

# Multimodal Large Language Models “Foresee” Objects Based on Verb Information But Not Gender

Anonymous ACL submission

## Abstract

This study employs the classical psycholinguistics paradigm, the visual world eye-tracking paradigm (VWP), to explore the predictive capabilities of multimodal large language models (MLLMs) and compare them with human anticipatory gaze behaviors. Specifically, we examine the attention weight distributions of LLAVA when presented with visual displays and sentences containing verb and gender cues. Our findings reveal that LLAVA, like humans, can predictively attend to objects relevant to verbs, but fails to demonstrate gender-based anticipatory attention. Layer-wise analysis indicates that the middle layers of the model are more related to predictive attention than the early or late layers. This study is pioneering in applying psycholinguistic paradigms to compare the multimodal predictive attention of humans and MLLMs, revealing both similarities and differences between them.

## 1 Introduction

Recent psycholinguistic research has shown that human language processing involves multimodal predictions, especially between language and vision (e.g., Altmann & Kamide, 1999; see Huettig et al., 2011, for a review). For instance, numerous visual world paradigm (VWP) studies have demonstrated that when people hear an utterance, they predict upcoming mentions, which direct their looks to the visual objects. For example, in Corps et al. (2022), participants heard a sentence featuring either male or female characters and looked at the visual display of four objects at the same time (Figure 1). They found that: (1) participants used verb semantics to predict upcoming mentions (e.g., looking at wearable objects such as a tie or dress at



Figure 1: Sample visual display adapted from Corps et al. (2022)

hearing *Tonight, James/Kate will wear ...*); (2) they further used the gender of the subject to refine their prediction (e.g., more looks to a tie than a dress following *James*, and more looks to a dress than a tie following *Kate*).

The finding that humans use linguistic (verb and gender) information to make predictive fixations of a visual scene led us to ask whether multimodal large language models (MLLMs) exhibit similar cross-modal predictive behaviors. Previous studies have found parallels between model attention (measured by attention weights) and human attention (measured by eye tracking movements) in text reading (Gao et al., 2023; Kewenig et al., 2024; Sood et al., 2020). Kewenig et al. (2024) recently provided tentative evidence that multimodal models like CLIP (Radford et al., 2021) may also resemble human predictive visual attention in video viewing. But to our best knowledge, there is not yet research on whether MLLMs also resemble humans in linguistically-guided predictive visual attention.

The current study employs the widely adopted VWP in psycholinguistics to investigate whether LLAVA (Liu et al., 2023), an open-source MLLM,

66 shows similar linguistically-guided predictive  
67 visual attention as humans. By analyzing the  
68 model's attention weight distribution on the task  
69 used by Corps et al. (2022), we found that MLLM  
70 can predictively attend to relevant objects based on  
71 verb information, similar to humans, but not gender  
72 information. In addition, layer-wise analysis shows  
73 that the middle layers of MLLM are primarily  
74 responsible for the predictions. These findings  
75 indicate both similarities and differences between  
76 model and human behavior in multimodal  
77 predictions.

## 78 2 Methods

### 79 2.1 Design and materials

80 Following Corps et al. (2022), we used 28 pairs of  
81 sentences featuring either male or female  
82 characters (e.g., *Tonight, James/Kate will wear the*  
83 *nice tie/dress*), each with a visual display of four  
84 objects (Figure 1). We tested whether an MLLM  
85 can predictively attend to a visual object according  
86 to whether the object is verb-congruent (e.g., dress  
87 and tie for the verb *wear*) or verb-incongruent (e.g.,  
88 drill and hairdryer), and whether this prediction (if  
89 any) is further modulated by the object's  
90 congruency with the gender of the sentential  
91 subject (e.g., for *James*, tie and drill are gender-  
92 congruent and dress and hairdryer are gender-  
93 incongruent; for *Kate*, the conditions are reversed).  
94 The object images are 200×200 pixels, with their  
95 locations counterbalanced across items.

### 96 2.2 Model

97 We utilized LLAVA 1.5 (7B parameters, Liu et al.,  
98 2023), a transformer-based MLLM that encodes  
99 images using CLIP's vision encoder and maps them  
100 into the linguistic embedding space of Vicuna,  
101 allowing cross-modal attention to be computed.  
102 This model was chosen for its open-source  
103 availability and its state-of-the-art performance on  
104 11 benchmarks (Liu et al., 2023).

