If CLIP Could Talk: Understanding Vision-Language Model Representations Through Their Preferred Concept Descriptions

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Abstract

Recent works often assume that Vision-Language Model (VLM) representations are based on visual attributes like shape. However, it is unclear to what extent VLMs prioritize this information to represent concepts. We propose Extract and Explore (EX2), a novel approach to characterize textual features that are important for VLMs. EX2 uses reinforcement learning to align a large language model with VLM preferences and generates descriptions that incorporate features that are important for the VLM. Then, we inspect the descriptions to identify features that contribute to VLM representations. Using EX2, we find that spurious descriptions have a major role in VLM representations despite providing no helpful information, e.g., Click to enlarge photo of CONCEPT. More importantly, among informative descriptions, VLMs rely significantly on non-visual attributes like habitat (e.g., North America) to represent visual concepts. Also, our analysis reveals that different VLMs prioritize different attributes in their representations. Overall, we show that VLMs do not simply match images to scene descriptions and that non-visual or even spurious descriptions significantly influence their representations. Code: <https://github.com/BatsResearch/ex2>

1 Introduction

The ability of contrastive Vision-Language Models (VLMs) to match related text and images depends significantly on the content of text descriptions [\(No](#page-11-0)[vack et al.,](#page-11-0) [2023;](#page-11-0) [Radford et al.,](#page-11-1) [2021\)](#page-11-1). Heuristically, to better identify the related images, humans seek more detailed information about the physical appearance of concepts. Many recent works extend this heuristic to VLMs and augment the descriptions (also called prompts) with additional visual information (e.g., shape) to more accurately identify the related images [\(Menon and Vondrick,](#page-11-2) [2023;](#page-11-2) [Yan et al.,](#page-12-0) [2023\)](#page-12-0). However, in practice, even

Figure 1: Extract: we align Mistral with VLM preferences and generate descriptions that contain features that are important for the VLM. Explore: we examine various aspects of these descriptions to identify features that contribute to VLM representations.

augmenting the descriptions with random words improves the performance [\(Roth et al.,](#page-11-3) [2023\)](#page-11-3), and it is unclear what factors contribute to VLM concept representations. Here, we propose a novel analysis method for characterizing textual features that contribute to the VLM representation of a concept. Simply put, our goal is to understand how VLMs encode different concepts.

Despite the growing body of work on various aspects of VLMs (e.g., sensitivity to word order) [\(Akula et al.,](#page-9-0) [2020;](#page-9-0) [Ma et al.,](#page-11-4) [2023;](#page-11-4) [Yuksek](#page-12-1)[gonul et al.,](#page-12-1) [2022\)](#page-12-1), there is limited understanding of VLMs' world knowledge acquired during pretraining. [Yun et al.](#page-12-2) [\(2021\)](#page-12-2) show that VLMs and Large Language Models (LLMs) perform similarly on language tasks that require knowledge of the physical world. *If VLMs do not learn about the physical world from images, what do they learn?* Moreover, [Yun et al.](#page-12-3) [\(2022\)](#page-12-3) show that, the VLM representation of a concept is often not based on its visual attributes like color and shape. *If not based on visual attributes, how do VLMs represent concepts?* Our work introduces a new analysis method for studying such exploratory questions. Unlike previous works that focus on a very specific question, our goal is to explore and characterize the features that contribute to VLM representations with the feedback from the VLM itself.

In this paper, we propose Extract and Explore (EX2), a novel analysis method for understanding how VLMs represent concepts. Instead of directly probing the VLM, EX2 uses reinforcement learning (RL) to align an LLM with VLM preferences. Our reward function measures the similarity between the concept description and its images. Thus, it encourages the LLM to generate descriptions that incorporate features that are important for the VLM. Then, we can inspect these descriptions from various perspectives to identify common factors that contribute to VLM representations. In this work, we examine the descriptions to understand how often VLMs prioritize additional information to represent concepts and how often this information explains the physical appearance of concepts.

We use EX2 to analyze seven different VLMs on six fine-grained classification datasets. The aligned LLM successfully learns features that are important for the VLM and generates descriptions that achieve better classification accuracy than a set of generic descriptions. We find that spurious descriptions (e.g., Click to enlarge photo of CONCEPT) have a major role in VLM representations despite providing no helpful information about concepts. More importantly, even when VLMs prioritize informative descriptions, they significantly rely on non-visual attributes $¹$ $¹$ $¹$ like habitat</sup> (e.g., North America) to represent visual concepts. In our fine-grained analysis, we find that different VLMs represent similar concepts differently, i.e., prioritize different attributes. Even the same VLM prioritizes different attributes for different datasets, suggesting that extensive experiments across different datasets are required to draw conclusions about VLMs. EX2 is specifically suited to automatically carry out such analysis on a wide range of existing classification datasets. Finally, we show EX2's application for hypothesis generation and suggest new research questions based on our findings.

Our findings encourage further work on imagetext pre-training to address VLMs' reliance on spurious descriptions and the alignment between nonvisual information and images. Moreover, EX2

provides the future work with a flexible tool to study the impact of different pre-training methods and datasets from various aspects. We summarize our contributions and findings as following:

- We propose EX2, a novel analysis method that aligns an LLM with VLM preferences in order to characterize textual features that contribute to VLM representations.
- We show that EX2 successfully learns features that are important for the VLM and generates descriptions that improve the downstream classification accuracy, highlighting the benefits of adapting to VLM preferences for downstream tasks as well as analysis.
- We show that VLMs significantly rely on spurious or non-visual descriptions to represent visual concepts. We find that different VLMs prioritize different attributes to represent similar concepts. Even the same VLM prioritizes different attributes across datasets, emphasizing the benefits of EX2's ability to automatically analyze VLMs on a wide range of existing classification datasets.

