

# Prompt-based Object-centric Video Representation for Action Anticipation

## Abstract

This paper focuses on building object-centric representations for action anticipation in videos. Our key motivation is that objects provide important cues to recognize and predict human-object interactions, especially when the predictions are longer term, as an observed “background” object could be used by the human actor in the future. We observe that existing object-based video recognition frameworks either assume the existence of in-domain supervised object detectors or follow a fully weakly-supervised pipeline to infer object locations from action labels. We propose to build object-centric video representations by leveraging visual-language pretrained models. This is achieved by “object prompts”, an approach to extract task-specific object-centric representations from general-purpose pretrained models without finetuning. To recognize and predict human-object interactions, we use a Transformer-based neural architecture which allows the “retrieval” of relevant objects for action anticipation at various time scales. We conduct extensive evaluations on the Ego4D Long-term Anticipation, 50Salads, and EGTEA Gaze+ benchmarks. Both quantitative and qualitative results confirm the effectiveness of our proposed object prompts and the overall model.

## 1. Introduction

Given an egocentric video observation, the action anticipation task [51] is defined as generating an action sequence of the camera-wearer in the form of verb and object pairs. Of particular interest is the long-term action anticipation (LTA) task [20], which aims to anticipate future actions over a long time-horizon. A reliable action anticipation algorithm is crucial for building intelligent agents, as it provides important signals for planning in interactive environments.

This paper aims to build effective object-centric video representations for action anticipation. As illustrated in Figure 1, our key motivation is that a detailed, object-centric understanding of the scene provides visual cues on the goals of the actions and the available tools to be interacted with. While objects have been shown to play a crucial role for action understanding in both humans [49, 58] and machines [62, 40], their impacts on video-based action antic-

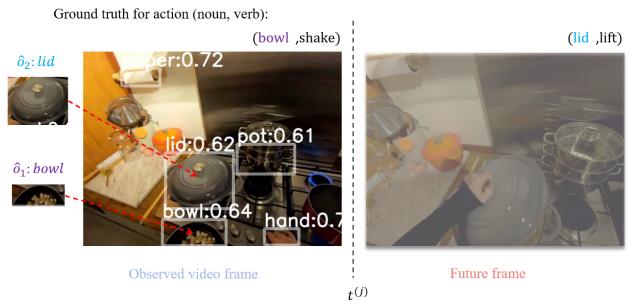


Figure 1: Objects are not only helpful for action recognition (left, *shake a bowl*), they also reveal the possible options for future human-object interactions (right, *lift a lid*). We propose object prompts, which leverage visual-language pretrained models (e.g. GLIP [29]) to build object-centric video representations without dataset-specific finetuning.

ipation is yet to be studied. Among the earlier attempts at object-based video action understanding, one common approach is to leverage object detectors trained on in-domain bounding box annotations [9, 23, 62, 40] on the same or similar datasets. While effective, the in-domain bounding box annotation process is time-consuming and labor-intensive, which makes the corresponding frameworks unlikely to scale to visually more diverse videos and complex, cluttered scenes. The other approach is to leverage generic object proposals [57, 54] or to directly work with image patches [53, 45, 18], and rely on the attention mechanism [55] to pick the salient regions with weak supervision from the action labels. Despite being more flexible, this approach does not incorporate prior knowledge on object locations, and often struggles to “detect” the actual objects, especially when the training data is limited.

We propose to address the limitations of the existing approaches by leveraging visual-language models pretrained on large-scale datasets, such as GLIP [29]. We hypothesize that these pretrained models, whose objective is to (contrastively) associate image regions with text descriptions, learn generic object-centric representation that can be transferred to the action anticipation task, without the need to finetune their weights. We identify two challenges in order to investigate whether visual-language pretrained

models help anticipation: First, how to properly “query” the pretrained models to retrieve the most relevant objects in a video observation, based on the domain knowledge; Second, how to associate different objects in an often cluttered scene to predict different human-object interactions in a long time-horizon. For the first challenge, we propose *object prompts*, which incorporate the domain knowledge of the target dataset by mapping the action (*e.g.* verb and object pairs) vocabulary into object prompts, which are used to query the visual-language pretrained models. For the second challenge, we propose using a *predictive transformer encoder* (PTE), which is a Transformer encoder network that jointly attends to the motion cues (as encoded by pre-trained video ConvNets or Transformers) and the object-centric representation (based on the object prompts), and dynamically associates the motion and object evidence in order to predict future actions at different time steps. Our overall proposed framework is based on the Transformer architecture, and is trained end-to-end with the future action classification objectives.

