LANGUAGE-MEDIATED, OBJECT-CENTRIC REPRESENTATION LEARNING

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Paper under double-blind review

ABSTRACT

We present Language-mediated, Object-centric Representation Learning (LORL), learning disentangled, object-centric scene representations from vision and language. LORL builds upon recent advances in unsupervised object segmentation, notably MONet and Slot Attention. Just like these algorithms, LORL also learns an object-centric representation by reconstructing the input image. But LORL further learns to associate the learned representations to concepts, i.e., words for object categories, properties, and spatial relationships, from language input. These object-centric concepts derived from language facilitate the learning of object-centric representations. LORL can be integrated with various unsupervised segmentation algorithms that are language-agnostic. Experiments show that LORL consistently improves the performance of MONet and Slot Attention on two datasets via the help of language. We also show that concepts learned by LORL aid downstream tasks such as referential expression interpretation.

1 INTRODUCTION

Cognitive studies show that human infants develop object individuation skill from diverse sources of information: spatial-temporal information, object property information, and language (Xu, 1999; 2007; Westermann & Mareschal, 2014). Specifically, young infants develop object-based attention that disentangles the motion and location of objects from their visual appearance features. Later on, they can leverage the knowledge acquired through word learning to solve the problem of object individuation: words provide clues about object identity and type. The general picture from cognitive science is that object perception and language co-develop in support of one another (Bloom, 2002).

Our long-term goal is to endow machines with similar abilities. In this paper, we focus on how language may support object segmentation. Many recent works have studied the problem of unsupervised object representation learning, though without language. As an example, factorized, object-centric scene representations have been used in various kinds of prediction (Goel et al., 2018), reasoning (Yi et al., 2018; Mao et al., 2019), and planning tasks (Veerapaneni et al., 2020), but they have not considered the role of language and how it may help object representation learning.

As a concrete example, consider the input images shown in Fig. 1 and the paired questions. From language, we can learn to associate concepts, such as *black, pan*, and *legs*, with the referred object's visual appearance. Further, language provides cues about how an input scene should be segmented into individual objects: a wrong parsing of the input scene will lead to an incorrect answer to the question. We can learn from such failure that the handle belongs to the frying pan (Fig. 1a) and the chair has four legs (Fig. 1b).

Motivated by these observations, we propose a computational framework, Language-mediated, Object-centric Representation Learning (LORL), that learns object-centric representations and associates them to their visual appearance (masks) in images, and to concepts—words for object properties such as color, shape, and material—as provided in language. Here the language input can be either descriptive sentences or question-answer pairs. LORL requires no annotations on object masks, categories, or properties during the learning process.

LORL has four modules. The first is an image encoder, learning to encode an image into factorized, object-centric representations. The second is an image decoder, learning to reconstruct masks for individual objects from the learned representations by reconstructing the input. These two modules

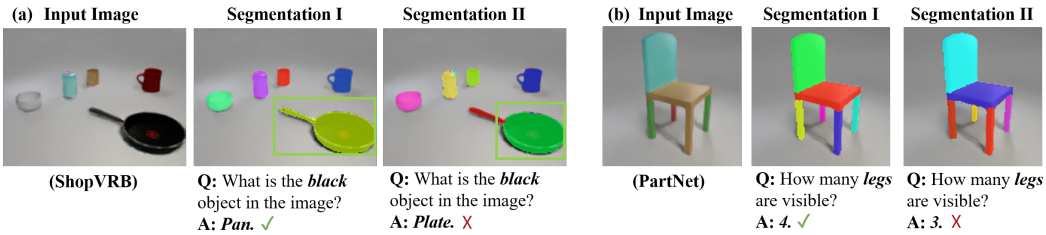


Figure 1: Two illustrative cases of Language-mediated, Object-centric Representation Learning. Different colors in the segmentation masks indicate individual objects recognized by the model. Our model can learn from visual and language inputs to associate various concepts: *black*, *pan*, *leg* with the visual appearance of individual objects. Furthermore, language provides cues about how an input scene should be segmented into individual objects: (a) segmenting the frying pan and its handle into two parts yields an incorrect answer to the question (Segmentation II); (b) an incorrect parsing of the chair image makes the counting result wrong (Segmentation II).

share the same formulation as recent unsupervised object segmentation research, and may be realized as methods such as MONet (Burgess et al., 2019) and Slot Attention (Locatello et al., 2020).

The third module in LORL is a pre-trained semantic parser that translates the input sentence into a semantic, executable program, where each concept (i.e., words for object properties such as 'red') is associated with a vector space embedding. Finally, the last module, a neural-symbolic program executor, takes the object-centric representation from Module 1, intermediate representations from Module 2, and concept embeddings and the semantic program from Module 3 as input, and outputs an answer if the language input is a question, or `TRUE/FALSE` if it's a descriptive sentence. The correctness of the executor's output and the quality of reconstructed images (as output of Module 2) are the two supervisory signals we use to jointly train Modules 1, 2, and 4.