2 Related Work

Reinforcement Learning for Language Models

In recent years, RL has been successfully used to align LLMs with human preferences, known as reinforcement learning with human feedback (RLHF) [\(Bai et al.,](#page-9-1) [2022;](#page-9-1) [Ramamurthy et al.,](#page-11-5) [2023\)](#page-11-5). Instead of human preferences, we use similar methods to [Stiennon et al.](#page-12-4) [\(2020\)](#page-12-4) and [Ziegler et al.](#page-12-5) [\(2019\)](#page-12-5) to align the LLM with VLM's preferences for descriptions that it deems more accurate. Unlike previous methods, we use preference learning not as our goal but as a tool to understand the knowledge that VLMs acquire during pre-training. Vision-Language Models (VLMs) We primarily focus on contrastive VLMs, which are trained to push related image-text pairs closer and unrelated pairs farther in the embedding space [\(Jia et al.,](#page-10-0) [2021;](#page-10-0) [Radford et al.,](#page-11-1) [2021\)](#page-11-1). Multimodal language models (MLMs) are another category of VLMs that use additional training to incorporate the image features into LLMs in order to condition the text generation on both input text and images [\(Li et al.,](#page-10-1) [2023a;](#page-10-1) [Liu et al.,](#page-11-6) [2023\)](#page-11-6). Despite the many advantages of MLMs, contrastive VLMs are still better suited for tasks like image classification [\(Alayrac et al.,](#page-9-2) [2022\)](#page-9-2)

¹Throughout the paper, "attribute" refers to concept attributes like color and shape, while "feature" and "characteristic" refer to properties of descriptions like the type of information they contain or text style.

Figure 2: Extract and Explore (EX2) overview. A) We use RL to fine-tune an LLM to generate concept descriptions that are closer to the corresponding images in the VLM embedding space, thus, the descriptions incorporate features that the VLM uses to represent the concepts. We use the aligned LLM to generate the VLM's preferred description for all concepts. B) We inspect these descriptions from various aspects, e.g., if they are informative or describe visual attributes. Based on the aggregate results, we draw conclusions about how the VLM represents concepts.

or creating large search indices for efficient filtering and retrieval [\(Schuhmann et al.,](#page-11-7) [2022\)](#page-11-7). Contrastive VLMs also serve as the backbone for many other methods or downstream applications like image manipulation [\(Patashnik et al.,](#page-11-8) [2021\)](#page-11-8). Even most MLMs use contrastive VLMs to extract the image features [\(Liu et al.,](#page-11-6) [2023\)](#page-11-6). Thus, understanding how contrastive VLMs represent concepts remains an important issue that also impacts other types of VLMs and many downstream applications. We aim to investigate this question without fine-tuning or modifying the VLM after pre-training.

Detailed Descriptions for VLMs One line of work provides VLMs with detailed concept descriptions to improve the classification accuracy [\(Feng](#page-10-2) [et al.,](#page-10-2) [2023;](#page-10-2) [Li et al.,](#page-10-3) [2023b;](#page-10-3) [Pratt et al.,](#page-11-9) [2023;](#page-11-9) [Yan](#page-12-0) [et al.,](#page-12-0) [2023;](#page-12-0) [Yang et al.,](#page-12-6) [2023\)](#page-12-6). For instance, [Menon](#page-11-2) [and Vondrick](#page-11-2) [\(2023\)](#page-11-2) suggest augmenting the descriptions with concept attributes. [Esfandiarpoor](#page-10-4) [and Bach](#page-10-4) [\(2024\)](#page-10-4) further improve this idea and ensure the attributes differentiate the target classes. However, [Roth et al.](#page-11-3) [\(2023\)](#page-11-3) question the role of additional information and suggest that even adding random words and characters to descriptions leads to similar improvements. Here, we propose a novel model analysis method to study the role of additional information in VLM representations.

Vision-Language Model Analysis The massive success of VLMs has sparked an interest in understanding how they interpret text descriptions. Previous works have studied VLMs from various aspects such as the relative importance of verbs and nouns [\(Hendricks and Nematzadeh,](#page-10-5) [2021\)](#page-10-5), VLMs' sensitivity to word order [\(Akula et al.,](#page-9-0) [2020\)](#page-9-0), linguistic features of descriptions [\(Castro et al.,](#page-9-3) [2023\)](#page-9-3), and, the most popular, their poor compositional capabilities [\(Hsieh et al.,](#page-10-6) [2023;](#page-10-6) [Lewis et al.,](#page-10-7) [2022;](#page-10-7) [Ma et al.,](#page-11-4) [2023;](#page-11-4) [Parcalabescu et al.,](#page-11-10) [2022;](#page-11-10) [Schiappa](#page-11-11)

[et al.,](#page-11-11) [2023;](#page-11-11) [Thrush et al.,](#page-12-7) [2022;](#page-12-7) [Xu et al.,](#page-12-8) [2024\)](#page-12-8). Although this line of work provides important information about specific aspects of VLMs' behavior, our understanding of the world knowledge that VLMs acquire during pre-training remains limited. As discussed in Section [1,](#page-0-0) this becomes even more important considering that previous works suggest VLMs' behavior deviates from the expected results of vision and language pre-training [\(Yun et al.,](#page-12-3) [2022,](#page-12-3) [2021\)](#page-12-2). Given the importance of concept representations [\(Lovering and Pavlick,](#page-11-12) [2022;](#page-11-12) [Merullo](#page-11-13) [et al.,](#page-11-13) [2022;](#page-11-13) [Patel and Pavlick,](#page-11-14) [2021;](#page-11-14) [Pavlick,](#page-11-15) [2022\)](#page-11-15), our goal is to understand what VLMs learn during pre-training and characterize factors contributing to their concept representations.

Moreover, we propose a new paradigm for studying VLMs that allows us to conduct such exploratory analysis. Currently, the most common approach for VLM analysis relies on custom datasets that test a specific hypothesis. However, our approach is compatible with existing classification datasets and is not tied to a specific hypothesis. We can even use it to generate new hypotheses (Section [4.6\)](#page-7-0). There is also a complementary line of work for understanding VLM representations in terms of images instead of text [\(Ghiasi et al.,](#page-10-8) [2022;](#page-10-8) [Kazemi et al.,](#page-10-9) [2024\)](#page-10-9). For natural language tasks, [Perez et al.](#page-11-16) [\(2022\)](#page-11-16) use a similar method, i.e., LLM alignment, to discover the harmful generations of other LLMs. We emphasize that our method is not meant to replace existing VLM analysis approaches but to provide a complementary tool that allows for exploratory model analysis.

3 Extract and Explore

Given the large number of textual features that could contribute to VLM representations (e.g., concept attributes and linguistic patterns), it is very costly, if not impossible, to curate and probe VLMs for an exhaustive set of features. Instead, EX2 learns to automatically generate concept descriptions that incorporate textual features that are important for the VLM, i.e., Extract VLM's preferred descriptions (Fig. [2a](#page-2-0)). Then, EX2 inspects these descriptions for common patterns to identify features that the VLM uses to represent concepts, i.e., Explore VLM's preferred descriptions (Fig. [2b](#page-2-0)).

