

CLAY: Conditional Visual Similarity Modulation in Vision-Language Embedding Space

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Figure 1. Our proposed concept-based conditional image retrieval method retrieves images focusing on the semantic aspects specified by the text condition. Given a query image, our method adaptively computes conditioned similarity by modulating the similarity space to align with various conditions, *e.g.*, species, location, action, category, and color.

Abstract

Human perception of visual similarity is inherently adaptive and subjective, depending on the users’ interests and focus. However, most image retrieval systems fail to reflect this flexibility, relying on a fixed, monolithic metric that cannot incorporate multiple conditions simultaneously. To address this, we propose **CLAY**, an adaptive similarity computation method that reframes the embedding space of pretrained Vision-Language Models (VLMs) as a text-conditional similarity space without additional training. This design separates the textual conditioning process and visual feature extraction, allowing highly efficient and multi-conditioned retrieval with fixed visual embeddings. We also construct a synthetic evaluation dataset **CLAY-EVAL**, for comprehensive assessment under diverse conditioned retrieval settings. Experiments on standard datasets and our proposed dataset show that **CLAY** achieves high retrieval accuracy and notable computational efficiency compared to previous works.

1. Introduction

In the era of unprecedented data scale, humans seek to efficiently and accurately identify the information of interest in the overwhelming data flow. Within this context, retrieval serves as a computational mechanism that enables us to find what truly matters and what we need [2, 25, 44]. In the computer vision area, despite the remarkable advances in large-scale image retrieval tasks, most approaches still rely on static definitions of visual similarity [7, 15, 42, 55]. By contrast, humans perceive visual similarity in a flexible and adaptive manner, selectively focusing on different aspects of an image depending on a user’s interest as in Fig. 1. For example, one may seek the same object itself, while another may want to see the overall mood of the image. This underscores the need for conditional retrieval systems that can reflect various human attention-related visual cues.

Table 1. Our contextual conditional similarity computation method provides high retrieval accuracy while maintaining efficiency under diverse conditions. We further support a multi-conditioned retrieval scheme, whereas previous works [21, 47] do not. [†] denotes a modified version of the GeneCIS, where database features are additionally incorporated with conditional text.

	GeneCIS	GeneCIS [†]	FocalLens	CLAY
Training-free	✗	✗	✗	✓
Retrieval accuracy	✗	✓	✓	✓
Dynamic efficiency	✓	✗	✗	✓
Multi-condition	✗	✗	✗	✓

In response to this demand, prior studies have explored two main directions depending on which aspects of the query image are focused or modified during retrieval: one focuses on particular attributes within the query image [21, 47, 48], while the other aims to change specific visual contexts of the query image to match the target images [1, 18, 22, 24, 45, 56]. Although the latter direction has been actively studied, the former direction, which seeks to capture specific attributes in an adaptive manner, remains relatively underexplored despite its importance. Existing studies to address it have primarily relied on training-based approaches, where models are trained to perform retrieval under given conditions by learning condition-specific representations [21, 47]. However, these methods require not only computational resources for the training stage but also paired query-target image data for each condition [47], which limits their working regime to closed-set conditions. Moreover, these trained conditional feature extractors incur computational overhead at inference time since all features of database images need to be recomputed through the model from scratch, whenever the user condition changes [21, 48]. These limitations hinder the applicability and capacity of conditional retrieval systems in diverse, real-world scenarios.

To overcome these challenges, we propose CLAY, a training-free and adaptive conditional similarity computation method that transforms the similarity computation space of pretrained Vision-Language Models (VLMs) [42, 55], according to users’ interest as in Fig. 2. By decoupling the conditioning procedure from visual feature extraction, our approach contextually modulates the similarity computation space of VLMs into a conditional similarity space. This eliminates the need to completely recompute the embeddings of database images under varying user conditions by keeping the original visual embeddings fixed. To achieve this, we construct a conditional similarity space within the VLMs’ representation space that respects its underlying non-Euclidean geometry, and define its textual concept subspace leveraging a subspace-construction procedure similar to [12, 36]. Building on this, we further demonstrate that our method is easily extensible to multi-conditional retrieval scenarios, unlike pre-

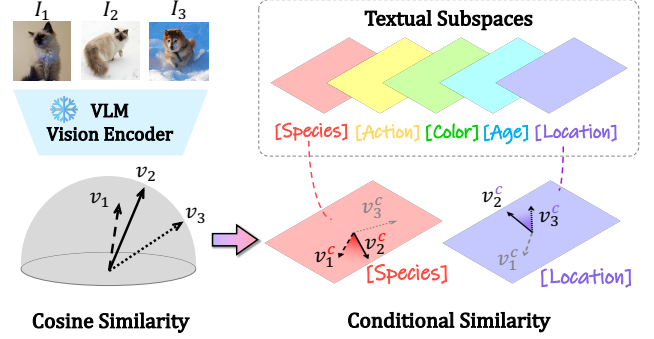


Figure 2. **Illustration of the concept of CLAY.** Our method adaptively computes conditional similarity between images by modulating the original similarity space into a conditional similarity space within the representation space of VLMs.