We conduct thorough experiments on the long-term action anticipation benchmark in the Ego4D dataset [20], and the anticipation benchmarks in the Salads [51] and EGTEA Gaze+ [30] datasets. Our quantitative experiments confirm that the prompt-based object-centric representations can substantially improve the action anticipation performance. Ablation experiments reveal that it is important to incorporate in-domain knowledge when designing the object prompts, and that object-centric representation significantly outperforms image-level counterpart [11]. In addition, qualitative analysis on object attention visualization shows that the model learns to associate the corresponding objects when predicting actions at different time steps.

In summary, our contributions in this paper are three-fold: First, we demonstrate the effectiveness of object-centric representation for video action anticipation; Second, we propose “object prompts” to incorporate domain information when querying the pretrained models, and predictive transformer encoder to dynamically associate the object evidence for action anticipation; Finally, we provide extensive quantitative and qualitative analysis of the proposed framework, which achieves competitive performance on three benchmarks. Our implementation along with the pretrained models will be released.

## 2. Related Work

**Object-centric video representation** is an active research area for action recognition applications. The motivations include producing a more compact, thus efficient video representation by attending to regions of interest; and enabling compositional generalization to unseen human-object interactions [41] with a structured representation. For example, Wang et al. [57] extract RoI features from an 3D CNN fea-

ture maps using off-the-shelf detector, and build a graph neural network on top of RoI features alone. LFB [59] and Object Transformer [60] load off-the-shelf object features from object detectors in video backbones to encode long-term video features. Recently, with the advance of transformer-based architectures, ORViT [23] proposes to crop [22] object regions as a new object tokens and attach them to pixel tokens. ObjectLearner [62] fuses an object-layout stream and a pixels stream using an object-to-pixel transformer. Most of the existing object-based approaches either assume the availability of in-domain bounding box annotations, or apply generic “objectness” criteria (*e.g.* bounding box proposals trained on COCO [32]). We propose object prompts to leverage a pretrained visual-language model to generate task-specific object representations.

**Video Transformers.** Transformers [14] are now the predominant architectures for video recognition. The vanilla vision transformer (ViT) [14] evenly devides images into non-overlapping tokens, and run multi-head self-attention [56] over the tokens. TimeSFormer [5] and ViViT [3] extends ViT to videos, by introducing cube tokenization and efficient cross-time attention, i.e., axis-based space-time attention [5] or factorized attention [3]. MotionFormer [45] enhance space-time attention by an implicit trajectory attention module. MViT [15, 31] and VideoSwin Transformer [35] re-introduce resolution-pooling as in convolution nets in video transformers for efficiency.

**Visual-Language Pretrained Models.** We have collectively made huge progress towards building unified learning frameworks for a wide range of tasks, including natural language understanding [12, 47, 7, 34], visual recognition [28, 26, 61, 17], and multimodal perception [24, 52, 36, 19, 2]. As this pretraining-adaptation learning paradigm gains momentum, researchers at Stanford [6] even coined the term “foundation models” to refer to these pretrained neural networks. While the earlier visual-language pretrained models work with image-level [36, 46] or video-level [52, 38] representations, more recent models are object grounded [29, 43, 63, 21, 37]. We explore the benefits of both object-level [29] and image-level [46] for action anticipation.

## 3. Methods

In this section, we first introduce the long-term action anticipation (LTA) problem formulation and the next action prediction (NAP) formulation. Then, we describe our overall model architecture. Finally, we describe our choices on object detections and representation in detail.

### 3.1. The Action Anticipation Task

Given the significant applications of action anticipation, numerous benchmarks have been introduced to evaluate

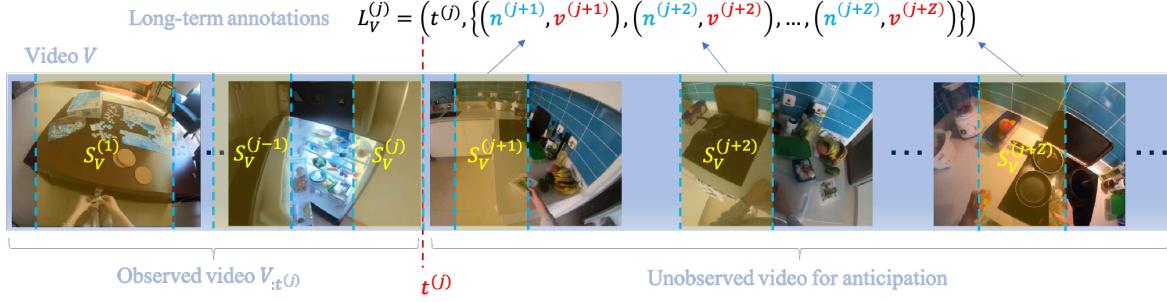


Figure 2: **Illustration of the Action Anticipation task.** In the long-term action anticipation (**LTA**), the learned model is expected to predict a sequence of  $Z$  actions, in the form of object and verb pairs, given visual observations up to time  $t^{(j)}$  in the video.  $t^{(j)}$  is the end time for the  $j$ -th labeled segment in the original video. During evaluation, the edit distance between a predicted sequence and the ground truth sequence is computed. To account for uncertainty in action anticipation, the model can predict up to  $K$  sequences for each input example. In the next action prediction (**NAP**), the learned model is only expected to predict a set of actions. ( $Z = 1$ )