We compare our model to state-of-the-art unsupervised segmentation methods, MONet (Burgess et al., 2019) and Slot Attention (Locatello et al., 2020). Our evaluation is on two datasets: ShopVRB (Nazarczuk & Mikolajczyk, 2020) contains images of daily objects and question-answer pairs; PartNet (Mo et al., 2019) contains images of furniture with hierarchical structure, supplemented by descriptive sentences we collected ourselves. We show that LORL consistently outperforms baselines on unsupervised object segmentation, much more likely to group different parts of a single object into a single mask.

We further analyze the object-centric representations learned by LORL. When visualizing them in 2D, we found that conceptually similar objects (e.g. objects of similar shapes) appear to be clustered in the embedding space. Moreover, experiments demonstrate that the learned concepts can be used in new tasks, such as visual grounding of referential expressions, without any additional fine-tuning.

2 Related Work

Unsupervised object representation learning. Given an input image, unsupervised object representation learning methods segment objects in the scene and build an object-centric representation for them. A mainstream approach has focused on using compositional generative scene models that decompose the scene as a mixture of component images (Greff et al., 2016; Eslami et al., 2016; Greff et al., 2017; Burgess et al., 2019; Engelcke et al., 2020; Greff et al., 2019; Locatello et al., 2020). In general, these models use an encoder-decoder architecture: the image encoder encodes the input image into a set of latent object representations, which are fed into the image decoder to reconstruct the image. Specifically, Greff et al. (2019); Burgess et al. (2019); Engelcke et al. (2020) use recurrent encoders that iteratively localize and encode objects in the scene. Another line of research (Eslami et al., 2016; Crawford & Pineau, 2019; Kosiorek et al., 2018; Stelzner et al., 2019; Lin et al., 2020) leverages object locality to attend to different local patches of the image. These models often use a pixel-level reconstruction loss. In contrast, we propose to explore how language, in addition to visual observations, may contribute to object-centric representation learning. There have also been work that uses other types of supervisions, such as dynamic prediction (Kipf et al., 2020; Bear et al., 2020) and multi-view consistency (Prabhudesai et al., 2020). In this paper, we focus on unsupervised learning of object-centric representations from static images and language.

Visual concept learning. Learning visual concepts from language and other forms of supervisions provides useful representations for various downstream tasks, such as cross-modal retrieval (Wu et al., 2019), visual-question answering (Yi et al., 2018; Mao et al., 2019), and scene manipulation (Prabhudesai et al., 2020). Previous work has been focusing on various types of representations (Ren et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2017b), training algorithms (Faghri et al., 2018) and supervisions (Johnson et al., 2016). In this paper, we focus on learning visual concepts that can be grounded on object-centric representations. Recent works on object-centric grounding of visual concepts (Wu et al., 2017a; Mao et al., 2019; Prabhudesai et al., 2020) have shown great success in achieving high performance in downstream tasks and strong generalization from a small amount of data. However, these methods assume pre-trained object detectors to generate object proposals in the scene. In contrast, our LORL learns to individuate objects and associates concepts with the learned object-centric representations without any annotations on object segmentation masks or properties.

3 PRELIMINARIES

Before delving into our framework for language-mediated object-centric representation learning, we first discuss a general framework that unifies multiple concurrent unsupervised object representation learning methods and a neuro-symbolic framework for learning visual concepts from language.

3.1 UNSUPERVISED OBJECT-CENTRIC REPRESENTATION LEARNING

Given an image I, a typical unsupervised object representation learning model will decompose the scene into a series of *slot* profiles $\{(z_1, x_1, m_1), \dots, (z_K, x_K, m_K)\}$, where each slot profile is expected to represent an object (or nothing, as the number of slots may be greater than the actual number of objects in the scene). Here o_i is the object feature, x_i is the object image, and m_i is the object mask specifying its location in the scene.

In our paper, we focus on two recent models, MONet (Burgess et al., 2019) and Slot Attention (Locatello et al., 2020). MONet uses a recurrent spatial attention network (Ronneberger et al., 2015) to segment out objects in the scene, and adopts a variational autoencoder (Kingma & Welling, 2014) to encode objects as well as reconstructing object images for self-supervision. At a very high level, its objective function is calculated as

$$\mathcal{L} = \left\| \left(\sum_{k=1}^{K} m_k x_k \right) - I \right\|_2^2 + \beta \cdot \sum_{k=1}^{K} \mathrm{KL}(z_k), \tag{1}$$

where the first term is a pixel-wise L2 reconstruction loss and the second term computes the KL divergence between the distribution of z_k's and a prior Gaussian distribution.

Slot Attention uses a transformer-like attention network (Vaswani et al., 2017) to extract object features, and decode them with convolutional neural networks to component images and object masks. The model is trained by the same reconstruction loss in the form of L2-norm:

$$\mathcal{L} = \left\| \left(\sum_{k=1}^{K} m_k x_k \right) - I \right\|_2^2. \tag{2}$$

3.2 NEURO-SYMBOLIC CONCEPT LEARNING

The neuro-symbolic concept learner (NS-CL; Mao et al., 2019) learns visual concepts by looking at images and reading paired questions and answers. NS-CL takes a set of segmented objects in a given image as its input, extracts their visual features with a ResNet (He et al., 2015), translates the input question into an executable program by a semantic parser, and executes the program based on the object-centric representation to answer the question. The key idea of NS-CL is to explicitly represent individual concepts in natural language (colors, shapes, spatial relationships, etc.) as vector space embeddings, and associate them with the object embeddings.

