

BONGARD-OPENWORLD: FEW-SHOT REASONING FOR FREE-FORM VISUAL CON- CEPTS IN THE REAL WORLD

Xiaojian Ma*¹ Rujie Wu*² Zhenliang Zhang¹
Wei Wang ¹ Qing Li ¹ Song-Chun Zhu^{1,3,4} Yizhou Wang^{2,4}

¹National Key Laboratory of General Artificial Intelligence, BIGAI

²School of Computer Science, Peking University

³School of Intelligence Science and Technology, Peking University

⁴Institute for Artificial Intelligence, Peking University

* Equal contribution  Co-corresponding authors

Project page: [Bongard-OpenWorld](#)

ABSTRACT

We introduce **Bongard-OpenWorld**, a new benchmark for evaluating real-world few-shot reasoning for machine vision. It originates from the classical *Bongard Problems (BPs)*: Given two sets of images (positive and negative), the model needs to identify the set that query images belong to by inducing the visual concepts, which is exclusively depicted by images from the positive set. Our benchmark inherits the few-shot concept induction of the original BPs while adding the two novel layers of challenge: 1) open-world free-form concepts, as the visual concepts in Bongard-OpenWorld are unique compositions of terms from an open vocabulary, ranging from object categories to abstract visual attributes and commonsense factual knowledge; 2) real-world images, as opposed to the synthetic diagrams used by many counterparts. In our exploration, Bongard-OpenWorld already imposes a significant challenge to current few-shot reasoning algorithms. We further investigate to which extent the recently introduced Large Language Models (LLMs) and Vision-Language Models (VLMs) can solve our task, by directly probing VLMs, and combining VLMs and LLMs in an interactive reasoning scheme. We even conceived a neuro-symbolic reasoning approach that reconciles LLMs & VLMs with logical reasoning to emulate the human problem-solving process for Bongard Problems. However, none of these approaches manage to close the human-machine gap, as the best learner achieves 64% accuracy while human participants easily reach 91%. We hope Bongard-OpenWorld can help us better understand the limitations of current visual intelligence and facilitate future research on visual agents with stronger few-shot visual reasoning capabilities.

1 INTRODUCTION

In recent years, substantial progress has been recorded in developing visual intelligence. Given an image, visual agents now can robustly recognize the presenting objects (object detection and segmentation (Deng et al., 2009; He et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2014)), describe what’s happening (image captioning (Xu et al., 2015; Li et al., 2023)), and even answering complex questions about it (visual question answering (Goyal et al., 2017; Hudson & Manning, 2019; Ma et al., 2022a)). However, completing many of these tasks requires a massive amount of training data. On the contrary, humans can perform more sophisticated tasks with very few visual inputs (Marr, 2010; Zhu & Zhu, 2021; Huang, 2021). For example, humans can recognize and reason about compositional real-world visual concepts from just a few examples (Lake et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2019; Nie et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2022), *i.e.* few-shot visual reasoning. To facilitate human-level visual intelligence, it is necessary to go beyond canonical tasks and develop new benchmarks that aim to comprehensively evaluate few-shot learning of novel and complicated visual concepts.

Several benchmarks have been introduced with a focus on few-shot learning of visual concepts, such as Omniglot (Lake et al., 2015), miniImageNet (Vinyals et al., 2016), and Meta-Dataset (Triantafillou et al., 2020). However, these datasets primarily focus on identifying simple object categories instead

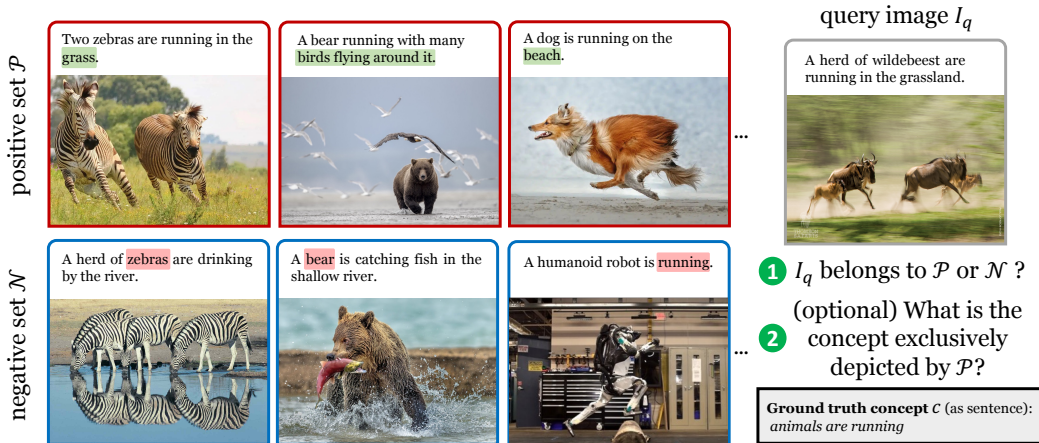


Figure 1: **Task illustration of Bongard-OpenWorld.** Given two set of images \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{N} , the model needs to identify which set the query image I_q belongs to by inferring the concepts \mathcal{C} that is exclusively depicted by \mathcal{P} . **Note that the captions and the concepts \mathcal{C} won't be provided to the model.** To further increase the difficulty of our task, we introduce *distractors* as additional contents of the positive images other than the concept \mathcal{C} , and *hard negatives* to ensure the content of negative images *partially overlaps* with the concepts \mathcal{C} . These practices could force the model to reason about the visual concepts by contrasting the positives and the negatives.

of novel and complex visual concepts, *e.g.* compositions of objects and their characteristics (Krishna et al., 2017) and visual relationships (Chao et al., 2015), and generalization of attributes (Ren et al., 2020). Many benchmarks have been dedicated to abstract visual reasoning and are considered to be few-shot learning, such as RPM (Raven-style Progressive Matrices) (Zhang et al., 2019; Barrett et al., 2018) and Bongard Problems (Nie et al., 2020). While offering interesting visual tasks, these benchmarks are prone to use synthetic graphics instead of real-world images and stay with basic object-level geometrical concepts such as shapes, sizes, amounts, etc. The closest benchmark to our work is Bongard-HOI (Jiang et al., 2022), which features few-shot visual reasoning and compositional visual concepts (human-object interactions, *i.e.* HOI) in the real world. But since it is built upon an existing close-vocabulary image recognition dataset (HAKE (Li et al., 2019)), the total number of unique concepts (242, while Bongard-OpenWorld has 1.01k) can be limited. Moreover, the concepts are restricted to be HOIs with a fixed structure (object, interaction), which deviates from the free-form nature of visual concepts in the real world.

To solve the aforementioned issues and step towards a more general few-shot visual reasoning challenge that invites all possible contestants, we introduce **Bongard-OpenWorld**, a benchmark that reconciles the best of all parties: *few-shot learning*, *real-world images*, and *compositional visual concepts*. Bongard-OpenWorld inherits the simplicity of the original Bongard Problems: given six positive and six negative images, along with two query images, the goal is to identify the *visual concepts*, which is exclusively depicted by the positive images, and make binary predictions on the query images (see Figure 1 for illustrations, their quantity here is halved to facilitate a clearer visualization of image details).

