

MSc. Thesis Title

Subtitle

Master's Thesis

Amalie Kjaer

Department of Computer Science D-INFK

Advisors: Dr. Zuria Bauer, Dr. Mihai Dusmanu
Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Marc Pollefeys

Computer Vision and Geometry Group

Department of Computer Science D-INFK

August 15, 2024

Abstract

The abstract gives a concise overview of the work you have done. The reader should be able to decide whether the work that has been done is interesting for him by reading the abstract. Provide a brief account of the following questions:

- What is the problem you worked on? (Introduction)
- What are the shortcomings of existing solutions? (Technical Gap)
- How did you tackle the problem? (Method)
- What were your results and findings? (Experiments)
- Why are your findings significant? (Conclusion)

The abstract should approximately cover half of a page, and does generally not contain citations.

Contents

1	Introduction	3
2	Related Work	5
2.1	Visual Question Answering Task (indoor + other)	5
2.2	Scene Graphs	6
2.3	Image-text pretrained models	6
2.4	Transformer encoder / decoders	6
2.5	Existing datasets	6
3	Datasets	7
4	Method	9
4.1	Scene Graph Generation	10
4.1.1	Node features	10
4.1.2	Adjacency	11
4.1.3	Edge features	12
4.2	VQA Models	13
4.2.1	Baseline	13
4.2.2	Baseline + GNN	14
4.2.3	ScanSG-GNN	14
4.2.4	ScanSG-Transformer	14
4.2.5	Loss function	14
5	Experiments	15
5.1	Scene Graph Generation	15
5.1.1	Node Construction	15
5.1.2	Edge Construction	18
5.1.3	Edge Label Classification	19
5.2	Visual Question Answering Model	20
5.2.1	GraphVQA	20
5.2.2	Experimental Setup for Proposed Models	20
5.2.3	Baseline	20

5.2.4	Baseline + GNN	21
5.2.5	ScanSG-GNN	21
5.2.6	ScanSG-Transformer	21
5.2.7	Addressing Overfitting	21
6	Discussion	23
7	Conclusion	25
A	The First Appendix	27

Chapter 1

Introduction

Give an introduction to the topic you have worked on:

- *What is the rationale for your work?* Motivate the problem, *e.g.* with a general description of the problem setting, narrowing down to the particular problem you have been working on in your thesis. Allow the reader to understand the problem setting.
- *What is the technical gap in existing work?* Briefly outline how this problem has been tackled before, and what the shortcomings of the existing solutions are.
- *What is your work doing to fix it?* Given the above background, state briefly the focus of the work.

Motivation The problem Challenges Objectives / Goals Contributions Methods Existing work Structure of the thesis Main results

Chapter 2

Related Work

The related work section has the following purposes:

- *Is the overview concise?* Give an overview of the most relevant work to the needed extent. Make sure the reader can understand your work without referring to other literature.
- *Does the compilation of work help to define the “niche” you are working in?* Another purpose of this section is to lay the groundwork for showing that you did significant work. The selection and presentation of the related work should enable you to name the implications, differences, and similarities sufficiently in the discussion section.

description of task

2.1 Visual Question Answering Task (indoor + other)

VQA vs 3D-QA

indoor is a subtask but it is interesting because we can include some 3D element to it - also this lays the foundation for answering harder questions later on, which cannot be answered simply with 2D methods: eg. about distances and paths, which would be interesting for navigation tasks.

- Task description
- Expected inputs / outputs
- Question ontology
- Classical methods (non-SG), strengths and limitations
- Scene Graph methods (Graph Question Answering), strengths and limitations (most of these for indoor scenes say they use graphs but they never utilise edge info)

description of data

2.2 Scene Graphs

- Scene graph formal definition + advantages
- Scene graph generation methods
- Graph neural networks
- Applications and limitations

description of the "building blocks" used to create the model

2.3 Image-text pretrained models

2.4 Transformer encoder / decoders

GNN can be formulated as a

2.5 Existing datasets

Chapter 3

Datasets

ScanNet The ScanNet dataset consists of 1,513 annotated point clouds of 3D-indoor environments, generated from 2,492,518 annotated RGB-D frames. The dataset includes a wide range of spaces such as offices, apartments, bathrooms, classrooms, libraries, and more. It spans both small spaces (e.g., bathrooms, closets) and large spaces (e.g., studio apartments, classrooms). The dataset is annotated with instance-level and semantic-level (NYU40) labels.

