Decoding, Fast and Slow: A Case Study on Balancing Trade-Offs in Incremental, Character-level Pragmatic Reasoning

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Abstract

Recent work has adopted models of pragmatic reasoning for the generation of informative language in, e.g., image captioning. We propose a simple but highly effective relaxation of fully rational decoding, based on an existing incremental and character-level approach to pragmatically informative neural image captioning. We implement a mixed, ‘fast’ and ‘slow’, speaker that applies pragmatic reasoning occasionally (only word-initially), while unrolling the language model. In our evaluation, we find that increased informativeness through pragmatic decoding generally lowers quality and, somewhat counter-intuitively, increases repetitiveness in captions. Our mixed speaker, however, achieves a good balance between quality and informativeness.

1 Introduction

Kahneman (2011) famously said that humans have two ways of thinking (along with others theories on human information processing, e.g., Schneider and Shiffrin, 1977): one way is fast, automatic and intuitive, the other is a slow, controlled, and explicit way of reasoning. This distinction also arises in research on human language processing: slow processes of reasoning that allow speakers to adapt their utterances very flexibly and strategically to a given context are central to theories of pragmatics (Searle, 1969; Grice, 1975; Clark, 1996). Yet, speakers are known to produce utterances in context quickly and easily, which has been a central concern in, e.g., psycholinguistics and experimental pragmatics (Keysar et al., 1998; Galati and Brennan, 2010; Degen and Tanenhaus, 2016, 2019). Similarly, models of pragmatic reasoning and their applications in NLP face the challenge that fully rational language generation is computationally costly or even intractable (Reiter, 1991; White et al., 2020).

Recent work on pragmatics in NLP has taken interest in the Rational Speech Acts (RSA) model (Frank and Goodman, 2012) which resulted in implementations of frameworks that model the generation of informative language with so-called rational speakers (Andreas and Klein, 2016; Fried et al., 2018; Shen et al., 2019). Cohn-Gordon et al. (2018) use an image captioning set-up inspired by classical reference games (see Figure 1) to show that a ‘slow’ rational speaker which reasons internally about the informativeness of utterances generated by a plain neural language model is communicatively more effective than a ‘fast’ literal speaker that produces the most likely utterance for the target as predicted by the language model. More generally, recent work in NLG has shown a lot of interest in reasoning or decoding methods that extend neural generation models with additional objectives that cannot be easily achieved by decoding the underlying neural language model with greedy or beam search (e.g., Li et al., 2016; Vedantam et al., 2017; Vijayakumar et al., 2018; Ippolito et al., 2019; Holtzman et al., 2020; Tam, 2020).

Reasoning schemes like RSA provide an attractive, since explicit and theoretically motivated, way of incorporating linguistically plausible, communicative strategies into a neural generation framework. At the same time, however, RSA and various related decoding methods have been found to not achieve a good balance between different dimensions of output quality. For instance, Ippolito et al. (2019) investigates a range of decoding methods that aim at increasing the lexical diversity of image captions or responses in dialogue and report on a very clear quality-diversity trade-off: the more the decoding procedure (e.g., sampling) increases diversity and deviates from the predictions of the underlying language model, the more the generated expressions decrease in quality. Recently, Schüz et al. (2021) found similar trade-offs for decod-
S₀: a group of people riding on the backs of horses
S₁: two brown horses grazing in a fenced grassy field
Sₓ: two horses in a field in front of a field

Figure 1: Captions for the target image (large), generated by a literal (S₀), rational (S₁) and mixed speaker (Sₓ), with rationality parameter α = 5 and beam search. The captions by S₁ and Sₓ are more discriminative (“field”), but contain repetitions and out-of-vocabulary words (“hornes”).

Next to these trade-offs, rational speakers in RSA, which apply complex recursive reasoning using an internal listener and speaker, incur a high computational cost, particularly in generation setups with large candidate spaces where exhaustive search is not tractable. Therefore, recent works have implemented incremental decoding schemes that reason about discriminativeness at every time-step, during unrolling the language model (Vedantam et al., 2017; Cohn-Gordon et al., 2019). Cohn-Gordon et al. (2018)’s character-level approach fully confronts pragmatic reasoning: the neural language model captions images in a character-by-character fashion such that each character can be internally scored for its informativeness by the rational speaker. While this incremental generation and reasoning scheme makes it possible to search a large space of potential utterances, it is still extremely costly as the internal, recursive reasoning of the speaker is applied at every character.