At the heart of our benchmark are *open vocabulary free-form concepts* and illustrated in Table 1. Instead of using a small and pre-defined set of concepts that are predominately about the same topic (object attributes in Bongard-LOGO (Nie et al., 2020), HOIs in Bongard-HOI (Jiang et al., 2022), etc.), we leverage Conceptual Captions (CC-3M) (Sharma et al., 2018), a massive web-crawled collection of rich and open vocabulary image descriptions. We further propose *grid sampling* to extract visual concepts from the streamlined captions. The resulting visual concepts are therefore both free-form, with no assumption on the structure, *e.g.* 2-tuple as in Bongard-HOI, and open vocabulary. We also crowd-source some challenging concepts, including abstract visual attributes, and commonsense factual knowledge (examples can be found in Table 1), and compose them with the concepts extracted from CC-3M. Finally, we manually verify the plausibility of our generated visual concepts. We end up with 1.01K unique concepts, and 26.6% of them are crowd-sourced challenging concepts. Statistics of these visual concepts can be found in Figure 2.

We then construct Bongard-OpenWorld problems out of the aforementioned visual concepts. Each problem is assigned a positive concept and an online image search tool is used to find the most relevant images. Additionally, we follow the practice in (Jiang et al., 2022) to introduce *distractors* and *hard negatives*. We collect positive images containing additional content as distractions other than the visual concepts \mathcal{C} . Moreover, by partially modifying the positive concept to produce negative concepts, we ensure the content of the negative images partially overlaps with the positives. Therefore,

Table 1: **A catalog of visual concepts in Bongard-OpenWorld.** We demonstrate the categories of concepts mined from CC-3M, and challenging commonsense-related concepts that are crowd-sourced and augmented to the dataset. *denotes commonsense. More examples see Table 9.

Concept Category	ID	Example	Concept Category	ID	Example
Anything else*	0	Animals are running.	And / Or / Not	5	A man without beard.
HOI	1	A person playing the guitar.	Factual Knowledge	6	A building in US capital.
Taste / Nutrition / Food	2	A plate of high-calorie food.	Meta Class	7	Felidae animals.
Color / Material / Shape	3	A wooden floor in the living room.	Relationship	8	A bench near trees.
Functionality / Status / Affordance	4	An animal capable of flying in the tree.	Unusual Observations	9	Refraction of light on a glass cup.

reasoning about the visual concepts by contrasting the positive and negative images will be required to solve the problem, rather than merely recognizing some simple common contents among the positive images (illustrated in Figure 1). Overall, we produce 1.01K high-quality Bongard-OpenWorld problems. Thanks to the diverse set of concepts, each problem has its unique visual concepts. Comparisons with counterpart benchmarks can be found in Table 2.

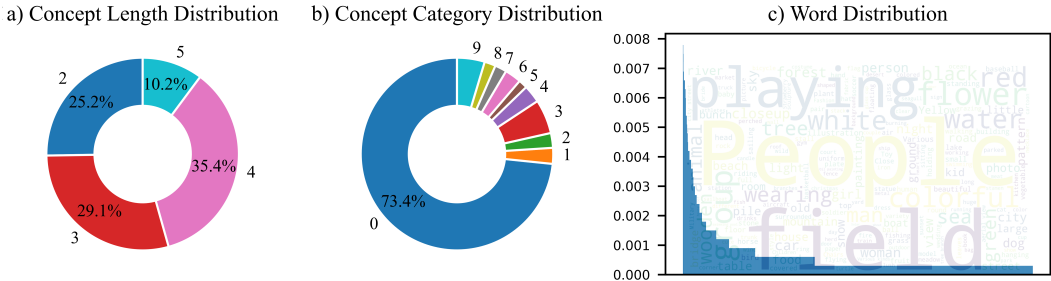


Figure 2: **Statistics of Bongard-OpenWorld.** Our benchmark exhibits a range of concept lengths, spanning from 2 to 5 (as depicted in subfigure a), with an average length of 3.3. As demonstrated in Table 1, crowd-sourced commonsense concepts take ID 1-9, with 0 indicating "anything else" (as depicted in subfigure b). While some words are more frequent (see the word cloud, as depicted in subfigure c), the overall frequency of words in Bongard-OpenWorld concepts follows a long-tailed distribution.

Benchmarking existing few-shot reasoners: In our experiments, we examine state-of-the-art few-shot learning approaches, including non-episodic, meta-learning, and transformer-based models. Although the best few-shot learner (SNAIL (Mishra et al., 2018)) shows some promising results on Bongard-OpenWorld with a 64% average accuracy (the chance performance is 50%), the overall gap to human performances (91% of human contestants) is still substantial. To understand the failure mode, we hypothesize that visual pretraining could be pivotal due to the open vocabulary nature of our task. Therefore we investigate combining the learner with several pretrained visual representations. The results confirm that few-shot learners fueled with proper open-ended pretrained models, e.g. CLIP (Radford et al., 2021) can alleviate this gap. Further, we investigate to which extent the recently introduced Vision-Language Models (VLMs) and Large Language Models (LLMs) can approach Bongard-OpenWorld, by directly probing VLMs, and combining VLMs and LLMs in an interactive reasoning scheme (Zhu et al., 2023; Gao et al., 2022). We also developed a neuro-symbolic reasoning method that integrates LLMs and VLMs with logical reasoning, it aims to mimic human problem-solving processes in addressing Bongard Problems. Our results indicate that despite the impressive results these approaches have attained in other tasks, they can still be confused by similar content between positive and negative examples in Bongard-OpenWorld and therefore fail to close the human-machine gap.

Our contributions are summarized as follows:

- We introduce Bongard-OpenWorld, a new benchmark for few-shot visual reasoning with visual concepts in the real world, aiming at reconciling the challenging capabilities of few-shot learning and reasoning with abstract and complicated real-world visual concepts and facilitating the development of human-like visual intelligence.
- We carefully curate Bongard-OpenWorld to include open vocabulary and free-form visual concepts, ranging from object categories to abstract visual attributes and commonsense factual knowledge. We also use distractors and hard negatives to make merely recognizing some common contents in the positives insufficient to complete our tasks.
- We conduct extensive analysis on state-of-the-art few-shot reasoners including canonical few-shot learning systems and powerful LLMs, VLMs, and even neuro-symbolic learners. However, empirical results indicate that these approaches are struggling to match human performances on Bongard-OpenWorld. Our findings suggest that robustly capturing sophisticated (compositional, abstract, factual or commonsense, etc.) visual concepts across multiple visual stimuli can still be a huge challenge to even today’s vision models.