vious methods dedicated to single-condition settings [21, 47]. Due to a lack of a standard benchmark of a multi-conditional retrieval task, we construct a synthetic evaluation dataset containing diverse human and object images and various conceptual condition pairs, allowing evaluations under multi-condition scenarios. Evaluation on diverse real and synthetic datasets shows that our method achieves strong retrieval accuracy and notable computational efficiency, pushing the Pareto-front of the trade-off between performance and efficiency in practice. Table 1 summarizes the advantages of our method compared to previous approaches. We summarize our contributions as:

- We propose an efficient, training-free, state-of-the-art conditional visual similarity computation method that can contextually adapt to various conditions without recomputing database features at inference.
- Our method supports multi-conditioned image retrieval scenarios, enabling flexible retrieval settings beyond single-condition settings.
- We construct a synthetic evaluation dataset that contains diverse humans and objects with conceptual condition pairs to facilitate the evaluation under diverse conditional retrieval scenarios.

2. Related Work

Image-to-image retrieval is a practical and fundamental problem in the computer vision area [8, 16, 20, 32]. Conventional methods on image-to-image retrieval mainly focused on measuring how visually similar two images are, relying on hand-crafted local descriptors [10, 33]. With the emergence of deep learning, subsequent studies leveraged Convolutional Neural Networks [6, 38, 39, 50] to extract higher-level semantic features beyond low-level visual cues. However, relying solely on static visual feature similarity from such models may be insufficient, as human preferences

can vary across multiple contextual factors. This limitation suggests that the retrieval systems need to be designed to consider further conditions, *i.e.*, conditional image retrieval. In this work, we explore conditional image retrieval, which considers adaptive alignment with user intentions.

Vision-Language Embedding Models are trained on large-scale image-text pair data to embed images and texts into a shared embedding space. Vision-Language Models (VLMs) such as CLIP [42] or SigLIP [55], support semantic alignment of visual and textual representations through contrastive learning. Multi-modal Large Language Models (mLLMs) have extended to provide a more flexible representation conditioning process by utilizing the instruction-following capability of LLMs [26, 29, 35]. Recent studies [12, 36, 54] have explored the structure of the VLM embedding space to enable text-guided control over visual embeddings for various tasks. For instance, Dorfman et al. [12] project visual embedding into a text-based subspace, thereby extracting the text-related visual contexts useful for compositional image generation. However, these approaches primarily focus on aligning visual representations with textual semantics, rather than modeling their relative relationships. We further develop this idea to effectively capture the relationships among visual features within the textual subspace, accounting for the hyperspherical nature of the embedding manifold for accurate relationship modeling.

Conditional image retrieval. With the increasing importance of retrieving images that satisfy user-specified conditions, prior studies have proposed utilizing text conditions and incorporating visual features to focus on specific attributes [21] in the image or to modify particular contexts [1, 32, 51, 56]. As an early work, Conditional Similarity Networks [48] alleviated the limitation of the single similarity metric of embedding methods by employing conditioning masks to select condition-specific embedding dimensions. To specify this task, GeneCIS [47] introduced a benchmark that categorizes text conditions into two types: *focus on* and *change*, and proposed a training-based method that fine-tunes the image encoder and condition feature modulator from the paired dataset. Following this, most subsequent studies have tackled the *change* type, retrieving images that differ only in specific attributes from the query image, known as Composed Image Retrieval (CIR) [1, 18, 22, 24, 32, 51, 56]. Another line of work [21] aims to retrieve images by focusing on specific attributes within a query image. We explore the latter direction, which is relatively underexplored compared to CIR, and leverage the joint embedding space of VLMs to effectively perform conditional image retrieval.

3. CLAY: Conditional Similarity Modulation

We propose a conditional visual similarity computation method leveraging VLMs [42, 55] that consider hyperspheri-

cal manifold. We begin by describing the problem definition of conditional retrieval in Sec. 3.1, followed by the formulation of our conditional similarity in Sec. 3.2. We present the overall conditional similarity computation pipeline of our method in Fig. 3.

3.1. Problem Definition

Previous conditional retrieval methods [21, 29, 35, 47] typically compute condition-based visual similarity by modifying image representations conditioned on text via a feature modulator. In contrast, we reformulate the visual similarity space, allowing conditional retrieval with fixed embeddings. We first categorize the conditional similarity computation methods into two formulations: symmetric and asymmetric methods based on how the text condition c is incorporated into the image representations. Given *query* image I_q and *database* images I_d , the conditional similarity between I_q and I_d can be computed following these two formulations:

$$csim_{sym}(I_q, I_d | c) = d(m(I_q, c), m(I_d, c)), \quad (1)$$

$$csim_{asym}(I_q, I_d | c) = d(m(I_q, c), I_d), \quad (2)$$

where $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ denotes a similarity function such as cosine similarity. The $m(I, c)$ represents a *modulator* that integrates the input image I and the given condition c .