### 105 2.3 Pre-tests

106 We first conducted three pre-tests to explore if  
107 LLAVA can recognize the basic information in  
108 sentences and pictures as humans do.

109 **(1) Name gender detection.** To investigate if  
110 the model can distinguish gender based on names  
111 (*James* vs. *Kate*), we asked the model to continue  
112 a sentence preamble (e.g., *Although James/Kate*  
113 *was sick...*) and calculated the proportions of

114 female (*she/her/hers*) or male pronouns (*he/his*)  
115 used in the continuations following Cai et al.  
116 (2023, experiment 2). We found that all sentences  
117 with *James* were continued with male pronouns  
118 and all sentences with *Kate* were continued with  
119 female pronouns. This indicates that the model  
120 can perfectly distinguish between typical male  
121 and female names in sentences.

122 **(2) Object gender evaluation.** To assess  
123 whether the model can identify pictured objects as  
124 stereotypically male (e.g., tie, drill) or female (e.g.,  
125 dress, hairdryer), we asked the model to evaluate  
126 the masculinity or femininity of each object on a  
127 5-point Likert scale and calculated the "femininity  
128 score" of each object where 1 represents strongly  
129 masculine and 5 represents strongly feminine.  
130 The results show that the femininity score of  
131 female objects is significantly higher than that of  
132 male objects (3.13 vs. 2.67;  $t(5641.6) = 11.202, p$   
133  $< .001$ ), indicating that the model can identify the  
134 gender of the objects.

135 **(3) Multimodal sentence completion.** To  
136 examine whether the model can complete the  
137 sentence with verb-and-gender-congruent nouns  
138 in a multimodal setting, we removed the final  
139 noun from the sentence and asked the model to  
140 complete the missing linguistic materials  
141 according to the sentence's corresponding visual  
142 display. As shown in Figure 4 in Appendix A, the  
143 model produced more verb-congruent  
144 completions than incongruent ones (83.77 vs.  
145 12.52;  $t(109.29) = -11.844, p < .001$ ), and also  
146 more gender-congruent completions than  
147 incongruent ones (64.61 vs. 29.52;  $t(109.83) = -$   
148  $4.2849, p < .001$ ). This indicates that the model can  
149 predict verb-and-gender-congruent nouns in a  
150 multimodal sentence completion task.

### 151 2.4 Procedure

152 To simulate human incremental sentence  
153 comprehension, we presented the sentence in an  
154 unfolding fashion, ending first with the name (e.g.,  
155 *Tonight, James/Kate*), then with the verb (e.g.,  
156 *Tonight, James/Kate will wear*), then with the pre-  
157 noun adjective (e.g., *Tonight, James/Kate will wear*  
158 *the nice*), and finally the whole sentence ending  
159 with the target noun (e.g., *Tonight, James/Kate will*  
160 *wear the nice tie/dress*). Each text presentation was  
161 accompanied by the same visual display of four  
162 objects. We used the prompt: "Please read carefully  
163 and look at the objects in the picture," which  
164 mirrors the instructions given to human  
165 participants, ensuring that the model's task closely  
166 parallels the one performed by human subjects.

### 167 3 Analyses and results

#### 168 3.1 Analysis

169 We extracted the max-pooled attention weights of  
170 each layer mapping from the last word (name, verb,  
171 pre-noun adjective, or target noun) of each  
172 sentence segment to the four images in the visual  
173 display. Following Manning et al. (2020), if the last  
174 word had multiple tokens, we combined the  
175 weights across the tokens. We then calculated the  
176 proportion of attention allocated to each object  
177 relative to the total attention across all four objects,  
178 similar to fixation proportions in VWP studies (e.g.,  
179 Corps et al., 2022).

180 For statistical analysis, we used linear mixed-  
181 effect models, with verb congruency and gender  
182 congruency as interacting predictors, and with  
183 layer and item as random effects. Following  
184 Matuschek et al. (2017), we used forward model  
185 comparison with an alpha level of 0.2 to determine  
186 whether a random slope should be included in the  
187 final model.