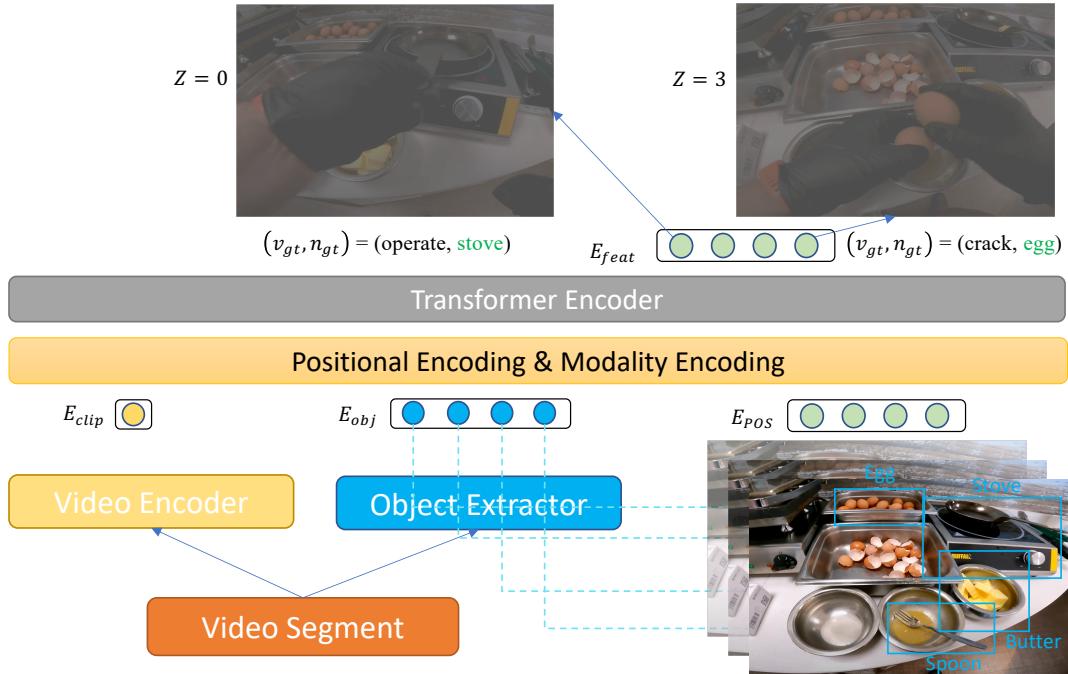


Figure 3: **Illustrations of overall model architecture** when  $N_v = 1, N_o = 4, Z = 4$  where  $N_{seg}$  is the number of input segments,  $N_{obj}$  is the number of objects per segments,  $Z$  is the number of future actions we want to predict. Given the features  $E_{clip}, E_{obj}$  extracted by the encoders, Predictive Transformer Encoder (PTE) generates  $Z$  features for future prediction. A decoder network is applied on each generated feature  $z_i$  to compute verb and object probabilities.

model performance [48, 27, 44, 9, 10, 54]. Long-term action anticipation **LTA** is problem setup introduced by the Ego4D benchmark [20]. As illustrated in Figure 2, the provided annotations first split a long video  $V$  into smaller segments  $\{S_V^{(i)}\}$ , where  $S_V^{(i)}$  is the  $i$ -th annotated video segment. Each segment is labeled with its starting time, end time, and action label. The action label is rep-

resented as one verb, object pair  $(n^{(j)}, v^{(j)})$  for each segment  $S_V^{(j)}$ . The LTA task is specified by a “stop time”  $t^{(j)}$ , which denotes the end time for the last observed video segment  $S_V^{(j)}$ . The learned model is allowed to observe any video frames before  $t^{(j)}$  in order to make future predictions  $\{(n^{(j+1)}, v^{(j+1)}), \dots, (n^{(j+Z)}, v^{(j+Z)})\}$ , where  $Z$  is the number of future steps to predict. For example, sup-

pose a person is frying an egg with a pan in a kitchen where knives, onions, water, and pots are scattered around. In this scenario, the LTA requires the model to predict the person’s upcoming actions sequentially, such as picking up the knife, cutting the onion, and drinking water. To account for the uncertainty of future behaviors, the model is allowed to make up to  $K$  sets of action predictions for each future step. We follow the standard setup and use  $Z = 20$ ,  $K = 5$ . More details on the evaluation metric are in Section 4.