Symmetric vs. asymmetric. Compared to the symmetric case (Eq. 1), the asymmetric computation (Eq. 2) does not forward the *database* images through the modulator m with the text condition. A representative method GeneCIS [47] follows the asymmetric formulation, where only *query* features are conditioned on the text input. However, despite the relative efficiency of this asymmetric formulation, the *database* features will remain independent of the given condition. Consequently, the retrieved results rely on the condition-agnostic representations, potentially leading to suboptimal retrieval performance when guiding the search. To further support this, we experimentally compare the performance by applying both the symmetric and asymmetric formulations to conditional retrieval methods, in Sec 5.

Design of modulator m . Existing methods [21, 29, 35, 47] design the modulator m through the neural network that incorporates text and image inputs. In other words, the modulator is coupled with the visual feature extraction and the conditioning process through a neural network coupler to obtain conditional visual features. This design requires a full forward pass through the network for each condition to obtain the corresponding conditional features. In the symmetric form, it may lead to computational overhead and limit its practicality for adaptive conditional retrieval in a large-scale database. In contrast, we decouple the conditioning process from the visual feature extraction within the modulator m , and propose a conditioning process that does not rely on the input visual feature. We achieve this by proposing the conditional similarity space modulation scheme, which directly

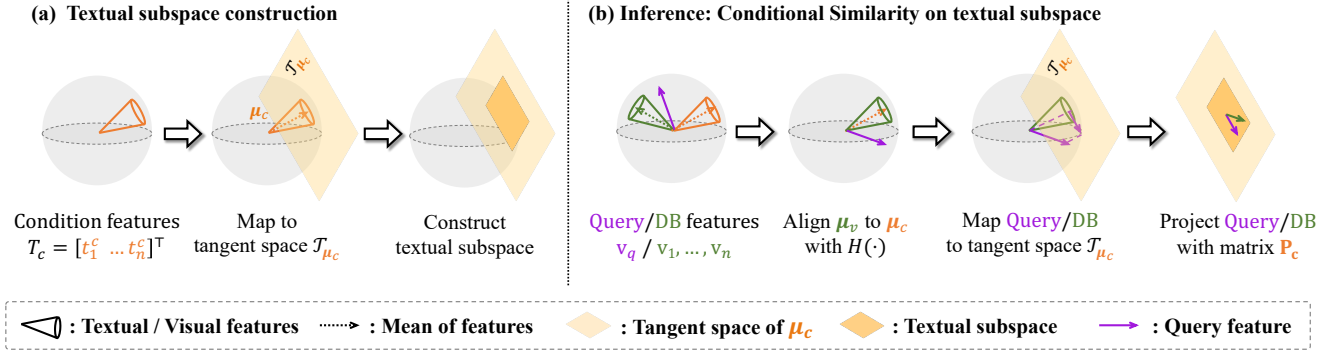


Figure 3. **Conditional similarity computation pipeline.** (a) Given a condition, we construct the manifold-aware textual subspace with the condition text features in advance, and generate the condition-aware projection matrix P_c . (b) At inference, we compute the conditional similarity between the **query** and **database** images by projecting the visual features onto the textual subspace with P_c .

leverages the visual features from a pretrained VLM and projects them into a designed conditional similarity space. This decoupling enables efficient adaptive retrieval in the symmetric form by eliminating the need to re-encode the database features for varying conditions.

3.2. Visual Similarity Modulation

As mentioned, since we utilize text modality for describing the condition, we adopt pretrained VLMs to leverage their structured joint embedding space. VLMs typically consist of a vision encoder f_I and text encoder f_T . For each *query* I_q , *database* image I_d and condition c , we define $v_q = f_I(I_q)$, $v_d = f_I(I_d)$, and $t = f_T(c)$, where f_I and f_T denote the vision and text encoder, respectively.

The main idea of conditional similarity space modulation is to project visual features onto the textual subspace, which captures the condition-aware relationships among visual features. To achieve this, we derive a projection matrix P_c by performing singular value decomposition (SVD) on the text condition feature matrix. Specifically, following previous works [12, 36], we first generate condition-related textual prompts through Large-Language Model (LLM) with the template: a photo of {c}. The generated text prompts are then encoded through a text encoder f_T and their text embeddings t are concatenated to form the text feature matrix $T_c = [t_1^c, \dots, t_n^c]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$. Previous works directly apply SVD on these text features to generate the projection matrix; however, this operation assumes Euclidean structure and therefore ignores the intrinsic geometry of the embedding manifold. In contrast, since VLM embeddings lie on a unit hypersphere, this Euclidean assumption fails to capture their underlying geometry.

