into QA prompts that clearly articulate pedestrian intentions. A detailed example of prompt generation is illustrated in Figure 2.

To initiate our prompt question generation process, we approach scene analysis from two perspectives: scene information and pedestrian movement within the scene. Formally, to represent pedestrian movement, we extract bounding box information ( $\mathcal{B}_t$ ) from past observations over a specified horizon ( $\mathcal{T}_p$ ), represented as ( $\mathcal{B}_t = (x_t, y_t, w_t, h_t)|t = 1, 2, ..., \mathcal{T}_p$ ), where  $(x_t, y_t)$  represent the center coordinates, and  $w_t$  and  $h_t$  represent the width and height of the pedestrian in the *t*-th image frame, respectively. During the conversion of  $\mathcal{B}_t$ , all float-type coordinate values are transformed into text strings with integer representation for consistency and clarity in the generated prompts. To transform the scene information into linguistic prompts, we include crosswalk  $\langle C \rangle$ , motion direction ( $\langle MD \rangle$ ), number of lanes ( $\langle L \rangle$ ), signalized intersection ( $\langle SI \rangle$ ), traffic direction ( $\langle TD \rangle$ ), traffic signals ( $\langle TS \rangle$ ), road type ( $\langle RT \rangle$ ) and ego vehicle state ( $\langle Ego \rangle$ ) as instantiation parameters.

222 Another crucial aspect of our prompt question generation process is modeling pedestrian behavior. 223 We incorporate pedestrian attributes and actions into our prompts. For attributes, we explore age 224  $(\langle Age \rangle)$ , gender  $(\langle G \rangle)$ , and group size  $(\langle GS \rangle)$  as instantiation parameters. Similarly, 225 we have employed hand gestures ( $\langle HG \rangle$ ), gaze direction ( $\langle GD \rangle$ ), and nodding ( $\langle N \rangle$ ) 226 parameters to explain the pedestrian actions. In addition to that, in our prompts template generation, we have also included the pedestrian action in terms of crossing and not crossing represented as 227  $(\langle PedR \rangle)$ . Finally, we explicitly add the objective in the question prompts template by asking 228 whether a pedestrian will cross the road. This objective guides the overall analysis and informs the 229 decision-making processes of the proposed PedVLM method. 230

Since our PedPrompt follows a QA template for prompt generation, our approach to devising answer
prompts involves briefly analyzing the scene. This is followed by identifying the pedestrian action
as a meta-action, indicating whether they are crossing or not. To enhance the diversity of linguistic
prompts, we have augmented the initial prompt set by generating various variants. This is achieved
by utilizing instantiation parameters for scene information and pedestrian attributes.

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#### 3.3 PEDPROMPT DATASET STATISTICS

PedPrompt includes a total of 48,696 prompts in QA format. An overview of the PedPrompt for 241 both questions and answers is illustrated through the word cloud, representing the most frequent 242 terms, as illustrated in Figure 3. From the word cloud of the PedPrompt for both question Fig-243 ure 3(a) and answer Figure 3(b), a large number of words that describe the PedPrompt dataset are 244 "pedestrian" and "crossing," along with the driving scenario information. PedPrompt dataset statis-245 tics reveal a balanced distribution between "crossing" and "not crossing" instances, as shown in the 246 Figure 3(c). Additionally, the pie chart from Figure 3(d) highlights the distribution of context clues, 247 with prediction (32.6%), pedestrian actions (25.3%), perception (24.2%), and scene information 248 (17.8%) contributing to the overall analysis. These insights underscore the comprehensive nature of 249 the dataset, capturing diverse aspects of pedestrian behavior and scene dynamics to enhance model 250 training and evaluation.



Figure 3: **PedPrompt Data Statistics:** (a) and (b) illustrate the word cloud of most frequent words both in question (Q) and answer (A) respectively. The distrubution of "crossing" and "not crossing" is shown in (c). depicts the distribution of contextual factors influencing pedestrian predictions.