3.1 Extracting VLM's Preferred Descriptions

A Large Search Space To expand the search space for potential features, we use LLMs to generate concept descriptions. LLM's ability to control various aspects of text generation, such as world knowledge and text style [\(Jiang et al.,](#page-10-10) [2020;](#page-10-10) [Petroni et al.,](#page-11-17) [2019\)](#page-11-17), leads to a more thorough search than a predefined set of features. To further expand the search space, we use 25 different questions to query the LLM about various aspects of each concept (refer to Appendix [C](#page-13-0) for the list of question templates).

LLM Alignment with VLM Preferences To increase the likelihood of VLM's desired features in descriptions, we use reinforcement learning to align the LLM with VLM preferences. Thus, we define a reward function that gives a higher score to descriptions that include features that are important for the VLM. Intuitively, from the VLM's perspective, the reward function encourages more accurate concept descriptions. Since contrastive VLMs like CLIP are trained to push related text and images closer, VLMs deem a concept description accurate if it is close to the embedding of the corresponding images. Therefore, we define the reward function as the average cosine similarity between the concept description and concept images.

Specifically, for some description d_c and a set of images D_c for class c, we calculate the reward as:

$$
R(d_c) = \frac{1}{|D_c|} \sum_{x \in D_c} \tau \cos(\Phi_I(x), \Phi_T(d_c)) - \beta KL,
$$

where Φ_I and Φ_T are the VLM image and text encoders, respectively, τ is a constant scaling factor, and β is the coefficient for the KL divergence between the original and current model. The KL penalty encourages the generation of meaningful descriptions that we can later analyze and helps with convergence by constraining the search space. Since we want to compare the generations across experiments, we adopt the adaptive KL coefficient technique of [Ziegler et al.](#page-12-5) [\(2019\)](#page-12-5) to achieve roughly similar KL divergences across experiments.

With the 25 questions for all classes as the LLM input and this reward function, we use the same method as [Stiennon et al.](#page-12-4) [\(2020\)](#page-12-4) and [Ziegler](#page-12-5) [et al.](#page-12-5) [\(2019\)](#page-12-5), which uses Proximal Policy Optimization [\(Schulman et al.,](#page-12-9) [2017\)](#page-12-9), to update the LLM to increase the reward score.

Then, for each concept, EX2 uses the aligned LLM to generate a set of descriptions that are similar to the corresponding images, i.e., they are the VLM's preferred descriptions for the concept.

3.2 Exploring VLM's Preferred Descriptions

Since the aligned descriptions incorporate features that are important for the VLM, we inspect these descriptions for desired characteristics to understand the extent of their contribution to VLM representations. For instance, we can check if VLMs rely on attributes to represent concepts or if VLMs are biased towards a specific text style. We use ChatGPT [\(Brown et al.,](#page-9-4) [2020;](#page-9-4) [Ouyang et al.,](#page-11-18) [2022\)](#page-11-18) to automatically inspect the large number of descriptions.

Figure 3: Breakdown of aligned descriptions for CLIP on Flowers. CLIP significantly relies on spurious or non-visual information to represent flower species.

Here, we study VLMs as visual perception tools that are expected to match the description of a concept's physical appearance to images of instances of that concept. Similar to the reward function, our analysis focuses on the physical appearance of concepts rather than the entire content of individual images. For many applications, it is undesirable for models to rely on *spurious* or *non-visual* information. Also see Appendices [A.1](#page-12-10) and [A.2](#page-13-1) for extended discussion. We consider descriptions that provide no world knowledge about the concept to be spurious (e.g., click to enlarge photo of the cat). We consider informative descriptions to be non-visual if they only contain additional information that is not about the concept's physical appearance (e.g., The bobolink is a North American bird). For example, we find that CLIP relies significantly on both spurious and non-visual information to represent flowers, with 45% of descriptions providing no helpful informa-

VLM	Flowers		Pets		CUB		Stanford Dogs Aircrafts				Stanford Cars	
							Temp. EX2 Temp. EX2 Temp. EX2 Temp. EX2 Temp. EX2 Temp.					EX2
CLIP							63.31 73.65 84.68 88.34 51.48 53.54 59.59 61.49 21.36 22.89 60.15					60.88
ALIGN							59.44 62.19 82.56 86.86 36.81 39.66 52.38 56.24 12.42 17.04 72.73					74.15
EVA							74.47 79.05 91.80 94.52 74.63 73.52 76.08 79.37 37.08 39.66 91.62					91.22
SigLIP							82.48 86.81 92.10 94.49 61.96 65.33 76.76 78.89 48.21 50.56 90.92					91.22
MetaCLIP							71.44 73.18 87.84 91.42 69.88 69.99 65.50 68.87 37.50 36.72 76.22					76.17
CLIPA							77.13 79.61 91.93 93.87 74.56 76.99 77.19 79.34 39.75 41.31 94.80					94.76
DFN							88.96 88.86 94.33 94.33 87.25 87.78 84.31 85.75 78.76 75.88 96.14					95.78

Table 1: Accuracy of EX2 descriptions. Temp. is the set of 80 generic templates [\(Radford et al.,](#page-11-1) [2021\)](#page-11-1).

tion and 64% of informative descriptions explaining non-visual attributes (Fig. [3\)](#page-3-0).

The space of potential hypotheses goes beyond our specific analysis, and we encourage future work to study other aspects of the aligned descriptions, such as text style or linguistic patterns. Furthermore, as we show in Section [4.6,](#page-7-0) the trends in EX2 descriptions provide helpful cues for discovering new research questions for further investigation.

4 Experiments

In this section, we use EX2 to analyze different VLMs at three levels (Fig. [3\)](#page-3-0). We first validate that the LLM learns features that are important for each VLM, and aligned descriptions improve the classification accuracy. Second, we show that spurious descriptions contribute significantly to VLM representations despite providing no helpful information. More importantly, at the third level, we find that VLMs rely significantly on non-visual attributes to represent visual concepts. We discuss potential correlations between pre-training details and our findings in Appendix [A.3.](#page-13-2) We conduct a more fine-grained analysis that reveals even for the same dataset, different VLMs prioritize different attributes to represent the concepts. Moreover, even the same VLM prioritizes different attributes for different datasets. Finally, we show EX2's application for hypothesis generation and suggest new research questions based on our observations.