Note: In most existing SSG methods, the scene must first be segmented. However, to get a more accurate scene graph dataset, we opt to use the segmentation already provided by ScanNet. we use oracle segmentation (we assume perfect segmentation is available).

Note: we remove scenes with segmentation errors (some segmented objects do not appear in any of the images – specifically scenes 180, 279, 305, 530, 597) [Plot scene / label distribution]

Add some statistics about the dataset: number of scenes, number of objects, number of labels, number of instances... distribution of room types / room sizes / object numbers ==> get a feel for how diverse the scenes are.

ScanQA The ScanQA dataset consists of xxx questions about the ScanNet scenes. We prepare x different question datasets to experiment on: 1) easy 2) hard 3) complete/mixed 4) constant scenes [Plot question / answer distribution]

Limitations: although ScanQA is designed for 3D-VQA, most of the questions do not require 3D information to answer (ie could be answered with 2D images only). This is because the questions are generated from the 2D images of the scenes (check this fact?). Ie. no questions about distances, paths, dimensions, geometry, etc.

Removed multiple answer questions (lower performance on this)

Add distribution of questions after cleaning the dataset (similar diagram to the one in the ScanQA paper). Also add the distribution of answers.

Chapter 4

Method

This project addresses the task of Visual Question Answering within 3D indoor environments (3D-VQA). 3D-VQA consists in answering open-vocabulary, free-form questions about an environment. For example, given segmented RGB-D images of a hallway and the question "Where did I put my keys?", the 3D-VQA model should be able to locate the keys in the scene and output an accurate response to the question, such as "On top of the drawer at position (x, y, z) ".

The two main challenges of the 3D-VQA task are 1) to create a rich scene representation, often starting from RGB-D frames and 2) to combine this scene representation with a text query to produce an accurate output answer. The 3D-VQA task therefore requires merging different data modalities in a multimodal model to condition the output answer on the given question-scene input pairs.

While current research often claims to utilize scene graphs as scene representations, it solely relies on node information, and does not utilize edge information in the VQA model. This means that current methods do not leverage the full potential of scene graphs. Furthermore, existing VQA models often rely solely on pre-trained language-vision models, such as CLIP, to bring the question and scene representation into the same embedding space, lacking a learning mechanism.

To mitigate these limitations, we propose:

1. a dataset of scene graphs for the ScanNet dataset (ScanNet-SG), paired with questions about the graphs from the ScanQA dataset. This is, to our knowledge, the first dataset of question-scene graph pairs for 3D indoor environments.
2. an end-to-end 3D-VQA classification model which combines graph and text modalities to answer questions about the scene.

We emphasize that our proposed VQA model is a classification model, rather than a generation model. This means that the model does not aim to output free-form answers, but rather to solve the task of selecting the object in the scene which is most relevant to the question posed. For example, the question "What color is the chair by the desk" should return the instance of "chair", rather than the answer "the chair is black". In other words, the proposed model returns the object in the scene which is most relevant to the question (where someone should look to answer the question), rather than the actual answer to the question. This classification task is easier to evaluate and interpret than the generation task, and a good starting point for

evaluating the model’s ability to understand question-scene pairs. Furthermore, solving the classification task first ensures that we can train a model that does not rely on textual priors to answer questions, since the model must focus on instance accuracy rather than semantic accuracy. This forces the model to learn to understand the scene and the question. Our model can be easily extended to a generation model by adding a decoder component to the model.

The following sections detail the scene graph generation method used to obtain the ScanNet-SG dataset, as well as the proposed 3D-VQA classification models.

4.1 Scene Graph Generation

[Add that we use scannet labels to embed rather than nyu40 because its more descriptive / larger more precise vocabulary than nyu40] [specify that for clip we are using the huggingface implementation]

[Add figure here] (each step summarized)

We aim produce semantically meaningful graph representations of the ScanNet indoor scenes. [best possible preserve scene structure / translate all the important pointcloud information into a scene graph] To achieve this, we let graph nodes represent segmented objects in the scene, and graph edges represent proximity, such that nearby nodes are connected by an edge. We note that there is no such ”ground truth” representation, since scene graph generation requires some design choices. More specifically, to construct a graph representation $G = (V, A, E)$, the following components must be defined:

1. **Node features**, $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times D_V}$: the graph contains n nodes with D -dimensional embedding, which encodes information about the object it represents.
2. **Adjacency**, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$: the graph edges are defined in an $n \times n$ adjacency matrix, which encodes information about which nodes are connected. Node connectivity can represent any type of node similarity, such as proximity, visual similarity, semantic similarity, functional similarity, etc.
3. **Edge features**, $E \in \mathbb{R}^{|A| \times D_E}$: Optionally, edge embeddings E (which represent edge features), can also be defined. An example of edge labels could be the description of the relation between nodes, such as ”next to”, ”inside”, ”above”, ”same color”, ”same function”, ...