Manifold-aware textual subspace construction. To address this, we take into account the hyperspherical nature of the embedding manifold in VLMs to accurately model the relationship and derive a manifold-aware projection matrix P_c . We construct the textual subspace through a local

tangent-space approximation rather than a Euclidean linear subspace, to alleviate the distortion from Euclidean projection similar to previous works [3, 14]. Under mild curvature assumptions, this local structure can be approximated by its tangent space at a reference point. Previous works [13, 31] observe that the embedding geometry of each modality tends to be concentrated within a conical region, indicating that most embeddings lie closer to a common mean direction. Hence, we leverage the validity of the local tangent space approximation under this geometric property. Formally, any point $x \in \mathcal{S}^{d-1} \setminus \{-\mu\}$ can be mapped onto the tangent space $\mathcal{T}_\mu = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : x^\top \mu = 0\}$ via *logarithm map* [19]:

$$\log_\mu(x) := (x - \mu(x^\top \mu)) \frac{\theta}{\sin(\theta)}, \quad (3)$$

$$\theta = \arccos(x^\top \mu).$$

We consider the normalized mean μ_c of text features T_c as a reference point for defining the tangent space, and map text features from the unit hypersphere manifold to the tangent space of μ_c with the *logarithm map*. Then, we apply SVD on these mapped text features:

$$\log_{\mu_c}(T_c) = [\log_{\mu_c}(t_1^c) \dots \log_{\mu_c}(t_n^c)]^\top, \quad (4)$$

$$\log_{\mu_c}(T_c) = U \Sigma V^\top.$$

We utilize the top- k right singular vectors to construct textual subspace, and obtain the projection matrix $P_c = V_k V_k^\top$. By precomputing these textual subspaces for each condition (*i.e.*, projection matrices), we only need to modulate the conditional similarity space using precomputed projection matrices at inference, accordingly. Specifically, we project the query and database visual features from pre-trained VLMs into the space that satisfies the desired conditional relationships, without re-encoding.

Inference. Now we have a projection matrix P_c that projects features onto the textual subspace within the tangent space of μ_c . Our ultimate goal is to model the intra-

relationship among visual features within this condition-aware textual subspace. As mentioned above, the *logarithm map* onto the tangent space is valid under mild curvature assumptions. However, due to the conic effect [13, 31], naive projection of visual features cannot maintain this, which means that visual features are distant from reference point.

To mitigate this, we apply an orthonormal rotation $H(\cdot)$ to align the mean of the database visual features μ_{v_d} with the mean of text features μ_c , without altering the intra-relationship among the visual features. By aligning the visual features with the textual mean, this operation enables tangent space mapping for both modalities to be performed at the consistent reference point. We then apply the logarithm map to map the rotated visual features $H(\mathbf{v})$ onto the tangent space at μ_c , and subsequently project them onto the textual subspace with projection matrix $\mathbf{P}_c$. Finally, similar to standard similarity computation, we compute the similarity between the query feature $\mathbf{v}_q = f_I(I_q)$ and the database features $\mathbf{v}_d = f_I(I_d)$ via cosine similarity. The proposed conditional similarity between the query image I_q and the database image I_d under the condition c is as follows:

$$m_{\text{CLAY}}(I, c) := \mathbf{P}_c \log_{\mu_c} (H(f_I(I))),$$

$$\text{csim}_{\text{CLAY}}(I_q, I_d | c) := d(m_{\text{CLAY}}(I_q, c), m_{\text{CLAY}}(I_d, c)), \quad (5)$$

where $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ corresponds to the cosine similarity. The detailed pipeline is provided in the supplementary material.

4. Our CLAY-EVAL Dataset

Synthetic benchmark datasets have emerged as a powerful tool for providing scalable, controlled evaluations. Leveraging the high fidelity of recent generative models, we provide a novel synthetic evaluation dataset, CLAY-EVAL, for conditional image retrieval. To evaluate our context-aware conditional image retrieval setting, each image in the dataset should be annotated with multiple labels, allowing flexible clustering under different conditions. While several datasets are classified with particular conditions, their scalability is limited because real-world images were manually annotated [28], they only have a single condition [37, 40, 49, 52, 53], or they include only simple simulated 3D geometric objects (*e.g.*, cone, sphere, and cube) with a simple background [23]. To address this, we further build a synthetic dataset using a powerful open-source diffusion model [4], whose reliability allows for the controlled generation of high-quality and diverse image samples.

