OC-CLIP : Object-centric Binding in Contrastive Language-Image Pretraining

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Abstract

Recent advancements in vision-language models (VLMs) have been driven by 1 contrastive models like CLIP [39], which learn to associate visual information with 2 their corresponding text descriptions. However, these models have limitations in 3 4 understanding complex compositional scenes involving multiple objects and their 5 spatial relationships. To address these challenges, we propose a novel approach that 6 diverges from traditional data-centric methods of enhancing model performance with hard negatives examples. Our work instead focuses on integrating sufficient 7 inductive biases into pre-trained CLIP-like models to improve their compositional 8 understanding without using additional data annotations. We introduce a binding 9 10 module that connects a scene graph of the text with an induced graph-like represen-11 tation of the image, facilitating a structured similarity assessment. We also leverage relationships as text-conditioned visual constraints, thereby capturing the intricate 12 interactions between objects and their contextual relationships more effectively. 13 Our resulting model (OC-CLIP) not only enhances the performance of CLIP in 14 multi-object compositional understanding but also paves the way for more accurate 15 16 and efficient image-text matching in complex scenes.

17 **1 Introduction**

Recent advancements in multi-modal representation learning have primarily been enabled by the 18 introduction of CLIP [39]. CLIP learns aligned image-text representations from Internet-scale data. 19 Despite its success, CLIP exhibits limitations in understanding complex scenes composed of multiple 20 objects [23, 47, 11, 36]. For instance, while capable of recognizing individual objects, CLIP struggles 21 with interpreting spatial relationships among objects in the scene [] (e.g., "the cat is to the left of the 22 mat" vs. "the cat is to the right of the mat") and adequately associating objects with their corresponding 23 attributes (e.g., "a red square and a blue circle" vs. "a blue square and a red circle"). The process 24 of acquiring this compositional understanding of the world is known as the *binding problem* in the 25 literature, and may be decomposed into segregation, representation, and composition problems [17]. 26

Efforts to improve the compositional understanding of CLIP-like models have largely relied on leveraging *hard negative examples*, either in the text space [22, 48, 54, 11, 36] – to improve sensitivity to the order of words and subtle textual differences – or the image space [3, 25, 53] – to improve sensitivity to subtle visual differences. Although these methods have somewhat improved CLIP-like models' performance on scene compositionality benchmarks [37, 55, 48, 18], they do not explicitly address the binding problem as they focus mainly on enhancing the model's representation capabilities with additional data, hindering their generalization to unseen scene compositions.

Yet, the object-centric representation learning literature [13, 16, 31, 46, 43] has long focused on developing methods to address the segregation and representation problems as a way to facilitate the

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subsequent compositional processing of images. This has led to the development of inductive biases to segregate different objects in a scene into distinct representational *slots*, which have been shown to

naturally scale to an increasing number of visual objects and relations [31, 44, 34, 12].

In this paper, we focus on enhancing the compositional scene understanding of CLIP-like models 39 by leveraging the advances from object-centric representation learning. In particular, we propose 40 to endow CLIP-based vision-language architectures with segregation, representation and composition 41 capabilities. Our core idea is to adapt the slot-centric representation paradigm for CLIP architectures 42 and dynamically align each representational slot with the object entities mentioned in the text. To 43 do so, we design a binding module that connects a scene graph, derived from the textual description, 44 with a slot-structured image representation. We utilize the scene graph's relationships as constraints 45 to effectively capture the complex interactions among the visual entities represented as slots. Our 46 enhanced model, which we refer to as Object-Centric CLIP (OC-CLIP), not only boosts CLIP's 47 performance in understanding multi-object compositional scenes but also improves the accuracy 48 and efficiency of image-text matching in complex and highly compositional visual scenarios. 49

50 2 OC-CLIP

Our goal is to enhance CLIP-based architectures with segregation and composition capabilities. Our 51 method starts by extracting representations of distinct objects and relationships in a textual description, 52 as well as representations of patches in an image. Next, a binding module matches the text represen-53 tation of objects to the relevant image patches, producing a slot-centric representation of the image. 54 Finally, a structured similarity score compares the slot-centric representation with the textual represen-55 tations of different objects, and leverages the extracted relationships as constraints applied to the visual 56 slots. Our key contributions lie in the design of the binding module and the proposal of the structured 57 similarity score, which we detail below. Figure 1 presents an overview of the proposed approach. 58