#### 188 3.2 Results

##### 189 3.2.1 Main results of the whole model

190 Figure 2 (top panel) shows the attention  
191 proportions to four objects across sentence  
192 segments. Initially, when the name was read,  
193 LLAVA showed no preference for gender-  
194 congruent objects ( $\beta = 0.001$ ,  $SE = 0.002$ ,  $t = 0.326$ ,  
195  $p = 0.744$ ), suggesting that the model did not  
196 associate specific objects with the gendered name  
197 in the absence of further contextual information.

198 As the sentence unfolded to the verb (e.g., *wear*),  
199 there is a significant preference for verb-congruent  
200 objects (e.g., *tie* and *dress*) over incongruent ones  
201 (e.g., *drill* and *hairdryer*;  $\beta = 0.009$ ,  $SE = 0.002$ ,  $t =$   
202  $4.168$ ,  $p < .001$ ), indicating that LLAVA can use  
203 verb semantics to direct attention similar to humans.  
204 Nevertheless, there was still no effect of gender  
205 congruency ( $\beta = 0.0004$ ,  $SE = 0.002$ ,  $t = 0.187$ ,  $p$   
206  $= .852$ ), suggesting that the model still does not  
207 preferentially attend to gender-congruent objects at  
208 this stage.

209 As the model received more input (e.g., *Tonight,*  
210 *James/Kate will wear the nice ...*), the difference  
211 between verb-congruent and verb-incongruent  
212 objects continued to grow ( $\beta = 0.035$ ,  $SE = 0.004$ ,  $t$   
213  $= 8.599$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and the absence of a gender  
214 congruency effect persisted ( $\beta = -0.002$ ,  $SE = 0.003$ ,  
215  $t = -0.862$ ,  $p = .389$ ).

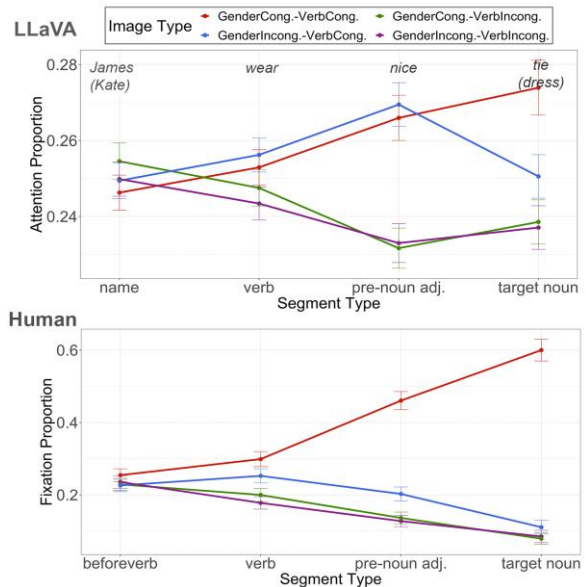


Figure 2: Compare attention proportion of LLAVA (top panel) and fixation proportion of humans (bottom panel; data from Corps et al., 2022)

216 Finally, when the sentence was fully presented  
217 (e.g., *Tonight, James/Kate would like to wear the*  
218 *nice tie/dress*), the pattern remained unchanged,  
219 with a significant effect of verb congruency ( $\beta =$   
220  $0.024$ ,  $SE = 0.003$ ,  $t = 9.491$ ,  $p < .001$ ), but no  
221 evidence of a gender congruency effect ( $\beta = 0.012$ ,  
222  $SE = 0.019$ ,  $t = 0.640$ ,  $p = .527$ ).

223 We compared our model attention and human  
224 attention (fixation proportion) in Corps et al. (2022)  
225 (see Appendix B for detailed methods). As shown  
226 in Figure 2, there are both similarities and  
227 differences in anticipatory processing patterns.  
228 Overall, the patterns between humans and the  
229 model are similar ( $r = 0.11$ ,  $p = .018$ ). However,  
230 this similarity is primarily driven by the verb factor  
231 ( $r = 0.25$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and not by the gender factor ( $r$   
232  $= -0.009$ ,  $p = .896$ ; see Figure 6 in Appendix B).  
233 This is because human participants not only  
234 predictively attended to verb-relevant objects ( $\beta =$   
235  $0.087$ ,  $SE = 0.010$ ,  $t = 9.112$ ,  $p < .001$ ), but also  
236 gender-relevant objects ( $\beta = 0.034$ ,  $SE = 0.016$ ,  $t =$   
237  $2.147$ ,  $p = 0.040$ ) as soon as they heard the verb.