To construct an evaluation dataset aligned with our objectives, we establish three key design principles: disentanglement, compositionality, and naturalness, inspired by Li et al. [30]. Based on these, we structure our dataset into two main entities, *object* and *human*. Each dataset consists of core attributes, which serve as the primary query conditions, and diversity attributes, which control for visual variance and

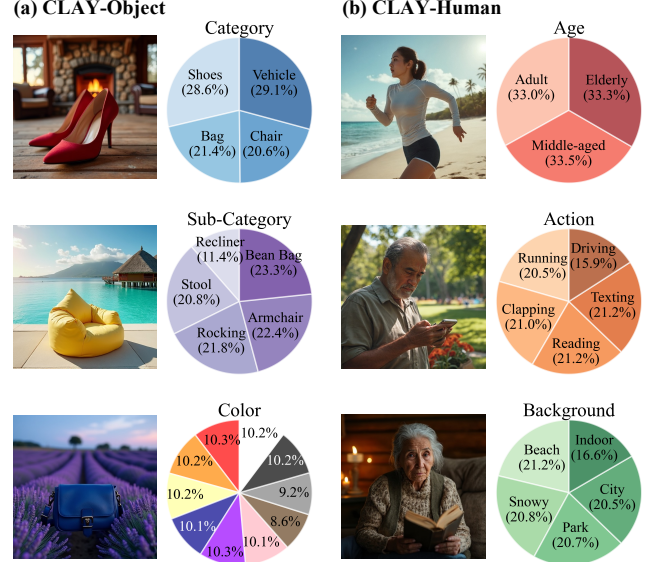


Figure 4. **Our CLAY-EVAL dataset statistics.** We construct a synthetic dataset with diverse condition annotations, consisting of (a) *object* entity and (b) *human* entity. For both, the left column shows sample images demonstrating visual naturalness, and the right column visualizes the distributions of key attributes, showing diversity. Percentages are truncated to one decimal place and annotation text labels are abbreviated.

bias. We define three core attributes for each entity, namely category, sub-category, and color for the *object* entity, and age, action and background for the *human* entity.

We generate images with structured prompts derived from all attribute combinations. For stringent quality control, we first exclude contradictory combinations via schema-level filtering, and subsequently manually remove generated images exhibiting low text-visual alignment. As shown in Fig. 4, our synthetic dataset covers a wide range of instances and paired images, enabling comprehensive context-aware conditional retrieval evaluation. Our final synthetic dataset consists of 7,325 *object* images and 6,745 *human* images, and detailed lists of all attribute instances and curation process are provided in the supplementary material.

5. Experiments

5.1. Experimental Setup

Evaluation datasets and metrics. We evaluate the conditional retrieval performance on a wide range of datasets, including both real-world datasets and our synthetic dataset. For real-world datasets, we utilize fine-grained image classification datasets [5, 27, 34, 37, 40, 49, 52], and further conduct experiments on Stanford40 [53] with the human annotated labels from [28]. In these fine-grained classification datasets, we consider each category as condition, for example, in Stanford40, the condition we suppose is *action*. For the synthetic evaluation, we employ CLEVR4 [23] with

Table 2. **Quantitative comparison of mean Average Precision (mAP) on single conditional datasets.** We evaluate single conditional retrieval performance across various datasets, where each condition corresponds to a specific attribute (*e.g.*, action, cat species, flower type). (a) Real-world datasets and (b) synthetic datasets are presented separately. We compare the baseline Vision-Language Models (VLMs) and competing methods that support conditional retrieval. The **best** and **second-best** results are highlighted.

Method	Stanford40			Fine-grained Image Classification						
	Action	Location	Mood	Cat	Dog	Instrument	Flower	Car	Aircraft	Food
CLIP-B	43.0	47.0	53.0	37.5	37.9	27.1	70.1	30.5	20.9	47.4
SigLIP-B	54.8	52.7	56.4	55.9	59.3	40.6	86.6	64.6	46.7	61.3
GeneCIS	50.0	50.9	51.8	24.7	24.7	24.7	58.5	16.9	17.2	44.8
SEARLE	40.5	43.2	50.0	32.6	43.5	20.4	34.8	17.2	11.0	31.1
MagicLens	52.6	47.5	55.4	29.1	41.7	23.8	47.9	16.5	9.3	41.9
InstructBLIP	63.1	54.4	60.3	50.6	56.8	37.1	76.5	27.6	15.7	50.6
Ours (CLIP-B)	66.0	55.4	57.9	72.7	79.3	58.0	80.4	51.1	28.4	58.8
Ours (SigLIP-B)	66.2	59.5	58.7	82.1	84.7	63.4	92.7	78.0	57.9	66.1

(a) real-world datasets.