Notation. We denote as \mathbf{x} an image of shape $\mathbb{R}^{h \times w \times 3}$ and as $\bar{\mathbf{x}} = [\bar{\mathbf{x}}^1, ..., \bar{\mathbf{x}}^N] = E_{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$ 59 its patch-level encoding, where E_{ϕ} is an image encoder – typically a pre-trained ViT [] – N is 60 the number of patches and d the dimensionality of the patch embeddings. We denote as t the text 61 description, or caption, associated with **x**. We extract a scene graph, \mathcal{G} from t by leveraging an LLM-based parsing approach. \mathcal{G} is composed of a set of nodes $\mathcal{N} = \{N^1, ..., N^M\}$ representing the M objects in t and of a set of edges $\mathcal{E} = \{(\mathbf{r}^1, s^1, o^1), ..., (\mathbf{r}^P, s^P, o^P)\}$ representing the P62 63 64 relationships in t. Each relationship is represented by a tuple (\mathbf{r}, s, o) , where **r** is the embedding 65 of the predicate, s the subject and o the object of the relationship. For example, the scene graph of "A 66 red apple to the left of a blue car" will be represented with the set of nodes {"red apple", "blue car"} 67 and the set of edges {("to the left of", "red apple", "blue car")}. In practice, we represent N as a 68 matrix of node features N, where each row contains the embedding of a node in the graph. Moreover, 69 we represent each s^i and o^i in the relationship tuples as indices referencing the nodes (rows) in N. 70

71 Binding Module Our first contribution resides in the binding module. The idea is that when 72 comparing the content of a caption and an image we do not want the features of different objects 73 to interfere with each other but rather keep them separate at a representational level. The role of 74 the binding module is thus to extract a slot-centric representation of an image where the content 75 of the slots are pushed to represent the nodes of the associated scene graph.

To do so, we implement the binding module using a *inverted* cross-attention layer [45], where the 76 queries are the nodes from our scene graph and the keys and values are the image patches. We normal-77 78 ize the attention coefficients over the queries' dimension in order to introduce a competition between queries to explain different parts of the visual input. We follow common practice and set the attention's 79 softmax temperature to \sqrt{D} , with D being the dimensionality of the dot-product operation. Applying 80 the softmax along the queries' dimension pushes all the candidate keys to be softly matched to at least 81 one query. However, captions mostly describe specific parts of the image, and rarely capture all the vi-82 sual information. Since we want only the relevant visual information to be captured by the queries, we 83 add a set of default query tokens, stored in a matrix $\mathbf{Q}_{default}$, which participate in the competitive atten-84 tion mechanism – with the goal of absorbing the visual information not captured in the caption. These 85 default query tokens are dropped in the subsequent computation steps of our model (akin to registers 86 in ViT backbones [10]). We find the default query tokens crucial to stabilize the training our model. 87

88 The binding module computations are formalized as follows:

$$\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{W}_{q} \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{W}_{k} \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{W}_{v} \mathbf{x}$$
(1)
$$\mathbf{Q}' = [\mathbf{Q}; \mathbf{Q}_{default}],$$

Attention $(\mathbf{Q}', \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{V}) = \operatorname{softmax} \left(\frac{\mathbf{Q}' \cdot \mathbf{K}^{T}}{\sqrt{D}}, \operatorname{dim='queries'} \right) \cdot \mathbf{V},$
$$\mathbf{S}, \mathbf{S}_{default} = \operatorname{Attention}(\mathbf{Q}', \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{V}).$$
(2)

<1 \

Here, \mathbf{W}_q , \mathbf{W}_k , and \mathbf{W}_v are the linear projection weight matrices for the queries, keys, and values, respectively, **S** are the visual slots, $\mathbf{S}_{default}$ are the visual slots from default query tokens, which are discarded for subsequent steps, and [.] denotes the concatenation operation.

XX7 NT XX7 NT XX7 -

Thus, the output of this binding module are the visual slots **S**. Intuitively, these slots are pushed to represent the visual objects, or entities, that correspond to the nodes of the scene graph. Their relief the sector binding is driven by the structured similarity that we detail in the next section

⁹⁴ object-centric learning is driven by the structured similarity that we detail in the next section.

