

Structured World

Understanding: Integrating

Object-Centric Learning with

Model-Based Reinforcement

Learning

Master's Thesis: Summer Semester 2025

Master thesis by Your Full Name (Student ID: 1234567)

Date of submission: 24.10.2025

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Inhaltsverzeichnis

List of Abbreviations	9
1. Introduction	10
1.1. Context	10
1.2. Goal	11
1.2.1. Problem	11
1.2.2. Solution	11
1.3. Thesis Structure	12
2. Background and Related Work	13
2.1. Reinforcement Learning Fundamentals	13
2.1.1. Model-Free vs. Model-Based Approaches	13
2.1.2. Sample Efficiency Challenges	13
2.1.3. Generalization Problems	14
2.2. Model-Based Reinforcement Learning	14
2.2.1. World Model Learning	14
2.2.2. Planning with Learned Models	14
2.2.3. DreamerV2 Architecture	14
2.2.4. DreamerV2 TD Lambda Targets	15
2.2.5. DreamerV2 Actor Loss	15
2.2.6. DreamerV2 Critic Loss	16
2.3. Object-Centric Representations	17
2.3.1. Limitations of Pixel-Based Representations	17
2.3.2. Object-Centric Learning Approaches	18
2.3.3. Relational Reasoning in RL	18
2.4. Current Limitations and Research Gaps	18
2.4.1. Lack of Integration Between Approaches	18
2.4.2. Misalignment Problems	18
2.4.3. Generalization Challenges	18

3. Methodology	19
3.1. Theoretical Framework	19
3.1.1. Object-Centric World Model Design	19
3.1.2. Integration Strategy with Model-Based RL	19
3.1.3. Expected Benefits Analysis	19
3.2. Implementation Approach	19
3.2.1. Environment Selection (Atari Pong)	19
3.2.2. Object-Centric State Representation	19
3.2.3. World Model Architecture Design	19
3.3. Experimental Design	19
3.3.1. Baseline Comparisons	19
3.3.2. Evaluation Metrics	19
3.3.3. Ablation Studies	19
4. Implementation	20
4.1. Environment and Setup	21
4.1.1. Pong Environment Characteristics	21
4.1.2. Object-Centric State Extraction	21
4.1.3. Frame Stacking and Preprocessing	21
4.2. World Model Architecture	21
4.2.1. LSTM-Based World Model (PongLSTM)	21
4.2.2. Alternative Architectures Explored	21
4.2.3. State Normalization and Stability	21
4.3. Actor-Critic Integration	21
4.3.1. DreamerV2-Style Actor-Critic	21
4.3.2. Policy Learning in Imagined Rollouts	21
4.3.3. Lambda-Return Computation	21
4.4. Training Pipeline	21
4.4.1. Experience Collection	21
4.4.2. World Model Training	21
4.4.3. Policy Optimization	21
5. Experiments and Results	22
5.1. Experimental Setup	23
5.1.1. Hyperparameters and Configuration	23
5.1.2. Hardware and Implementation Details	23
5.1.3. Evaluation Protocol	23

5.2. World Model Performance	23
5.2.1. Prediction Accuracy Analysis	23
5.2.2. Long-Term Rollout Quality	23
5.2.3. Model Stability Assessment	23
5.3. Policy Learning Results	23
5.3.1. Sample Efficiency Comparison	23
5.3.2. Final Performance Evaluation	23
5.3.3. Learning Curve Analysis	23
5.4. Ablation Studies	23
5.4.1. Impact of Object-Centric Representations	23
5.4.2. Architecture Component Analysis	23
5.4.3. Reward Function Design Effects	23
5.5. Visualization and Interpretability	23
5.5.1. Real vs. Model Comparison	23
5.5.2. Learned Representations Analysis	23
5.5.3. Policy Behavior Visualization	23
6. Discussion	24
6.1. Analysis of Results	25
6.1.1. Strengths of the Proposed Approach	25
6.1.2. Limitations and Challenges	25
6.1.3. Comparison with Existing Methods	25
6.2. Technical Insights	25
6.2.1. World Model Design Choices	25
6.2.2. Training Stability Issues	25
6.2.3. Reward Engineering Importance	25
6.3. Implications for Object-Centric RL	25
6.3.1. Benefits of Integration	25
6.3.2. Generalization Potential	25
6.3.3. Scalability Considerations	25
6.4. Future Research Directions	25
6.4.1. More Complex Environments	25
6.4.2. Improved Object Discovery	25
6.4.3. Multi-Object Scenarios	25
7. Conclusion	26
7.1. Summary of Contributions	26
7.2. Key Findings	26