Table 2: **An overview of benchmarks covering free-form image concepts, few-shot learning, and visual reasoning.** The abbreviation *vocab.* denotes *vocabulary* and *attr.* denotes *attributes*. *We consider a benchmark to be open vocabulary when it is collected without assuming a fixed set of visual concepts (e.g. CC-3M (Sharma et al., 2018)), or the assumed set is substantially large (e.g. Meta-Dataset (Triantafillou et al., 2020)). **The object attributes and object counts can be freely composed in V-PROM (Teney et al., 2020) but the object (O) and interaction (I) in Bongard-HOI (Jiang et al., 2022) cannot.

dataset	concept	free-form concept	open vocab.*	real-world images	few-shot	hard negatives	#concepts	#tasks
CC-3M (Sharma et al., 2018)	image caption	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗	31.1K	3.3M
Omniglot (Lake et al., 2015)	shape	✗	✗	✗	✓	✗	50	1.62K
miniImageNet (Vinyals et al., 2016)	image label	✗	✗	✓	✓	✗	100	60K
Meta-Dataset (Triantafillou et al., 2020)	image label	✗	✓	✓	✓	✗	4,934	52.8M
RPM (Barrett et al., 2018)	shape	✗	✗	✗	✓	✗	50	11.36M
Bongard-LOGO (Nie et al., 2020)	shape	✗	✗	✗	✓	✗	627	12K
V-PROM (Teney et al., 2020)	attr. & count	✓**	✗	✓	✓	✗	478	235K
Bongard-HOI (Jiang et al., 2022)	HOI	✗**	✗	✓	✓	✓	242	53K
Bongard-OpenWorld (ours)	image caption	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1.01K	1.01K

2 THE BONGARD-OPENWORLD BENCHMARK

A problem instance in Bongard-OpenWorld can be formulated as a tuple $\langle \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{N}, I_q \rangle$, where \mathcal{C} denotes the free-form compositional visual concepts, e.g. *animals are running* in Figure 1. The \mathcal{C} is exclusively depicted by the positive images \mathcal{P} , while all images from the negative set \mathcal{N} do not depict it but might partially contain some of its terms c . The task is to make a binary prediction on the query image I_q : to determine whether \mathcal{C} can be found in I_q or not. While it is optional, the learner could explicitly induce the visual concepts \mathcal{C} via captioning to offer some explainability of its prediction on I_q . The following sections will detail how to collect the visual concepts and build the benchmark.

2.1 COLLECTING FREE-FORM OPEN VOCABULARY VISUAL CONCEPTS

Visual concepts \mathcal{C} in Bongard-OpenWorld. We begin with a more detailed illustration of the visual concepts \mathcal{C} . As we anticipate it to be *free-form* and *open vocabulary* in our benchmark, \mathcal{C} is effectively an arbitrary *sentence* that describes the content depicted by all images from the positive set \mathcal{P} exclusively. However, since not all words in the sentence are meaningful to its *semantics*, we may streamline and convert it into a *tuple of words* and define the *length of visual concepts \mathcal{C}* as the number of words in the tuple. Longer \mathcal{C} will be more difficult to be identified.

Grid-sampling of visual concepts from CC-3M. We propose to extract these visual concepts from CC-3M (Sharma et al., 2018), a massive dataset of image-text pairs with a comprehensive collection of open vocabulary free-form image descriptions. We then streamline all the captions into concepts tuples and perform *grid sampling*. Due to space limitations, we only provide its key operations here and more details and pseudo-code can be found in the Appendix C: 1) We run sliding window with size 2/3/4/5 over all the concepts tuples to count the frequency of concepts with length 2/3/4/5; 2) Instead of sampling from the whole CC-3M "concept tuples" (refer to candidates for the visual concepts, where each concept comprises a tuple of words, ex. <red, tie>), we first split it into several small pools, or as we name it, "grids" (denotes the pool we sample concept from), with size of 300 each. Then we perform top-k sampling within each grid to obtain concepts (this process is termed *grid sampling*). We find this balances the need for sampling top concepts and sample diversity, as the variance introduced by a small grid facilitates the sampling of more long-tailed concepts in CC-3M.

Crowd-sourcing for challenging visual concepts. During our early inspection, we observed that visual concepts out of CC-3M are mostly about object categories and their relatively simple attributes & relations. However, humans can understand more abstract concepts that require *commonsense factual knowledge*. Therefore, we further augment the visual concepts with these challenging concepts through crowd-sourcing. Specifically, the annotators are instructed to write visual concepts by following a predefined set of categories illustrated in Table 1. They are also asked to combine these challenging concepts with those mined from CC-3M. Our experiments confirm that Bongard-OpenWorld problems with these commonsense concepts become more difficult to solve.

2.2 FROM VISUAL CONCEPTS TO REAL-WORLD BONGARD PROBLEMS

Distractors in positives and hard negatives. To further increase the intra-diversity among the positives \mathcal{P} and therefore perplex the induction of given visual concepts \mathcal{C} , we prompt ChatGPT to expand it into 10 *sentences for positives* by inserting *distracting* objects, attributes, etc. while ensuring common ground is still \mathcal{C} . Moreover, prior work on Bongard Problems (Jiang et al., 2022)