4.1 Setup

After RL fine-tuning, we query the LLM with the same questions used during fine-tuning (Section [3\)](#page-2-1) and generate 25 descriptions for each concept that incorporate features that are important for the VLM. To study VLM preferences, our analysis is only based on a subset of generated descriptions that

help VLMs better identify the related images and hence are representative of VLM preferences. We consider a set of descriptions helpful if they achieve better image classification accuracy on the corresponding task than the ensemble of 80 generic descriptions used by [Radford et al.](#page-11-1) [\(2021\)](#page-11-1). Similar to [Radford et al.](#page-11-1) [\(2021\)](#page-11-1), we use the 25 generated descriptions for each concept as a prompt ensemble and use cosine similarity to predict the label for each image.

Datasets We use six classification datasets for analysis. CUB200-2011: fine-grained bird species recognition [\(Wah et al.,](#page-12-11) [2011\)](#page-12-11). FGVCAircraft: aircraft model classification [\(Maji et al.,](#page-11-19) [2013\)](#page-11-19). Flowers102: fine-grained flower species recognition [\(Nilsback and Zisserman,](#page-11-20) [2008\)](#page-11-20). Oxford IIIT Pets [\(Parkhi et al.,](#page-11-21) [2012\)](#page-11-21). Stanford Dogs [\(Khosla](#page-10-11) [et al.,](#page-10-11) [2011\)](#page-10-11). Stanford Cars [\(Krause et al.,](#page-10-12) [2013\)](#page-10-12). Models We use Mistral-7B as our LLM [\(Jiang](#page-10-13) [et al.,](#page-10-13) [2023\)](#page-10-13). We choose seven different VLMs for our analysis. CLIP [\(Radford et al.,](#page-11-1) [2021\)](#page-11-1), ALIGN [\(Jia et al.,](#page-10-0) [2021\)](#page-10-0), EVA [\(Fang et al.,](#page-10-14) [2023b\)](#page-10-14), SigLIP [\(Zhai et al.,](#page-12-12) [2023\)](#page-12-12), MetaCLIP [\(Xu et al.,](#page-12-13) [2023\)](#page-12-13), CLIPA [\(Li et al.,](#page-11-22) [2023c\)](#page-11-22), and DFN [\(Fang](#page-10-15) [et al.,](#page-10-15) [2023a\)](#page-10-15). Refer to Appendix [D](#page-14-0) for details.

4.2 Successful Alignment

We use classification accuracy to verify that the LLM learns what features contribute to VLM representations. In 33 out of 42 experiments, the LLM successfully learns what features help the VLM to identify the related images, and the aligned descriptions improve the accuracy compared to the generic template set (Table [1\)](#page-4-0). Notably, most of the other nine experiments involve the Stanford Cars dataset or the DFN model. Although our goal is model analysis, our results also emphasize the benefits of adapting to VLM preferences for downstream tasks

	Flowers	Pets	CUB	Stanford Dogs Aircrafts		Stanford Cars
CLIP	55.33	61.73	83.50	49.03	57.84	44.47
ALIGN	63.92	68.76	63.66	73.87	65.60	42.88
EVA	1.80	0.00		36.60	29.20	$\qquad \qquad \blacksquare$
SigLIP	44.59	18.70	23.06	21.00	5.36	9.96
MetaCLIP	43.06	32.22	26.58	51.40		$\overline{}$
CLIPA	55.18	26.70	47.84	78.80	6.24	-
DFN	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	0.32	22.90	-	-

Table 2: The percentage of informative descriptions for experiments that the LLM successfully learns the VLM preferences and improves the classification accuracy. Bold numbers are > 25%.

like classification. In the remainder of this section, we analyze the descriptions for the 33 experiments where we successfully learn the VLM preferences to characterize textual features that contribute to concept representations.

4.3 Informative vs Spurious Descriptions

Heuristically, we expect descriptions to better represent concepts when they contain additional information and make little to no difference otherwise. To study the role of spurious descriptions in VLM representations, we inspect if descriptions provide additional information about concepts.

Spurious descriptions are a major factor in VLM representations. Table [2](#page-5-0) reports the percentage of descriptions that provide additional information about concepts for the 33 cases in which the LLM successfully learns the VLM preferences. We refer to descriptions that provide no additional information about concepts as spurious (e.g., Photo of CONCEPT attracted my attention). We observe that in 10 cases, the improvements are almost solely driven by spurious descriptions, and there is no considerable amount of additional information in descriptions, i.e., <25% of descriptions are informative. In a few of these cases, the LLM learns to only generate the concept names with some artifacts, without any helpful information (see Appendix [B](#page-13-3) for examples). Notably, SigLIP benefits more from spurious descriptions (5/6 datasets) than other VLMs. To understand the role of spurious descriptions in the remaining 23 cases, we separate the informative and non-informative descriptions and measure the classification accuracy (Table [3\)](#page-5-1). Fortunately, VLMs do not solely rely on spurious descriptions, and in 19 cases, the informative descriptions alone improve the performance. However, in 16 cases, spurious descriptions alone lead to a considerable boost in accuracy. In total, in 26

Dataset	VLM	Temp. Set	w/o Info	w/ Info
	CLIP	63.31	72.19	73.77
	ALIGN	59.44	59.39	61.90
Flowers	SigLIP	82.48	85.43	87.05
	MetaCLIP	71.44	73.44	70.39
	CLIPA	77.13	79.36	79.40
	CLIP	84.68	87.49	87.90
Pets	ALIGN	82.56	85.61	86.54
	MetaCLIP	87.84	91.61	90.22
	CLIPA	91.93	94.09	92.75
	CLIP	51.48	46.50	52.88
CUB	ALIGN	36.81	36.99	39.47
	MetaCLIP	69.88	69.43	67.88
	CLIPA	74.56	75.94	76.73
	CLIP	59.59	60.71	60.34
	ALIGN	52.38	52.32	55.85
Stanford	EVA	76.08	79.41	78.07
Dogs	MetaCLIP	65.50	68.54	66.43
	CLIPA	77.19	76.82	79.09
	CLIP	21.36	23.58	22.17
Aircrafts	ALIGN	12.42	14.79	18.09
	EVA	37.08	39.09	36.63
Stanford	CLIP	60.15	60.17	59.74
Cars	ALIGN	72.73	73.54	74.00

Table 3: Classification accuracy of informative (w/ Info) and spurious (w/o Info) descriptions. First and second best numbers are in bold and underline.

out of the 33 experiments, spurious descriptions are either almost solely responsible for the improvements or have a considerable contribution.