Next action prediction (NAP) is problem setup which focuses on predicting the action at the next step ( $Z = 1$ ). As shown in Figure 2, the learned model is also allowed to observe any video frames before  $t^{(j)}$  but only make one future prediction  $\{(n^{(j+1)}, v^{(j+1)})\}$  (i.e.,  $K = 1$ ) for video segment  $S_V^{(j+1)}$ .

### 3.2. Overall Model Architecture

We now introduce our model architecture as illustrated in Figure 3. We follow the standard experimental setup as used in [20]. Given a video  $V$  and the stop time  $t^{(j)}$ , our model takes a sequence of video segments  $\{S_V^{(j-N_v+1)}, \dots, S_V^{(j)}\}$  as input observation, and generate a sequence of actions  $\{(n^{(j+1)}, v^{(j+1)}), \dots, (n^{(j+Z)}, v^{(j+Z)})\}$  as outputs.  $N_v$  is the number of observed video segments, and  $Z$  is the number of future steps. Our overall model architecture consists of three modules: (1) a collection of video or object encoders that generate multimodal representations from video segments; (2) an aggregator network which fuses multimodal input representation across space and time; (3) an output decoder which generates action predictions from the aggregated features.

**Encoders.** We sample  $N_v$  clips, each one from each of the  $N_v$  input video segments. Then we pass the clips to a video encoder to generate clip-level representations  $E_{clip} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_v \times D}$ , where  $D$  is the encoded embedding size. We also sample  $N_o$  objects from the  $N_v$  video segments. Then we then use an object encoder to generate object representations  $E_{obj} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_o \times D}$ . We will discuss our choices in object detectors and object encoders in following sections.

**Aggregators.** We introduce Predictive Transformer Encoder (PTE), a Transformer-based architecture for the action anticipation task. Given  $E_{clip}$  and  $E_{obj}$ , PTE is used to generate  $Z$  features  $z_0, z_1, \dots, z_{Z-1}$  for future prediction.

PTE has learnable tokens  $E_{POS} \in \mathbb{R}^{Z \times D}$ . It concatenates  $E_{clip}$ ,  $E_{obj}$  and  $E_{POS}$  to form a sequence of length  $N_v + N_o + Z$ , then adds positional and modality encodings to the entire sequence. Finally, it passes the sequence to a vanilla Transformer Encoder [55], then take out features corresponding to the last  $Z$  learnable tokens as  $z_0, z_1, \dots, z_{Z-1}$ .

**Decoders and Training Objectives.** For each  $z_i$  generated by PTE, we apply one linear layer on top of it to generate the logits for verb predictions, and one separate linear layer

for noun predictions. We use Softmax Cross-Entropy as the loss function, and assign equal weights to all future steps.

**Fusion strategies.** Besides early fusion, we also implement late fusion. Leveraging the advantages of PTE, we first only use video features to generate logits (outputs of the decoder) for future actions, then we only use object features to generate the logits. We average the logits from the video and object streams as the final logits.

### 3.3. Object-based Video Representation

We now describe our choices on object detections and representation. By LTA task definition, object information should provide important cues to predict human actions. Taking inspiration from this, we propose to leverage GLIP [29], a grounded language-image pretrained model to construct object-based video representation. We hypothesize that models pretrained on diverse object detection and phrase grounding datasets like GLIP already encode transferrable object information, and can be accessed using task-specific “prompts” (e.g. common objects used in the target dataset). Thus, it is crucial to develop suitable text prompts to utilize the object-centric information encoded by GLIP for the LTA task.