The following sections detail the scene graph generation method used in this paper.

4.1.1 Node features

We initialize the node embeddings with CLIP-embedded images of the object of interest. However, as each object may appear in many RGB-D frames under different views, we must select which views to embed, and how to combine these into a single node embedding.

View Selection Given the high frame rate of the image capture, we discard every other RGB-D image in each scene to speed up the data processing. The best views for each object are then selected by calculating a ”view score”: firstly, we use the 3D pointcloud segmentation to obtain the 3D-coordinates of a tight, axis-aligned bounding box for each object in the scene. The coordinates of the bounding box corners are then

projected into each RGB-frame. Projecting the bounding box corners into each frame allows us to determine whether the object is fully visible in the frame, or only partly visible. Then, for each object in the scene, we rank views according the following score s :

$$s = \frac{n}{w \times h} \times \frac{b}{8},$$

where n is the number of pixels occupied by the object in the frame, w and h are the width and height of the frame and b is the number of bounding box corners visible in the frame (out of 8 possible corners). The first term in this score is the "size term", which represents how much space the object takes up in the frame (the larger the object, the better). The second term is the "visibility term", which represents how much of the total object is visible in the frame (the entire object is better than only part of the object). Hence a score close to 1 signals a close-up view of a fully visible object, whereas a score close to 0 signals either a distant view, or a partial view, or both. This method therefore attributes low scores to zoomed-in partial views and distant views, and large scores to large, complete views of an object. We note that weights could be added to both the "size" and "visibility" components of the score to weigh their relative importance.

+ Using the 3D bb corner projections assumes that the entire object is visible in the frame dataset (if only half an object was photographed, the bb will obviously be smaller than GT since the 3D segmentation is obtained from the 2D segmentation)

Cropping For each object, we then select the top-k views and crop these around the object of interest. Three different cropping methods were tested: 1) a tight, non-square crop around the object with all pixels not belonging to the object blacked out, 2) a tight crop, non-square around the object with no further changes, 3) a square crop around the object, resized to 224×224 .

Figure XX illustrates these cropping methods:

Embedding Since CLIP was trained on square images and can only embed square images, for cropping methods 1) and 2) the standard CLIP pre-processing was used: resizing the shortest edge to 224 and randomly selecting a 224×224 crop within the image. Then we CLIP embed the top-k views and aggregate them with a score-weighted average, yielding a single CLIP-embedding for each object that captures view variability and gives a more rich embedding to the object node.

Section xx quantitatively compares the weighted CLIP embeddings obtained using each of the cropping methods described above.

+ justify why we use CLIP (brings text + images into the same embedding space, hopefully in semantically meaningful, should be a good initialization for a model).

4.1.2 Adjacency

Adjacency matrix is the component of the graph which allows us to encode/transfer 3D information of the scene into the graph. The adjacency matrix in the provided dataset was chosen to represent spatial proximity of nodes. Therefore, the shortest distance between each object should be calculated, and edges should exist only between objects with a distance less than some predetermined heuristic threshold. Several methods

were explored to calculate or approximate the shortest distance between objects. Figure XX illustrates these methods.

Naive approach: Pointcloud-based shortest distance First, a naive approach was implemented: the shortest distance between two objects was calculated by computing the distance between all 3D points of 2 object pointclouds. Although this is the most accurate measure of shortest distance, it is too computationally expensive and also very sensitive to outliers. We therefore decided to approximate the shortest distance between two objects rather than accurately computing it.

Approximation approach: Axis-aligned bounding box shortest distance To approximate the shortest distance between two pointclouds, we obtain the axis-aligned bounding box for each object from the 3D scene segmentation. The shortest distance between two axis-aligned bounding boxes can then be calculated as:

A threshold of 0.2 was selected heuristically. We note that this measure is not very precise. Results can be changed by varying the threshold.