4.4 Visual vs Non-visual Information

VLMs are often thought to match images to scene descriptions. Therefore, it is natural to think of descriptions of visual attributes, like color, as the basis for VLM representations and ignore or assume a negligible role for non-visual attributes like habitat (e.g., North America). To investigate the contribution of non-visual attributes to VLM representations, we inspect if each informative description provides visual or non-visual information.

VLM	Flowers	Pets	Stanford Dogs
CLIP	36.29	54.82	33.45
ALIGN	56.44	55.66	55.55
EVA			30.78
SigLIP	67.46		
MetaCLIP		57.38	45.40
CLIPA	58.71	64.78	60.03
	CUB	Aircrafts	Stanford Cars
CLIP	64.00	10.24	
ALIGN	18.69	9.82	8.66
CLIPA	39.34		

Table 4: Percentage of informative descriptions that contain visual attributes. Bold numbers are $> 25\%$.

Table 5: Classification accuracy of descriptions that explain visual/non-visual characteristics of the concepts. First and second best numbers are in bold and underline.

Non-visual descriptions contribute significantly to VLM representations. For the 19 cases in which informative descriptions alone lead to a considerable improvement, we report the percentage of informative descriptions that contain visual attributes in Table [4.](#page-6-0) In four cases, non-visual descriptions are almost solely responsible for the accuracy boosts, and only a small fraction (<25%)

of informative descriptions contain visual information. To study the role of non-visual information in the remaining cases, we split the informative descriptions into visual and non-visual categories and measure the classification accuracy (Table [5\)](#page-6-1). Although visual information contributes to VLM representations, in 11 out of 15 cases, non-visual information alone considerably boosts accuracy. In total, in 15 out of 19 cases, non-visual information is either the dominant factor or contributes significantly to VLM representations. Even more concerning, in only four of the 15 cases, descriptions with visual information perform better than the ones with non-visual information by a considerable margin (>1% accuracy boost).

4.5 Described Attributes Across Different VLMs and Datasets

To understand how the described attributes change for different datasets and VLMs, we manually extract and list the attributes for 50 randomly selected descriptions for CLIP and ALIGN models on Flowers and CUB datasets (200 in total). Figure [4](#page-7-1) shows the most common attributes in each case. Note that each description might include multiple attributes.

Different VLMs prioritize different attributes. We observe that even for the same dataset, different VLMs represent concepts differently. For instance, CLIP relies more on "family" and "size" attributes to represent flowers, while ALIGN relies more on "parts" and "color" attributes (Fig. [4\)](#page-7-1). To verify that different VLMs represent concepts differently, we use the preferred descriptions of one VLM for classification with the other VLM. Each VLM performs better with descriptions that include its preferred attributes, i.e., attributes that contribute more to its concept representations, confirming the difference in representations across VLMs (Table [6\)](#page-6-2).

Table 6: Cross VLM accuracy on Flowers and CUB datasets. Rows and columns represent VLMs used for classification and reward calculation, respectively.

VLMs prioritize different attributes for different datasets. The same VLM prioritizes different

Figure 4: Most common described attributes for CLIP and ALIGN for CUB and Flowers. Different VLMs prioritize different attributes to represent concepts. Even the same VLM prioritizes different attributes across datasets.

attributes for representing bird and flower species (Fig. [4\)](#page-7-1). These results suggest that VLM's behavior should be studied on various datasets to draw conclusions about their capabilities. EX2 is well suited to automatically carry out such extensive analysis on a wide range of classification datasets.

4.6 Applications for Hypothesis Generation

The trends in EX2 descriptions provide helpful cues for discovering new research questions. For instance, we notice that SigLIP descriptions often resemble software instructions or photo credits (e.g., Click to enlarge image of CONCEPT). Although WebLi, SigLIP's pretraining dataset, is not publicly available, we know that many of the image-text pairs are created with OCR [\(Chen et al.,](#page-9-5) [2023\)](#page-9-5), and perhaps they are more likely to resemble such specific patterns. Thus, one potential hypothesis is that OCR, as a data source, could lead to more model bias towards spurious patterns. In a preliminary experiment, we engineer three prompt templates that mimic these patterns and use them for classification with CLIP and SigLIP on Stanford Dogs. The custom templates improve the accuracy for SigLIP but not for CLIP compared to the commonly used generic template (Table [7\)](#page-7-2). Our preliminary results encourage future work to systematically study the impact of such patterns on SigLIP and other VLMs and investigate the role of the pre-training dataset in such behaviors, which could provide valuable insights for creating the next generation of image-text datasets.

5 Additional Analysis

ChatGPT Accuracy To assess the accuracy of ChatGPT [\(Brown et al.,](#page-9-4) [2020;](#page-9-4) [Ouyang et al.,](#page-11-18) [2022\)](#page-11-18) inspections, we randomly select 50 descriptions from each of the VLM-dataset combinations (2100 in total) and manually check if they are informative and contain visual attributes. Then, we compare the results to ChatGPT responses. ChatGPT correctly classifies the descriptions most of the time and

Description	CLIP	SigLIP
A photo of a ${class name}$.	58.52	77.23
A photo of a ${class name}$. Click to enlarge.	58.26	78.24
Below is a picture of ${class$ name $}.$ Т a obtained this photo from the following site		58.48 77.75
Click here to view the photos of a {class name}.	58.46	77.94

Table 7: The accuracy of CLIP and SigLIP on Stanford Dogs dataset with custom prompt templates.

agrees with our judgment 86.3% and 88.1% of the time for checking if descriptions are informative and contain visual attributes, respectively (Table [10](#page-12-14) in Appendix [F\)](#page-14-1).

KL Penalty Since the KL penalty in the reward function influences both the accuracy and amount of helpful information in descriptions, here we study its impact on our findings. We repeat our experiments for CUB and Flowers datasets with a reduced KL penalty. Since we use the adaptive KL coefficient technique of [Ziegler et al.](#page-12-5) [\(2019\)](#page-12-5) to set the trade-off between VLM preferences and KL divergence, we increase the target KL value in the adaptive KL coefficient technique from 10 in the main experiments to 20 for this experiment.

As reported in Table [15](#page-19-0) in Appendix [E,](#page-14-2) in most cases, reducing the KL penalty (i.e., more emphasis on VLM preferences) decreases the amount of helpful information in descriptions, which further strengthens our findings about the major role of spurious descriptions in VLM representations.