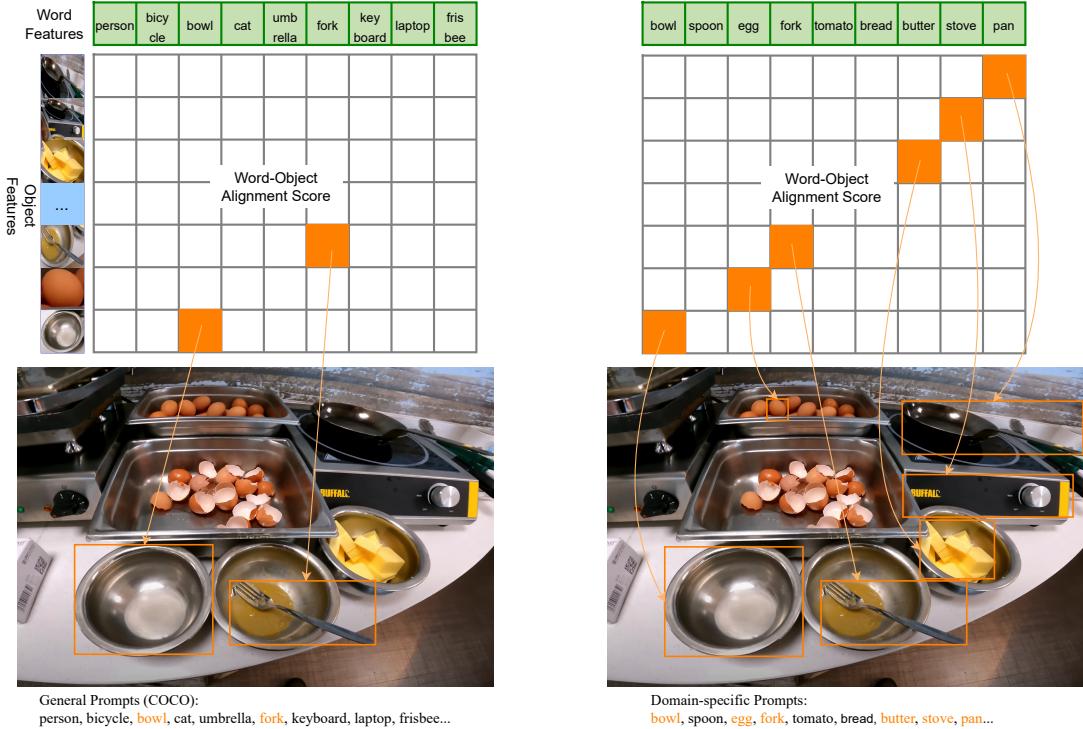
#### 3.3.1 Leveraging Pretrained Grounding Models

Grounded Language-Image Pre-training (GLIP) [29] proposed a pretraining strategy to build vision-language foundation models that can be further adopted for “zero-shot” object detection. During pretraining, GLIP is agnostic to the choice of object detectors to generate region proposals. In our work, we follow GLIP’s setting to use Dynamic Head [8] object detector for images, and the BERT [13] encoder for text inputs. Similar to applying CLIP [46] for zero-shot image classification, the zero-shot object detection can be achieved by querying with “object prompts” (e.g. “*an image region with a cat*”) to the pretrained language-image grounding model.

To retrieve object detector’s features corresponding to finally chosen region proposals, we design two approaches. First, we inject a special identifier inside each region proposal data structure in order to gain original object features for each proposal. Second, we crop and feed the object proposal region into a pretrained image encoder to generate object features. Additionally, we also extract the object category level alignment scores and the box location to append to the object-level representation. The second approach allows us to leverage any image-language pretrained model, such as CLIP [46].

#### 3.3.2 Object Prompt Strategy

In order to get object-level features from grounded pretrained models, proper prompts design is necessary. We hy-



**Figure 4: Domain-specific object prompts are necessary to extract effective object-centric representation from visual-language pretrained models.** Here we illustrate the procedure of aligning words in prompts with object-level features by calculating contrastive scores. For this example in a kitchen scene, on the left we show the list of objects obtained from the COCO dataset classification vocabulary, on the right is the list of objects obtained by our object prompts.

pothesize that the desirable object prompts should incorporate the domain knowledge (*e.g.* common objects appearing in the dataset), and explore different strategies to design the object prompts.

In order to obtain the object prompts, we first define the object vocabulary that contains the object classes to be detected. One simple and intuitive solution is to directly borrow the vocabulary used in the task: For LTA, this refers to the list of objects to be interacted with. We then explore two intuitive approaches to refine the vocabulary: 1) picking the most common object categories based on their frequency in the training data of the target task; 2) using word embedding (*e.g.* word2vec [42]) and K-Means clustering to group similar categories. In addition, we also explore the vocabulary used by the COCO [32] dataset for comparison.

Figure 4 illustrates the importance of having domain-specific object prompts, as provided by the most common objects or word clusters. Figure 5 shows the actual detections by GLIP with different object prompt strategies.

## 4. Experiment

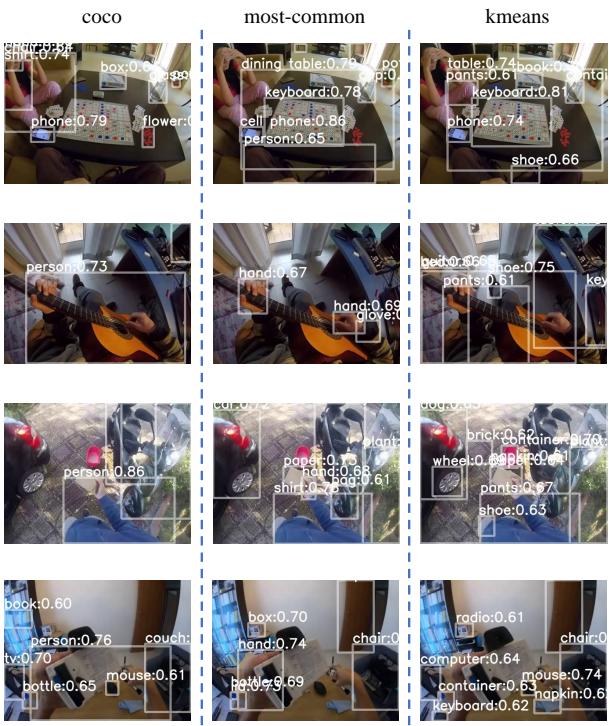
We conduct extensive experiments and ablation studies to demonstrate the effectiveness of our proposed approach in action anticipation task.