Structured similarity score Our second contribution resides in the introduction of a structured 95 similarity score, whose goal is to promote the constraints imposed by the scene graph on the learnable 96 visual slots. Our proposed structured similarity score is composed of an object scoring function 97 and a relationship scoring function. The object scoring function assesses the presence of each 98 node in the scene graph (objects present in the caption). We model this function as the sum of the 99 cosine similarity between each textual node representation N^i and its assigned visual slot S^i . The 100 relationship scoring function encourages the relational constraints imposed by each edge in the scene 101 graph and is defined as a learnable function f_{ϕ} of the relationship embedding \mathbf{r}^{i} , and the visual slot 102 representations \mathbf{S}^{s^i} and \mathbf{S}^{o^i} corresponding to the subject and object of the relationship, respectively. We derive the overall structured similarity score over the visual slots \mathbf{S} from an image \mathbf{x} and a graph 103 104 $\mathcal{G} = (\{N^i\}_{i=1..M}, \{(\mathbf{r}^i, s^i, o^i)\}_{i=1..P})$ such that: 105

$$S(\mathbf{x},\mathcal{G}) = \frac{\alpha \sum_{i=1..M} \operatorname{cosine}(\mathbf{N}^{i}, \mathbf{S}^{i}) + \beta \sum_{i=1..P} f_{\phi}(\mathbf{r}^{i}, \mathbf{S}^{s^{i}}, \mathbf{S}^{o^{i}})}{\alpha M + \beta P},$$
(3)

where α and β are parameters controlling the strength of each score. *M* and *P* are the number of nodes and relationships in the scene graph \mathcal{G} , respectively.

108 We define f_{ϕ} as follows:

$$f_{\phi}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{S}^{s}, \mathbf{S}^{o}) = \operatorname{cosine}\left(\mathbf{r}, f_{s}([\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{S}^{s}]) + f_{o}([\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{S}^{o}])\right),$$
(4)

where [.] denotes the concatenation of two vectors and f_s and f_o are MLPs that reduce the dimensionality of their inputs. Note that we model the relationship scoring function so that it keeps the

same scale as the object scoring function and can take the order of the relationship into account.

112 **Training** The model is trained using the following loss:

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{itc} + \mathcal{L}_{rel}.$$
(5)

¹¹³ \mathcal{L}_{itc} is the image-text contrastive loss defined to minimize the distance between image and scene ¹¹⁴ graph representations from paired text-image data while maximizing the distance between image and ¹¹⁵ scene graph representations from unpaired text-image data as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{itc} = -\sum_{i=1}^{B} \left(\log \frac{\exp^{S(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathcal{G}_i)}}{\sum_{j=1}^{B} \exp^{S(\mathbf{x}_j, \mathcal{G}_i)}} + \log \frac{\exp^{S(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathcal{G}_i)}}{\sum_{j=1}^{B} \exp^{S(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathcal{G}_j)}} \right), \tag{6}$$

where B is the number of elements in the batch. Note that the S is the structured similarity score

defined in Eq. 3. \mathcal{L}_{rel} is the loss that pushes the model to learn a non-symmetric relationship scores:

$$\mathcal{L}_{rel} = -\sum_{i=1}^{B} \log \frac{\exp^{S(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathcal{G}_i)}}{\exp^{S(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathcal{G}_i)} + \exp^{S(\mathbf{x}_i, \bar{\mathcal{G}}_i)} + \exp^{S(\mathbf{x}_i, \bar{\mathcal{G}}_i)}},\tag{7}$$

where $\overline{\mathcal{G}}$ and $\widetilde{\mathcal{G}}$ are altered scene graphs. In $\overline{\mathcal{G}}$, we swap the order of the subject and the object of

a relationship, whereas in $\tilde{\mathcal{G}}$, we randomly chose the relationship's subject and object from the nodes in the scene graph.

121 **3 Results**

Setting We train OC-CLIP and finetune OpenCLIP in-domain on a set of datasets relevant for 122 real-world compositional understanding. The training text descriptions representing positive samples 123 are taken from COCO [27], Visual-Genome [24] and GQA [20]. The latter annotates images coming 124 from Visual Genome [24] with objects and both spatial and non-spatial relationships, and thus 125 contains a high representation of spatial prepositions. We evaluate the different models on the most 126 challenging benchmarks representative of compositional understanding, ensuring that we validate 127 128 both their *attribute binding* and *spatial relationship* understanding capabilities. In particular, we use SugarCrepe [18] and ARO-Attribution (ARO-A) [47] for attribute binding and ARO-Relation 129 (ARO-R) [47], COCO-spatial and GQA-spatial [23] for spatial relationship understanding. The 130 training of the OC-CLIP's binding module is done from scratch along with the finetuning of the text 131 and vision backbones. The text backbone is initialized from OpenCLIP weights [21]. We consider 132 2 different image base ViT backbones, OpenCLIP (ViT-B-16) [21] and Dinov2 (ViT-B-14) [35], to 133 show the flexibility of our binding module and learned structured similarity score. 134