# <sup>270</sup> 4 METHOD

# 4.1 PROBLEM FORMULATION273

274 Given a video sequence  $\mathcal{V}$  representing an urban scenario, we define the sequence of observed video frames as  $\mathcal{V} = f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_t$ , where t represents discrete time steps corresponding to individual 275 image frames  $f_t$ . Our approach aims to estimate the probability of a pedestrian's intention to cross 276 the street, represented as  $I \in [0, 1]$ . This prediction leverages multimodal inputs observed over a 277 prior window of  $(\mathcal{T}_p)$  time steps, including RGB images  $(I_{img})$ , optical flow images  $(I_{of})$ , and text 278 prompts  $(T_{ped})$  that encode both past trajectory and contextual information. The text prompts  $T_{ped}$ 279 provide the model with the pedestrian's past trajectory, described by a sequence of bounding boxes 280  $(\mathcal{B}_t)$ . In addition, the text prompts incorporate pedestrian demographic attributes (such as age and 281 gender) and behavioral cues (such as looking, nodding, gesturing, and other non-verbal actions). 282 Scene information-including motion direction, number of lanes, traffic signs, pedestrian crossings, 283 road types, and traffic signals—is also integrated to provide a comprehensive context for accurately 284 predicting the pedestrian's crossing intention.

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# 4.2 MODEL ARCHITECTURE287

PedVLM as illustrated in Figure 1, encompasses vision and language models for the prediction of pedestrian intentions. Formally, PedVLM's framework is built upon the text-to-text transfer transformer (T5) language model (Raffel et al., 2020), augmented with a vision encoder network to process visual information. The framework integrates RGB images  $(I_{img})$  and optical flow  $(I_{of})$  as visual modalities, while incorporating textual prompts  $(T_{ped})$  derived from contextual features and past pedestrian trajectories. These multimodal inputs are utilized to enhance the model's ability to understand and predict pedestrian behaviors effectively.

To obtain a contextual representation of the driving scene that enables pedestrian intention prediction and provides explainability for those predictions, the embeddings from the vision encoder and language model must be combined. In this study, we adopt the CLIP encoder (Radford et al., 2021) to obtain visual representation. While several versions of the CLIP architecture have been proposed in the literature, we focus on the variant that incorporates a Vision Transformer (ViT) (Alexey, 2020) as the backbone (Gandelsman et al., 2023).

A CLIP encoder is applied to the input RGB image  $I_{imq} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3}$  to obtain d-dimensional 301 representation, denoted as  $\text{CLIP}(I_{img})$ . The CLIP image representation is obtained by linearly 302 projecting this output into a d'-dimensional latent space in the joint vision-and-language space. 303 Formally, let  $P_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d' \times d}$  be the projection matrix. The CLIP image embedding is given by,  $M_{\text{img}} =$ 304  $P_i \cdot \text{CLIP}(I_{img})$ . Similarly, the optical flow input  $I_{of} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 1}$  is processed using the same CLIP 305 architecture, yielding the optical flow embedding,  $M_{of} = P_{of} \cdot \text{CLIP}(I_{of})$ . The vision embedding 306 can be represented by  $E = [M_{img}, M_{of}]$ . The parameters of both the CLIP and the projection matrix 307 P are learned during training. Given the individual vision embedding  $E_i$ , gated pooling attention is 308 used as described in (Wu et al., 2024), which learns a single vision embedding as:

$$\mathcal{E}_v = \sum_{i=1}^N \beta_i E_i \tag{1}$$

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Here, 
$$\beta_i$$
 are the weight of *i*th embedding such that  $\sum_{i=1}^{N} \beta_i = 1$ , which calculated by:

$$\beta_{i} = \frac{\exp\left(\alpha^{T}\left(\tanh\left(ZE_{i}^{T}\right) \otimes \operatorname{sigm}\left(HE_{i}^{T}\right)\right)\right)}{\sum_{j=1}^{N}\exp\left(\alpha^{T}\left(\tanh\left(ZE_{j}^{T}\right) \otimes \operatorname{sigm}\left(HE_{j}^{T}\right)\right)\right)}$$
(2)

Where,  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{K}$  is a weight vector,  $Z \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times M}$  and  $H \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times M}$  are weight matrices, M = (d'd)is the dimensionality of the embedding and K is a hyperparameter set to 128.