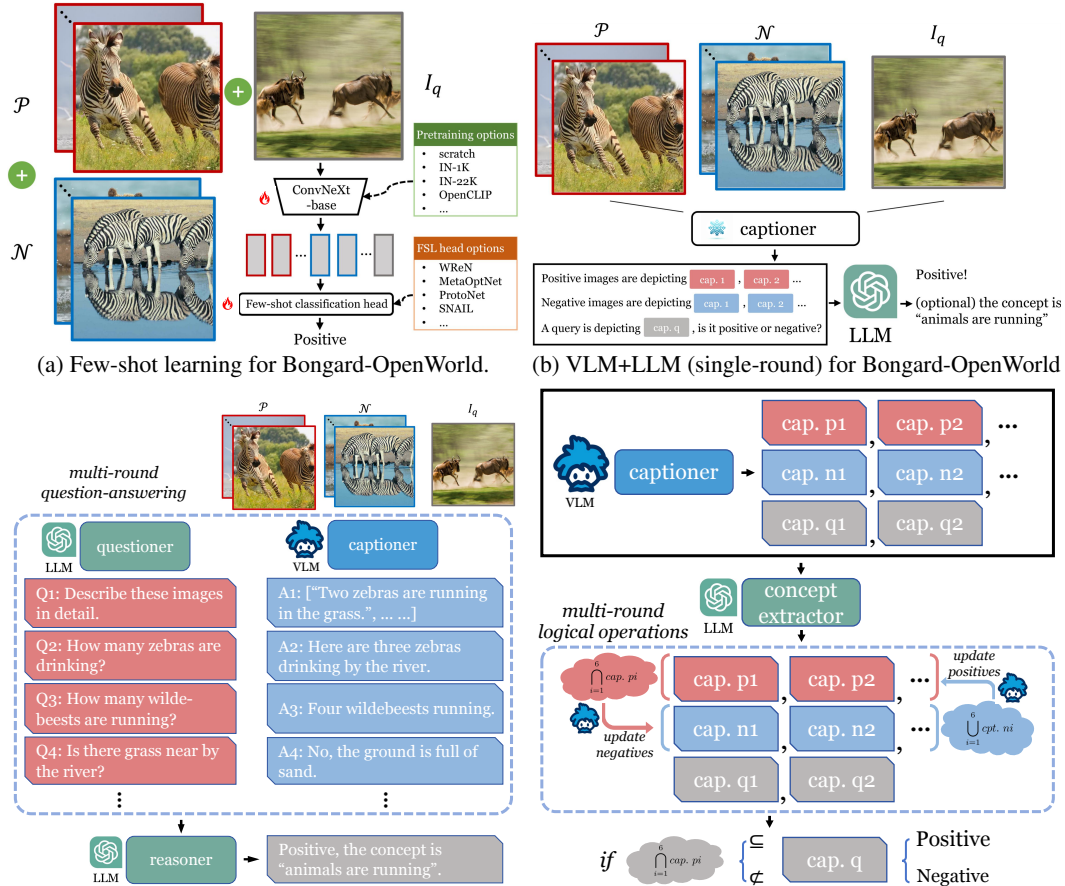


Figure 3: **Models for Bongard-OpenWorld.** We explore four families of approaches: (a) casting Bongard-OpenWorld into a standard “2-way, 6-shot” few-shot learning problem and tackling it using state-of-the-art few-shot learners with pretrained image representations; (b) combining an LLM (reasoner) and a VLM (image captioner) in a single round fashion, where the VLM simply caption each Bongard image and send their captions to LLM for solving this problem; (c) extending the method in (b) to multiple rounds, where the LLM will also iteratively probe the VLM for more image details, resulting in more condense information for solving Bongard; (d) neuro-symbolic approach, where a VLM generates the initial captions, then an LLM extracts visual concepts from them. These concepts are subsequently updated through logical operations, leveraging the responses provided by VLM, until the problem is solved. Zoom in for a better view.

has shown that improper choices of the negative set \mathcal{N} , *e.g.* a set of randomly chosen images, could trivialize the challenge by allowing the model to merely recognize part of the visual concepts \mathcal{C} (*e.g.* only recognizing “animals” of a full concept “animals are running” in Figure 1) and solve the problem. Therefore, the content of the negative images should overlap with \mathcal{C} to ensure the need of inducing full visual concepts. To this end, we again prompt ChatGPT to edit \mathcal{C} into 10 *sentences for negatives* that only *partially overlap* with it. Both sets will then be used to collect images.

Image collection and adversarial query selection. We ask our annotators to pick some sentences from the two sets, use an online image search tool to find relevant images, and construct the positive and negative set of a Bongard-OpenWorld problem by following the principle (the visual concepts \mathcal{C} are exclusively depicted by the positives \mathcal{P}). The annotators are then asked to provide two sets of candidates for positive and negative queries based on the unused positive and negative sentences. Finally, we compute the embedding of all images using CLIP (Radford et al., 2021) and the image with maximal embedding distance to the mean of positives will be selected as a positive query (similar to negative query). We find this adversarial query selection help ensure the difficulty of the problem.

Final curation. We employ a round of manual refinement as the last hurdle to help us curate the dataset. We ask the participant to flag any problem that does not comply with the Bongard principle and provide a fix, by replacing the faulty images or modifying the visual concepts \mathcal{C} if possible.

2.3 DATA STATISTICS, AND METRICS

Statistics. We present the statistics of Bongard-OpenWorld in Figure 2. Here are some observations: First of all, although our dataset does not assume the structure of the free-form visual concepts \mathcal{C} , concepts with lengths 2, 3, and 4 accounts for a staggering 90% of all the problems, which both reflect the nature of common visual concepts and avoid overly complicated problems when the concepts become longer. The even distribution of concepts these lengths ensures a reasonable difficulty and is verified by our human study in Section 4.2; Moreover, we manage to crowd-source a significant amount of interesting commonsense visual concepts, which make up nearly 1/4 of all the tasks, and each proposed commonsense category has a fair share in the problems; Finally, the word cloud and histogram of concepts demonstrate that some words, *e.g.* “people”, “field”, etc., can be more popular but the word distribution is long-tailed. This aligns with CC-3M, *i.e.* lots of human-centered scenes and the concepts indeed follow a long-tailed distribution.

Dataset splits and metrics. We divide the 1.01k Bongard-OpenWorld problems into a 610/200/200 split for training/validation/test. We use rejection sampling to ensure the distribution of concept lengths, commonsense vs. non-commonsense concepts are identical among these three sets. Following the prior work in Bongard Problems (Jiang et al., 2022; Nie et al., 2020), we report the overall accuracy of all models. To help understand the difficulty imposed by the free-form open vocabulary concepts, we further report the accuracy on some subsets: 1) problems with short concepts, *i.e.* concept length less or equal to three; 2) problems with long concepts, *i.e.* concept length more than three; 3) problems with commonsense concepts; 4) problems with non-commonsense concepts. These additional metrics provide a more detailed and nuanced understanding of the models’ performance and can help identify specific strengths and weaknesses of each model. We also introduce a set of metrics that measure the correctness of the visual concepts explicitly induced by the model. Please refer to the Appendix C for detailed descriptions of these metrics.

3 MODELS FOR BONGARD-OPENWORLD

In general, Bongard-OpenWorld can be viewed as a few-shot learning problem. Given two small sets of images \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{N} , the model ultimately needs to make a binary prediction on the query image I_q . A representation network is also needed to process the images and provide input to the few-shot learner. We start by considering several canonical few-shot learners, including non-episodic approaches and meta-learning-based avenues. Inspired by the recent progress in Large Language Models (LLMs) and Vision-Language Models (VLMs), we investigate to which extent they can approach Bongard-OpenWorld, by directly probing VLMs, and combining VLMs and LLMs in an interactive reasoning scheme (Zhu et al., 2023; Gao et al., 2022). We also designed a neuro-symbolic reasoning approach that reconciles VLMs and LLMs with logical reasoning. We provide an overview of these methods in Figure 3.

3.1 FEW-SHOT LEARNING FOR BONGARD-OPENWORLD

Few-shot learning methods. Following the seminal few-shot learning work (Nie et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2022; Triantafillou et al., 2020; Requeima et al., 2019; Bateni et al., 2020), we consider *meta-learning method*, where the learner adopts the episodic learning setting and learns to train a classifier using the support set with a *meta objective* and evaluate the trained classifier on the query. In our experiment, we include the following meta learners: 1) *ProtoNet* (Snell et al., 2017) and *Meta-Baseline* (Chen et al., 2020), which both feature a metric-based meta objective; 2) *MetaOptNet* (Lee et al., 2019) and *SNAIL* (Mishra et al., 2018), two optimization and memory-based methods. Note that *SNAIL* uses transformers (Vaswani et al., 2017) and delivers strong results in many few-shot learning tasks and outperforms other baselines on Bongard-OpenWorld. Readers are encouraged to refer to the Appendix F and the relevant papers for more details.

Auxiliary task of captioning. As we mentioned before, understanding visual concepts serves as the foundation of completing Bongard-OpenWorld tasks. Therefore we investigate if we can boost this via an auxiliary task of predicting the concepts. Since we employ free-form open vocabulary concepts, we connect our image encoder to a pretrained BLIP-2 (Li et al., 2023) caption decoder (specifically, the QFormer and the language model) and use caption loss for the task. The overall loss then becomes $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{Bongard}} + \alpha \mathcal{L}_{\text{caption}}$, where $\mathcal{L}_{\text{Bongard}}$ and $\mathcal{L}_{\text{caption}}$ denote the main loss and the auxiliary loss, respectively. α is a trading-off weight. More details can be found in the Appendix D.