Method	Clevr4				CLAY-Object			CLAY-Human		
	Shape	Color	Texture	Count	Color	Category	Subcategory	Age	Action	Background
CLIP-B	61.7	19.9	18.1	13.9	12.9	68.9	42.4	50.4	54.4	41.8
SigLIP-B	77.7	20.0	18.6	13.0	14.7	69.6	62.0	47.7	56.7	53.6
GeneCIS	47.9	16.6	16.0	11.5	12.5	80.1	38.4	45.1	62.4	46.2
SEARLE	43.0	20.7	13.8	13.0	12.1	69.1	38.8	46.1	53.7	40.1
MagicLens	45.1	21.2	12.9	13.7	17.3	59.9	39.3	43.4	62.6	48.3
InstructBLIP	83.4	27.4	22.8	17.9	14.4	75.6	61.4	45.0	72.2	73.7
Ours (CLIP-B)	72.1	67.9	22.2	21.8	47.8	93.4	65.0	71.3	81.3	82.4
Ours (SigLIP-B)	88.6	73.2	26.1	22.7	63.3	94.3	81.9	61.0	80.4	89.4

(b) synthetic datasets.

Table 3. **Quantitative comparison of mAP on multi-conditional datasets CLAY.** We provide the condition combinations such as color and category. We report mAP as an evaluation metric. The best results are highlighted.

Method	CLAY-Object		CLAY-Human			
	Color Category	Color Subcategory	Age Action	Age Background	Action Background	All
CLIP-B	11.6	10.9	35.9	27.1	37.0	31.9
SigLIP-B	13.9	19.7	34.5	32.1	50.5	39.5
InstructBLIP	12.5	14.7	38.6	31.2	74.7	44.1
Ours (CLIP-B)	35.9	38.2	57.0	56.6	78.6	58.0
Ours (SigLIP-B)	44.7	55.0	49.0	55.6	81.5	52.0

the conditions shape, color, texture, and count, as well as our generated synthetic dataset. We split each dataset into *query* and *database* with a 1:9 ratio, and in the evaluation with *subcategory* condition, we report the averaged performance from each categorized database. For the evaluation metric, we adopt the standard metric mean Average Precision (mAP) following conventional image retrieval tasks [17, 41, 43], unless otherwise noted.

Competing methods. To the best of our knowledge, GeneCIS [47] is the only work that is closely related to our problem. For a more comprehensive comparison, we include Composed Image Retrieval methods [1, 56] and In-

structBLIP [9]. To extract the conditioned visual features in InstructBLIP, we average Q-Former output tokens, following FocalLens [21]. We further evaluate multi-modal LLM embedding models such as Qwen3-VL-Embedding [29] and VLM2Vec [35] to compare different similarity computation formulations. Detailed condition instructions and implementation details are provided in the supplementary materials.

Implementation details. In our method, we utilize two VLMs, CLIP [42] and SigLIP [55]. To generate condition-related textual prompts, we utilize ChatGPT-5. We truncate the top- k singular vectors and select $k = 50$ for all experiments. Additional details are in the supplementary materials.

5.2. Comparison of Retrieval Performance

Table 2 presents the single conditional retrieval accuracy of our method and competing methods across various real and synthetic evaluation datasets. For clarity, we also report the baseline performance of CLIP-B and SigLIP-B, which cannot input text conditions. As shown in this table, CLAY consistently outperforms competing methods, exhibiting strong adaptability across diverse datasets and conditions, highlighting that similarity modulation can yield highly effective results. In contrast, our method inherits the strong zero-shot capability of pre-trained VLMs, achieving state-of-the-art