7.3. Limitations and Future Work	26
7.4. Final Remarks	26
A. Implementation Details	28
A.1. Code Structure and Organization	28
A.2. Hyperparameter Sensitivity Analysis	28
A.3. Additional Experimental Results	28
B. Technical Specifications	29
B.1. Hardware Requirements	29
B.2. Software Dependencies	29
B.3. Reproducibility Guidelines	29
C. Supplementary Figures and Tables	30



Abbildungsverzeichnis



Tabellenverzeichnis

List of Abbreviations

RL	Reinforcement Learning
MBRL	Model-Based Reinforcement Learning
MFRL	Model-Free Reinforcement Learning
CNN	Convolutional Neural Network
LSTM	Long Short-Term Memory
PPO	Proximal Policy Optimization
A3C	Asynchronous Advantage Actor-Critic
DQN	Deep Q-Network
RSSM	Recurrent State Space Model
KL	Kullback-Leibler
MSE	Mean Squared Error
RGB	Red-Green-Blue
GPU	Graphics Processing Unit
JAX	Just After eXecution

1. Introduction

1.1. Context

Reinforcement Learning as one of the three categories in Machine Learning among Supervised and Unsupervised Learning follows the approach of having an agent performs actions in an environment and receiving rewards for certain actions. So unlike Supervised Learning for example there is no ground truth from the which the agent can learn from. Among numerous distinctions within Reinforcement Learning there is the difference between Model Based Reinforcement Learning and Model Free Reinforcement Learning. The Latter focuses on the learning of only the Agent which is deployed in the environment (or learns from samples). Thus the agent will have no explicit way of predicting the next state of the environment, although sufficiently large for example neural networks might create some implicit model of the world. Model based Reinforcement learning augments the architecture by a Model that is predicting the next state of the world but also still trains an agent. So there are usually two separate models. That might improve sample efficiency since once the world model is trained it can be used to train the agent without any need of additional sampling in the environment. Another hope of Model based approaches is that they can achieve a better understanding of the environment and thus generalize better to new unseen situations.

Given that well established separation in Reinforcement Learning there are different approaches that might yield improvements in abstract reasoning for reinforcement learning agents. The approach of Object-Centricity tries to improve RL-Agents by not focusing on for example pixel representations of the environment (given that the environment might be some kind of game like the Atari Benchmark) but rather translating those pixel based representation to abstract relational concepts (e.g. separating a game screen into distinct entities like player character, enemies, and collectibles rather than processing it as an undifferentiated grid of pixels).

1.2. Goal

The task of this Thesis can be summarized as follows: Currently there are no attempts to combine model based approaches and Object-Centric ones. Since both have the goal of improving abstract reasoning by developing a more abstract understanding of the world and improving sample efficiency the vision is to use both things to arrive at a more robust solution.

1.2.1. Problem

A common pitfall of Reinforcement Learning is the misalignment problem, which can be summarized to an agent learning a policy, which indeed maximizes its reward but which does not represent what humans would like the agent to learn. This can for example be the agent exploiting some flaw in the environment and therefore avoiding to actually play and therefore learn the game. Moreover model free approaches are usually fairly sample inefficient since the agent has no other way of gaining examples (performing roll outs) then actually playing the game and exploring it.

Lastly generalization of the agents is often a big problems. Changing small and meaningless things in the environment sometimes lead to disastrous drops in performance. For example for Agents performing on pixel representations this might involve changing the background color. For humans this would not make a difference but agents sometimes fail, since they do not have a way to actually understand the game they are playing but rather rely on certain tricks that they learn during training which are not robust to changes.

1.2.2. Solution

The proposed solution combines model-based reinforcement learning with object-centered representations to solve the identified problems. This integration offers several potential benefits.

First of all, model-based approaches can significantly improve sampling efficiency by allowing the agent to learn from simulated experiences generated by the world model. In combination with object-centered representations, the world model can make predictions in a more structured and compact state space that focuses on relevant objects and their

relationships rather than raw pixels. This should enable more efficient learning with fewer environmental interactions.