3.2 COMBINING VLMS AND LLMs FOR BONGARD-OPENWORLD (SINGLE-ROUND)

Evaluation. In this approach, an LLM is used as a few-shot reasoner while a VLM is invoked to translate the images in a Bongard Problem into captions. Specifically, we evaluate two publicly available LLMs: ChatGPT (Ouyang et al., 2022) and GPT-4 (Bubeck et al., 2023), and follow the prior practices (Ma et al., 2022b; Gao et al., 2022) to use BLIP-2 (Li et al., 2023) and its successor, InstructBLIP (Dai et al., 2023) to extract captions. Finally, the LLM is anticipated to produce a binary prediction of the query image by learning from the few-shot examples (images as captions) in the prompt through in-context learning (Brown et al., 2020). We provide more details on the prompt design in the Appendix D.

Explicit visual concepts induction. Since we are particularly interested in the visual concepts induced by the models, we further prompt the LLMs to produce an explanation of the binary prediction it makes. Specifically, the model is guided to summarize the visual concepts \mathcal{C} that is exclusively depicted by the positives. The model’s summary will then be compared against the ground truth and evaluated using the image captioning metrics we introduced in Section 2.3.

3.3 COMBINING VLMS AND LLMs FOR BONGARD-OPENWORLD (MULTI-ROUND).

In the previous section, LLM indeed relies on the captions produced by the VLM. However, these captions may lack crucial image information, potentially misleading the LLM reasoner. To mitigate this issue, an additional task can be assigned to the LLM beforehand. This task involves generating questions based on the initial captions and the objectives of BPs. These questions are not hallucinations from the LLMs; they are derived from existing information. The VLM utilizes these questions as prompts, providing answers based on the image content, and feedback to the LLM to update existing information. By iteratively repeating this question-answering process multi-round, the LLM can acquire highly detailed information that enhances their reasoning. In our results, we denote this approach as ChatCaptioner, as it is introduced in Zhu et al. (2023).

3.4 A NEURO-SYMBOLIC APPROACH FOR BONGARD-OPENWORLD.

Bongard-OpenWorld is indeed built upon logical operations over visual concepts, which also serve as the foundation for BPs. Inspired by how our humans approach Bongard Problems, we design a neuro-symbolic approach that combines logical reasoning with VLMS & LLMs. Specifically, after obtaining the captions from a VLM, we leverage GPT-4 to generate meaningful concepts, which currently stands as the most powerful method for semantic understanding. Subsequently, we perform logical operations on the collection of concepts. Then, we update each negative concept with the intersection of positive images and each positive concept with the union of negatives. The intersection of positives must appear in at least four (positives total is six) pictures, although it may be absent in some pictures while still being part of the ground truth concepts. The union of negatives must appear in at least two (negatives total is six) pictures and may partially overlap with positives. We iterate this process until no further updates are required for each image, resulting in the most comprehensive information. Finally, we evaluate the presence of each intersection concept in the query image. If all the concepts exist, indicating that the intersection belongs to the query, it is considered positive; otherwise, it is deemed negative. Please refer to Algorithm 2 in the Appendix C for detailed implementation.

4 EXPERIMENTS

4.1 SETUP

We benchmark the approaches described in Section 3 to evaluate their performances on Bongard-OpenWorld. As we mentioned before, all the few-shot learner (excluding ChatGPT and GPT-4) adopts a ConvNext-base (Liu et al., 2022) image encoder. We consider four pretraining strategies: 1) no pretraining at all (scratch); 2) pretraining with ImageNet-1K dataset (IN-1K) (Deng et al., 2009); 3) pretraining with the full ImageNet dataset with more object categories (IN-22K); 4) pretraining with LAION-2B (Cherti et al., 2022; Schuhmann et al., 2022), a massive image-text collection (OpenCLIP). During training, the image encoder will be fine-tuned along with the few-shot learner regardless of being pretrained or not, but we use a smaller learning rate for the pretrained image encoders. For the auxiliary task, we connect the image encoder to the caption decoder of a pretrained BLIP-2-opt-6.7B model. Note both the QFormer and the query tokens are pretrained and a trading-off weight of $\alpha = 1.0$ is used. For LLM-based methods, we use the same BLIP-2 and InstructBLIP model to produce the captions for each image. Thanks to the large context length

Table 3: **Quantitative results on Bongard-OpenWorld.** All the non-LLM models use a ConvNeXt-base (Liu et al., 2022) image encoder, and we experiment with different pretraining strategies: no pretraining at all (scratch), pretraining with ImageNet-1K labels (IN-1K) (Deng et al., 2009), pretraining with full ImageNet-22K labels (IN-22k) and pretraining with LAION-2B (Schuhmann et al., 2022; Cherti et al., 2022) dataset (OpenCLIP). The framework corresponds to the four families of approaches depicted in Figure 3, w/ \mathcal{T} and w/o \mathcal{T} indicate whether the training set of Bongard-OpenWorld is utilized or not. While the LLM-based models use either BLIP-x or ChatCaptioner captions as the image representations. For the auxiliary captioning task, the few-shot learners are connected to the caption decoder of a pretrained BLIP-2-opt-6.7B model, and zero-shot models output captions by their reasoning. *denotes commonsense. **involves utilizing the ground truth concepts from Bongard-OpenWorld training set and the captions from BLIP-2 as inputs to fine-tuning ChatGPT over 5 epochs. The fine-tuned model is evaluated on the test set. It is worth noting that InstructBLIP was not fine-tuned due to a significant drop in its performance on ChatGPT. We splice raw images together in a manner similar to the examples in Appendix H, using only one query image each time, which is then inputted for GPT-4V reasoning.

method	framework	image representation	aux. task?	splits				avg.
				short concept	long concept	CS* concept	anything else*	
Meta-Baseline	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	IN-22K	\times	59.6	52.7	55.5	56.9	56.5
	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	OpenCLIP	\times	57.8	52.5	53.6	55.9	55.3
	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	OpenCLIP	\checkmark	54.6	58.2	55.5	56.6	56.3
MetaOptNet	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	scratch	\times	52.3	51.6	54.5	51.0	52.0
	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	IN-1K	\times	60.6	47.3	54.5	54.5	54.5
	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	IN-22K	\times	61.5	51.5	53.6	57.9	56.8
	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	OpenCLIP	\times	63.3	51.6	50.9	60.7	58.0
	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	OpenCLIP	\checkmark	62.8	51.1	51.8	59.7	57.5
ProtoNet	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	scratch	\times	57.8	50.5	48.2	56.9	54.5
	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	IN-1K	\times	56.9	54.9	51.8	57.6	56.0
	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	IN-22K	\times	62.4	51.6	54.5	58.6	57.5
	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	OpenCLIP	\times	61.9	53.8	59.1	57.9	58.3
	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	OpenCLIP	\checkmark	59.2	57.7	51.8	61.0	58.5
SNAIL	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	scratch	\times	52.8	46.2	50.9	49.3	49.8
	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	IN-1K	\times	61.5	54.9	48.2	62.4	58.5
	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	IN-22K	\times	62.8	57.7	54.5	62.8	60.5
	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	OpenCLIP	\times	64.2	57.7	57.3	62.8	61.3
	(a) w/ \mathcal{T}	OpenCLIP	\checkmark	66.1	61.5	63.6	64.1	64.0
OpenFlamingo	(b) w/o \mathcal{T}	OpenCLIP	\checkmark	50.0	48.4	50.9	48.6	49.3
Otter	(b) w/o \mathcal{T}	OpenCLIP	\checkmark	49.3	49.3	48.9	49.4	49.3
ChatGPT	(b) w/o \mathcal{T}	BLIP-2	\checkmark	60.6	56.6	55.5	60.0	58.8
	(b) w/o \mathcal{T}	InstructBLIP	\checkmark	52.1	50.6	48.1	52.7	51.4
	(c) w/o \mathcal{T}	ChatCaptioner	\checkmark	52.3	45.6	57.3	46.2	49.3
ChatGPT (Fine-tuned)**	(b) w/ \mathcal{T}	BLIP-2	\checkmark	67.0	58.8	55.5	66.2	63.3
GPT-4	(b) w/o \mathcal{T}	BLIP-2	\checkmark	64.5	58.0	57.3	63.2	61.6
	(b) w/o \mathcal{T}	InstructBLIP	\checkmark	67.3	59.7	59.3	65.6	63.8
GPT-4V	(b) w/o \mathcal{T}	Raw Images	\checkmark	54.6	53.3	50.9	55.2	54.0
Neuro-Symbolic	(d) w/o \mathcal{T}	InstructBLIP	\checkmark	58.3	52.2	56.4	55.2	55.5
Human	N/A	N/A	N/A	91.7	90.1	89.1	91.7	91.0