Attribute Binding We evaluate the attribute binding capabilities of OC-CLIP and baselines on 135 SugarCrepe [18] and ARO-A [48] benchmarks. We report the results in Table 1. When comparing 136 OpenCLIP-FT to OC-CLIP (both models), we observe notable performance boosts on ARO-A and 137 SugarCrepe's swap-attribute, and swap-object. In particular, OC-CLIP B-14 shows a performance 138 boost of +22.1% on ARO-A, whereas in SugarCrepe, our model reaches improvements of +16.1% 139 on the swap-attribute split, +17.7% on the swap-object split. When comparing with additional 140 contrastive-based models (BLIP and XVLM) finetuned with in-domain data, both OC-CLIP models 141 show notable improvements on SugarCrepe's swap splits -e.g., OC-CLIP _{B-14} results in +14.6% in 142 object-swap and +12.3% in attribute-swap – despite not relying on additional binding annotations, 143 nor language modeling losses. The results of BLIP and XVLM on ARO-A may be explained by 144 the use of their use of a language modeling prior; It is shown in [18] that language-only models are 145 performing well on this benchmark because the negative caption are often not realistic. 146

Spatial Relationship Understanding We also evaluate the spatial relationship understanding 147 capabilities of OC-CLIP and baselines on COCO-spatial, GQA-spatial, and ARO-Relation (ARO-R). 148 Note that ARO-Relation contains both spatial and non-spatial relations but about half of the test 149 examples consists of left/right relationships understanding. We report the results in Table 1 and show 150 consistent improvements of both OC-CLIP models over the baseline models and across the 3 datasets. 151 In particular, the best OC-CLIP model outperforms OpenCLIP-FT by +47.9% on COCO-spatial, 152 +46.6% on GQA-spatial, and +34.7% on ARO-R. When compared to contrastive VLMs finetuned with 153 in-domain data (XVLM, BLIP), OC-CLIP models exhibit superior performance, with improvements 154 between +10% and +27% over the strongest contrastive finetuned VLM. Finally, when compared 155 to baselines leveraging hard-negatives (NegCLIP), OC-CLIP remains the highest performer. 156

	What	tsUp	Sugar	ARO		
Model	COCO-spatial	GQA-Spatial	swap-obj	swap-att	Att	Rel
OpenCLIP-FT	45.6	49.1	63.1	72.4	59.9	50.1
XVLM [49]	73.6	67	64.9	73.9	86.8	73.4
BLIP 26	56.4	52.6	66.2	76.2	88.0	59.0
NegCLIP ^[47]	46.4	46.7	75.2	75.4	70.5	80.2
OC-CLIP _{B-16} OC-CLIP _{B-14}	90.1 93.5	93.9 95.6	76.3 80.8	87.1 88.5	80.3 82.0	83.7 84.8

Table 1: **Compositional Understanding**: Performance on the hardest SugarCrepe, What's Up and ARO Splits. Both OpenCLIP-FT and OC-CLIP are initialized with the same OpenCLIP checkpoints. OC-CLIP is trained with two ViT base backbones with different resolutions: OpenCLIP's backbone (B-16) and Dinov2 (B-14).

157 4 Conclusion

We propose OC-CLIP, a method that enhances the compositional scene understanding of CLIPlike models by leveraging object-centric representation learning. The results show that OC-CLIP significantly improves performance on challenging real-world compositional image-text matching benchmarks, such as SugarCrepe and Whatsup. Future work could explore ways to improve the scalability of the approach when trained from scratch with noisy alt-text based datasets.

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329 A Appendix / supplemental material



Figure 1: Object-Centric CLIP (OC-CLIP) overview.

330 A.1 Related Work

Contrastive Pretraining of VLMs. Vision-language models (VLMs) have made substantial 331 strides in both the vision and multi-modal domains. Modern VLMs are pretrained on vast, diverse 332 and oftentimes noisy multi-modal datasets [6, 42, 21, 50] and applied to various zero-shot tasks. 333 CLIP [39] presented a contrastive learning approach used for pretraining, which involves training 334 the model to differentiate between similar and dissimilar image-text pairs. This approach encourages 335 336 the model to learn a shared representation space for images and text, where semantically similar pairs are close together and dissimilar pairs are far apart. Following CLIP's lead, image-text contrastive 337 learning has become a prevalent strategy for VLM pretraining [30, 5, 29, 9, 51, 7, 4]. Contrastive 338 vision-language pretraining spans numerous downstream applications, including zero-shot image 339 classification [52, 39, 32, 14], text-to-image generation [38, 1, 40, 41], as well as assessing text-image 340 alignment [33, 8]. In this work we are particularly interested the ability of CLIP-based VLMs to 341 evaluate compositional text-image alignment. 342