##### 238 3.2.2 Results of layer-wise analysis

239 In addition to analyzing the overall behavior of the  
240 model across all layers, we conducted a more fine-  
241 grained, layer-wise analysis to identify the layers  
242 that were primarily responsible for the verb-based  
243 predictive visual attention in LLAVA. As shown in  
244 Figure 3, our results indicate that the middle layers  
245 of the model play a crucial role in generating visual  
246 predictions based on verb information.

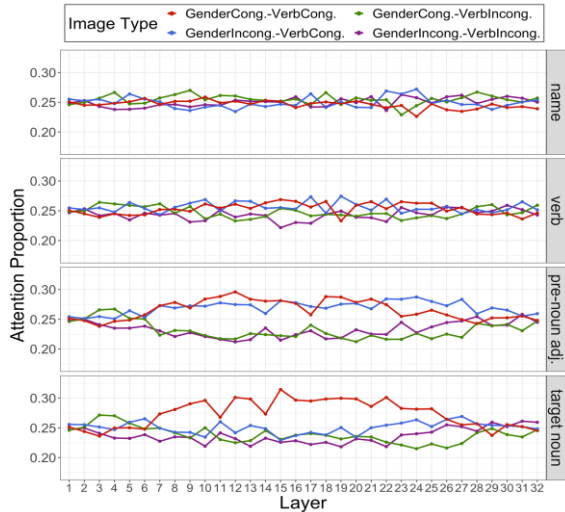


Figure 3: Attention results by layers

247 During the verb segment of the sentence (e.g.,  
 248 *James/Kate will wear*), we found a significant main  
 249 effect of verb ( $ps < .05$ ) in layers 10, 12, and 17 (see  
 250 the second panel in Figure 3). As the sentence  
 251 unfolds (e.g., *James/Kate will wear the nice*), the  
 252 main effect of verb becomes more widespread,  
 253 occurring in layers 7 through 26 (see the third panel  
 254 in Figure 3). This indicates that a larger portion of  
 255 the model's architecture is engaged in verb-based  
 256 predictions as more linguistic context becomes  
 257 available.

## 258 4 Discussion

259 This study uses the VWP to investigate the  
 260 predictive capabilities of MLLMs like LLAVA.  
 261 The findings reveal that the model exhibits human-  
 262 like behavior in using verb information to predict  
 263 the upcoming object in a visual display. This aligns  
 264 with previous research demonstrating that both  
 265 humans and models can utilize multimodal  
 266 information to predictively attend to relevant  
 267 features (Kewenig et al., 2024).

268 However, unlike humans, the model does not  
 269 predictively attend to relevant objects based on  
 270 gender information, consistent with the lack of  
 271 gender bias in CLIP, which is the basis for  
 272 LLAVA's vision encoder (Hall et al., 2024). Indeed,  
 273 our pretest results showed that although the model  
 274 can complete sentences with gender-congruent  
 275 nouns, it does not do so to the same extent as it  
 276 produces verb-congruent nouns (see Figure 4 in  
 277 Appendix A). This uncertainty in behavioral  
 278 responses is consistent with the lack of a gender  
 279 effect in the attention weights.

280 The difference between the model and humans  
 281 may be explained by the nature of the stimuli, as  
 282 our study used cartoon-like images while MLLMs  
 283 are mainly trained and evaluated on real-world  
 284 objects (Liu et al., 2023; Thrush et al., 2022). To  
 285 investigate this hypothesis, we replaced the  
 286 cartoon-like objects with real-world ones. As  
 287 shown in Figure 7 in Appendix C, we observed a  
 288 main effect of gender in the verb segment ( $\beta =$   
 289  $0.009$ ,  $SE = 0.002$ ,  $t = 4.117$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting  
 290 that the model processes real-world objects in a  
 291 more human-like way than cartoon objects. This is  
 292 consistent with the idea that models lack the  
 293 perceptual flexibility of humans, leading to lower  
 294 performance in recognizing atypical objects (Zang  
 295 et al., 2023).