Second, an object-centric world model could improve generalization capabilities. By decomposing scenes into objects and their relationships, the agent develops an understanding of the environment that is more robust to superficial changes. The hope is that this structured representation combined with model based approaches enhances generalization abilities even further.

Third, the combination could improve interpretability. Object-centered representations make it easier to understand what the agent considers important in the environment and how it reasons about state transitions. This interpretability could help identify and address mismatch issues by providing insight into why an agent makes certain decisions or why it might exploit loopholes in the environment.

The implementation strategy will focus on integrating object-centered perception modules into established model-based RL frameworks. This will require the development of methods to incorporate object-centered representations into world model predictions.

1.3. Thesis Structure

This thesis is organized as follows: Chapter 2 provides the necessary background on reinforcement learning and object-centric representations. Chapter 3 presents the theoretical framework and integration strategy. Chapter 4 details the technical implementation. Chapter 5 presents experimental results and analysis. Chapter 6 discusses the implications and limitations of the approach. Chapter 7 concludes the thesis and outlines future research directions.

2. Background and Related Work

2.1. Reinforcement Learning Fundamentals

2.1.1. Model-Free vs. Model-Based Approaches

There are two main categories in Reinforcement learning. First of all Model-Free Reinforcement Learning focusses on training an agent without explicitly learning a model of the environment. There is no prediction of future states but purely an agent that takes in observation and directly computes Decisions. Whereas Model Based Reinforcement Learning usually consists of a world model part that tries to make predictions on how the environment will behave in the future. This can be done using actual prediction of next observations directly or using some kind of latent space and making predictions there.

2.1.2. Sample Efficiency Challenges

Sample Efficiency so the optimisation of the amount of rollouts that is sampled in the actual environment can have multiple motivations. On the one hand the actual environment can be something in the physical world where there are constraints on the amount of times a physical object like a robot can move or how fast one can generate real samples. On the other hand computing states in the actual environment might be more costly and can therefore lower training speed depending on the complexity of the environment. For example running a game can be more resource intensive than computing a next (latent) state in the internal representation. Model based approaches usually vastly improve sample efficiency because the data hungry step of training the agent can be done in the worldmodel. Meaning the worldmodel creates artificial rollouts (or parts of them) in which the actor can then do its training. The worldmodel has to of course sample training data in the actual environment but it usually requires way less training steps.

2.1.3. Generalization Problems

Moreover Model-Free approaches sometimes suffer from generalization problems. They overfit on a certain state of the environment. A common thing is the background color of the game if the actor is training on visual input. Thus changing the background which would have zero impact on the performance of a human player can drastically decrease the performance of an agent. Model Based Approaches usually come with some form of abstraction be it latent space or object centric things which usually do not suffer that much from simple changes in the environment. Also due to the error of the Environment Prediction an actor might see more diverse things to begin with.

2.2. Model-Based Reinforcement Learning

2.2.1. World Model Learning

There are multiple way to to train a world model. As mentioned above already you can predict latent states or directly predict future observations. There are also multiple different architectures which can do the job. From a simple MLP over LSTMs to Transformers there have been many different approiaches to that same problem. Tes

2.2.2. Planning with Learned Models

2.2.3. DreamerV2 Architecture

DreamerV2 [1] is a model-based RL algorithm.

Explain in general what dreamer does what are the components and how do they play together

2.2.4. DreamerV2 TD Lambda Targets

The λ -target is defined recursively as:

$$V_t^\lambda = \hat{r}_t + \hat{\gamma}_t \cdot \begin{cases} (1 - \lambda)v_\xi(\hat{z}_{t+1}) + \lambda V_{t+1}^\lambda & \text{if } t < H \\ v_\xi(\hat{z}_H) & \text{if } t = H \end{cases} \quad (2.1)$$

where \hat{r}_t represents the predicted reward, $\hat{\gamma}_t$ is the predicted discount factor, $v_\xi(\hat{z}_t)$ is the critic's value estimate, and $\lambda = 0.95$ controls the weighting between immediate and future rewards. This formulation creates a weighted average of n-step returns, where longer horizons receive exponentially decreasing weights.

In my case I don't have z but simply the observation itself. So no latent space.