In this paper, we propose a very simple but highly efficient relaxation of fully rational and incremental decoding with RSA: we propose a mixed speaker that switches between literal and rational inference, that is, between ‘fast’ and ‘slow’ decoding, while unrolling the language model. This speaker applies pragmatic reasoning at particular time steps during decoding rather than at every time-step. Extending Cohn-Gordon et al. (2018)’s character-level RSA, our mixed speaker is rational only when generating the first character of a new word and uses fast literal decoding for the remaining steps in the sequence. Adopting Schüz et al. (2021)’s evaluation setting that combines quality, informativeness and diversity, we find that Cohn-Gordon et al. (2018)’s original, fully incremental character-level generation approach produces captions that are not only more informative and globally more diverse, but also have lower quality, contain more repeated words as well as more out-of-vocabulary words. Generally, the mixed speaker that switches between fast and slow decoding is computationally more efficient and achieves a good balance in these various trade-offs maintaining, most notably, a better balance between quality and informativeness than a fully rational speaker.

2 Models

2.1 Image Captioning Model

We use Lu et al. (2017)’s adaptive attention model. The model’s encoder uses a pre-trained CNN to represent images as feature vectors (we used ResNet152). A single LSTM layer with rectifier activation transforms the feature vectors into new vectors v^g. We concatenate the vector v^g with the word embedding vector w^t as the input for the decoder. Conditioned on image feature vector v^g and the hidden state vector h_{t−1} of the encoder from the previous time step, the attention module generates an attention map vector c^t. A single layer neural network transforms c^t and current hidden state vector h^t into a new vector, the final layer is a softmax over the vocabulary. While Lu et al. (2017) trained word level image captioning models, we trained a character-level model with the same architecture.

2.2 Pragmatic Reasoning

In the RSA model, a so-called rational speaker reasons about how an utterance would be understood by a listener, i.e., whether it allows the identification of the target. The speaker and listener are given a set of images W and one image w^∗ ∈ W is known to the speaker as the target (see Figure 1). The rational speaker in RSA has an internal literal speaker who produces utterance candidates, i.e., a conditional distribution S₀(u|w) which, in the simplest case, assigns equal probability to all true utterances u ∈ U and zero probability to false utterances. A pragmatic listener L₀ then discriminates between
images given the utterance, as follows:

\[
L_0(w|u) \propto \frac{S_0(u|w) \cdot P(w)}{\sum_{w' \in W} S_0(u|w') \cdot P(w')}
\]

where \(P(w)\) is a prior over possible target images. The pragmatic speaker \(S_1\) is defined as:

\[
S_1(u|w) \propto \frac{L_0(w|u) + \alpha \cdot P(u)}{\sum_{w' \in U} L_0(w|u') + \alpha \cdot P(u')}
\]

where \(P(u)\) is a uniform distribution over possible utterances \(U\) and \(\alpha > 0\) is a rationality parameter determining the relative influence of the pragmatic listener in the rational speaker, see Cohn-Gordon et al. (2018) for further details. Essentially, the literal speaker \(S_0\) corresponds to the standard formulation of the language captioning task, i.e., it generates descriptions for single target images. In contrast to this, the pragmatic speaker \(S_1\) considers the respective context, i.e., the distractor images, during decoding.

We use Cohn-Gordon et al. (2018)’s character-incremental implementation of RSA that uses a character-level captioning model as the literal speaker \(S_0\) and applies recursive pragmatic reasoning at each time-step, during unrolling a character-level neural speaker. While Cohn-Gordon et al. (2018) only reported results on decoding RSA with beam search, we compare greedy and beam search.