NS-CL answers the input question by executing the program based on the object-centric representation. For example, in order to query the name of the white object Fig. 2, NS-CL first filters out the object by computing the cosine similarity between the concept *white* and individual object representations, which produces a "mask" vector where each entry denotes the probability that an object has been selected. The output "mask" on the objects will be fed into the next module and the execution will

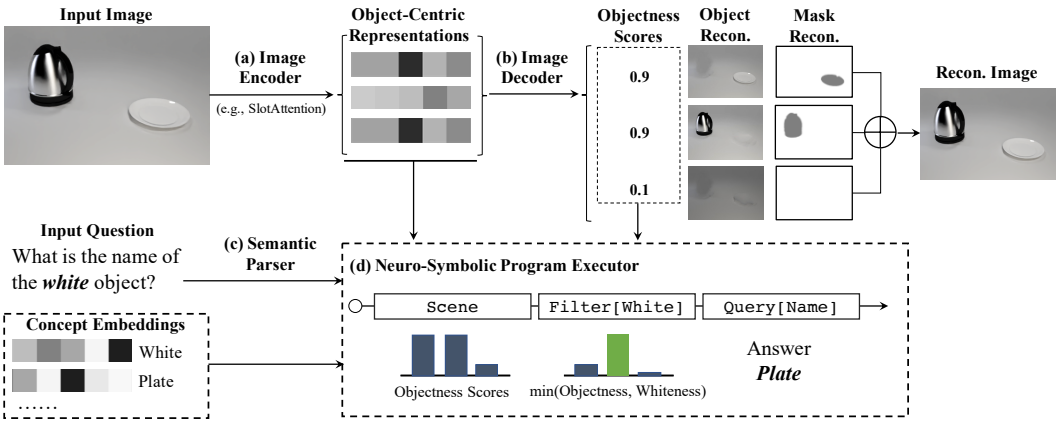


Figure 2: Our LORL contains four modules. (a) An image encoder encodes the input image into a factorized, object-centric representation. (b) An image decoder learns to reconstruct the image from the learned representations. It also decodes an objectness score based on the representation. (c) A pre-trained semantic parser translates the input sentence into an executable program and associates concepts with learnable vector embeddings. (d) A neuro-symbolic program executor takes the object-centric representation, the objectness scores, the parsed program, and concept embeddings as input to predict the answer (if the input is a question) or `TRUE`/`FALSE` (if the input is a descriptive sentence).

continue. The last query operation will produce the answer to the question. The vector embeddings of individual objects and the concepts will be jointly trained based on language supervision.

4 Language-mediated, Object-centric Representation Learning

Marrying the ideas of unsupervised object-centric representation learning and neuro-symbolic concept learning, we are able to learn an object-centric representation using both visual and language supervision. Fig. 2 illustrates the framework of Language-mediated, Object-centric Representation Learning (LORL). As mentioned in Section 1, LORL comprises four modules: an image encoder, an image decoder, a semantic parser, and a neuro-symbolic program executor.

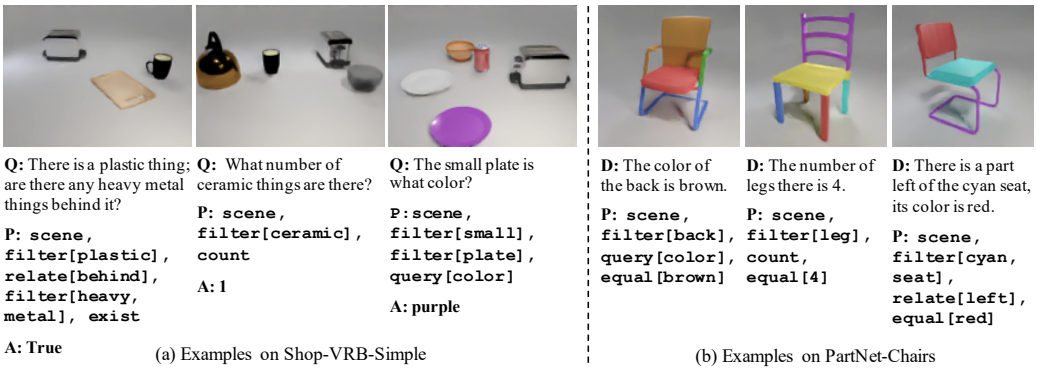
Image encoder. Given an input image, we first use the image encoder (Fig. 2a) to individuate objects in the scene and extract an object-centric scene representation. It takes the input image as its input, individuates objects in the scene, and produces a collection of latent slot embeddings $\{z_i\}$.

Image decoder. The decoder (Fig. 2b) takes the object-centric representation produced by the image encoder and produces a 3-tuple for each individual slot (x_k, m_k, s_k), where x_k reconstructs the RGB image of the slot, m_k reconstructs the mask, and $s_k \in [0, 1]$ is a scalar indicating the *objectness* of the slot. That is, whether k-th slot corresponds to a *single* object in the scene. Here, we have extended the general framework we described in Section 3.1 with an objectness indicator. It serves dual purposes. First, it weights each reconstructed component image while generating the reconstructed image. Mathematically, the reconstructed image I' is computed as: $I' = \sum_{k=1}^{K} s_k \cdot (m_k x_k)$. Second, it mediates the output of all `filter` operations in the program executor.