Compositional Understanding Benchmarks. Several benchmarks have been developed to assess 343 the compositional understanding of VLMs. In this work, we focus on benchmarks structured as 344 cross-modal retrieval tasks where the model needs to distinguish between correct and incorrect text 345 descriptions given an image, and evaluations are based on accuracy metrics. The majority of these 346 benchmarks [55, 47, 37] rely on the rule-based construction of negative captions and the generation 347 of their associated image counter-factuals [53, 3]. Yet, many of these benchmarks may be solved 348 by leveraging the language prior exclusively [15, 28], hence disregarding the information from the 349 visual input. To address this, benchmarks such as SugarCrepe [19] leverage large language models 350 to generate plausible and linguistically correct hard negatives, and show that previously introduced 351 text-based hard negative strategies are not always effective [48] - e.g., when considering attribute and 352 object swaps between textual descriptions. Other benchmarks focus on assessing the VLMs' spatial 353 understanding [23, 48, 53], and propose to finetune CLIP-based models on data containing a high pro-354 portion of spatial relationships since these relationships tend to underrepresented in commonly used 355 pretraining datasets. Interestingly, (author?) [23] show that even when finetuning with in-domain 356 357 data with an overrepresentation of spatial relationships, state-of-the-art models still exhibit a close to random chance performance. In this work, we test the hypothesis that spatial relationship failures 358 are due to the lack composition in the similarity score computation used to train CLIP-like models. 359

Object-centric Binding Inductive Biases. CLIP has been shown [47] to be pushed to learn dis-360 entangled, bag-of-words-style representations from the contrastive loss and the easily distinguishable 361 362 negatives typically used for pretraining. Although the learned representations might be effective for objects presented in isolation, they struggle with scenes containing multiple objects []. For example, 363 consider a simple scene with a green apple and a yellow banana. In this case, the model must maintain 364 and correctly link the attributes ("green", "yellow") to the objects ("apple", "banana"), without mixing 365 the concepts -e.g., "yellow apple" or 'green banana". This exemplifies the importance of devising 366 robust mechanisms within the CLIP architecture and/or training to accurately handle multiple objects, 367 while preventing feature interferences. In this work, we focus on equipping CLIP with object-centric 368 binding inductive biases and take inspiration from the architectures proposed in the unsupervised 369

object-centric visual representation learning literature [31, 46, 43, 2]. Many recent image-only approaches follow a simple inductive bias introduced by slot Attention [31], where an image – encoded as a set of input tokens – is soft partitioned into K slots. In particular, attention maps are computed via a **inverted cross attention** mechanism [45], where the softmax is applied along the query dimension in order to induce a competition between the slots to explain different groups of input tokens. In this work, we extend these inductive biases to define text-conditioned visual slots from the input image.

376 A.2 More Compositional Results

We evaluate the attribute binding capabilities of OC-CLIP and baselines on SugarCrepe [18] and 377 ARO-A [47] benchmarks. We report the results in Table 2. When comparing OpenCLIP-FT to 378 OC-CLIP (both models), we observe notable performance boosts on ARO-A and SugarCrepe's 379 swap-attribute, and swap-object. In particular, OC-CLIP B-14 shows a performance boost of +22.1% on 380 ARO-A, whereas in SugarCrepe, our model reaches improvements of +16.1% on the swap-attribute 381 split, +17.7% on the swap-object split, and a smaller +4.7% on the replace-relationship split. 382 Moreover, both OC-CLIP models perform similarly to OpenCLIP-FT on the remaining SugarCrepe 383 splits. This is to be expected since the remaining splits do not require precise binding to distinguish 384 between positive and negative captions and may therefore be solved with a bag-of-words-like 385 representation. When comparing with additional contrastive-based models (BLIP and XVLM) 386 finetuned with in-domain data, both OC-CLIP models show notable improvements on SugarCrepe's 387 swap splits -e.g., OC-CLIP _{B-14} results in +14.6% in object-swap and +12.3% in attribute-swap -388 despite not relying on additional binding annotations, nor language modeling losses. The results 389 of BLIP and XVLM on ARO-A may be explained by the use of their use of a language modeling 390 prior; (author?) [19] emphasizes that language-only models are performing well on this benchmark 391 392 because the negative caption are often not realistic. Both OC-CLIP models also improve the results of hard-negative-based methods on SugarCrepe's swap splits as well as ARO-A. In all the remaining 393 splits of SugarCrepe, except add-attribute, OC-CLIP models perform similarly to previous works 394 leveraging hard-negatives. The results achieved by CE-CLIP and CC-CLIP on the add-attribute split 395 could be attributed to an increase of attribute coverage induced by the language model generations.

