

Pragmatically Informative Image Captioning with Character-Level Inference

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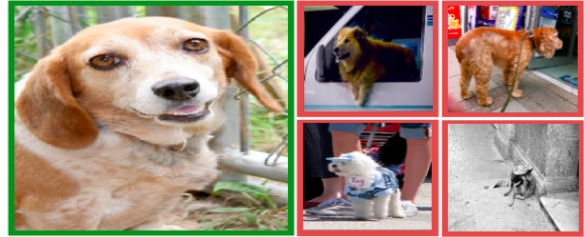
Abstract

We combine a neural image captioner with a Rational Speech Acts (RSA) model to make a system that is *pragmatically informative*: its objective is to produce captions that are not merely true but also distinguish their inputs from similar images. Previous attempts to combine RSA with neural image captioning require an inference which normalizes over the entire set of possible utterances. This poses a serious problem of efficiency, previously solved by sampling a small subset of possible utterances. We instead solve this problem by implementing a version of RSA which operates at the level of characters (“a”, “b”, “c”, ...) during the unrolling of the caption. We find that the utterance-level effect of referential captions can be obtained with only character-level decisions. Finally, we introduce an automatic method for testing the performance of pragmatic speaker models, and show that our model outperforms a non-pragmatic baseline as well as a word-level RSA captioner.

1 Introduction

The success of automatic image captioning (Farhadi et al., 2010; Mitchell et al., 2012; Karpathy and Fei-Fei, 2015; Vinyals et al., 2015) demonstrates compellingly that end-to-end statistical models can align visual information with language. However, high-quality captions are not merely *true*, but also *pragmatically informative* in the sense that they highlight salient properties and help distinguish their inputs from similar images. Captioning systems trained on single images struggle to be pragmatic in this sense, producing either very general or hyper-specific descriptions.

In this paper, we present a neural image captioning system that is a *pragmatic speaker* as defined by the Rational Speech Acts (RSA) model (Frank and Goodman, 2012; Goodman and Stuhlmüller, 2013). Given a set of images, of which one is the *target*, its objective is to generate a natural lan-



S_0 caption: the dog is brown
 S_1 caption: the head of a dog

Figure 1: Captions generated by literal (S_0) and pragmatic (S_1) model for the target image (in green) in the presence of multiple distractors (in red)

guage expression which identifies the target in this context. For instance, the literal caption in Figure 1 could describe both the target and the top two distractors, whereas the pragmatic caption mentions something that is most salient of the target. Intuitively, the RSA speaker achieves this by reasoning not only about what is true but also about what it’s like to be a listener in this context trying to identify the target.

This core idea underlies much work in referring expression generation (Dale and Reiter, 1995; Monroe and Potts, 2015; Andreas and Klein, 2016; Monroe et al., 2017) and image captioning (Mao et al., 2016a; Vedantam et al., 2017), but these models do not fully confront the fact that the agents must reason about all possible utterances, which is intractable. We fully address this problem by implementing RSA at the level of characters rather than the level of utterances or words: the neural language model emits individual characters, choosing them to balance pragmatic informativeness with overall well-formedness. Thus, the agents reason not about full utterances, but rather only about all possible character choices, a very small space. The result is that the information encoded recurrently in the neural model allows us to obtain global pragmatic effects from local decisions. We show that such character-level RSA

speakers are more effective than literal captioning systems at the task of helping a reader identify the target image among close competitors, and outperform word-level RSA captioners in both efficiency and accuracy.