### 4.1. Experiment Setup

**Ego4D** [20] contains 3,670 hours of daily life activity egocentric video spanning hundreds of scenarios. We focus on videos under Forecasting subset which contains 1723 clips with 53 scenarios and around 116 hours. In addition, it contains 115 verb as interaction behaviors and 478 noun as objects. We follow the standard train, validation, and test splits from [20] annotations for evaluation.

**EGTEA Gaze+** contains 28 hours egocentric videos of cooking activities from 86 unique sessions of 32 subjects. Each video is annotated with interactive actions, spanning from 19 verb as interaction behaviors and 53 noun as objects. We follow the same train test split from annotations to for evaluation

**50Salads** contains 25 people preparing 2 mixed salads each (50 videos totally). There are on average 17 action classes and 20 action sequence per video. We follow the dataset



**Figure 5: Example GLIP detection results with different object prompts** on randomly sampled video frames. The K-Means clustering strategy (last column) offers the best precision and recall of relevant objects in all four cases.

standard and perform 5-fold cross-validation in our evaluation.

**Metrics.** For Ego4D, we follow the standard [20] using edit distance (ED) for evaluation metrics, which is computed as the Damerau-Levenshtein distance over sequences of predictions of verbs, nouns and actions. For the  $K$  possible sequences the model predicts, we choose the smallest edit distance between the ground truth and any of the  $K$  sequences. Following [20], we set  $K = 5$  in our experiments. We report Edit Distance at  $Z = 20$  (ED@20) on the test set and Average Edit Distance (AUED) on the training set.

For EGTEA Gaze+ and 50Salads, we report top1 accuracy, class-mean top1 accuracy for Next Action Prediction. Following the long-term action anticipation setting in [16], we report the mean over classes accuracy (MoC@( $O, F$ )), where  $O$  is the fraction of observation,  $F$  is the fraction of future. In our experiments we report MoC@(0.2, 0.5) which is the hardest anticipation setting in the 50Salads LTA benchmark.

## 4.2. Ablations

In this section we focus on the LTA benchmark on the Ego4D dataset.

**Object prompts.** By designing object prompts, we are able to incorporate our domain knowledge into specific tasks. The Ego4D [20] Dataset has 478 nouns which is too large as a vocabulary for GLIP [29]. To handle this, we explore three types of vocabulary, each containing only 80 words as object prompts: “most-common”, “kmeans”, “coco” in Table 1a. “most-common” contains top 80 frequent nouns. “kmeans” contains top 80 frequent nouns after clustering to remove redundancy. “coco” contains the object categories appearing in the COCO [32] dataset. We also include “random” as a baseline which randomly picks regions in images as bounding boxes. Both “most-common” and “kmeans” outperform “coco” and “random” significantly, showing the effectiveness of our designed object prompts.

**Object locations and categories.** Locations and categories are important features for action recognition. In Table 1c, we demonstrate that both location and category features provide useful information. After removing location features and category features, we observe a 0.003 (0.4%) and 0.015 (1.9%) raise in noun ED respectively. Due to the long-term nature of the task, object locations are less important than categories. Besides providing specific classes of the objects, a set of category information can also provide the model with high-level scene information *e.g.* “person”, “laptop”, and “book” might indicate a library. The general information helps the model infer long-term future actions.

**Object quantity and quality.** Object qualities can be reflected by their confidence scores. Higher scores usually mean better qualities. In Table 1d, we use a threshold on confidence scores to filter objects with low qualities on the dataset level. For objects that have lower scores than the given threshold, we replace the corresponding object features with a learnable padding token. We see the model performs the best when we set threshold to 0.3. In Table 1b, we select different numbers of top-ranking objects on the frame level based on their confidence scores. We see the model performs the best when we use 5 objects per frame. We argue that there is a trade-off between the quantity and quality of objects. It is good to include more detections while bad detections can have a negative influence on long-term action anticipation. Thus, it is important to control the threshold and number of objects.