Given the visual embedding ( $\mathcal{E}_v$ ) from gated attention pooling, PedVLM employs a text-to-text transfer transformer (T5) model to integrate visual and linguistic elements seamlessly. The choice of the T5 model is based on two key factors: its lightweight architecture, with fewer than a billion parameters, which reduces computational and inference costs, and its competitive performance across various natural language processing (NLP) tasks (in particular, it has been successfully used 324 for question-answering in autonomous driving (Gopalkrishnan et al., 2024)). The T5 model uti-325 lizes a transformer architecture with an encoder-decoder structure to process input and output text 326 sequences. It employs a stack of transformer layers in both components, incorporating multi-head 327 self-attention and positional encoding to capture hierarchical representations and long-range depen-328 dencies. Formally, text prompts  $(T_{ped})$  in the QA template are tokenized using the T5 tokenizer, which effectively converts them into text embeddings ( $\mathcal{E}_t$ ). The visual embedding  $\mathcal{E}_v \in \mathbb{R}^{d' \times d}$  is 330 projected to match the textual embedding ( $\mathcal{E}_t$ ), allowing them to be concatenated. This concatenation generates enhanced feature maps that contextually integrate information from both modalities. 331 332 These integrated feature maps are then used to train the T5 language model.

#### 4.3 Loss Function

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335 In our T5 model, the loss function is based on a standard cross-entropy loss for sequence-to-sequence 336 tasks, but we introduce an additional pedestrian intention loss to better handle the binary classification of pedestrian crossing intentions. Specifically, we observed that language models, when tasked with predicting whether a pedestrian is crossing or not crossing, may struggle to distinguish be-339 tween these two similar linguistic states, as identified in our initial experiments. To mitigate this 340 issue, we incorporated a pedestrian intention loss, defined using the Binary Cross Entropy (BCE) loss function. This secondary loss improves the model's sensitivity to binary outcomes, particularly 342 the pedestrian's intent to cross or not cross the street. The BCE loss function is calculated as: 343

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{int}} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (I_i \log(\hat{I}_i) + (1 - I_i) \log(1 - \hat{I}_i))$$
(3)

where I is the ground truth label (1 for crossing, 0 for not crossing) and  $\hat{I}_i$  is the predicted probability. The total loss of our model is defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{total}} = (1 - \lambda) \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{T5}} + \lambda \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{int}}, \tag{4}$$

Where  $\mathcal{L}_{T5}$  is the T5 loss defined in (Raffel et al., 2020), and  $\lambda$  weights the balance of the contributions of the T5 loss and the pedestrian intention loss. This dual-loss setup ensures that the model optimizes both the sequence generation and the accuracy of pedestrian intent prediction, crucial for improving decision-making in vision-language tasks.

#### 5 **EXPERIMENTATION & RESULTS**

358 5.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

**Implementation Details:** The proposed PedVLM framework is trained on a GPU server using the 360 PyTorch library, enabling end-to-end training by initializing the network with pre-trained weights 361 from the T5 model and CLIP encoder. The input images are resized to dimensions [240, 420], 362 without additional pre-processing or filtering applied. Optical flow is computed using the PyTorch-363 based MMFlow toolkit (Contributors, 2021), which incorporates various state-of-the-art techniques. 364 Through extensive experimentation, we selected the Recurrent All Pairs Field Transforms for Optical Flow (RAFT) (Teed & Deng, 2020) method due to its superior performance in capturing detailed 366 motion patterns. The optical flow is computed between consecutive image frames and is resized 367 similarly to dimensions of [240, 420], without further pre-processing. We calculated optical flow 368 for only JAAD (Kotseruba et al., 2016) and PIE (Rasouli et al., 2019) images, TITAN (Malla et al., 2020) already provides the optical flow images. Training optimization is performed using the Adam 369 optimizer, following a learning rate schedule defined as  $l_r = l_r^{int} \times (\frac{1-epoch}{max-epoch})^p$ , where the initial 370 371 learning rate  $l_r^{int}$  is set to 0.0001. Furthermore, the epsilon and weight decay parameters are config-372 ured as  $1^{-9}$  and  $1^{-4}$ , respectively, with the power p set to 0.9 during training. The model is trained 373 for 6 epochs with a batch size of 15.