In this paper, we will experiment with two image encoder-decoder options: MONet (Burgess et al., 2019) and Slot Attention (Locatello et al., 2020). They are both compatible with the general framework described above. For both models, we use a single linear layer to predict the objectness score for each slot on top of the second-last layer of their image decoders.

Semantic parser. A pre-trained semantic parser (Fig. 2c) will translate the input question into an executable program composed of primitive operations, such as `filter`, which filters out objects with certain concepts and `query`, which query the attribute of the input object. We use the same domain-specific language (DSL) for representing programs as CLEVR (Johnson et al., 2017, see also Appendix A for details). All concepts appear in the program, such as *white*, are associated with distinct, learnable concept embedding vectors.

Neuro-symbolic program executor. The program executor (Fig. 2d) takes the object-centric representation from the image encoder $\{z_k\}$, the objectness score $\{s_k\}$ from the image decoder, the concept embeddings and the program generated by the semantic parser as its input. It executes the program based on the visual and concept representations to answer the question.



(a) Examples on Shop-VRB-Simple

(b) Examples on PartNet-Chairs

Figure 3: In Shop-VRB-Simple, questions involve seven different attributes of objects in the scene: *name, size, weight, material, color, shape, mobility*. In PartNet-Chairs, images are paired with sentences describing the *names* and *colors* of the parts in the scene, and their relationships.

The original program executor in NS-CL (Section 3.2) assumes a pre-trained object detector for generating object proposals. In LORL, we associate each object representation with an objectness score s_k. Recall that an `filter` operation in NS-CL produces a mask vector indicating whether an object has been selected. Here, we mediate the output of an `filter(c)` operation as $\min(s_k, \texttt{filter(c)})$. Intuitively, a slot will be selected only if, first, it has concept c and, second, it corresponds to a single object in the scene.

Training paradigm. During training, we jointly optimize the image encoder, the image decoder, and the concept embeddings. LORL is trained by minimizing the loss $\mathcal{L}$:

$$\mathcal{L} = \alpha \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{perception}} + \beta \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{reasoning}}.$$

For MONet-based image encoder-decoder, we use Equation 1 as the perception loss $\mathcal{L}_{\text{perception}}$, while for Slot Attention-based encoder-decoder, we use Equation 2. The neuro-symbolic program executor produces a distribution over candidate answers to the input question. We use the cross-entropy loss between the predicted answer and the ground truth answer as $\mathcal{L}_{\text{reasoning}}$.

We use a three-stage training paradigm for LORL. First, we train the model with only visual inputs with $\mathcal{L}_{\text{perception}}$ for N_1 epochs. Next, we fix the image encoder and the image decoder, and optimize the concept embeddings with the loss term $\mathcal{L}_{\text{reasoning}}$ for N_2 epochs. During this second stage, the image encoder and the decoder can already produce descent object segmentation results. Finally, we jointly optimize all three modules for N_3 epochs. We provide detailed information about the hyperparameters for different models in Appendix B.

5 Experiments

We first evaluate whether the representations learned by LORL lead to better image segmentation with the help of language. We then evaluate how these representations may be used for instance retrieval, visual reasoning, and referential expression interpretation.

5.1 Image Segmentation

Data. We use two datasets for image segmentation evaluation. The first, Shop-VRB-Simple, is based on Shop-VRB (Nazarczuk & Mikolajczyk, 2020), a dataset of complex household objects and question-answer pairs. The second is based on chairs in PartNet (Mo et al., 2019), a dataset where the objects are different parts of a chair. Fig. 3 shows some examples from the two datasets.

Shop-VRB is a visual reasoning dataset, similar to CLEVR (Johnson et al., 2017), but with complex household objects of different sizes, weights, materials, colors, shapes, and mobility. Because the original Shop-VRB dataset includes very small and highly transparent objects and complex backgrounds, which current unsupervised representation learning models cannot handle, we generate 10K images with a clean background ourselves using large objects from the dataset. We also pair every image with 9 questions, resulting in 90K questions in total. The test split has 960 images and 8.6K questions. We name this variant Shop-VRB-Simple and we find that it better highlights the quality of learned object-centric representations for various models.

(a)	ARI ↑	GT Split ↓	Pred Split ↓
Slot Attention (SA)	83.51±2.3	15.68±1.9	13.19±1.5
LORL + SA	**89.23±1.6**	**9.95±1.6**	**10.18±1.3**

(b)	Slot Attn.	LORL + SA
Coffee maker	$39.4_{\pm 7.0}$	$\mathbf{21.9}_{\pm \mathbf{8.3}}$
Blender	$38.9_{\pm 11.5}$	$\mathbf{17.7}_{\pm \mathbf{3.4}}$
Toaster	$33.4_{\pm 3.9}$	$\mathbf{16.4}_{\pm \mathbf{7.2}}$

Table 1: (a) Results on Shop-VRB-Simple. LORL helps to improve Slot Attention Locatello et al. (2020) in all metrics. (b) The Ground Truth split ratio for the three object categories where Slot Attention most commonly fail. LORL helps Slot Attention to reduce the ratio by 50%.