allowed by the GPT-x family, no downsampling of captions is needed. Finally, we select the best model on the validation set and report its metrics on the test set proposed in Section 2.3. Full details on the hyperparameters can be found in the Appendix D.

4.2 ANALYSIS AND INSIGHTS

We provide the full quantitative results of the considered models (detailed in Section 3) on Bongard-OpenWorld in Table 3. The major findings are summarized below:

Challenges of free-form visual concepts. In Table 3, we demonstrate both overall averaged accuracy on the test set and also four types of splits as introduced in Section 2.3. It can be observed that once a model does better than coin-flipping (50% chance of success), it generally struggles more on Bongard-OpenWorld problems with longer free-form concepts versus shorter ones. Also, problems with abstract commonsense visual concepts (as described in Section 2.1) impose a greater challenge than those without it. This aligns with our hypothesis that few-shot reasoning with free-form visual concepts is indeed more difficult, compared to counterparts with a fixed set of image categories or HOIs, which are relatively short and likely do not include any commonsense aspects.

Representations and open vocabulary. As we mentioned before, reasoning with Bongard-OpenWorld problems requires the models to embrace an *open vocabulary* setting, where the set of all possible visual concepts are not provided *a priori*. Our experiments with different image representations verify that, by making the pretraining strategy closer to open vocabulary, *i.e.* expanding the vocabulary of visual concepts the image encoder is exposed to (in our case, from none to IN-1K, IN-22k, and LAION-2B label set), most of the evaluated few-shot learners can attain consistent improvement. Note that even with the fully open vocabulary pretraining (OpenCLIP), the gap between the best model (SNAIL) and humans is still quite substantial, implying that better pretraining is not a complete solution but more of a foundation for solving the reasoning task in Bongard-OpenWorld.

The role of captioning. In Table 2, we have shown that the free-form visual concepts in Bongard-OpenWorld are image captions. Therefore, we are interested in exploring to which extent the captioning task itself can help with Bongard-OpenWorld. First of all, we can observe that adding the auxiliary captioning task can slightly boost ProtoNet (+0.2%) while escalating Meta-Baseline (+2.5%) and SNAIL (+2.7%) more significantly. We also find fine-tuning with the auxiliary task could be more challenging as a large model (BLIP-2 decoder) is plumbed to the learner, making some few-shot learners unable to benefit from the auxiliary task.

On the other hand, even with off-the-shelf captions from BLIP-2, LLM-based methods still fail to close the human-machine gap. We hypothesize the reason to be two-fold: 1) *distractors*, without awareness of the Bongard-OpenWorld task and other images in the current problem, the captions BLIP-2 produces could be distracted by irrelevant content and miss description needed by the visual concepts; 2) *hard negatives*, as illustrated in Figure 1, the conceptual similarity between positives and negatives could perplex the concept induction of the LLM. Due to space limitation, we defer qualitative results of explicit concept induction of LLM-based method to the Appendix G.

Different few-shot learners. Many previous benchmarks (Nie et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2022) have demonstrated that some few-shot learners are generally better than others in few-shot visual reasoning. Our winner here is SNAIL, a memory-based learner with a transformer architecture. It even surpasses the strong GPT-4 baseline on all measures. We hypothesize that the memory-based approach could suit Bongard-OpenWorld better as our dataset does not offer a huge amount of few-shot training episodes. Therefore, additional inductive biases like the sample retrieval in SNAIL could make the learner more data efficient.

Limitations of current VLMs. The results in Table 3 indicate that combining VLMs & LLMs in a zero-shot fashion, specifically using InstructBLIP to generate more complex captions, leads to a significant drop in the performance of ChatGPT. We hypothesize this drop is due to InstructBLIP introducing excessive noise that interferes with the reasoning of ChatGPT, while the robustness of GPT-4 remains unaffected. We attribute this to the limitations of current caption model in accurately representing open vocabulary free-form visual concepts, abstract visual attributes, and commonsense factual knowledge in Bongard-OpenWorld. Additionally, even powerful end-to-end pre-trained VLMs (e.g., OpenFlamingo, Otter) still face challenges with multi-image reasoning, which is a unique and particularly difficult aspect of Bongard-OpenWorld.

Neuro-Symbolic also failed. While performing logical operations directly on visual concepts may initially appear as an ideal solution, but the results are not satisfactory. GPT-4’s ability to comprehend and extract concepts is unquestionable. However, we observed that the accuracy of inducing the true concept is disappointingly low, with a significant presence of irrelevant noise concepts, due to the inability of the concept extractor, *i.e.* the VLM. This leads us to point that, as mentioned earlier, developing a powerful model capable of multi-image reasoning and accurately inducing open vocabulary free-form visual concepts still requires tremendous effort.

5 CONCLUSION

We have introduced Bongard-OpenWorld, a benchmark for evaluating real-world few-shot reasoning for machine vision. It combines the best of few-shot learning and complicated real-world visual concepts. The diverse nature of these concepts including abstract visual attributes and commonsense factual knowledge impose great challenges to AI. State-of-the-art few-shot learners and even sophisticated systems reconcile LLMs & VLMs, largely fall behind human contestants. We invite people from different AI communities to join our challenge for this grand challenge.

6 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We extend our heartfelt gratitude to the anonymous reviewers whose dedication and insightful feedback have significantly enhanced the caliber of this paper. Their constructive critiques and valuable suggestions were instrumental in refining our work. Additionally, we are deeply appreciative of the Program Chairs and Area Chairs for their meticulous handling of our submission and for their comprehensive and invaluable feedback. Their guidance has been pivotal in elevating the quality of our research.

This work is supported by National Key R&D Program of China (2022ZD0114900) and in part by National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No.61976214).