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375 **Evaluation Details:** The PedPrompt dataset is utilized to train the PedVLM framework, with the data divided into training, validation, and test sets, following the standard split provided by the 376 TRANS dataset. The model is trained on the training set, with data augmentation applied through 377 variations in text prompts to enhance diversity. Evaluation is conducted on the test set, and additional

evaluations are performed on the JAAD and PIE test datasets without specifically training on their respective training sets. For consistency, we follow the format used in the PedPrompt dataset to generate text prompts for the JAAD and PIE datasets.



(b)

Figure 4: Example from the data: scene image with a pedestrian bounding box; prompt to the model, containing pedestrian and environment information; predicted and expected answer from the model.

#### 5.2 RESULTS

In our experimental evaluation, we assess PedVLM's performance in explaining pedestrian inter-actions from two distinct perspectives. Firstly, we employ pedestrian intention prediction metrics, including F1-score, Area under the curve (AUC), precision, and recall, to evaluate the model's accuracy in predicting pedestrian behavior. Secondly, we utilize linguistic evaluation metrics to assess the quality of the generated explanations. These metrics include BLEU-4, which measures the overlap of 4-grams between the generated and reference texts (Papineni et al., 2002); METEOR, which eval-uates the alignment between the output and reference texts (Banerjee & Lavie, 2005); ROUGE-L, which determines sentence similarity by identifying the longest common subsequence (Lin, 2004); and CIDEr, which accounts for lexical and semantic similarity between the generated and reference texts (Vedantam et al., 2015). This comprehensive evaluation approach allows us to assess both the predictive accuracy of PedVLM and the linguistic quality of its generated explanations, providing a holistic view of the model's performance in interpreting and describing pedestrian interactions. 

In the baseline methods, we employ different variants of image encoder, to quantitatively assess the vision encoder's effectiveness. We experiment with CLIP, ViT, and ResNet50 as a vision encoder network for both RGB image and optical flow data to extract the vision embeddings ( $\mathcal{E}_v$ ). Addi-tionally, we experiment with two variants of the T5 language model: T5-base and T5-large. Table 1 illustrates the quantitative results of the baseline method on pedestrian intention evaluation metrics, including F1-score, AUC, precision, and recall. Similarly, the performance of baseline methods on the linguistic evaluation is also shown in Table 1. From our experimental results, the PedVLM baseline method with T5-base and CLIP as vision encoder highlights better performance in both pedestrian intention-specific and also on linguistic evaluation metrics. Specifically, T5-base-CLIP baseline method achieves an F1-score of 0.6733, an AUC score of 0.6586, a precision score of 0.6450, and a recall of 0.7035. Although the T5-base-CLIP method has a lower precision score in contrast to the T5-large-ViT baseline, the most critical metrics for pedestrian intention prediction

Models	Vision Encoder	Inten	tion Pred	liction Evalu	ation	Linguistic Evaluation					
		F1	AUC	Precision	Recall	BLEU-4	METEOR	ROUGE-L	CIDEr		
T5-Base	ResNet50	0.6101	0.6290	0.6432	0.5800	91.12	64.10	92.30	9.727		
T5-Base	ViT	0.6281	0.5806	0.5642	0.5642	92.42	63.54	94.15	9.74		
T5-Base	CLIP	0.6733	0.6586	0.6450	0.7035	98.30	71.70	99.40	9.80		
T5-Large	ResNet50	0.6448	0.6196	0.6047	0.6906	85.40	58.62	81.30	8.57		
T5-Large	ViT	0.4662	0.6020	0.7089	0.3473	86.63	60.01	87.31	9.59		
T5-Large	CLIP	0.6006	0.6236	0.6396	0.5660	87.97	61.31	88.23	9.63		