6 Qualitative Results

Table [8](#page-8-0) shows the generated descriptions for CLIP and SigLIP in response to four sample queries. Consistent with our previous findings, different VLMs prefer different types of descriptions for the same concept. For instance, while CLIP's pre-

Ouery	Describe a photo of a Yellow-billed Cuckoo.	Write a story or narrative inspired by a photo of a Acadian Flycatcher.	How does a photo of a grape hyacinth look like?	How does a photo of a lenten rose look like?
CLIP	The Yellow-billed cuckool is a medium-sized bird with a dark brown to blackish brown plumage. The average length of a	Acadian Flycatcher The is a medium sized bird. spring and common a summer migrant in eastern North America. Acadian Flycatchers	A grape hyacinth plant (Muscari has sp.) two bright blue flowers at its tip per stalk. The flowers have small, colored dots	"## How does a lenten Rose look? rose (Helleborus Lenten is a perennial SDD. plant native to Europe"
SigLIP	"Photo of a Yellow-billed Cuckoo. This image was downloaded from the US Fish & Wildlife Service website. Here's a"	"It's not until after I direct your attention to it that you see the Acadian Flycatcher. Before I point it out,"	"Here is a grape hyacinth photo that I took. Grape hyacinths look like quite elegant, pretty and delicate flowers,"	"A lenten rose is among my favorite flowers. This post will show you how a photo of a lenten rose looks like. A photo"

Table 8: Aligned descriptions generated in response to four different queries for CLIP and SigLIP.

Table 9: Examples of how descriptions change during training for CLIP and SigLIP for the same query.

ferred descriptions explain the visual appearance of concepts, SigLIP's preferred descriptions are often spurious and rarely provide helpful information for classifying images. See Appendix [B](#page-13-3) for generated descriptions for other VLMs.

Although we use the same base LLM and finetuning hyperparameters for all experiments, generated descriptions diverge based on VLM preferences. Table [9](#page-8-1) shows how descriptions change during fine-tuning with CLIP and SigLIP rewards. As expected, in both cases, the LLM initially describes the general characteristics of a Chihuahua dog. As fine-tuning progresses, descriptions generated with CLIP rewards keep explaining what a Chihuahua dog is but use different attributes throughout finetuning. On the other hand, with SigLIP rewards, information helpful for identifying images of Chihuahua dogs decreases during fine-tuning, and descriptions finally converge to personal stories involving a Chihuahua dog. See Appendix [B](#page-13-3) for more examples.

7 Conclusion

In this work, we introduce Extract and Explore (EX2), a novel approach for characterizing features that contribute to VLM representations. EX2 uses RL to align an LLM with VLM preferences and generates descriptions that include features that are important for the VLM. EX2 then examines the descriptions to identify the common features that contribute to VLM representations. Using EX2, we show that spurious descriptions contribute significantly to VLM representations despite providing no helpful information. VLMs also rely significantly on non-visual attributes to represent visual concepts. Moreover, different VLMs prioritize different attributes to represent similar concepts. Even the same VLM prioritizes different attributes across datasets. Our results encourage future work to address the significant impact of non-visual and spurious information on VLM representations. EX2 provides future work with a flexible tool to study various aspects of VLM representations.

Limitations

RL Stability EX2 uses RL to discover the model preferences. Given the sensitivity of RL algorithms [\(Andrychowicz et al.,](#page-9-6) [2020;](#page-9-6) [Engstrom et al.,](#page-10-16) [2020\)](#page-10-16), the generated descriptions should be interpreted cautiously. In this work, our conclusions are based on the sensitivity of VLMs to spurious and non-visual descriptions, and we use classification accuracy to verify their impact on VLMs. Future work should consider the sensitivity of RL algorithms and use similar measures to verify their conclusions. More broadly, considering the benefits of EX2, we encourage future work to study more robust approaches for learning model preferences for analysis purposes.

LLM Capabilities Regardless of the optimization approach, to successfully align with VLM preferences, the original LLM should be capable of generating the desired descriptions (e.g., be aware of the required world knowledge). For instance, in our early experiments, Llama2-7B [\(Touvron et al.,](#page-12-15) [2023\)](#page-12-15) failed to learn helpful features for each VLM. In this work, we mainly focus on high-level features (i.e., the presence of helpful and visual information), and our results show that our LLM successfully describes the target classes from various perspectives. We encourage future work to further study the role of the LLM, especially for investigating more nuanced characteristics of the descriptions, like style or linguistic properties.

ChatGPT as Inspector Although we can use handcrafted rules to inspect the low-level properties of descriptions like word frequency or number of tokens, the same is not possible for high-level characteristics (e.g., whether description contents are spurious or non-visual). As a result, we resort to ChatGPT to inspect the large number of descriptions at scale. We also do a manual evaluation of the quality of ChatGPT inspections and get reasonable results (Section [5\)](#page-7-3). However, using ChatGPT for inspections poses a limitation when it comes to more nuanced or complex characteristics of descriptions that are challenging for current LLMs to detect reliably. One potential path for future work is to train inspector models that check for a specific characteristic of descriptions. This also introduces new challenges like collecting training data and evaluating the customized inspector models.

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Table 10: Agreement rate between ChatGPT and our manual inspection for informative and visual checks for 500 randomly selected descriptions.

A Discussion

A.1 Analysis Design and Rationale

As discussed in Section [3.2,](#page-3-1) we consider descriptions to be spurious if they do not provide any additional information about the concepts beyond concept names. In other words, descriptions that do not contain any of the concept attributes are spurious. Furthermore, we consider informative descriptions to be non-visual if they do not contain any attributes related to the physical appearance of the concepts. Table [11](#page-15-0) provides several examples of this categorization.

In our analysis, we use a specific definition of spurious and non-visual descriptions and argue that sensitivity to these types of descriptions is undesirable (Section [3.2\)](#page-3-1). Although this is not universally applicable, VLMs that do not take into account spurious and non-visual information are desirable for many applications. For example, we can efficiently adapt such VLMs to new classification tasks by just describing the concepts' visual appearance to achieve good performance, eliminating the need for expensive prompt tuning or prompt engineering to find model-specific prompts that boost the performance. Another example is more reliable deployment in practice. Ideally, we want the same behavior in response to user instructions (e.g. pour the coffee beans in the bag) regardless of the variation in users' phrasing and wording (i.e., instances of spurious correlations) or the presence of nonvisual information (e.g., the smell of coffee beans).

We emphasize that the definition of characteristics and whether they are desirable is decided by the user and not restricted by EX2.