The adjacency matrix is symmetrized to ensure bidirectional relationships between nodes. Additionally, self-loops are added to represent self-relationships.

4.1.3 Edge features

We compare two learning-based approaches to annotate/predict the edge label of the edges determined above.

We hand-label 275 edges from the following prepositions list: on/above, under inside, contains next to attached to, supporting

However this dataset is strongly imbalanced (mostly next to).

Random Forest

MLP

4.2 VQA Models

Figure XX illustrates the general 3D-VQA classification method. VQA models take as inputs a question and a scene graph (generated as described above), and outputs the most relevant object in the scene to the question. Regardless of architecture, any VQA model must have the following components: 1) a scene encoder, 2) a question encoder, 3) object selection head, which combine scene and question encodings to select the output object.

We explore solutions for each of these components, and compare the performance of three distinct families of model architectures: a baseline model (no learning), a GNN-only (learning only for scene encoding) model, and a transformer-based model (learning for scene encoding, question encoding and selection head). Some of the components are shared across models, this helps us identify which components of the final proposed model are actually helpful.

The following sections detail the architecture and design choices of each model.

We incrementally build up the proposed model the baseline, adding complexity/degrees of freedom to the model at each step.

4.2.1 Baseline

The baseline model is used to establish a lower bound on the performance of the VQA task. The baseline model is illustrated in Figure XXX. It does not require any learning, and relies solely on the pre-computed CLIP embeddings of the objects in the scene and the question. The model consists of the following components:

Scene Encoder: The scenes are encoded as the set of its ScanNet-SG scene graph nodes (without edges, obtained as described in section XXX).

Question Encoder: The question encoding is the sentence-level CLIP embedding of the question.

Object Selection Head: The model computes the cosine similarity between the question embedding and the node embeddings of the scene graph. The node with the highest similarity is selected as the output object.

While this baseline model is a simple and common approach to the VQA task [ref], it has some important limitations. Firstly, the scene encoder incurs a large information loss: by discarding edges, it does not encode any 3D or structural information about the scene. It therefore does not capture the overall room layout, and lacks contextual awareness. This implies that objects with similar appearance may have indistinguishable encodings, regardless of their context and neighbouring objects, and that the overall scene encoding does not change if even if objects are moved around. For example, the baseline model may not be able to differentiate between a chair in the middle of the room and a chair in the corner of the room, as the scene representation would be the same. This means that while semantic accuracy might be high, instance accuracy is expected to be low. Furthermore, the model has no learning mechanism, meaning that the scene representation cannot adapt to new questions.

4.2.2 Baseline + GNN

To address these limitations, we explore the Baseline + GNN model, which uses a graph neural network to learn better node embeddings. The model is illustrated in Figure XXX. The model consists of the following components:

Scene Encoder: The ScanNet-SG scene graphs are passed through a dimension-preserving GNN. The GNN updates node embeddings iteratively by aggregating information from neighbouring nodes. This ensures each node becomes aware of its context.

- What type of GNN architecture? How many layers? How many hidden units? What activation function? What aggregation function? What loss function?

Question Encoder: Same as the baseline model.

Object Selection Head: Same as the baseline model.

The GNN-only model is expected to perform better than the baseline model, as structural information is added to the scene encoding. This model should therefore better differentiate between objects with similar appearance but different context. Furthermore, the scene encoder is learned, meaning that the model can learn to adapt scene encodings to better match the question encoding. In other words, the model can learn to align the question and scene embeddings in a learned way, rather than a fixed way as in the baseline model. However, the GNN-only model still has some limitations. Firstly, the model is still limited by the question encoding and object selection, which are not learned. This means that the model may struggle with questions that are not well-aligned with the learned scene graph.

4.2.3 ScanSG-GNN

The transformer-based model incorporates learning for the question encoding and object selection head. It is illustrated in Figure XXX. The idea was to create a model with more degrees of freedom than the GNN-only model: instead of trying to align the fixed question embeddings and learned scene embeddings using cosine similarity, the model learns to predict a score for each object instance in the scene based on the learned scene and question embeddings. High score indicates high relevance to the question.

The model is composed of four main components: 1) a question encoder, 2) a scene graph encoder, 3) a cross-attention mechanism, and 4) a classifier.