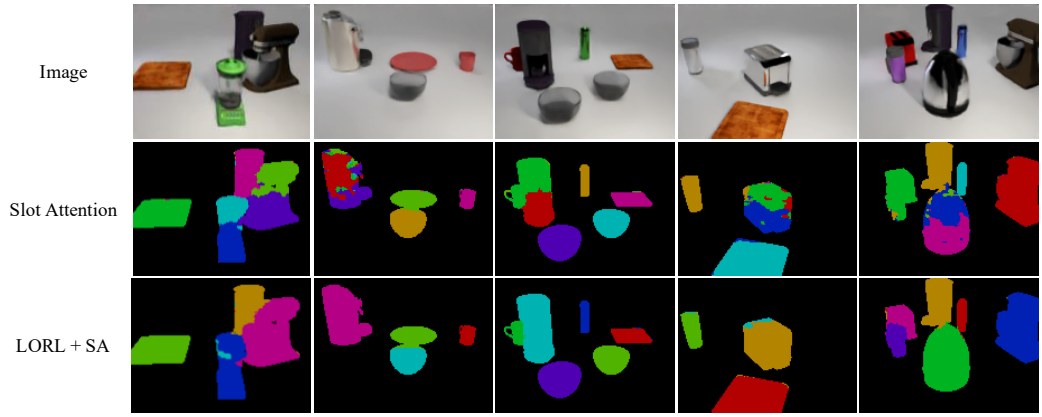


Figure 4: Visualization on Shop-VRB-Simple. Pixels with the same color represent a mask produced by the models. The Slot Attention model often fails to segment blenders, coffee makers, and toasters. LORL helps to greatly improve its results.

While the previous literature on unsupervised object segmentation mainly focuses on settings where objects are spatially disentangled, we also explore how language may help when objects of interest are different parts of a global shape. To this end, we collect a new dataset, PartNet-Chairs, using chair shapes from PartNet. Every image here shows a chair, where each part of the chair (legs, seat, back, arms) is randomly assigned a color. We select six different chair shapes with one or four legs and zero or two arms. We generate 5K images for training. Each image is paired with 8 descriptive sentences generated from human-written templates, resulting in 40K examples in total. The test split has 960 images. Each sentence describes the *name* and *color* of parts. We provide all templates in Appendix C. We are interested in whether object-centric representation learning models may separate these parts and whether and how language may help in this scenario.

Baselines. We use MONet (Burgess et al., 2019) and Slot Attention (Locatello et al., 2020) as the image modules (Modules 1 and 2), and evaluate how the incorporation of language may improve their performance. Because MONet is color-sensitive, and on Shop-VRB-Simple, many objects have diverse colors and specular reflection, it does not produce meaningful results there. Thus we only show results with MONet on PartNet-Chairs. We show results with Slot Attention on both datasets.

Metrics. We use three metrics for evaluation. Following Greff et al. (2019), we first use the Adjusted Rand Index (ARI; Rand, 1971; Hubert & Arabie, 1985). It treats segmentation as a clustering problem: each mask is the cluster index that the pixels within belong to. ARI is computed as the similarity between the predicted and ground truth clusters, and ranges from 0 (random) to 1 (perfect match).

In practice, we found this pixel-wise metric is sensitive to the size of objects: a model that infrequently makes mistakes on large objects will have lower ARI than one that frequently mis-segments small objects. Thus, we in addition design two object-centric metrics:

- **Ground Truth Split Ratio** (GT Split) measures the ratio of objects (GT masks) that are covered by more than one prediction mask.
- **Prediction Split Ratio** (Pred Split) measures the ratio of prediction masks that cover more than one object (GT mask).

Concretely, we first assign each pixel to the prediction mask with the maximum value at the pixel. We say a prediction mask covers an object if it covers at least 20% of the object's pixels. The GT and Pred Split ratios are thus defined as:

$$\text{GTSplit} = \frac{\text{\# of objects that are covered by} > 1 \text{ masks}}{\text{\# of objects that are covered by} > 0 \text{ masks}}; \ \text{PredSplit} = \frac{\text{\# of masks that cover} > 1 \text{ objects}}{\text{\# of masks that cover} > 0 \text{ objects}}.$$

	ARI ↑	GT Split ↓	Pred Split ↓
MONet (Burgess et al., 2019)	$92.1_{\pm 5.1}$	$5.6_{\pm 3.0}$	$11.2_{\pm 6.1}$
LORL + MONet	$93.9_{\pm 2.7}$	$5.4_{\pm 0.9}$	$5.4_{\pm 3.0}$
Slot Attention (Locatello et al., 2020)	$85.2_{\pm 4.1}$	$13.8_{\pm 9.1}$	$26.9_{\pm 4.4}$
LORL + Slot Attention	$\mathbf{95.9_{\pm 1.3}}$	$\mathbf{3.2_{\pm 1.5}}$	$\mathbf{3.1_{\pm 1.3}}$

Table 2: Quantitative results on PartNet-Chairs. All numbers are in percentage. LORL consistently improves MONet's and Slot Attention's performance on segmentation.