A.2 Concept-level Analysis

In this work, we analyze VLMs at the concept level rather than the image level. We calculate our reward score for each concept rather than a single image, i.e., the reward is calculated over a set of 250 images for each concept. Similarly, our definition of spurious and non-visual descriptions focuses on the concept in the images and not the entire scene (e.g., the background). The insights from our concept-level analysis are important for many applications, such as the ones mentioned in Appendix [A.1.](#page-12-10) We encourage future work to also conduct an image-level analysis of VLMs. Such analysis is especially important to understand how VLMs perceive more complex scenes, like the relation between multiple objects in the image [\(Lewis](#page-10-7) [et al.,](#page-10-7) [2022\)](#page-10-7).

A.3 Correlation between Findings and Training Details

Our observations suggest a correlation between training data and our findings. For instance, CLIP, MetaCLIP, and DFN have similar (but not identical) training setups, except for the training data, where MetaCLIP attempts to recreate CLIP's pre-training data. As a result, we observe that MetaCLIP prioritizes informative descriptions more often than DFN but less often than CLIP (Table [2\)](#page-5-0). SigLIP is another interesting case. Unlike other VLMs, SigLIP's training dataset, WebLI, uses OCR results as text descriptions. We observe that compared to other VLMs, SigLIP benefits more often from spurious descriptions. Also in Section [4.6,](#page-7-0) we show that SigLIP is biased towards spurious patterns that are expected in OCR data.

We do not make any claims about correlation between specific properties of training data and our findings. Such a conclusion requires extensive and systematic experiments that train multiple variations of the same VLM and control for other training details. We believe EX2 is well-suited to provide insights and generate new hypotheses that guide such extensive analysis and hope it helps future work to study the impacts of training data on VLMs.

B Qualitative Observations

Descriptions for different VLMs. Table [16](#page-19-1) shows the generated descriptions for different VLMs in response to four sample queries. Consistent with our findings, we observe that different VLMs prefer different descriptions for the same concept.

Name-only descriptions. For several VLMdataset combinations, the LLM learns to rely more on concept names rather than coherent English sentences. In these cases, the ratio of informative descriptions is very small (Table [2\)](#page-5-0). In Table [12,](#page-16-0) we provide examples of such descriptions for VLMdataset combinations with less than 10% informative descriptions in Table [2.](#page-5-0)

Descriptions throughout training. Although we use the same LLM to learn the preferences of all VLMs, the LLM adapts according to VLM preferences throughout training. In Tables [13](#page-17-0) and [14,](#page-18-0) we show how LLM descriptions change during training for two different VLMs in response to the same query.

C Implementation Details

We use the same hyperparameters as [Ziegler et al.](#page-12-5) [\(2019\)](#page-12-5) used for style tasks, which are also the default hyperparameters in TRL library 2 that we use in our experiments. We change the batch size to 32 and accumulate the gradients every eight steps. For the adaptive KL algorithm, we use a target KL of 10. To reduce computational requirements, we only use 256 images per class to calculate the reward for each description during training. To be able to train large models on a single GPU, we use 8-bit Q-LORA with rank $r = 16$ [\(Dettmers](#page-10-17) [et al.,](#page-10-17) [2024\)](#page-10-17). Each experiment requires about 36 GPU hours for training on a single A6000 card with 48GB of memory.

C.1 Prompting Details

To search a diverse set of descriptions, we use the 25 question templates in Table [20](#page-22-0) to query the LLM to describe various aspects of the target concepts.

We use ChatGPT (gpt-[3](#page-13-5).5-turbo-1106 3) to inspect the large number of descriptions. We use the prompt templates in Table [17](#page-20-0) and Table [18](#page-20-1) to

² <https://huggingface.co/docs/trl/index>

³ <https://openai.com/blog/openai-api>

check if each description is informative and if it explains the visual attributes of the target concept, respectively.

D Models

We use Mistral-7B as our LLM [\(Jiang et al.,](#page-10-13) [2023\)](#page-10-13). We choose seven different VLMs for our analysis. In parentheses, we mention the vision transformer backbone for each model [\(Dosovitskiy et al.,](#page-10-18) [2021\)](#page-10-18). CLIP is trained with a contrastive loss on a private dataset of 400M image-text pairs [\(Radford](#page-11-1) [et al.,](#page-11-1) [2021\)](#page-11-1) (ViT-B-32). ALIGN is also trained with a contrastive loss [\(Jia et al.,](#page-10-0) [2021\)](#page-10-0), and we use a checkpoint trained on CoYo [\(Byeon et al.,](#page-9-7) [2022\)](#page-9-7) (base [4](#page-14-3)). EVA [\(Fang et al.,](#page-10-14) [2023b\)](#page-10-14) is trained on Laion400M [\(Schuhmann et al.,](#page-11-7) [2022\)](#page-11-7) to reconstruct the CLIP features (ViT-g-14). SigLIP [\(Zhai](#page-12-12) [et al.,](#page-12-12) [2023\)](#page-12-12) is a CLIP model that uses a sigmoid loss instead of softmax and is trained on WebLi dataset [\(Chen et al.,](#page-9-5) [2023\)](#page-9-5) (ViT-B-16). MetaCLIP attempts to recreate the CLIP pre-training dataset and uses it to train a similar model [\(Xu et al.,](#page-12-13) [2023\)](#page-12-13) (ViT-B-16). CLIPA is a CLIP model that uses input masking to improve efficiency [\(Li et al.,](#page-11-22) [2023c\)](#page-11-22) and is trained on the Laion400M dataset (ViT-H-14- 336). DFN [\(Fang et al.,](#page-10-15) [2023a\)](#page-10-15) uses a data filtering network to filter DataComp1B [\(Gadre et al.,](#page-10-19) [2023\)](#page-10-19) and trains a CLIP model on the resulting dataset (ViT-H-14-378).

E KL Penalty Analysis

To understand the impact of the KL penalty in the reward function on the aligned descriptions, we repeat our main experiments for CUB and Flowers datasets but relax the KL penalty. As reported in Table [15,](#page-19-0) reducing the KL penalty (i.e., more emphasis on VLM preferences) decreases the amount of helpful information in descriptions, which further strengthens our findings about the significant role of spurious information in VLM representations.

F ChatGPT Accuracy

In Table [10,](#page-12-14) we report the rate of agreement between ChatGPT and our manual inspection for informative and visual description checks.