296 The study also found that the middle layers play  
 297 a significant role in multimodal predictions,  
 298 aligning with previous studies showing that  
 299 attention weights in middle layers better fit neural  
 300 signals (Lamarre et al., 2022). However, the  
 301 discrepancy with some studies showing that late  
 302 layers correlate most significantly with human eye-  
 303 tracking data (Kewenig et al., 2024) may be  
 304 attributed to task differences: comprehension tasks  
 305 (as in our and Lamarre et al.'s studies) require more  
 306 high-level semantic processing in middle layers,  
 307 while production tasks (as in Kewenig et al., 2024)  
 308 focus more on low-level features of individual  
 309 words in later layers. Further detailed experiments  
 310 are needed to explore this hypothesis.

## 311 5 Conclusion

312 In conclusion, our study utilizes the VWP from  
 313 psycholinguistics to probe whether MLLMs like  
 314 LLAVA show similar multimodal predictive  
 315 patterns to humans. We found that MLLMs can  
 316 predictively attend to verb-relevant objects in  
 317 visual displays similar to humans, but they do not  
 318 show the same predictive attention for gender-  
 319 relevant objects. These predictive behaviors are  
 320 predominantly driven by the middle layers of the  
 321 model.



## 322 **Limitations**

323 One key limitation of this study is that we only  
324 investigated one model — LLAVA-1.5 7B — and  
325 conducted a thorough comparison between its  
326 attention weights and human eye movements. With  
327 more MLLMs being released (see Yin et al., 2024  
328 for a comprehensive review), it is crucial to  
329 compare different models horizontally to  
330 understand the key factors contributing to their  
331 differences and similarities with human cognition.

332 In addition, caution is needed when comparing  
333 human and model attention. Although both use the  
334 term "attention," they may refer to different  
335 underlying mechanisms. For instance, model  
336 attention is more evenly dispersed, while human  
337 attention tends to be focused (Kewenig et al., 2024;  
338 also see Figure 2). More detailed studies are needed  
339 to explore the similarities and differences between  
340 model attention and human attention.

## 341 **Ethical considerations**

342 The authors declare no competing interests. The  
343 stimuli used are provided by the first author of  
344 Corps et al. (2022) via email. The human eye-  
345 tracking data used is publicly available  
346 (<https://osf.io/nkud5/>) and does not contain  
347 personal information about the subjects. The usage  
348 scenario of the model LLAVA conforms to its  
349 licensing terms. As this work focuses on comparing  
350 the multimodal predictions of models and humans,  
351 its potential negative impacts on society seem to be  
352 minimal.

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#### 454 A Multimodal sentence completion task

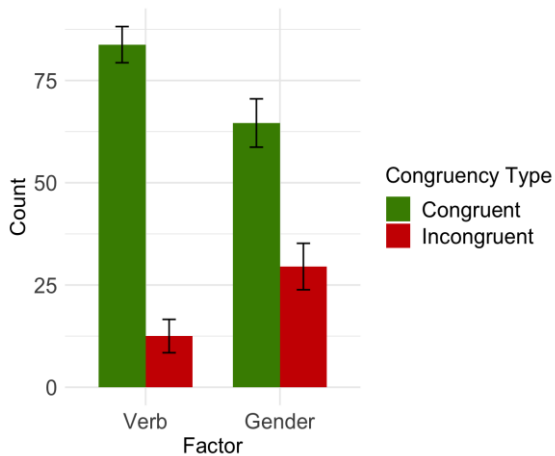


Figure 4: Results of sentence completion task

#### 455 B Compare with human data

456 Since eye movement data in Corps et al. (2022,  
 457 accessible at <https://osf.io/nkud5>) were analyzed at  
 458 50ms intervals, we need to transform the data into  
 459 four segments to align with the model data.  
 460 According to the R scripts available at

461 <https://osf.io/nkud5/>, the four segments are  
 462 defined as follows:

- 463 - Before verb: < 0ms (before verb onset)
- 464 - Verb: 0-350ms (from verb onset to verb  
 465 offset)
- 466 - Pre-noun adjective: 350-850ms (from verb  
 467 offset to target onset)
- 468 - Target: >850ms (after target onset)

469 Within each segment, we aggregated fixation  
 470 points and calculated the fixation proportion of  
 471 each object. These aggregated data were then used  
 472 for further analysis and plotting. This  
 473 transformation ensures the human data is  
 474 comparable with the model data. From Figure 5,  
 475 we can observe that the reshaped data exhibit a  
 476 similar pattern to the original data.