2 Bayesian Pragmatics for Captioning

In applying RSA to image captioning, we think of captioning as a kind of reference game. The *speaker* and *listener* are in a shared context consisting of a set of images W , the speaker is privately assigned a target image $w^* \in W$, and the speaker’s goal is to produce a caption that will enable the listener to identify w^* . U is the set of possible utterances. In its simplest form, the *literal speaker* is a conditional distribution $S_0(u|w)$ assigning equal probability to all true utterances $u \in U$ and 0 to all others. The pragmatic listener L_0 is then defined in terms of this literal agent and a prior $P(w)$ over possible images:

$$L_0(w|u) \propto \frac{S_0(u|w) * P(w)}{\sum_{w' \in W} S_0(u|w') * P(w')} \quad (1)$$

The pragmatic speaker S_1 is then defined in terms of this pragmatic listener, with the addition of a rationality parameter $\alpha > 0$ governing how much it takes into account the L_0 distribution when choosing utterances. $P(u)$ is here taken to be a uniform distribution over U :

$$S_1(u|w) \propto \frac{L_0(w|u)^\alpha * P(u)}{\sum_{u' \in U} L_0(w|u')^\alpha * P(u')} \quad (2)$$

As a result of this back-and-forth, the S_1 speaker is reasoning not merely about what is true, but rather about a listener reasoning about a literal speaker who reasons about truth.

To illustrate, consider the pair of images 2a and 2b in Figure 2. Suppose that $U = \{bus, red\ bus\}$. Then the literal speaker S_0 is equally likely to produce *bus* and *red bus* when the left image 2a is the target. However, L_0 breaks this symmetry; because *red bus* is false of the right bus, $L_0(2a|bus) = \frac{1}{3}$ and $L_0(2b|bus) = \frac{2}{3}$. The S_1 speaker therefore ends up favoring *red bus* when trying to convey 2a, so that $S_1(red\ bus|2a) = 0.75$ and $S_1(bus|2a) = 0.25$.

3 Applying Bayesian Pragmatics to a Neural Semantics

To apply the RSA model to image captioning, we first train a neural model with a CNN-RNN architecture (Karpathy and Fei-Fei, 2015; Vinyals et al.,



S_0 caption: a double decker bus
 S_1 caption: a red double decker bus

Figure 2: Captions for the target image (in green)

2015). The trained model can be considered an S_0 -style distribution $P(\text{caption}|\text{image})$ on top of which further listeners and speakers can be built. (Unlike the idealized S_0 described above, a neural S_0 will assign some probability to untrue utterances.)

The main challenge for this application is that the space of utterances (captions) U will be very large for any suitable captioning system, making the calculation of S_1 intractable due to its normalization over all utterances. The question, therefore, is how best to approximate this inference. The solution employed by Monroe et al. (2017) and Andreas and Klein (2016) is to sample a small subset of probable utterances from the S_0 , as an approximate prior upon which exact inference can be performed. While tractable, this approach has the shortcoming of only considering a small part of the true prior, which potentially decreases the extent to which pragmatic reasoning will be able to apply. In particular, if a useful caption never appears in the sampled prior, it cannot appear in the posterior.

3.1 Step-Wise Inference

Inspired by the success of the “emitter-suppressor” method of Vedantam et al. (2017), we propose an incremental version of RSA. Rather than performing a single inference over utterances, we perform an inference *for each step of the unrolling of the utterance*.

We use a character-level LSTM, which defines a distribution over characters $P(u|pc, \text{image})$, where *pc* (“partial caption”) is a string of characters constituting the caption so far and u is the next character of the caption. This is now our S_0 : given a partially generated caption and an image, it returns a distribution over which character should next be added to the caption. The advantage of using a character-level LSTM over a word-level

one is that U is much smaller for the former (≈ 30 vs. $\approx 20,000$), making the ensuing RSA model much more efficient.

We use this S_0 to define an L_0 which takes a partial caption and a new character, and returns a distribution over images. The S_1 , in turn, given a target image w^* , performs an inference over the set of possible characters to determine which is best with respect to the listener choosing w^* .

At timestep t of the unrolling, the listener L_0 , takes as its prior over images the L_0 posterior from timestep $(t - 1)$. The idea is that as we proceed with the unrolling, the L_0 priors on which image is being referred to may change, which in turn should affect the speaker's actions. For instance, the speaker, having made the listener strongly in favor of the target image, is less compelled to continue being pragmatic.