⁴ <https://huggingface.co/kakaobrain/align-base>

Table 11: Examples of spurious, non-visual, and visual descriptions.

VLM	Dataset	Description
	Flowers	Pink-yellow dahlia, dahlia, dahlia, dahlia, dahlia, dahlia, dahlia
EVA		## thorn apple ### thorn apple #### thorn apple ##### thorn apple ###### thorn apple
	Pets	A Havanese
		A keeshond
	Aircrafts	McDonnell Douglas DC-9-30 airplane McDonnell Douglas DC-9-30 aircraft, Photos, Hugh 2
SigLIP		## Boeing 747-100 Aircraft Specifications The Boeing 747-100(650
	Cars	### A Photo of a 2012 Toyota 4Runner SUV The image shows a 2012 Toyota 4
		## A photo of a 2007 Chevrolet Monte Carlo Coupe A photo of a 2007 Chevrolet
CLIPA	Aircrafts	Embraer EMB-120 The Embraer EMB-120 The Embraer EMB-12
		## McDonnell Douglas MD-87 McDonnell Douglas MD-87. Credits: Wikipedia The McDon
DFN	CUB	Canada Warbler Photo 1 Canada Warbler Photo 2 Canada Warbler Photo 3 Canada Warbler Photo 4
		Worm-eating Warbler 1 Worm-eating Warbler 2 Worm-eating Warbler 3

Table 12: Examples of name-only descriptions generated by the LLM.

Table 13: Examples of how descriptions change during training for CLIP and SigLIP for the same query. For CLIP, the LLM attempts to describe a Chihuahua dog in all steps but the type of information in descriptions change during training. However, for SigLIP, the LLM first starts by describing a Chihuahua dog but then converges to generating personal stories about Chihuahua dog as a pet.

Table 14: Examples of how descriptions change during training for CLIP and SigLIP for the same query. For CLIP, the LLM attempts to describe an African hunting dog in most steps but the type of information in descriptions change during training. However, for SigLIP, the LLM first starts by describing an African hunting dog but then converges to generating spurious information like the download link for an image of an African hunting dog.

Table 15: Classification accuracy and percentage of informative descriptions for Flowers and CUB with relaxed KL penalty (target KL of 20 instead of the original 10 in main experiments). In most cases, reducing the KL penalty (i.e., more emphasis on VLM preferences) decreases the number of informative descriptions, which further strengthens our conclusions about the significant role of spurious descriptions in VLM representations.

Table 16: Aligned descriptions generated in response to four different queries for various VLMs.

Table 17: Prompt template for ChatGPT to determine if a description provides additional information about the corresponding concept.

Table 18: Prompt template for ChatGPT to determine if a description explains the physical appearance of the corresponding concept.

	Flowers						Pets					CUB			
	\overline{AB}	No Info	With Info	Non-Visual Info	Visual Info	\overline{A}	No Info	With Info	Non-Visual Info	Visual Info	\overline{a}	No Info	With Info	Non-Visual Info	Visual Info
CLIP	2550	1139	1411	898	512	925	353	571	254	313	5000	825	4175	1502	2672
ALIGN	2550	920	1630	710	920	925	289	636	281	354	5000	1817	3183	2585	595
EVA	2550	2504	46			925	925	$\overline{0}$		$\frac{1}{2}$	5000				
SigLIP	2550	1412	1137	369	767	925	752	173		$\frac{1}{2}$	5000	3846	1153		
MetaCLIP	2550	1452	1098	\overline{a}		925	627	298	125	171	5000	3670	1329		
CLIPA	2550	1143	1407	581	826	925	678	247	87	160	5000	2608	2392	1451	941
DFN	2550					925				\overline{a}	5000	4984	16		
			Stanford Dogs					Aircrafts					Stanford Cars		
	\overline{AB}	No Info	With Info	Non-Visual Info	Visual Info	딍	No Info	With Info	Non-Visual Info	Visual Info	\overline{A}	No Info	With Info	Non-Visual Info	Visual Info
CLIP	3000	1528	1471	979	492	2500	1053	1446	1297	148	4900	2721	2179		
ALIGN	3000	780	2216	985	1231	2500	860	1640	1479	161	4900	2799	2101	1919	182
EVA	3000	1902	1098	759	338	2500	1770	730		$\frac{1}{2}$	4900				
SigLIP	3000	2370	630	\overline{a}		2500	2366	134		$\qquad \qquad -$	4900	4412	488		
MetaCLIP	3000	1458	1542	841	700	2500	\overline{a}	$\overline{}$		$\overline{}$	4900				
CLIPA DFN	3000 3000	633 2312	2364 687	941	1419	2500 2500	2344	156		$\qquad \qquad \blacksquare$	4900 4900				

Table 19: Breakdown of the number of informative and spurious descriptions as well visual and non-visual descriptions for experiments in which LLM-generated descriptions perform better than the generic template set.

Describe a photo of a CLASS NAME.

How does a photo of a CLASS NAME look like?

What are useful visual features for distinguishing a CLASS NAME in a photo?

Write a caption for an image of a CLASS NAME.

Describe the distinguishing visual characteristics of a CLASS NAME.

Describe a CLASS NAME.

How can one distinguish the images of a CLASS NAME?

Write a sentence about the visual characteristics of a CLASS NAME.

What are some unusual or creative ways to capture a CLASS NAME in a photo?

What is the typical composition or framing of a CLASS NAME in photography?

Write a poem inspired by the visual characteristics of a CLASS NAME.

Write a short story inspired by a photo of a CLASS NAME.

Critique a photo of a CLASS NAME and provide suggestions for improvement.

Interpret the symbolism in a photo of a CLASS NAME.

Compare and contrast the visual characteristics of different CLASS NAME.

What is the significance of the CLASS NAME in photography?

Identify the key elements or objects in a photo of a CLASS NAME and explain their significance.

Research and find examples of different styles or approaches to photographing a CLASS NAME and analyze their effectiveness.

Write a story or narrative inspired by a photo of a CLASS NAME.

Write a short story using a CLASS NAME as the main subject.

Analyze the composition of a photo featuring a CLASS NAME.

Write a review of a photography exhibit featuring images of CLASS NAME.

Write a critique of a photograph featuring a CLASS NAME analyzing its composition, lighting, and overall effectiveness.

Write a review of a photograph featuring a CLASS NAME and its artistic merit.

Critique a photo of a CLASS NAME and provide constructive feedback for improvement.

Table 20: Diverse question templates to query the LLM to explain various aspects of each concept.