Table 1: Performance Comparison of Models in Intention Prediction and Linguistic Evaluation

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are the F1-score and AUC. In these evaluation metrics, the T5-large-ViT does not outperform the 445 T5-base-CLIP. These experimental findings motivate us to select T5-base-CLIP as the proposed so-446 lution for PedVLM. Furthermore, we have also evaluated the baseline methods in terms of linguistic 447 evaluation metrics as illustrated in Table 1. In terms of linguistic evaluation, the only difference 448 between the "crossing" and "not crossing" predictions is the word "not." This minimal difference 449 explains why our baseline achieves higher scores in BLEU-4, METEOR, ROUGE-L, and CIDEr 450 metrics. Specifically, our T5-base-CLIP baseline outperforms the other baselines, achieving scores 451 of 98.30 for BLEU-4, 71.70 for METEOR, 99.40 for ROUGE-L, and 9.80 for CIDEr. In addition to quantitative results, Figure 4 illustrates the qualitative results of T5-base-CLIP on PedPrompt 452 dataset (More qualitative results in Appendix A). 453

454 In addition to comparing baseline methods, we evaluate the performance of PedVLM with other 455 state-of-the-art methods. For a fair comparison with the state-of-the-art method, we have opted to 456 use JAAD and PIE datasets, focusing solely on pedestrian intention-specific evaluation metrics. Ped-457 VLM demonstrates better performance in contrast to state-of-the-art methods on the JAAD dataset, as illustrated in Table 2. Since our PedVLM addresses the problem of pedestrian intention using 458 vision-language models, we compare PedVLM with GPT-4V (Huang et al., 2023), which also em-459 ploys this approach, but makes a zero-shot prediction. PedVLM outperforms GPT-4V by 44% in the 460 F1-score and 32.6% in the AUC score, and it also achieves higher precision and recall. Additionally, 461 we also compare the PedVLM performance on the JAAD dataset with the other traditional state-of-462 the-art pedestrian intention prediction methods as detailed in Table 2. We also assess PedVLM's 463 performance using the PIE dataset. To our knowledge, no vision-language model has previously 464 utilized the PIE dataset for evaluation. Therefore, we compare PedVLM with traditional pedestrian 465 intention prediction methods. PedVLM's performance on the PIE dataset is suboptimal compared 466 to other state-of-the-art algorithms. This is attributed to the dataset's characteristics, which include 467 sequences of pedestrians that are often too distant to be clearly visible in the image, as well as fre-468 quent occlusions (see Appendix for examples). Conversely, the JAAD dataset does not contain such sequences. This disparity in performance suggests that PedVLM's accuracy is contingent upon con-469 textual features in the images, despite the provision of past trajectory information in the text prompt. 470 Notably, pedestrians at a distance from the ego vehicle pose a challenge for analysis, a limitation 471 that is also applicable to human observers. This highlights the importance of considering contextual 472 factors in the development of pedestrian intention prediction models. 473

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Table 2: Comparison of our method against several baseline models on JAAD and PIE datasets.