REFERENCES

- Anton Bakhtin, Laurens van der Maaten, Justin Johnson, Laura Gustafson, and Ross Girshick. Phyre: A new benchmark for physical reasoning. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, pp. 5083–5094, 2019. 22
- Satanjeev Banerjee and Alon Lavie. Meteor: An automatic metric for mt evaluation with improved correlation with human judgments. In *Proceedings of the acl workshop on intrinsic and extrinsic evaluation measures for machine translation and/or summarization*, pp. 65–72, 2005. 15
- David Barrett, Felix Hill, Adam Santoro, Ari Morcos, and Timothy Lillicrap. Measuring abstract reasoning in neural networks. In *International conference on machine learning*, pp. 511–520. PMLR, 2018. 2, 4, 22
- Peyman Bateni, Raghav Goyal, Vaden Masrani, Frank Wood, and Leonid Sigal. Improved few-shot visual classification. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 14493–14502, 2020. 6
- Tom Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared D Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, et al. Language models are few-shot learners. *Proceedings of Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, 33:1877–1901, 2020. 7, 20
- Sébastien Bubeck, Varun Chandrasekaran, Ronen Eldan, Johannes Gehrke, Eric Horvitz, Ece Kamar, Peter Lee, Yin Tat Lee, Yuanzhi Li, Scott Lundberg, et al. Sparks of artificial general intelligence: Early experiments with gpt-4. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.12712*, 2023. 7
- Yu-Wei Chao, Zhan Wang, Yugeng He, Jiakuan Wang, and Jia Deng. HICO: A benchmark for recognizing human-object interactions in images. In *ICCV*, 2015. 2
- Yinbo Chen, Xiaolong Wang, Zhuang Liu, Huijuan Xu, and Trevor Darrell. A new meta-baseline for few-shot learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2003.04390*, 2020. 6
- Mehdi Cherti, Romain Beaumont, Ross Wightman, Mitchell Wortsman, Gabriel Ilharco, Cade Gordon, Christoph Schuhmann, Ludwig Schmidt, and Jenia Jitsev. Reproducible scaling laws for contrastive language-image learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2212.07143*, 2022. 7, 8
- François Chollet. On the measure of intelligence. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1911.01547*, 2019. 22
- Wenliang Dai, Junnan Li, Dongxu Li, Anthony Meng Huat Tiong, Junqi Zhao, Weisheng Wang, Boyang Li, Pascale Fung, and Steven Hoi. Instructblip: Towards general-purpose vision-language models with instruction tuning, 2023. 7
- Jia Deng, Wei Dong, Richard Socher, Li-Jia Li, Kai Li, and Li Fei-Fei. Imagenet: A large-scale hierarchical image database. In *2009 IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pp. 248–255. IEEE, 2009. 1, 7, 8, 20
- Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. Bert: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1810.04805*, 2018. 20

- Mark Everingham, Luc Van Gool, Christopher KI Williams, John Winn, and Andrew Zisserman. The pascal visual object classes (voc) challenge. *International Journal of Computer Vision (IJCV)*, 88(2):303–338, 2010. 20
- Li Fe-Fei et al. A bayesian approach to unsupervised one-shot learning of object categories. In *Proceedings Ninth IEEE International Conference on Computer Vision*, pp. 1134–1141. IEEE, 2003. 20
- Feng Gao, Qing Ping, Govind Thattai, Aishwarya Reganti, Ying Nian Wu, and Prem Natarajan. Transform-Retrieve-Generate: Natural Language-Centric Outside-Knowledge Visual Question Answering. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pp. 5067–5077, 2022. 3, 6, 7
- Yash Goyal, Tejas Khot, Douglas Summers-Stay, Dhruv Batra, and Devi Parikh. Making the V in VQA matter: Elevating the role of image understanding in Visual Question Answering. In *Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, 2017. 1
- Kaiming He, Georgia Gkioxari, Piotr Dollár, and Ross Girshick. Mask r-cnn. In *Proceedings of International Conference on Computer Vision (ICCV)*, 2017. 1
- Sepp Hochreiter, A Steven Younger, and Peter R Conwell. Learning to learn using gradient descent. In *International Conference on Artificial Neural Networks*, pp. 87–94. Springer, 2001. 20
- Siyuan Huang. *Human-like Holistic 3D Scene Understanding*. University of California, Los Angeles, 2021. 1
- Drew A Hudson and Christopher D Manning. Gqa: A new dataset for real-world visual reasoning and compositional question answering. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pp. 6700–6709, 2019. 1
- Xiaojuan Ma Huaizu Jiang, Weili Nie, Zhiding Yu, Yuke Zhu, Song-Chun Zhu, and Anima Anandkumar. Bongard-hoi: Benchmarking few-shot visual reasoning for human-object interactions. In *Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, 2022. 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 22
- Justin Johnson, Bharath Hariharan, Laurens Van Der Maaten, Li Fei-Fei, C Lawrence Zitnick, and Ross Girshick. Clevr: A diagnostic dataset for compositional language and elementary visual reasoning. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pp. 2901–2910, 2017. 22
- Alexander Kirillov, Eric Mintun, Nikhila Ravi, Hanzi Mao, Chloe Rolland, Laura Gustafson, Tete Xiao, Spencer Whitehead, Alexander C Berg, Wan-Yen Lo, et al. Segment anything. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2304.02643*, 2023. 20
- Ranjay Krishna, Yuke Zhu andd Oliver Groth, Justin Johnson, Kenji Hata, Joshua Kravitz, Stephanie Chen, Yannis Kalantidis, Li-Jia Li, David A. Shamma, Michael S. Bernstein, and Li Fei-Fei. Visual genome: Connecting language and vision using crowdsourced dense image annotations. *IJCV*, 123(1):32–73, 2017. 2
- Weicheng Kuo, Yin Cui, Xiuye Gu, AJ Piergiovanni, and Anelia Angelova. F-vlm: Open-vocabulary object detection upon frozen vision and language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2209.15639*, 2022. 20
- Brenden M Lake, Ruslan Salakhutdinov, and Joshua B Tenenbaum. Human-level concept learning through probabilistic program induction. *Science*, 350(6266):1332–1338, 2015. 1, 4, 21
- Kwonjoon Lee, Subhransu Maji, Avinash Ravichandran, and Stefano Soatto. Meta-learning with differentiable convex optimization. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 10657–10665, 2019. 6, 20
- Boyi Li, Kilian Q Weinberger, Serge Belongie, Vladlen Koltun, and René Ranftl. Language-driven semantic segmentation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2201.03546*, 2022. 20