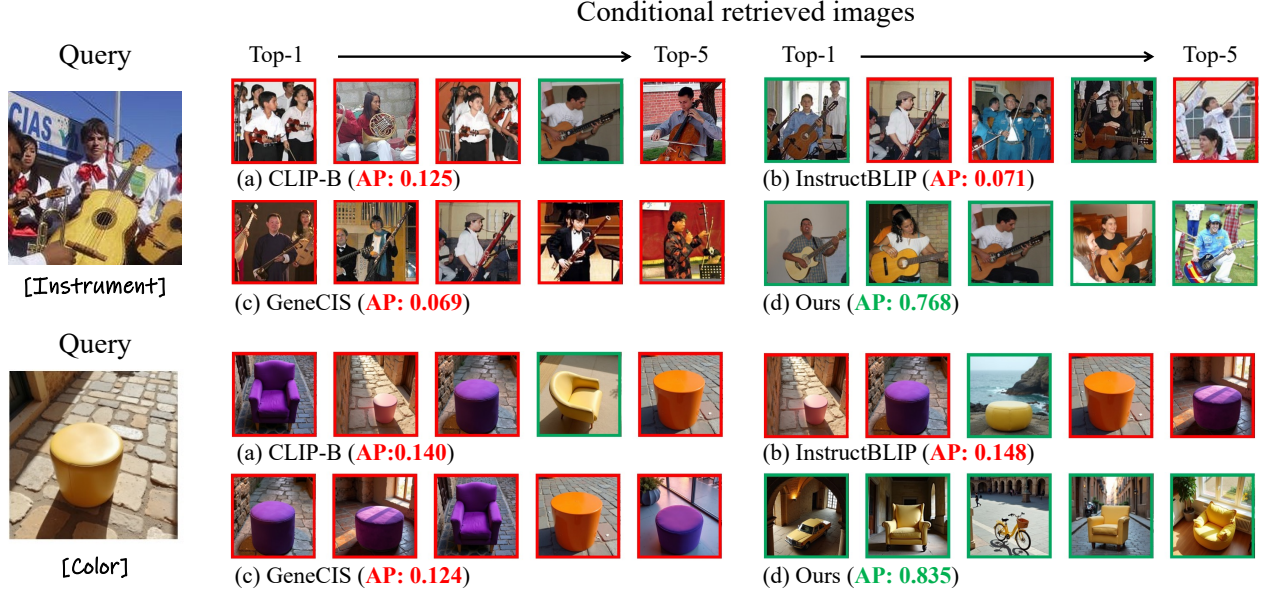


Figure 5. **Qualitative comparison of our method with competing methods.** For each query image and condition text pair, we compare the top-5 retrieved results from (a) CLIP-B, (b) InstructBLIP, (c) GeneCIS, and (d) our method. We also report Average Precision (AP) in each retrieval result. Green boxes indicate correctly retrieved images, while incorrect retrievals are shown in red boxes.

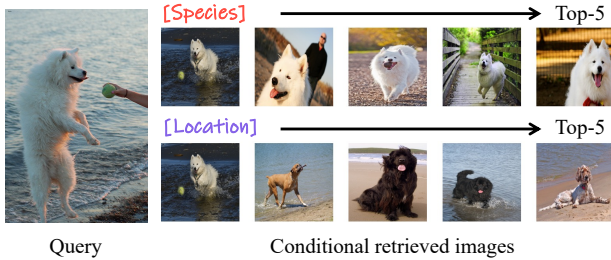


Figure 6. **Qualitative result on Oxfordpets dataset.** We visualize the top-5 retrieved results with condition dog species and location. Since no ground-truth location labels are available, we present qualitative examples only.

performance across diverse datasets and varying condition types without incurring high computational overhead in the symmetric setting. In addition, CLAY can easily be extended to multi-conditional retrieval by constructing text feature matrix from multiple condition-related textual prompts. Table 3 indicates CLAY performs reliably under the multi-conditional retrieval setting, achieving high accuracy on CLAY-Object and CLAY-Human datasets. In Fig. 5, we visualize conditional retrieved results, and it demonstrates that our method achieves better condition-aligned retrieval than the comparison methods. Furthermore, as shown in Fig. 6, CLAY effectively reflects diverse conditions within the same query. Figure 7 also shows how the representation space varies under different conditions. This wide range of coverage is crucial in real-world scenarios, where users may have various intentions that need to be satisfied.

Table 4. **Comparison of retrieval performance and time between symmetric, asymmetric similarity formulations.** We evaluate retrieval accuracy and time efficiency of the two formulations. We report the average latency for a single query under the first condition and the second condition. [†] denotes the symmetric formulation.

Method	mAP (↑)					Time (s) (↓)	
	Stanford	Fine-g.	Clevr	Obj.	Human	1st	2nd
GeneCIS	50.9	30.2	23.1	43.7	51.2	1.705	0.041
Qwen3-VL	63.4	68.6	43.7	66.8	72.8	12.73	0.191
GeneCIS [†]	57.7	40.7	30.2	45.3	54.8	1.705	1.657
Qwen3-VL [†]	76.0	85.3	60.2	75.5	85.8	12.74	12.74
VLM2Vec [†]	73.1	81.1	71.7	73.4	88.7	13.61	13.63
Ours (CLIP-L)	62.5	72.5	47.3	71	77.7	2.206	0.092
Ours (SigLIP-L)	64.7	84.3	53.0	80.7	79.7	2.250	0.126

5.3. Comparison of Similarity Formulations

In Sec. 3, we categorize the conditional similarity computation methods into asymmetric and symmetric formulations. The asymmetric form may lead to suboptimal performance because database features remain condition-agnostic, whereas the symmetric form incurs high computational overhead due to the database modulation process. To validate this, we compare the two formulations by applying both to GeneCIS [47] and Qwen3-VL-Embedding [29], and additionally report results from VLM2Vec [35]. We report the averaged retrieval accuracy across datasets and the averaged inference time per query, measuring separately for the first condition and for the subsequent second condition. For a controlled evaluation of inference time, we sample 100 images from CLAY-Object for the database and report the average retrieval time per query across 10 runs.