2.2.5. DreamerV2 Actor Loss

The actor network in DreamerV2 employs a sophisticated loss function that combines multiple gradient estimators to achieve both learning efficiency and convergence stability. The actor aims to maximize the same λ -return targets used for critic training, incorporating intermediate rewards directly rather than relying solely on terminal value estimates.

The combined actor loss function is formulated as:

$$\mathcal{L}(\psi) = \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t=1}^{H-1} \left[-\rho \ln p_\psi(\hat{a}_t | \hat{z}_t) \text{sg}(V_t^\lambda - v_\xi(\hat{z}_t)) \quad [\text{REINFORCE}] \right. \right. \quad (2.2)$$

$$\left. \left. - (1 - \rho)V_t^\lambda \quad [\text{Dynamics Backprop}] \right. \right. \quad (2.3)$$

$$\left. \left. - \eta \mathcal{H}[a_t | \hat{z}_t] \quad [\text{Entropy Regularization}] \right] \right] \quad (2.4)$$

The loss function incorporates three distinct components:

REINFORCE Gradients: REINFORCE algorithm, which maximizes the log-probability of actions weighted by their advantage values. The advantage is computed to be the difference between the lambda-return and the critic's estimate, with gradients stopped around the targets (denoted by sg stop gradient) to prevent interference with critic learning

Entropy Regularization: The third term encourages exploration by maximizing the entropy of the action distribution. The entropy coefficient η controls the trade-off between exploitation and exploration, with higher values promoting more diverse action selection.

The weighting parameter ρ determines the relative contribution of REINFORCE versus straight-through gradients. For discrete action spaces like Atari, DreamerV2 typically uses $\rho = 1$ (pure REINFORCE) with $\eta = 10^{-3}$, while continuous control tasks benefit from $\rho = 0$ (pure dynamics backpropagation) with $\eta = 10^{-4}$.

2.2.6. DreamerV2 Critic Loss

The critic network in DreamerV2 serves as a value function approximator that estimates the expected discounted sum of future rewards from any given latent state. This component is essential for both the λ -target computation and providing baseline estimates for the REINFORCE algorithm, making it a cornerstone of the learning process.

The critic is trained using temporal difference learning with the λ -targets as regression targets. The loss function is formulated as a squared error between the critic’s predictions and the computed λ -returns:

$$\mathcal{L}(\xi) = \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t=1}^{H-1} \frac{1}{2} \left(v_{\xi}(\hat{z}_t) - \text{sg}(V_t^{\lambda}) \right)^2 \right] \quad (2.5)$$

where $v_{\xi}(\hat{z}_t)$ represents the critic’s value estimate for latent state \hat{z}_t , and $\text{sg}(V_t^{\lambda})$ denotes the λ -target with stopped gradients. The gradient stopping prevents the critic’s learning from interfering with the target computation, maintaining the stability of the temporal difference updates.

Several key design choices enhance the critic’s learning efficiency:

Target Network Stabilization: Following the approach used in Deep Q-Networks, DreamerV2 employs a target network that provides stable targets for critic learning. The target network is a delayed copy of the critic parameters, updated every 100 gradient steps. This approach prevents the rapid changes in the critic from destabilizing the learning targets.

Trajectory Weighting: The loss terms are weighted by cumulative predicted discount factors to account for episode termination probabilities. This weighting ensures that states likely to lead to episode endings receive appropriate emphasis during training.

Compact State Representation: Unlike traditional value functions that operate on high-dimensional observations, the DreamerV2 critic leverages the compact latent states \hat{z}_t

learned by the world model. This representation provides several advantages: reduced computational complexity, better generalization across similar states, and improved learning efficiency due to the structured nature of the latent space.

The critic architecture consists of a multi-layer perceptron with ELU activations and approximately 1 million trainable parameters. The network outputs a single scalar value representing the expected return from the input state, enabling efficient batch processing of imagined trajectories during training.