0	Models	Model variants		Input	JAAD Dataset PIE Datase				Dataset	t		
	Models	would variants	Frames	Extra info	F1	AUC	Precision	Recall	F1	AUC	Precision	Recall
	PCPA	3D CNN+RNN+Attention	16	x	0.71	0.5	-	-	0.77	0.86	-	-
	TrouSPI-Ne	GRU+Attention	16	х	0.76	0.56	0.66	0.91	0.8	0.88	0.73	0.89
	IntFormer	Transformer	16	х	0.69	0.54	-	-	0.81	0.92	-	-
	ST CrossingPose	Graph CNN	16	х	0.74	0.56	0.66	0.83	-	-	-	-
	FFSTP	GRU+Attention	16	Seg	0.74	0.54	0.65	0.85	-	-	-	-
	Pedestrian Graph +	Graph CNN+Attention	32	Seg,P3D	0.76	0.7	0.77	0.75	0.81	0.9	0.83	0.79
	PIT-Block(a)	Transformer	16	x	0.81	0.65	0.71	0.93	0.82	0.9	0.85	0.79
	PIT-Block(d)	Transformer	16	х	0.76	0.69	0.79	0.74	0.81	0.91	0.82	0.8
	GPT-4V	Transformer	10	text prompt	0.65	0.61	0.82	0.54	-	-	-	-
	GPT-4V Skip	Transformer	10	text prompt	0.64	0.59	0.81	0.53	-	-	-	-
	PedVLM (Ours)	CLIP+ T5-base	5	Optical Flow + text prompt	0.9363	0.8094	0.8920	0.9853	0.7358	0.51718	0.6512	0.8457

#### 486 5.2.1 ABLATION STUDY 487

488 We choose as our basic setup T5-Base model with CLIP vision encoder,  $\lambda = 0.5$  and using all data modalities (RGB images, optical flow and text prompts) as input. We explore what are the effects of 489 using different type of visual features and what is the importance of the two losses we implement. 490 In all ablation experiments, we train the models on the PedPrompt training set and show the results 491 on the PedPrompt test set. 492

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Effect of using different visual features: We evaluate how each vision modality, RGB images 494 and optical flow contribute for solving the task of pedestrian intent prediction. For this ablation, 495 we use the base setup, i.e. T5-Base, CLIP vision encoder,  $\lambda = 0.5$ . We conduct an ablation 496 test with the following modalities for the input: (1) All data modalities - RGB images, optical 497 flow and text prompt containing the scene information (RGB+OF+Text); (2) RGB images and text 498 prompt, without optical flow (RGB+Text); (3) Optical flow and text prompt, without RGB images 499 (OF+Text). The results from the comparison in Figure 5(a) show that combining both the RGB images and optical flow are beneficial for predicting the pedestrian intention for crossing. 501



Figure 5: Ablation on the effect of using visual features (left) and  $\lambda$  (right), evaluated on the Ped-Prompt test set.

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515 Effect of  $\lambda$  for balancing the two loss functions: We evaluate the contribution of the sec-516 ondary loss functions for training on the pedestrian intent prediction task. We experiment with 517  $\lambda \in [0.0, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1]$ , where  $\lambda$  corresponds to the weight of the intent classification loss function  $\mathcal{L}_{int}$ , i.e. for  $\lambda = 0$  only the text generation loss is updated. We use the base setup, i.e. T5-Base 518 with CLIP vision encoder, and all data modalities (RGB+OF+Text) and we only vary the value of 519  $\lambda$ . The results, shown in Figure 5(b), indicate that introducing a task-specific loss function is benefi-520 cial, and using equal weight to both losses performs best. However, using only the task-specific loss 521 function and not optimizing the text generation capabilities of the model, fails to correctly predict 522 the intention of crossing. 523

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#### 6 CONCLUSION

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527 In this work, we introduce PedVLM, a novel task-specific vision-language model designed to pre-528 dict pedestrian intentions and provide interpretable explanations for those predictions. PedVLM 529 leverages a CLIP-based vision encoder and a T5-based language model to learn a rich feature rep-530 resentation from multimodal data, including RGB images, optical flow, and text. Furthermore, we 531 release the PedPrompt dataset, a comprehensive collection of QA prompts specifically designed for pedestrian intention prediction. Our experimental results demonstrate that PedVLM outper-532 forms state-of-the-art methods in both predicting pedestrian intentions and providing explanations 533 for those predictions. 534

535 While our work represents a significant advancement in the development of vision-language models 536 for pedestrian intention prediction, we believe that there are opportunities for further improvement. 537 Specifically, integrating vision-language models with other modalities, such as lidar and radar, could enhance the accuracy and robustness of pedestrian intention prediction. Additionally, the PedVLM 538 and PedPrompt framework can be extended to other applications, including pedestrian trajectory prediction and human-vehicle interaction analysis, offering a promising direction for future research.