3.2 Model Definition

In our incremental RSA, speaker models take both a target image and a partial caption pc . Thus, S_0 is a neurally trained conditional distribution $S_0^t(u|w, pc_t)$, where t is the current timestep of the unrolling and u is a character.

We define the L_0^t in terms of the S_0^t as follows, where ip is a distribution over images representing the L_0 prior:

$$L_0^t(w|u, ip_t, pc_t) \propto S_0^t(u|w, pc_t) * ip_t(w) \quad (3)$$

Given an S_0^t and L_0^t , we define S_1^t and L_1^t as:

$$S_1^t(u|w, ip_t, pc_t) \propto S_0^t(u|w, ip_t, pc_t) * L_0^t(w|u, ip_t, pc_t)^\alpha \quad (4)$$

$$L_1^t(w|u, ip_t, pc_t) \propto L_0^t(w|u, ip_t, pc_t) * S_0^t(u|w, ip_t, pc_t) \quad (5)$$

Unrolling To perform greedy unrolling (though in practice we use a beam search) for either S_0 or S_1 , we initialize the state as a partial caption pc_0 consisting of only the start token, and a uniform prior over the images ip_0 . Then, for $t > 0$, we use our incremental speaker model S_0 or S_1 to generate a distribution over the subsequent character $S^t(u|w, ip_t, pc_t)$, and add the character u with highest probability density to pc_t , giving us pc_{t+1} . We then run our listener model L_1 on u , to obtain a distribution $ip_{t+1} = L_1^t(w|u, ip_t, pc_t)$ over images that the L_0 can use at the next timestep.

This incremental approach keeps the inference itself very simple, while placing the complexity of the model in the recurrent nature of the unrolling¹. While our S_0 is character-level, the same incremental RSA model works for a word-level S_0 , giving rise to a word-level S_1 . We compare character and word S_1 s in section 4.2.

As well as being incremental, these definitions of S_1^t and L_1^t differ from the typical RSA described in section (2) in that S_1^t and L_1^t draw their priors from S_0^t and L_0^t respectively. This generalizes the scheme put forward for S_1 by [Andreas and Klein \(2016\)](#). The motivation is to have Bayesian speakers who are somewhat constrained by the S_0 language model. Without this, other methods are needed to achieve English-like captions, as in [Vedantam et al. \(2017\)](#), where their equivalent of the S_1 is combined in a weighted sum with the S_0 .

4 Evaluation

Qualitatively, Figures 1 and 2 show how the S_1 captions are more informative than the S_0 , as a result of pragmatic considerations. To demonstrate the effectiveness of our method quantitatively, we implement an automatic evaluation.

4.1 Automatic Evaluation

To evaluate the success of S_1 as compared to S_0 , we define a listener $L_{eval}(image|caption) \propto P_{S_0}(caption|image)$, where $P_{S_0}(caption|image)$ is the total probability of S_0 incrementally generating *caption* given *image*. In other words, L_{eval} uses Bayes' rule to obtain from S_0 the posterior probability of each image w given a full caption u .

The neural S_0 used in the definition of L_{eval} must be trained on separate data to the neural S_0 used for the S_1 model which produces captions, since otherwise this S_1 production model effectively has access to the system evaluating it. As [Mao et al. \(2016b\)](#) note, "a model might 'communicate' better with itself using its own language than with others". In evaluation, we therefore split the training data in half, with one part for training the S_0 used in the caption generation model S_1 and one part for training the S_0 used in the caption evaluation model L_{eval} .

We say that the caption succeeds as a referring expression if the target has more probability mass

¹The move from standard to incremental RSA can be understood in functional programming terms as performing the monadic effect of Bayesian conditioning inside the anamorphism which recursively unfolds the caption.

under the distribution $L_{eval}(image|caption)$ than any distractor.