**Temporal modeling.** We compare our temporal modeling methods with Ego4D LTA Baseline [20] in Table 2. Using only video modality, we observe significant improvement in both verb and noun AUED when we use PTE. This demonstrates that PTE are more effective in long-term temporal modeling than naive Transformer Encoder.

**Fusion with video backbone.** We explore the impact of object modalities in Table 2. Compared with PTE+video, PTE+(video+object, early) brings 0.006 (0.8%) and 0.010 (1.3%) improvement on verb and noun respectively. This confirms our hypothesis that object-centric representation

Vocabulary	Verb ↓	Noun ↓	#obj	Verb ↓	Noun ↓
random bbox	0.745	0.945	1	0.735	0.834
coco	0.737 (-1.0%)	0.789 (-16.5%)	3	0.727	0.800
most common	0.734 (-1.5%)	0.776 (-17.8%)	5	<b>0.728</b>	<b>0.771</b>
kmeans	<b>0.728 (-2.3%)</b>	<b>0.771 (-18.4%)</b>	10	0.731	0.781

(a) Vocabulary				(b) Number of Objects		
Loc.	Cate.	Verb↓	Noun↓	Threshold	Verb ↓	Noun ↓
✗	✗	0.730	0.789	0.00	0.731	0.781
✓	✗	0.730	0.786	0.30	<b>0.728</b>	<b>0.771</b>
✗	✓	0.731	0.774	0.45	0.728	0.773
✓	✓	<b>0.728</b>	<b>0.771</b>	0.55	0.731	0.787

(c) Location and Category				(d) Threshold		
Loc.	Cate.	Verb↓	Noun↓	Threshold	Verb ↓	Noun ↓
✗	✗	0.730	0.789	0.00	0.731	0.781
✓	✗	0.730	0.786	0.30	<b>0.728</b>	<b>0.771</b>
✗	✓	0.731	0.774	0.45	0.728	0.773
✓	✓	<b>0.728</b>	<b>0.771</b>	0.55	0.731	0.787

Table 1: **Ablation experiments on object-only models.** We conduct detailed ablation on (1) object vocabulary, (2) number of object per frame, (3) object location and category, (4) detection threshold.

Aggregator	Modality	Fusion	Verb ↓	Noun ↓
Baseline	video	-	0.751	0.766
PTE	video	-	0.713 (-5.1%)	0.753 (-1.7%)
PTE	video+object	early	<b>0.707 (-5.9%)</b>	<b>0.743 (-3.0%)</b>
PTE	video+object	late	0.709 (-5.6%)	0.748 (-2.3%)

Table 2: **Temporal modeling and modality fustion on Ego4D LTA.** PTE is more effective in temporal modeling. Object significantly helps action anticipation.

helps action anticipation.

**Fusion strategy.** We compare two fusion strategies in Table 2, namely early fusion where video and object representations are jointed encoded by PTE, or late fusion where the two modalities are encoded separately until the last layer. We observe that allowing joint attention from the input layer generally improves the performance.

**Incorporating image pretrained models.** While we use GLIP [29] to detect and represent objects, their are many other pretrained models we can use to obtain object representation. In Table 3, we explore additional pretrained models for object representation. We still use GLIP [29] for object detection but use CLIP [46] to represent detected objects. CLIP object embeddings significantly helps video modality, and brings 0.007 (1.0%) and 0.026 (3.5%) improvement compared with GLIP object embeddings. This shows CLIP is more powerful in representing objects and demonstrates the importance of object representation. More pretrained models can be explored, which we leave for future works.

Model	Modality	AUED(Verb)↓	AUED(Noun)↓
-	video	0.713	0.753
GLIP	video+object	0.707 (-5.9%)	0.743 (-3.0%)
CLIP	video+object	<b>0.700 (-6.8%)</b>	<b>0.717 (-4.8%)</b>

Table 3: **Additional pretrained models for object representation.** Incorporating CLIP brings additional performance gain over GLIP object embeddings.

### 4.3. Qualitative Analysis

In Fig. 6, we show several qualitative examples of object attention weights produced by PTE. We use attention rollout [1] to compute attention weights from  $Z$  output action (noun, verb) pairs to previous visual observations and choose top 10 objects which has the relatively highest weight. Comparing with ground truth label shows the model learns to associate the corresponding objects when predicting actions at different time steps.

### 4.4. Comparison to the State-of-the-art

Table 4 compares our model with previous methods.

**Ego4D.** We compare our best model (Slowfast + PTE (video + CLIP object, early)) with recent state-of-the-art. We report verb, noun and action AUED on the test set. Our model achieves competitive results. Note that even though HierVL [4] uses additional text annotations from the Ego4D dataset, our model still has a comparable performance.