A Mixed Speaker While previous studies on RSA for neural generation have implemented fully rational speakers that apply pragmatic reasoning over the entire utterance or incrementally at each time-step of the decoding process, we propose a new scheme for decoding with RSA which we call a mixed speaker. This speaker is both literal and rational (or ‘fast’ and ‘slow’), using different levels of reasoning during incremental decoding. We define our mixed speaker \((S_x)\) to be: (i) rational \((S_1)\) when generating the first character of a new word, i.e., at the beginning of the sequence or after generating a whitespace and (ii) literal \((S_0)\) when generating other characters, i.e., not at the beginning of a word. This captures the intuition that the speaker can (and should) in many cases rely on its language model, e.g., when continuing words in a morphologically well-formed way. We test whether pragmatic reasoning at the beginning of words is enough to push the model towards being more informative, by giving more probability to initial letters of discriminative words. For instance, when the speaker describes a big and yellow object, pragmatic reasoning will be needed only at the beginning of the word, discriminating between b and y, depending on properties of the distractor objects.

3 Character-level Experiment

Our experiments compare three different speakers: the literal (or ‘fast’) speaker \(S_0\), which simply decodes the language model, the rational (or ‘slow’) speaker \(S_1\), which reasons at every time step, and the mixed (or ‘fast and slow’) speaker \(S_x\).

3.1 Evaluation

Our evaluation setting is similar to Schüz et al. (2021), who investigated global diversity in pragmatic reasoning with word-level captioning models. Here, in addition, we analyze the repetitiveness of generated captions and evaluate informativeness in similar ways as in Cohn-Gordon et al. (2018), instead of using an external cross-modal retrieval model as in Schüz et al. (2021).

Data We performed experiments using the MSCOCO data set (Lin et al., 2014), with 82,783 and 40,504 images in the training and validation sets, respectively. Each image is annotated with around five captions. Following Cohn-Gordon et al. (2018), we train our speaker and listener models on distinct training splits. Because of this, we randomly split the training set into halves for model training. For evaluation, we randomly selected 1,000 images from the MSCOCO validation set.

Informativeness Following Cohn-Gordon et al. (2018), we train a listener model to predict target images for captions produced by a speaker. Given a set of potential target images and a generated caption, the listener ranks the images in terms of their likelihood. If the target image (i.e., the input of the speaker) is on top, the caption is accurate (reported as listener accuracy, \(L_{acc}\), in Table 1). The clusters of potential target images were compiled based on caption similarity: For each target image, we select the two images as distractors whose annotated captions have the highest Jaccard similarity with the annotated captions of the target image.

Quality Evaluation We assess the quality of generated captions in terms of CIDEr scores (Vedantam et al., 2015), measuring the overlap with human captions. Since our model generates captions character by character, we report the absolute number of out-of-vocabulary types and tokens (OOV types and tokens) where we treat every
TTR is calculated globally as the total number of types divided by the total number of tokens as in van Miltenburg et al. (2018) and Schüz et al. (2021). In contrast to this, TTR_{cap} is computed locally as the arithmetic mean of the TTR values for individual captions. While TTR_{g} reflects the general lexical diversity, TTR_{cap} is an indicator for word repetitions in captions. We supplement this with TTR_{cap}, which is analog to TTR_{cap} but on captions filtered for stop words, i.e., indicating repetitions of content words. Finally, TTR_{g} is based on bigrams and thus indicates the repetition of word combinations or phrases.

### 3.2 Informativeness–Quality Trade-Off
The results in Table 1 show that there is a systematic trade-off between informativeness and quality in character-level image captioning. All speakers that use some level of reasoning, S_1 or S_x with different α-values, achieve a higher listener accuracy but lower quality in terms of CIDEr than S_0. Beam search is generally beneficial for caption quality, according to the CIDEr scores shown in Table 1. However, it seems to interact with highly rational S_1 in unfortunate ways and leads to a drastic increase of the number of OOVs (see Figure 1 for an example). Here, RSA fails to achieve a good balance with its underlying language model. Our mixed speaker achieves a much better trade-off between quality and informativeness, especially in combination with beam search: S_{α=5} clearly outperforms S_{1,α=5} in CIDEr (more than 12 points improvement) and number of OOVs (only 8 types as compared to 72 for S_1), while its listener accuracy is only 3 points lower. From this, we conclude that occasional, word-initial pragmatic reasoning is highly effective and offers a decent balance between informativeness and quality.

Example 1 illustrates further, more general aspects of an informativeness–quality trade-off. S_0 and S_x generate more informative captions by integrating the background of the image as a discriminative feature (“field”). However, other features are also added, some of them inaccurate (e.g., “grazing”, “fenced”). This shows general limitations of this approach: Since discriminativity is the primary concern in RSA, other problems can arise, such as semantic inadequacies.