The question encoder is a transformer-based model which encodes the question into a fixed-size vector. The scene graph encoder is a graph neural network which encodes the scene graph into a fixed-size vector. The classifier is a multi-layer perceptron which takes the question and scene graph embeddings as input and outputs the most relevant object in the scene to the question.

How many layers? How many hidden units? What activation function? What aggregation function? What edge update function? What loss function?

4.2.4 ScanSG-Transformer

4.2.5 Loss function

Cross-entropy loss Multi-object Cross-entropy loss Focal loss

Chapter 5

Experiments

In this section, we detail experimental methods and results for the generation of the ScanSG dataset and the proposed ScanSG-Transformer model.

5.1 Scene Graph Generation

In order to train a successful 3D-VQA model, we must ensure that its input data, namely generated scene graphs and questions, are of high quality. This section empirically evaluates the impact of different design choices on the quality of the generated scene graphs. We evaluate the design choices for scene graph nodes and edges separately, and choose the best performing parameters for the proposed scene graph dataset. For scene graph nodes, we evaluate the effects of different cropping methods, k-values, and visibility scores on the quality of the node embeddings. For scene graph edges, we evaluate the impact of different threshold values on the quality of the edges in the scene graphs.

All experiments in this section are performed on a smaller subset of the dataset, consisting of 71 scenes, with a total of 2467 objects across scenes. This subset is also used for testing in section XXX.

5.1.1 Node Construction

We evaluate the impact of different cropping methods, k-values and visibility scores on the quality of the generated node CLIP-embeddings. The following paragraphs detail the methods and parameters considered for each of these design choices.

Cropping method: We compare the impact of the following cropping methods on node embedding quality (illustrated in Figure XXX):

1. A tight, rectangular crop around the object with all background pixels masked out. With this method, the object is centered in the image, and the background is removed. However, CLIP was trained on square images with no background removal. To adapt rectangular crops to CLIP, we use the resizing method described in the original CLIP paper [XXX]: the crop is resized to 224 in its minimum dimension, and then randomly cropped to a 224×224 square.

2. A tight, rectangular crop around the object with no further changes. With this method, the object is centered in the image. However, the background is not removed, meaning other surrounding objects could contribute to the embedding, and the image is not square. The rectangular crops are resized as in the original CLIP paper [XXX].
3. A square crop centred around the object, resized to 224×224 . With this method, the crop is square and correctly sized, and no further processing is needed. However, the background is not removed and the non-tight crop means other surrounding objects might contribute to the node embedding.
4. A tight, rectangular crop, resized to 224×224 . With this method, the crop is tight around the object (fewer surrounding objects included in the crop). However, the resized crops distort the image, and CLIP was not trained on distorted images.

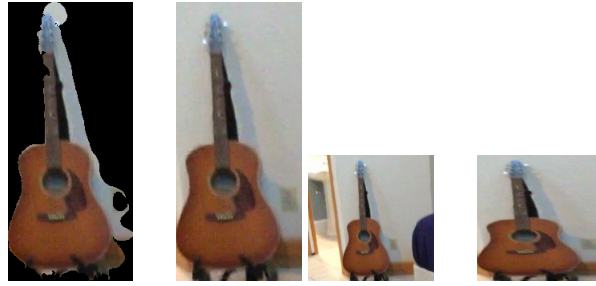


Figure 5.1: Caption 1 Figure 5.2: Caption 2 Figure 5.3: Caption 3 Figure 5.4: Caption 4

Figure 5.5: Overall figure caption

k-value: We also evaluate the impact of different k-values on the quality of the scene graph nodes. The k-value determines how many images of the object will be considered when generating the scene graph node. A higher value of k could result in a more accurate representation of the object, but could also introduce noise or inconsistencies as different views may have different different embeddings. We not that increasing the k-value highly increases the computational cost. It is therefore important to find the optimal k-value that balances these trade-offs. In this analysis we consider the following k-values: $k = 1$, $k = 3$, and $k = 10$.