Dataset We train our production and evaluation models on separate sets consisting of regions in the Visual Genome dataset (Krishna et al., 2017) and full images in MSCOCO (Chen et al., 2015). Both datasets consist of over 100,000 images of common objects and scenes. MSCOCO provides captions for whole images, while Visual Genome provides captions for each of the regions of the image.

Our test sets consist of clusters of 10 images. For a given cluster, we set each image in it as the target, in turn. We use two test sets. Test set 1 (TS1) consists of 100 clusters of images, 10 for each of the 10 most common objects in Visual Genome². Test set 2 (TS2) consists of regions in Visual Genome images whose ground truth captions have high word overlap, an indicator that they are similar. We again select 100 clusters of 10. Both test sets have 1,000 items in total (10 potential target images for each of 100 clusters).

Captioning System Our neural image captioning system is a CNN-RNN architecture³ adapted to use a character-based LSTM for the language model.

Hyperparameters We use a beam search with width 10 to produce captions, and a rationality parameter of $\alpha = 5.0$ for the S_1 .

4.2 Results

As shown in Table 1, the character-level S_1 obtains higher accuracy (68% on TS1 and 65.9% on TS2) than the S_0 (48.9% on TS1 and 47.5% on TS2), demonstrating that S_1 is better than S_0 at referring.

Advantage of Incremental RSA We also observe that 66% percent of the times in which the S_1 caption is referentially successful and the S_0 caption is not, for a given image, the S_1 caption is not one of the top 50 S_0 captions, as generated by the beam search unrolling at S_0 . This means that in these cases the non-incremental RSA method of Andreas and Klein (2016) could not have generated the S_1 caption, if these top 50 S_0 captions were the support of the prior over utterances.

²Namely: *man, person, woman, building, sign, table, bus, window, sky and tree*.

³https://github.com/yunjey/pytorch-tutorial/tree/master/tutorials/03-advanced/image_captioning

Model	TS1	TS2
Char S_0	48.9	47.5
Char S_1	68.0	65.9
Word S_0	57.6	53.4
Word S_1	60.6	57.6

Table 1: Accuracy on both test sets.

Comparison to Word-Level RSA We compare the performance of our character-level model to a word-level model⁴. This model is incremental in precisely the way defined in section 3.2, but uses a word-level LSTM so that $u \in U$ are words and U is a vocabulary of English. It is evaluated with an L_{eval} model that also operates on the word level.

Though the word S_0 performs better on both test sets than the character S_0 , the character S_1 outperforms the word S_1 , demonstrating the advantage of a character-level model for pragmatic behavior. We conjecture that the superiority of the character-level model is the result of the increased number of decisions where pragmatics can be taken into account, but leave further examination for future research.

Variants of the Model We further explore the effect of two design decisions in the character-level model. First, we consider a variant of S_1 which has a prior over utterances determined by an LSTM language model trained on the full set of captions. This achieves an accuracy of 67.2% on TS1. Second, we consider our standard S_1 but with unrolling such that the L_0 prior is drawn uniformly at each timestep rather than determined by the L_0 posterior at the previous step. This achieves an accuracy of 67.4% on TS1. This suggests that neither this change of S_1 nor L_0 priors has a large effect on the performance of the model.

5 Conclusion

We show that incremental RSA at the level of characters improves the ability of the neural image captioner to refer to a target image. The incremental approach is key to combining RSA with language models: as utterances become longer, it becomes exponentially slower, for a fixed n ,

⁴Here, we use greedy unrolling, for reasons of efficiency due to the size of U for the word-level model, and set $\alpha = 1.0$ from tuning on validation data. For comparison, we note that greedy character-level S_1 achieves an accuracy of 61.2% on TS1.

to subsample $n\%$ of the utterance distribution and *then* perform inference (non-incremental approach). Furthermore, character-level RSA yields better results than word-level RSA and is far more efficient.

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