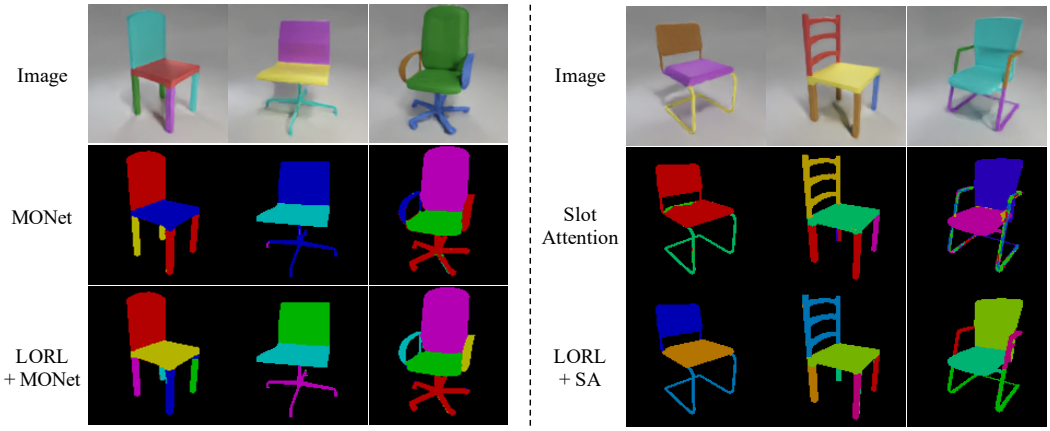


Figure 5: Visualization on PartNet-Chairs. Pixels with the same color represent a mask produced by the models. LORL successfully recognizes different parts in various situations.

Ideally, there is a one-to-one correspondence between objects and predicted masks, with both GT Split and Pred Split being 0.

Results. The quantitative results are summarized in Table 1. For this table and all following tables, we show the mean and standard error on each metric over 3 runs. Our LORL helps Slot Attention achieve better segmentation results in all three metrics. From visualizations in Fig. 4, we find that the original Slot Attention model struggles with metallic objects; but with LORL, it performs much better in those cases.

To further explore how LORL helps Slot Attention on failure cases, we calculate the Ground Truth Split Ratio for each object category, and find that Slot Attention most often fail to segment coffee makers, blenders, and toasters as a whole. These objects have complex sub-parts and their appearance changes quickly when the viewpoint changes. With the help of language, LORL improves consistently over its ablative variants across all the three metrics we have, reducing the GT split ratio by 50% on average, as shown in Table 1b.

On PartNet-Chairs, our model also helps both MONet and Slot Attention improve with a large margin, as shown in Table 2. MONet in general performs well on this dataset, though it still sometimes merges different parts with the same color into a single mask. An example can be found in Fig. 5, column 3, where the blue arm and the blue bottom in the input image are put into the same mask by MONet. Such an issue is alleviated in LORL + MONet. Fig. 5 also includes examples to show how LORL helps Slot Attention.

As shown in Table 2, the improvement on Slot Attention is larger and more consistent, compared with the improvement on MONet. We hypothesize that this is because the two models adopt different approaches for aligning object features and masks. While MONet uses separate modules for segmentation and object representation learning, Slot Attention obtains masks by directly decoding object representations. Having a shared representation might have allowed Slot Attention to gain more from language supervision.

5.2 Instance Retrieval

We now analyze the learned object representations on Shop-VRB-Simple. We first use them for instance retrieval: for each model, we randomly select a segmented object and use its learned

	$k = 1$	$k = 3$	$k = 5$
Slot Attention	54.07±2.6	43.70±1.7	37.02±1.7
LORL + SA	**94.03±0.6**	**91.03±1.3**	**87.71±1.7**

Table 3: The percentage (%) of retrieved objects that belong to the same category as the query object. With LORL, objects within the same category are more likely to be close to each other in the feature space.

	QA Accuracy
LORL + SA (No FT)	62.79±1.6
LORL + SA	**92.72±1.0**

Table 4: Our three-stage training paradigm improves visual concept learning. Without fine-tuning (i.e., the third training stage), the question answering accuracy drops by 30%.

representation to search for its k nearest neighbors in the feature space. Then, for each selected object, we compute how many of the k nearest neighbors belong to the same category. During searching, we only consider object representations whose corresponding mask, after decoding, has at least an Intersection over Union (IoU) of at least 0.75 with a ground truth object mask. We sample 1,000 object features from each model for evaluation.

Table 3 includes results with $k = 1, 3, 5$, suggesting that the object representations learned by LORL + Slot Attention are better for retrieval, compared with features learned by Slot Attention alone without language. This is because Slot Attention often confuses categories that are visually similar but conceptually different, such as *baking tray* and *chopping board*.