**50Salads.** We conduct experiments on both Next Action Prediction and Long-term Action Anticipation following the setting in [16]. For LTA, we predict 50% of the video

Model	Verb ↓	Noun ↓	Action ↓
HierVL* [4]	<b>0.7239</b>	<b>0.7350</b>	<b>0.9276</b>
Brunos (ours)	0.7265	0.7396	0.9290
ICVAE[39]	0.7410	0.7396	0.9304
VCLIP [11]	0.7389	0.7688	0.9412
Baseline [20]	0.7389	0.7800	0.9432

(a) **Ego4D LTA on the test set.**\* used additional text annotations from the **Ego4D** dataset.

Model	top1 acc ↑	LTA@ 50% ↑
RNN [16]	30.1	13.49
CNN [16]	29.8	9.87
ActionBanks [50]	40.7	-
Slowfast+PTE (V)	41.0	15.2
Slowfast+PTE (V+O)	<b>43.8</b>	<b>16.9</b>

(b) **50Salads NAP and LTA**

Model	class-mean acc ↑
I3D-Res50 [25]	34.8
FHOI [33]	36.6
Slowfast+PTE (V)	35.8
Slowfast+PTE (V+O)	<b>36.8</b>

(c) **EGTEA Gaze+** top-1 acc.

Table 4: Comparison with previous works.

after observing 20% of the video as in [16]. We report top1 action accuracy in Next Action prediction and class-mean top1 action accuracy in Long-term Action anticipation as in [16]. We use PTE as temporal modeling method in video-only models and CLIP object representation in video+object models. Compared with video-only models, video+object model brings 2.8% improvement in Next Action Prediction and 1.7% improvement in LTA@50%. This shows the effectiveness of object modality in both short-term and long-term action anticipation. Besides first-person-view videos, object also helps action anticipation on third-person-view videos

**EGTEA Gaze.** Table 4c shows results on the next action prediction benchmarks for EGTEA+ Split 1 as in recent work [33]. We use CLIP object representation in video+object models, PTE as temporal modeling and fine-tune the video backbone. We report top1 accuracy following common practice. By adding object modality on top of video modality, we notice 1% improvement. This shows that object representation also helps human-object interaction modeling on short-term action anticipation.

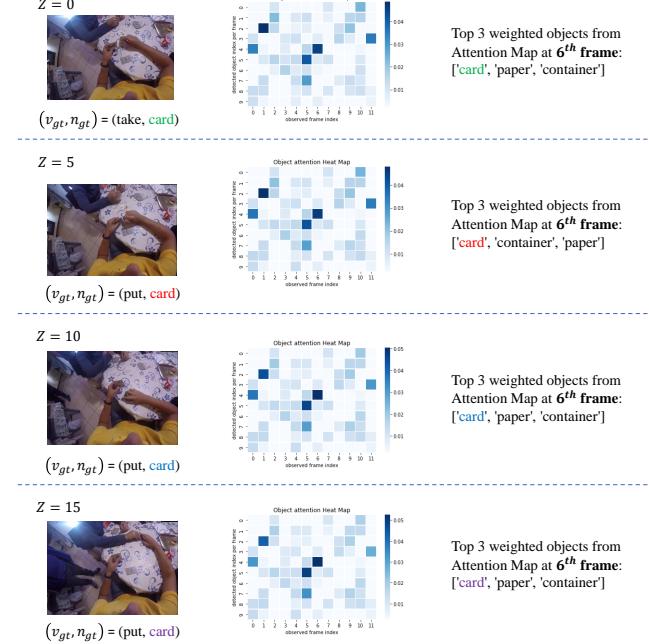


Figure 6: **Visualization of object attention heatmap and retrieved objects**, when  $N_{\text{seg}} = 3, N_{\text{img}} = 4, N_{\text{obj}} = 10, Z = 20$ . **Left:** Representative video frame correlate to  $Z^{\text{th}}$  future step for anticipation, where  $(v_{gt}, n_{gt})$  are ground truth action labels at  $Z^{\text{th}}$  step in (verb, noun) pairs. **Middle:** Normalized object attention heatmap to previous observed visual input at  $Z^{\text{th}}$  step. **Right:** Top 3 weighted objects from heatmap according to the center observed ( $6^{\text{th}}$ ) frame.

## 5. Conclusion

We propose a prompt-based approach to construct object-centric video representation from pretrained visual-language models. We demonstrate the effectiveness of object-centric representation on two action anticipation settings, namely next-action prediction (NAP) and long-term action anticipation (LTA). We propose two modules, “object prompts” which incorporate domain information to query pretrained grounded models, and predictive transformer encoder, which dynamically associates the object evidence for long time-horizon action prediction. Experiments results confirm that both modules improve the action anticipation performance. We report encouraging results on Ego4D Long-term Anticipation, 50Salads, and EGTEA Gaze+ benchmarks.

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