Visibility score:

1. $s_1 = \frac{n}{w \times h} \times \frac{b}{8}$
2. $s_2 = w_p \frac{n}{w \times h} + w_c \frac{b}{8}$ with $w_p = 1$, $w_c = 1$
3. s_2 with $w_p = 1$, $w_c = 0$
4. s_2 with $w_p = 0$, $w_c = 1$

To evaluate the comparative quality of these cropping methods and k-values, we perform the following experiment: first, we generate scene graphs using each of the three cropping methods, with $k = 1$, $k = 3$ and

$k = 10$ respectively. We therefore have a total of 9 different scene graph node generation methods. Then, we CLIP-embed all the object labels in the scene, and calculate the similarity between the embeddings of the object crops and the embeddings of the object labels. For each object, we select the label with the highest similarity, and compare it to the ground truth label. We calculate the accuracy of the scene graph nodes for each of the 9 methods, and choose the best performing method for the final model. Note that we only use semantic accuracy (since there is no context-awareness mechanism or learning in this experiment) to evaluate the quality of the scene graph nodes. The semantic accuracy is the percentage of nodes that are embedded closest to their label in the CLIP embedding space. We repeat this experiment for each visibility score listed above, keeping the cropping method and k-value constant. Tables XX shows the results of this experiment.

Table 5.1:

Cropping method	k-value		
	1	3	10
Tight masked crop	49.5	50.1	52.1
Tight crop	57.6	58.9	60.3
Square crop	57.1	58.3	62.2
Tight resized crop	56.2	57.4	60.2

Table 5.2:

Visibility Score	Accuracy
s1	62.2
s2	
s3	
s4	

Results and Interpretation

Table XX shows some examples of inaccurate node embeddings. The table shows the crop of the object, the ground truth label, and the label with the highest similarity to the object crop. These inaccuracies are most often caused by other objects appearing in the object of interest’s crop for the following reasons:

- they occlude the object of interest (see floor example)
- they are contained within the object of interest (see doorframe example)
- they are similar to the object of interest (see shelf example)
- the object of interest is rectangular so a square crop includes other objects (see guitar case example)

These examples highlight some inherent limitations of the CLIP method. However, we believe CLIP embeddings are still a good starting points as they offer a common embedding for the images in text, which is accurate in most cases.

Table 5.3:

Crop	Ground Truth Label	Most Similar Label
	Wall	Shower
	Floor	Bed
	Guitar Case	Couch
	Doorframe	Door
	Shelf	Cabinet

The experiments also highlight the necessity of including some learning into the model, because the CLIP-embedding of the object is not very close to the CLIP-embedding of the object label. And this label task is easier than the question task, as shown in Figure XXX.

5.1.2 Edge Construction

Same model, same node embeddings (only change is the edges).

Table 5.4: accuracy (percent)

Threshold value (m)	EM@1 (%)
0.2	20.1
0.5	14.6
0.8	9.8
Random edges	4.0

Dense graphs perform better than sparse graphs. Cannot use no edges because then the scene structure is lost. So these edges help the model learn.

We train GNN model on the scene graphs with different threshold values for the edges. We evaluate the performance of the model on the test set, and choose the best threshold value for the final sg dataset. We also compare the performance of the model with the best threshold value to the performance of the model with random edges. Table XXX shows the results of this experiment.

Simple GNN model - ζ show that chosen threshold is better than random edges. Also show that edges can have a huge impact on the final answer - ζ must be chosen carefully.

5.1.3 Edge Label Classification

5.2 Visual Question Answering Model

In this section, we assess the performance of each model described in section XXX on the ScanSG dataset. We evaluate the performance of the baseline model, the baseline + GNN model, the proposed ScanSG-GNN model, and the proposed ScanSG-Transformer model. The dataset split, evaluation metrics, and hyperparameters common to all models are described below. The specific details of each model are described in the relevant sections, such that the results can be reproduced.

5.2.1 GraphVQA

5.2.2 Experimental Setup for Proposed Models

Dataset The train/test split from the original ScanQA paper [XXX] is used. Questions with multiple answers are removed, such that each question has exactly one answer. The pre-processed dataset consists of 21,081 questions about 626 scenes. The training set consists of 92% of the dataset with 19,500 questions about 555 scenes. The test set consists of the remaining 8% with 1,581 questions about 71 scenes. The scenes in the training and test set are kept separate, such that during testing, the model sees new questions about unseen scenes.

Hyperparameters For the baseline model, no training is required, hence none of the following hyperparameters are relevant. For all other models, a batch size of 64 was used for all experiments. The Adam optimizer was used with a learning rate tuned to each model. The loss function used was the cross-entropy loss. The models were trained for 300 epochs.