5.3 Visual Reasoning

As another analysis, we also evaluate how LORL + Slot Attention performs on visual question answering on the Shop-VRB-Simple dataset. Here we compare with an ablated version of our model, where we only train the model for the first two stages, as stated at the end of Section 4. We do not train the model for the third stage—jointly optimizing or fine-tuning all three trainable modules. We name this ablation LORL + SA (No FT). Through this analysis, we hope to understand the importance of joint training of the vision modules (Modules 1 and 2) and the reasoning module (Module 4).

Table 4 shows that joint training is crucial for visual reasoning. This resonates with the previous result, where visually similar objects are clustered together in the latent space, impeding the usefulness of the information encoded.

5.4 Referential Expression Interpretation

Finally we evaluate the representations learned by LORL on referential expression interpretation, where given an expression referring to a set of objects in the scene, like "The white plates", the model is expected to return all of the corresponding object masks. After learning all needed concepts from question-answer pairs, LORL can naturally handle referential expression without any further training, if we assume a pre-trained semantic parser.

We choose the IEP-Ref model (Liu et al., 2019) as our baseline. It uses a module approach and receives direct segmentation supervision. On Shop-VRB, we adapt the code provided by Liu et al. (2019) to generate 17K training examples, only for IEP-Ref, and 1.7K testing referential expressions for evaluating both LORL and IEP-Ref. Measured in Recall@0.5 (the ratio of the recalled objects based on an IoU threshold of 0.5), IEP-Ref performs better than LORL, but the margin is small (90.1% *vs*. 84.4%). Note that while IEP-Ref has been trained on 17K training examples with ground truth object segmentations, LORL does not require any training data on referential expression interpretation. The relatively comparable results are strong evidence that the representations learned by LORL also transfer to a new task.

6 Conclusion

We have proposed Language-mediated, Object-centric Representation Learning (LORL), a principled framework for learning object-centric representations from vision and language. Experiments on Shop-VRB-Simple and PartNet-Chairs show that language significantly contributes to learning better representations. This behavior is consistent across two unsupervised image segmentation models. Through systematic studies, we have also shown how LORL learns object representations that encode conceptual information, useful for downstream tasks such as retrieval, visual reasoning, and referential expression interpretation.

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A DOMAIN-SPECIFIC LANGUAGE (DSL)

LORL extends the domain-specific language of the CLEVR dataset (Johnson et al., 2017) to accommodate descriptive sentences. Specifically, we add an extra primitive operation: `Equal(X, y)`. It takes two inputs. In our case, the first argument `X` is the output of a `Query`, `Exist`, or `Count` operation. All three operations output a distribution over possible answers. The second argument `y` is either a word or number, such as `TRUE`, *white*, or 4. The `Equal` operation computes the probability of `X=y`. To learn language-mediated, object-centric representations, we train our model LORL to maximize the output probability.

B HYPERPARAMETERS

For optimization hyperparameters, we largely adopt original settings in Burgess et al. (2019) and Locatello et al. (2020). Table 5 summarizes the hyperparameters for the loss weights (α and β), the number of training epochs of different stages (N_1, N_2, N_3), and the batch size. We early-stop the training when QA performance converges.

	Shop-VRB-Simple	PartNet-Chairs	
	Slot Attention	MONet	Slot Attention
α	1	0.01	1
β	0.1	1	0.1
Batch Size	64	64	64
N_1	800	800	400
N_2	20	0	0
N_3	80	200	200

Table 5: Hyperparameters of LORL with Slot Attention

Learning rate scheduling For Slot Attention models, during the first training stage (perception-only), we use the learning rate schedule described in the original paper on both datasets. Specifically, the initial learning rate is 4×10^{-4}, and is fixed 10K iterations. After that, we decay the learning rate by 0.5 for every 100K iterations. On PartNet-Chairs, after the first stage, Slot Attention models continue to use the same learning rate scheduling. For Shop-VRB-Simple, we switch to a fixed learning rate of 0.001 during N_2 phase, which takes 20 epochs. After 20 epochs, we decrease the learning rate to 2×10^{-4}. We further decrease the learning rate to 2×10^{-5} after another 65 epochs. We use the Adam optimizer (Kingma & Ba, 2015) for Slot Attention models.

For MONet models, we use RMSProp with a learning rate of 0.01 during the first stage, and use 0.001 for the second and the third stage.

Meanwhile, we also follow NS-CL (Mao et al., 2019) to use curriculum learning. Specifically, in the second training stage, we limit the number of objects in the scene to be 3. In the third training stage, we gradually increase the number of objects in the scene and the complexity of the questions.

C PARTNET-CHAIRS DATASET

Table 6 illustrates all templates that we use to generate descriptive sentences on the PartNet-Chairs dataset. We also show the corresponding latent programs for each template.

Table 6: All templates that we use to generate descriptive sentences on the PartNet-Chairs dataset. The question mark indicates that the attribute preceding it is optional. "X/Y" means choosing either X or Y.