Model	SugarCre	SugarCrepe – Swap		SugarCrepe – Add		SugarCrepe – Replace		
	Object	Attribute	Object	Attribute	Object	Attribute	Relation	
Zero-shot								
OpenCLIP	68.2	66.2	82.7	80.3	93.8	82.8	67.3	58.8
In-domain ft baseli	nes							
BLIP 26†	66.2	76.2	-	-	96.5	81.9	68.35	88.0
XVLM (author?) 49 †	64.9	73.9	-	-	95.2	87.7	77.4	86.8
OpenCLIP-FT	$63.1{\scriptstyle~\pm 0.6}$	$72.4{\scriptstyle\pm1.1}$	93.4 ± 0.2	$83.1{\scriptstyle~\pm 0.5}$	95.4	$87.0{\scriptstyle~\pm 0.6}$	$75.5{\scriptstyle~\pm 0.6}$	$59.9{\scriptstyle~\pm 0.2}$
Hard-Negative bas	ed baselines							
NegCLIP [47]†	75.2	75.4	88.8	82.8	92.7	85.9	76.5	70.5
CE-CLIP [54]†	72.8	77	92.4	93.4	93.1	88.8	79	76.4
CC-CLIP [53]†	68.6	73.6	86.7	90.3	95.9	87.9	76.2	-
Ours								
OC-CLIP B-16	76.3 ± 0.7	$87.1{\scriptstyle~\pm 0.2}$	91.3	$83.8{\scriptstyle~\pm1.0}$	$93.9{\scriptstyle~\pm 0.4}$	$88.3{\scriptstyle~\pm0.1}$	$77.0{\scriptstyle~\pm 0.2}$	$80.3{\scriptstyle~\pm 0.1}$
OC-CLIP B-14	80.8 ± 0.7	$\textbf{88.5} \pm 0.4$	$93.0{\scriptstyle \pm 0.3}$	$83.8{\scriptstyle~\pm1.1}$	$95.7{\scriptstyle~\pm 0.4}$	$\textbf{88.8} \pm 0.6$	80.2 ± 0.2	82.0

Table 2: Attribute binding: Performance on SugarCrepe and ARO-Attribution (ARO-A). Both OpenCLIP-FT and OC-CLIP are initialized with the same OpenCLIP checkpoints. OC-CLIP is trained with two ViT base backbones with different resolutions: OpenCLIP's backbone (B-16) and Dinov2 (B-14).

396

For the parsing of the training and testing data we used a llama-3-70b Instruct model with the following prompt :

Parsing Prompt

Given a caption, your task is to parse it into its constituent noun phrases and relationships. The noun phrases should represent independent visual objects mentioned in the caption without semantic oversimplification. For each caption, output the parsed noun phrases (e.g., entities) and relationships in JSON format, placing the dictionary between [ANS] and [/ANS] brackets. In the relationships, use indices to specify the subject and object of the relationship mentioned in the caption. The indices of the subject and object should be integers. Here are a few examples:

```
Caption: A large brown box with a green toy in it
Output:
[ANS]
{
    "entities": [
    "large brown box",
    "green toy"
],
    "relationships": [
    {
        relationship ": "in",
        "subject": 1,
        "object": 0
    }
]
}
```

[/ANS]

[...] More examples

PAY ATTENTION to the following:

- Relationships MUST relate two different entities in the caption and NOT be unary. For example, in the caption 'red suitcases stacked upon each other', 'stacked upon each other' is not considered a relationship.

- Do not forget any relationships.

- Relationships MUST be directed. 'and' is not a relationship.

- Pay attention to spatial relationships like 'behind', 'left of', 'with', 'below', 'next to', etc. 'and' is not a relationship.

- Check the right dependencies when the relationships are not direct. In the caption template a X with a Y in it, it refers to X.

- Pay attention to co-references.

Now, parse the following caption into its constituting entities and relationships. You MUST place the answer between [ANS] and [/ANS] delimiters. Caption:

399