Evaluation metrics We compare the performance of each model on the test set of the ScanSG dataset, and report the results in terms of EM@1, EM@5 and EM@10. EM@K is the percentage of questions for which the correct answer is in the top-K predicted answers. We report three measures of EM@K to understand the performance at different levels of accuracy, and monitor these metrics during training to understand how the model is learning. An increasing EM@10 score indicates that the model is learning to predict the correct answer with higher confidence, while an increasing EM@1 score indicates that the model is learning to predict the correct answer with higher accuracy. We also report the train and test loss of the model during training, to understand how the model is learning and whether it is overfitting. Table XXX summarizes the results achieved by each model.

Loss function We compare the performance of 3 loss functions, namely the cross-entropy loss, the binary cross-entropy loss and the focal loss.

add predicted output graph overlaid on scene for each model

5.2.3 Baseline

Since the baseline model does not require any training, it is simply evaluated on the test set of the ScanSG dataset.

Table 5.5: **Complete table**

Model	EM@1	EM@5	EM@10
Baseline	28.1		
Baseline + GNN			
ScanSG-GNN	25.5		
ScanSG-Transformer	46.4		
GraphVQA (pre-trained)			

Semantic accuracy: Instance accuracy:

Accuracy per question type: some questions are easier than others? does it only get questions right where the answer appears in the question?

5.2.4 Baseline + GNN

5.2.5 ScanSG-GNN

Attention pattern at the best epoch, for test and for train – find an example where the attention is good for train

5.2.6 ScanSG-Transformer

5.2.7 Addressing Overfitting

Include plot which shows overfitting problem Overall, there is a overfitting problem. This can either be due to the model (model is too complex, not regularized enough, ...) or the data (not enough data, data is too hard, ...).

Model changes to attempt to overcome this, we report the results of the best performing model with the following changes: normalization dropout L2 regularization changing loss function, ...

Add table summarising all the experiments you did to address overfitting

Methods storyline: (and add results here in relevant section)

1) start from the baseline model – accuracy is quite low because 1-no edge information/context awareness 2-no learning (relies on static, pre-computed embeddings and cannot adapt to the data). Object selection block: CLIP(question) vs CLIP(answer) – similarity with static embeddings does not work well - we show that CLIP(question) does not really capture the same meaning as CLIP(answer)

2) add edge information – GNN model to propagate edge information / give the scene representation some context awareness - each node inherits information from its neighbouring nodes. but this doesn't work well because we still use the cosine similarity of a dynamic embedding and a static embedding (from question), but while the questions might have the same answer their embeddings could be very different. training GNN-only model incentivises the model to make the object embeddings similar to the question embeddings from the training set but these could be very different. this means the model 1) receives a lot of noise in the form of the question embeddings and 2) does not learn to adapt to the data.

3) add learning to similarity score and text embedding – proposed model

4) use transformer instead of GNN for scene encoding (performs better but doesnt learn from graph structure but rather language priors...), two scenes with objects in different positions would have the same scene representation.

do the following experiment if u have time downsizing embedding

Chapter 6

Discussion

The discussion section gives an interpretation of what you have done [1]:

- *What do your results mean?* Here you discuss, but you do not recapitulate results. Describe principles, relationships and generalizations shown. Also, mention inconsistencies or exceptions you found.
- *How do your results relate to other's work?* Show how your work agrees or disagrees with other's work. You can rely on the information you presented in the “related work” section.
- *What are the implications and applications of your work?* State how your methods may be applied and what implications might be.

Make sure that the introduction/related work and the discussion section act as a pair, i.e. “be sure the discussion section answers what the introduction section asked” [1].

Dataset size: The dataset is relatively small, which might have an impact on the performance of the model - might not be able to generalize well to unseen data, overfitting to the training. For reference/comparison, the VQAv2 dataset has 1.1M questions, and the GQA dataset has 22M questions (2D VQA datasets). Yet we only have 20K

Dataset contents: most questions can be answered with 2d information only...

Chapter 7

Conclusion

List the conclusions of your work and give evidence for these. Often, the discussion and the conclusion sections are fused.

Appendix A

The First Appendix

In the appendix, list the following material:

- Data (evaluation tables, graphs etc.)
- Program code
- Further material

Bibliography

- [1] R.A. Day and B. Gastel. *How to Write and Publish a Scientific Paper*. Cambridge University Press, 2006.