## 5407REPRODUCIBILITYSTATEMENT5417

To ensure the reproducibility of our work, we have taken several measures, which are detailed
throughout the paper. The full implementation of our proposed framework, including the PedVLM model, data preprocessing, training scripts, and evaluation protocols, will be made available
Github. For dataset-related reproducibility, we provide a comprehensive description of the PedPrompt dataset and a detailed explanation of how we processed and evaluated the JAAD and PIE
datasets. Additionally, all hyperparameters, model configurations, and training details are described
in Section 5 to facilitate replication of our results.

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8 CODE OF ETHICS

In this research, no human subjects or personal data were involved. All experiments were conducted
 using publicly available datasets. We strictly adhered to ethical guidelines and best practices in
 machine learning research, ensuring compliance with relevant standards in data privacy, security, and
 fairness. We prioritized the ethical use of resources and maintained transparency and reproducibility
 throughout the research process.

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## A APPENDICES

A.1 EXAMPLES FOR PROMPTS

We show examples from the PedPrompt instances, where we have a scene image with a pedestrian marked with a bounding box, as well as the prompt to the model, the expected response and the output from the model as illustrated in Figure 6.

737 738 A.2 FAILURE CASES FROM THE PIE DATASET

739 Although our model shows good results on JAAD, it performs poorly on the PIE dataset (see Ta-740 ble 2). We examined examples from both datasets and empirically noticed that that PIE contains 741 many examples of predictions for pedestrians who are far from the ego vehicle, are hidden behind 742 obstacles and it is difficult even for a human to figure out their crossing intention (Figure 7, Figure 8). 743 This disparity in performance suggests that PedVLM's accuracy is contingent upon contextual features in the images, despite the provision of past trajectory information in the text prompt. Notably, 744 pedestrians at a distance from the ego vehicle pose a challenge for analysis, a limitation that is also 745 applicable to human observers. This highlights the importance of considering contextual factors in 746 the development of pedestrian intention prediction models 747

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- A.3 EXAMPLES FROM THE JAAD DATASET

From qualitative evaluation, we noticed that the JAAD dataset contains more examples where the initial frame for one pedestrian is clear also for a human - either the pedestrians are close to the ego vehicle, or, if they are far from it, they are usually not hidden by another object. We show several examples where the model correctly predicts "crossing" (Figure 9) or "not crossing" (Figure 10).



Figure 6: Examples from the PedPrompt dataset: scenes with pedestrian bounding box, prompt to the LLM, expected response and model output.

Ħ 1.1 [[749, 729, 13, 30], [749, 729, 13, 30], [749, 729, 13, 30], [749, 729, 13, 30], [748, 729, 13, 31]] fic Flow: two\_ -Mie : Will the pe cross the not-l ng. Decis HE PED Meta IS C [[775, 739, 37, 121], [787, 740, 37, 121], [800, 740, 38, 121], [812, 741, 39, 122], [826, 742, 40, 122]] -Pec ing, kond Gesture: no. Look: not-looking. -Environment Info: -Intersection: four-way intersection. Lone Count: F 

Figure 7: Failure case from the PIE dataset, where the model incorrectly predicts "crossing" when the pedestrian is hardly visible (top), and the prediction is correct when the pedestrian is close to the ego vehicle (bottom).



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Figure 8: Failure case from the PIE dataset, where the model incorrectly predicts "not crossing" when the pedestrian is far (top), and the prediction is correct when the pedestrian is close to the ego vehicle (bottom).

ry:- [[1654, 617, 79, 267], [1665, 613, 82, 272], [1676, 609, 85, 276], [1687, 606, 88, 281], [1698, 602, 91, 286]] -





1024 the first frame for a given pedestrian.