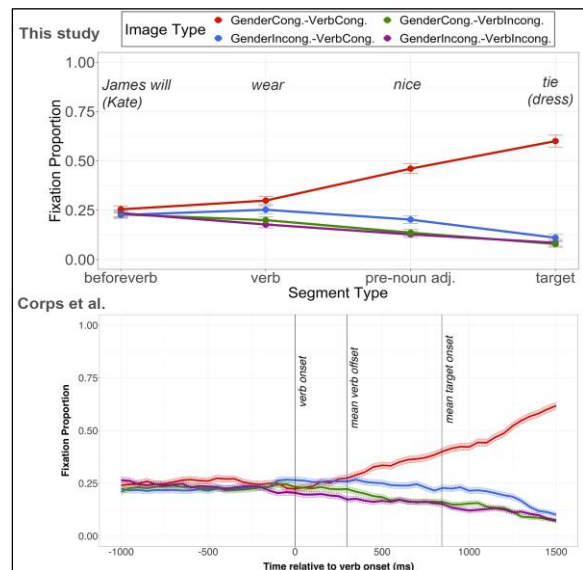


Figure 5: Compare plots of humans in our study (top panel) and Corps et al. (2022, bottom panel)

477 We also calculated the Pearson correlations  
 478 between human and model data. We grouped the  
 479 data by both gender and verb factors, only by verb  
 480 factors and only by gender factors and then  
 481 calculated the correlations respectively. The  
 482 results are shown in Figure 6.

#### 483 C Attention to real-world objects

484 For each object picture in the stimuli, we search  
 485 for a similar picture in Google Images (the same  
 486 source as Corps et al., 2022) but with a real-world  
 487 object. We replaced each object picture with the

488 new real-world one and conducted the experiment  
 489 again. The results are shown as in Figure 7.

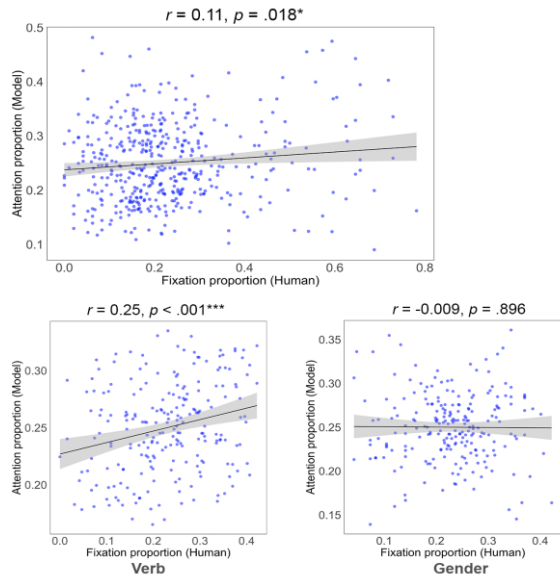


Figure 6: Correlation between the model and humans when considering both gender and verb factors (top), only verb factor (left-bottom), and only gender factor (right-bottom)

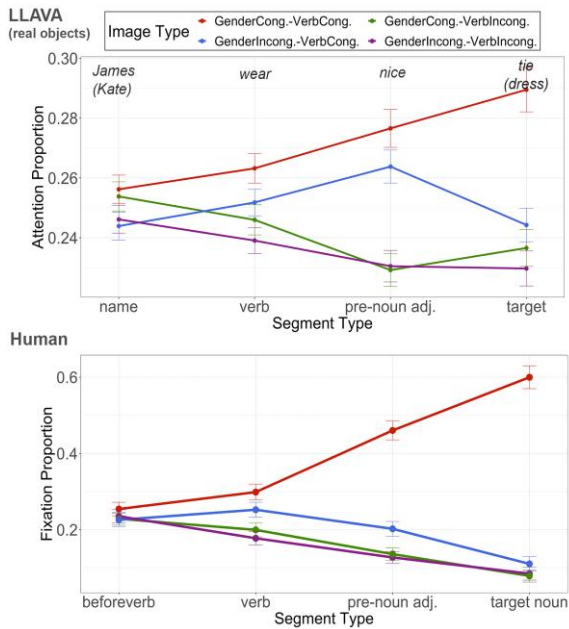


Figure 7: Compare model attention proportions using real-world stimuli in LLAVA (top) and fixation proportions of humans (bottom)

490