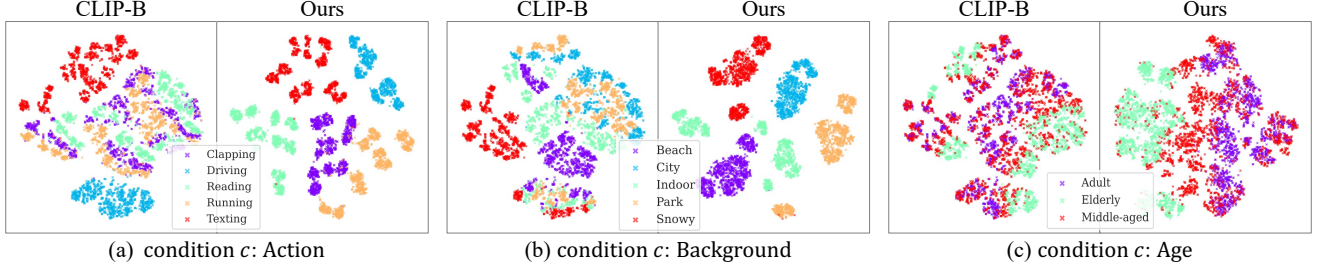


Figure 7. **Representation space visualization with t-SNE.** We report t-SNE of CLIP-B and ours (CLIP-B) on CLAY-Human under condition (a) action, (b) background, and (c) age. The features with the same label are shown in the same color for easy interpretation. Compared to the fixed representation space in CLIP-B, our method forms more discriminative spaces compliant with given conditions.

Specifically, since GeneCIS follows the asymmetric formulation only conditioning the *query* features, we apply the symmetric formulation by feed-forwarding the *database* features with the conditions through the modulator. As shown in Tab. 4, compared to the asymmetric case, the symmetric formulation consistently improves retrieval accuracy in both GeneCIS and Qwen3-VL-Embedding. This result indicates that the conditioning process for both query and database is critical for capturing condition-specific relationships. However, this performance gain comes with a high computational overhead, since applying a new condition requires recomputing the embeddings of the whole database, which makes it impractical for large-scale database scenarios. In contrast, our method effectively balances the strength of symmetric and asymmetric paradigms. CLAY achieves strong retrieval performance without additional feature encoding cost, placing it in a practical balance.

5.4. Analysis of Representation Space

To confirm the effectiveness of similarity space modulation, we visualize t-SNE results comparing with CLIP-B and Ours (CLIP-B) on our CLAY-Human dataset. As shown in Fig 7, the visual representation space is distinctly separated with each *action* and *background* condition, compared to the baseline. This result shows how our method adaptively modulates the original visual features onto the condition-aware subspace, achieving high conditional retrieval performance. Interestingly, applying our method shows a rankable property along the condition axis (*i.e.*, age) in Fig 7 (c). Previous work [46] studied this rankability by identifying the rankable axis, CLAY can achieve this property naturally through conditional similarity space modulation. We also find that this rankable property holds in Clevr4-count, and provide in supplementary materials.

5.5. Ablation Study

Table 5 shows the effects of rotation and manifold modeling on retrieval performance. We find that applying manifold-aware modeling does not provide meaningful improvements or even degraded performance on specific datasets. This im-

Table 5. **Effectiveness of rotation and manifold modeling.** We ablate the rotation operation and manifold modeling across datasets. We report the averaged mAP. Due to space limitations, we abbreviate manifold modeling as manifold, and CLAY-Human and CLAY-Object as Human and Object, respectively.

Rotation	Manifold	Stanford40	Fine-grained	Clevr4	Object	Human
✗	✗	57.9	60.5	43.8	65.4	76.8
✗	✓	57.9	60.5	43.9	63.7	76.8
✓	✓	59.8	61.3	46.0	66.9	78.3

plies that simply considering the hyperspherical geometry of embedding space is not sufficient since the visual features are not well aligned with the reference point. In contrast, when the rotation operation is combined with the manifold modeling, the performance improves across datasets, indicating that the rotation step is important for effectively preserving relationships during similarity space modulation.

6. Conclusion

In this work, we introduce CLAY, a novel conditional visual similarity computation method that adaptively modulates the fixed similarity of existing pre-trained VLMs to a text-conditional similarity without additional training. CLAY’s adaptive conditioning strikes a sweet spot between accuracy and efficiency that prior methods struggle to achieve simultaneously, thereby enabling practical and effective conditional retrieval. By leveraging the underlying geometry, our manifold-aware textual subspace enables theoretically grounded modeling of the conditional relationship between images. To support a comprehensive evaluation of the multifaceted aspects of conditional retrieval, we construct a synthetic evaluation dataset containing diverse object and human images annotated with conceptual conditions. We believe this work opens up promising directions for building practical retrieval systems compliant with human intentions as well as potential applications beyond retrieval systems, *e.g.*, text and visual matching in multimodal generative models [11] by introducing a focused similarity like ours.

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