Template	Example Sentence	Example Program
There is/are <number> <color>? (<part_name>/part).	There are 4 legs.	Scene, Filter[Leg], Count, Equal[4]
The number of <color>? (<part_name>/part) there is <number>.	The number of legs there is 4.	Scene, Filter[Leg], Count, Equal[4]
There is a <color>? (<part_name>/part).	There is a brown seat.	Scene, Filter[Brown, Seat], Exist, Equal[True]
There is no <color>? (<part_name>/part).	There is no brown seat.	Scene, Filter[Brown, Seat], Exist, Equal[False]
A <color>? (<part_name>/part) is visible.	A brown seat is visible.	Scene, Filter[Brown, Seat], Exist, Equal[True]
No <color>? (<part_name>/part) is visible.	No brown seat is visible	Scene, Filter[Brown, Seat], Exist, Equal[False]
The name of the <color> part is <part_name>.	The name of the yellow part is arm.	Scene, Filter[Yellow], Query[Part_Name, Equal[Arm]
The <color> part is called <part_name>.	The yellow part is called arm	Scene, Filter[Yellow], Query[Part_Name, Equal[Arm]
There is a <color> part; its name is <part_name>.	There is a yellow part; its name is arm.	Scene, Filter[Yellow], Query[Part_Name, Equal[Arm]
There is a <color> thing called <part_name>.	There is a yellow part called arm.	Scene, Filter[Yellow], Query[Part_Name, Equal[Arm]
The color of the <part_name> is <color>.	The color of the back is purple.	Scene, Filter[Back], Query[Color], Equal[Purple]
The <part_name> has <color> color.	The back has purple color.	Scene, Filter[Back], Query[Color], Equal[Purple]

Table 6 (Continued)

Template	Example Sentence	Latent Program
There is a <part_name>; its color is <color>.	There is a back; its color is purple.	Scene, Filter[Back], Query[Color], Equal[Purple]
The <part_name> is <color>.	The back is purple.	Scene, Filter[Back], Query[Color], Equal[Purple]
There is/are <number> <color>? (<part_name>/part) <relation> the <color>? (<part_name>/part).	There is a green seat and a yellow leg is behind it.	Scene, Filter[Green, Seat], Unique, Relate[Behind], Filter[Yellow, Leg], Exist, Equal[True]
There is/are <number> <color>? (<part_name>/part) <relation> the <color>? (<part_name>/part).	There is a green seat and no yellow leg is behind it.	Scene, Filter[Green, Seat], Unique, Relate[Behind], Filter[Yellow, Leg], Exist, Equal[False]
<number> <color>? (<part_name>/part) is/are <relation> the <color>? (<part_name>/part).	0 leg is behind the brown leg.	Scene, Filter[Brown, Leg], Unqiue, Relate[behind], Filter[Leg], Count, Equal[0]
There is a <color>? (<part_name>/part); <number> <color> <part_name> is/are <relation> it.	There is a brown leg; 0 leg is behind it.	Scene, Filter[Brown, Leg], Unqiue, Relate[behind], Filter[Leg], Count, Equal[0]
The number of <color>? (<part_name> /part) that is/are <relation> <color>? (<part_name>/part)is <number>.	The number of leg that is behind the brown leg is 0.	Scene, Filter[Brown, Leg], Unqiue, Relate[behind], Filter[Leg], Count, Equal[0]
There is a <color>? (<part_name> /part) <relation> the <color>? (<part_name> /part).	There is a blue back behind the seat.	Scene, Filter[Seat], Unqiue, Filter[Blue, Back], Relate[behind], Exist, Equal[True]
There is no <color>?<part_name> <relation> the <color>? (<part_name>/part).	There is no blue back to the right of the seat.	Scene, Filter[Seat], Unqiue, Relate[right], Filter[Blue, Back], Exist, Equal[False]

Table 6 (Continued)

Template	Example Sentence	Latent Program
There is a <color>? (<part_name>/part) and a <color>? (<part_name>/part) is <relation> it.	There is a seat and a blue back is to the right of it.	Scene, Filter[Seat], Unqiue, Relate[Right], Filter[Blue, Back], Exist, Equal[True]
There is a <color>? (<part_name>/part); there is no <color>? <part_name> <relation> it.	There is a green seat; there is no blue back to the right of it.	Scene, Filter[Seat], Unqiue, Relate[Right], Filter[Blue, Back], Exist, Equal[False]
The color of the <part_name> (that is)? <relation> the <color>? (<part_name>/part) is <color>.	The color of the leg left of the red arm is blue.	Scene, Filter[Red, Arm], Unique, Relate[Left], Filter[Leg], Query[Color], Relate[behind], Equal[Blue]
There is a <part_name> <relation> the <color>? (<part_name>/part); its color is <color>	There is a leg to the left of the red arm; its color is blue.	Scene, Filter[Red, Arm], Unique, Relate[Left], Filter[Leg], Query[Color], Equal[Blue]
The name of the <color>? (<part_name>/part) (that is)? <relation> the <color>? (<part_name>/part) is <part_name>.	The name of the cyan part that is in front of the yellow seat is leg.	Scene, Filter[Yellow, Seat], Unique, Relate[Front], Filter[Cyan], Query[Part_Name, Equal[Leg]
The <color>? (<part_name>/part) (that is)? <relation> the <color>? (<part_name>/part) is called <part_name>.	The cyan part that is in front of the yellow seat is called leg.	Scene, Filter[Yellow, Seat], Unique, Relate[Front], Filter[Cyan], Query[Part_Name, Equal[Leg]