2.3. Object-Centric Representations

2.3.1. Limitations of Pixel-Based Representations

- **High Dimensionality:** Pixel observations are inherently high-dimensional, leading to increased computational requirements and slower learning. The agent must process large amounts of redundant information, much of which may be irrelevant to the task.
- **Poor Generalization:** Agents trained on pixel data tend to overfit to specific visual details, such as background colors or textures. Even minor changes in the environment's appearance can significantly degrade performance, as the agent fails to recognize semantically identical states that look different at the pixel level.
- **Lack of Semantic Understanding:** Pixel-based representations do not explicitly encode objects or their relationships. As a result, agents struggle to reason about entities, interactions, or causal structure in the environment, limiting their ability to plan or transfer knowledge.
- **Sample Inefficiency:** Learning meaningful features directly from pixels typically requires a vast number of environment interactions. The agent must discover relevant abstractions from scratch, which is especially challenging in sparse-reward or complex environments.
- **Sensitivity to Noise and Distractors:** Pixel-based agents are vulnerable to visual noise, occlusions, or irrelevant objects. Such distractions can mislead the agent or disrupt the learning process, as there is no mechanism to focus on task-relevant entities.

These limitations motivate the exploration of object-centric representations, which aim to provide more structured, compact, and semantically meaningful state descriptions for reinforcement learning agents.

2.3.2. Object-Centric Learning Approaches

2.3.3. Relational Reasoning in RL

2.4. Current Limitations and Research Gaps

2.4.1. Lack of Integration Between Approaches

2.4.2. Misalignment Problems

2.4.3. Generalization Challenges

3. Methodology

3.1. Theoretical Framework

3.1.1. Object-Centric World Model Design

3.1.2. Integration Strategy with Model-Based RL

3.1.3. Expected Benefits Analysis

3.2. Implementation Approach

3.2.1. Environment Selection (Atari Pong)

3.2.2. Object-Centric State Representation

3.2.3. World Model Architecture Design

3.3. Experimental Design

3.3.1. Baseline Comparisons

3.3.2. Evaluation Metrics

3.3.3. Ablation Studies



4. Implementation

4.1. Environment and Setup

4.1.1. Pong Environment Characteristics

4.1.2. Object-Centric State Extraction

4.1.3. Frame Stacking and Preprocessing

4.2. World Model Architecture

4.2.1. LSTM-Based World Model (PongLSTM)

4.2.2. Alternative Architectures Explored

4.2.3. State Normalization and Stability

4.3. Actor-Critic Integration

4.3.1. DreamerV2-Style Actor-Critic

4.3.2. Policy Learning in Imagined Rollouts

4.3.3. Lambda-Return Computation

4.4. Training Pipeline

4.4.1. Experience Collection

4.4.2. World Model Training

4.4.3. Policy Optimization



5. Experiments and Results

5.1. Experimental Setup

5.1.1. Hyperparameters and Configuration

5.1.2. Hardware and Implementation Details

5.1.3. Evaluation Protocol

5.2. World Model Performance

5.2.1. Prediction Accuracy Analysis

5.2.2. Long-Term Rollout Quality

5.2.3. Model Stability Assessment

5.3. Policy Learning Results

5.3.1. Sample Efficiency Comparison

5.3.2. Final Performance Evaluation

5.3.3. Learning Curve Analysis

5.4. Ablation Studies

5.4.1. Impact of Object-Centric Representations

5.4.2. Architecture Component Analysis

5.4.3. Reward Function Design Effects

5.5. Visualization and Interpretability

23

5.5.1. Real vs. Model Comparison

5.5.2. Learned Representations Analysis

5.5.3. Policy Behavior Visualization



6. Discussion

6.1. Analysis of Results

6.1.1. Strengths of the Proposed Approach

6.1.2. Limitations and Challenges

6.1.3. Comparison with Existing Methods

6.2. Technical Insights

6.2.1. World Model Design Choices

6.2.2. Training Stability Issues

6.2.3. Reward Engineering Importance

6.3. Implications for Object-Centric RL

6.3.1. Benefits of Integration

6.3.2. Generalization Potential

6.3.3. Scalability Considerations

6.4. Future Research Directions

6.4.1. More Complex Environments

6.4.2. Improved Object Discovery

6.4.3. Multi-Object Scenarios



7. Conclusion

7.1. Summary of Contributions

7.2. Key Findings

7.3. Limitations and Future Work

7.4. Final Remarks



References

- [1] Danijar Hafner u. a. „Dream to Control: Learning Behaviors by Latent Imagination“. In: *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*. 2020.



A. Implementation Details

A.1. Code Structure and Organization

A.2. Hyperparameter Sensitivity Analysis

A.3. Additional Experimental Results



B. Technical Specifications

B.1. Hardware Requirements

B.2. Software Dependencies

B.3. Reproducibility Guidelines



C. Supplementary Figures and Tables