### 3.3 Local–Global Diversity Trade-Off
Results in Table 1 point to further trade-offs of pragmatic decoding, which generally lead to more repetitive captions being generated. In comparison to the literal speakers S_0, S_1 and S_x have lower TTR_{cap}, TTR_{cap}, and TTR_{g} scores. The mixed speaker attenuates this effect, but has still lower local TTR as the fully literal speaker. This should not happen in theory, since it is questionable whether repeating is a useful strategy for making utterances more discriminative. It could even be seen as a strategy that violates the Gricean maxim of relevance (Grice,

| α  | Inform. L_{acc} | Quality CIDEr | Type Vocab IV | OOV | Token Vocab IV | OOV | TTR_{cap} | TTR_{cap} | TTR_{cap} | TTR_{g} |
|----|----------------|---------------|---------------|------|---------------|------|------------|------------|------------|--------|
| S_0 | 54.8 | 0.668 | 376 | 4 | 11273 | 5 | 0.760 | 0.870 | 0.916 | 0.166 |
| S_1 | 63.0 | 0.559 | 444 | 7 | 13136 | 7 | 0.714 | 0.822 | 0.884 | 0.177 |
| S_x | 66.9 | 0.506 | 549 | 8 | 12990 | 8 | 0.720 | 0.819 | 0.881 | 0.201 |
| S_5 | 68.9 | 0.462 | 620 | 20 | 12846 | 25 | 0.723 | 0.817 | 0.884 | 0.212 |
| S_1 | 61.5 | 0.575 | 443 | 6 | 13127 | 8 | 0.718 | 0.825 | 0.888 | 0.175 |
| S_x | 65.1 | 0.524 | 491 | 6 | 13014 | 6 | 0.723 | 0.820 | 0.888 | 0.189 |
| S_5 | 65.5 | 0.493 | 529 | 9 | 12998 | 10 | 0.728 | 0.824 | 0.890 | 0.198 |

Table 1: Evaluation of informativeness (listener accuracy), quality (CIDEr and OOV types and tokens), local diversity (TTR_{cap}, TTR_{cap}, TTR_{cap}) and global diversity (TTR_{g}) for literal (S_0), rational (S_1), mixed (S_x) speakers.
– see the caption of $S_x$ in Figure 1 for a representative example. Interestingly, however, increases in local repetitiveness are combined with increases in global diversity. Thus, speakers which are more repetitive also use a larger vocabulary ($S_1$ and $S_x$ use more absolute types and have higher TTR$_g$). RSA counteracts the tendency of beam search to globally reduce the vocabulary, but, here, greedily decoded speakers achieve higher numbers of types and TTR$_g$. This indicates that RSA might be a useful approach to generating, e.g., less frequent words when the communicative context makes this necessary, as previously suggested in Schüz et al. (2021).

4 Conclusion

In this paper we have replicated Cohn-Gordon et al. (2018)’s approach to character-level pragmatic image captioning and have evaluated it not only with respect to informativeness, but also quality, repetitiveness, and global diversity of the model outputs. Our results show various trade-offs in character-level captioning: models that are more informative and rational produce captions that are of lower quality and contain more out-of-vocabulary words. In terms of diversity, we find that character-level RSA increases the amount of word repetitions within captions. Interestingly, at the same time, it also increases global diversity and leads to a larger vocabulary being exploited by the underlying language model. This analysis fully confirms and extends findings on word-level decoding methods facing different types of trade-offs as a result of additional objectives introduced into the generation process at the decoding stage (e.g., Li et al., 2016; Vijayakumar et al., 2018; Ippolito et al., 2019; Schüz et al., 2021).

Our analysis also shows that these trade-offs can be countered by our mixed, ‘fast’ and ‘slow’, speaker that applies reasoning in a simple, word-initial fashion. Future work could explore further ways of controlling when reasoning is needed during decoding and generalize this to word-level decoding. As character-level image captioning is arguably not state-of-the-art, some of the effects that we report in this case study might not generalize to more powerful – especially word-level – models. Nevertheless, we believe that the trade-offs observed in this pilot study could be explored in other task that require the generation of long sequences (e.g., image paragraphs, longer responses in an interaction) and that the effectiveness of mixed pragmatic decoding might be an interesting avenue for such tasks.

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