- Junnan Li, Dongxu Li, Silvio Savarese, and Steven Hoi. Blip-2: Bootstrapping language-image pre-training with frozen image encoders and large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2301.12597*, 2023. 1, 6, 7, 20
- Yonglu Li, Liang Xu, Xijie Huang, Xinpeng Liu, Ze Ma, Mingyang Chen, Shiyi Wang, Haoshu Fang, and Cewu Lu. HAKE: human activity knowledge engine. *CoRR*, abs/1904.06539, 2019. 2
- Chin-Yew Lin. Rouge: A package for automatic evaluation of summaries. In *Text summarization branches out*, pp. 74–81, 2004. 15
- Tsung-Yi Lin, Michael Maire, Serge Belongie, James Hays, Pietro Perona, Deva Ramanan, Piotr Dollár, and C Lawrence Zitnick. Microsoft coco: Common objects in context. In *European conference on computer vision*, pp. 740–755. Springer, 2014. 1, 20
- Zhuang Liu, Hanzi Mao, Chao-Yuan Wu, Christoph Feichtenhofer, Trevor Darrell, and Saining Xie. A convnet for the 2020s. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 11976–11986, 2022. 7, 8
- Xiaojuan Ma, Weili Nie, Zhiding Yu, Huaizu Jiang, Chaowei Xiao, Yuke Zhu, Song-Chun Zhu, and Anima Anandkumar. Relvit: Concept-guided vision transformer for visual relational reasoning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2204.11167*, 2022a. 1, 22
- Xiaojuan Ma, Silong Yong, Zilong Zheng, Qing Li, Yitao Liang, Song-Chun Zhu, and Siyuan Huang. Sqa3d: Situated question answering in 3d scenes. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.07474*, 2022b. 7
- David Marr. *Vision: A computational investigation into the human representation and processing of visual information*. MIT press, 2010. 1, 22
- Nikhil Mishra, Mostafa Rohaninejad, Xi Chen, and Pieter Abbeel. A simple neural attentive meta-learner. *ICLR*, 2018. 3, 6, 20
- Weili Nie, Zhiding Yu, Lei Mao, Ankit B Patel, Yuke Zhu, and Anima Anandkumar. Bongard-logo: A new benchmark for human-level concept learning and reasoning. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33, 2020. 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 22
- Long Ouyang, Jeffrey Wu, Xu Jiang, Diogo Almeida, Carroll Wainwright, Pamela Mishkin, Chong Zhang, Sandhini Agarwal, Katarina Slama, Alex Ray, et al. Training language models to follow instructions with human feedback. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35: 27730–27744, 2022. 7
- Kishore Papineni, Salim Roukos, Todd Ward, and Wei-Jing Zhu. Bleu: a method for automatic evaluation of machine translation. In *Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL)*, 2002. 15
- Alec Radford, Jong Wook Kim, Chris Hallacy, Aditya Ramesh, Gabriel Goh, Sandhini Agarwal, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, Pamela Mishkin, Jack Clark, et al. Learning transferable visual models from natural language supervision. In *International conference on machine learning*, pp. 8748–8763. PMLR, 2021. 3, 5, 20
- Aniruddh Raghu, Maithra Raghu, Samy Bengio, and Oriol Vinyals. Rapid learning or feature reuse? towards understanding the effectiveness of maml. *ICLR*, 2020. 21
- Mengye Ren, Eleni Triantafillou, Kuan-Chieh Wang, James Lucas, Jake Snell, Xaq Pitkow, Andreas S Tolias, and Richard Zemel. Probing few-shot generalization with attributes. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2012.05895*, 2020. 2
- James Requeima, Jonathan Gordon, John Bronskill, Sebastian Nowozin, and Richard E Turner. Fast and flexible multi-task classification using conditional neural adaptive processes. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 32, 2019. 6
- Adam Santoro, Sergey Bartunov, Matthew Botvinick, Daan Wierstra, and Timothy Lillicrap. Meta-learning with memory-augmented neural networks. In *International conference on machine learning*, pp. 1842–1850, 2016. 20

- David Saxton, Edward Grefenstette, Felix Hill, and Pushmeet Kohli. Analysing mathematical reasoning abilities of neural models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1904.01557*, 2019. 22
- Christoph Schuhmann, Romain Beaumont, Richard Vencu, Cade Gordon, Ross Wightman, Mehdi Cherti, Theo Coombes, Aarush Katta, Clayton Mullis, Mitchell Wortsman, et al. Laion-5b: An open large-scale dataset for training next generation image-text models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.08402*, 2022. 7, 8
- Piyush Sharma, Nan Ding, Sebastian Goodman, and Radu Soricut. Conceptual captions: A cleaned, hypernymed, image alt-text dataset for automatic image captioning. In *Proceedings of the 56th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pp. 2556–2565, 2018. 2, 4
- Jake Snell, Kevin Swersky, and Richard S. Zemel. Prototypical Networks for Few-shot Learning. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2017. 6, 20
- Damien Teney, Peng Wang, Jiewei Cao, Lingqiao Liu, Chunhua Shen, and Anton van den Hengel. V-prom: A benchmark for visual reasoning using visual progressive matrices. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, volume 34, pp. 12071–12078, 2020. 4, 22
- Eleni Triantafyllou, Tyler Zhu, Vincent Dumoulin, Pascal Lamblin, Utku Evci, Kelvin Xu, Ross Goroshin, Carles Gelada, Kevin Swersky, Pierre-Antoine Manzagol, et al. Meta-dataset: A dataset of datasets for learning to learn from few examples. In *ICLR*, 2020. 1, 4, 6
- Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, Łukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. Attention is all you need. In *Advances in neural information processing systems*, pp. 5998–6008, 2017. 6
- Ramakrishna Vedantam, C Lawrence Zitnick, and Devi Parikh. Cider: Consensus-based image description evaluation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pp. 4566–4575, 2015. 15
- Oriol Vinyals, Charles Blundell, Timothy Lillicrap, Daan Wierstra, et al. Matching networks for one shot learning. In *NeurIPS*, pp. 3630–3638, 2016. 1, 4, 20, 21
- Erik Weitnauer and Helge Ritter. Physical bongard problems. In *Ifip international conference on artificial intelligence applications and innovations*, pp. 157–163. Springer, 2012. 22
- Sirui Xie, Xiaojian Ma, Peiyu Yu, Yixin Zhu, Ying Nian Wu, and Song-Chun Zhu. Halma: Humanlike abstraction learning meets affordance in rapid problem solving. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2102.11344*, 2021. 22
- Kelvin Xu, Jimmy Ba, Ryan Kiros, Kyunghyun Cho, Aaron Courville, Ruslan Salakhudinov, Rich Zemel, and Yoshua Bengio. Show, attend and tell: Neural image caption generation with visual attention. In *International conference on machine learning*, pp. 2048–2057. PMLR, 2015. 1
- Kexin Yi, Chuang Gan, Yunzhu Li, Pushmeet Kohli, Jiajun Wu, Antonio Torralba, and Joshua B Tenenbaum. Clevrer: Collision events for video representation and reasoning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1910.01442*, 2019. 22
- Alireza Zareian, Kevin Dela Rosa, Derek Hao Hu, and Shih-Fu Chang. Open-vocabulary object detection using captions. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 14393–14402, 2021. 20
- Chi Zhang, Feng Gao, Baoxiong Jia, Yixin Zhu, and Song-Chun Zhu. Raven: A dataset for relational and analogical visual reasoning. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 5317–5327, 2019. 1, 2, 22
- Deyao Zhu, Jun Chen, Kilichbek Haydarov, Xiaoqian Shen, Wenxuan Zhang, and Mohamed Elhoseiny. Chatgpt asks, blip-2 answers: Automatic questioning towards enriched visual descriptions. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.06594*, 2023. 3, 6, 7, 17
- Song-Chun Zhu and Yixin Zhu. *Cognitive Models for Visual Commonsense Reasoning*. Springer, 2021. 1, 20, 22