# FlashVLM: Exploiting Layer Redundancy via Visual Attention for Efficient Vision-Language Inference

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## Abstract

Despite the advancements in Vision Language Models (VLMs) in multimodal understanding, the increasing computational demands pose challenges for deployment in resource-constrained platforms, such as smart TVs, for applications like content summarization and UI navigation. While prior work accelerates inference by exploiting layer redundancy, these methods often require costly retraining. Recent inference-based layer skipping techniques for Large Language Models (LLMs) do not directly translate to VLMs due to differing visual attention dynamics. We propose an attention-guided, inference-only layer skipping strategy for VLMs that leverages image token attention to determine layer importance. Our approach increases overall throughput by up to 21% while maintaining close to baseline performance.

## 1 Introduction

Vision–Language Models (VLMs) have achieved remarkable performance across a wide range of multimodal understanding tasks, enabling applications such as ***AI-powered content summarization***, ***interactive UI navigation***, and ***voice-driven search***. These capabilities are increasingly being integrated into edge devices such as smart TVs, set-top boxes, and home assistants, bringing advanced AI functionality directly into consumer products. However, as VLM architectures advance, model sizes and computational demands continue to grow, making it infeasible to deploy state-of-the-art (SoTA) models on such devices. Edge environments are inherently resource-constrained in terms of processing power, memory, and energy budget, and thus cannot directly support the inference costs of large-scale VLMs without specialized efficiency strategies.

To facilitate the deployment of large-scale models on edge devices, researchers have explored a variety of efficiency techniques, including pruning (Ma et al., 2023; Sun et al., 2024), quantization (Frantar et al., 2022; Lin et al., 2024), efficient attention (Wang et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2025a), and input sparsification methods. Token-dropping (Arif et al., 2025; Sarkar et al., 2025b), or selectively removing less informative input tokens, has been widely investigated to exploit the redundancy in images and videos. More recently, studies have revealed that layer redundancy also exists across transformer layers in these models (Elhoushi et al., 2024; Gromov et al., 2025), presenting an opportunity for substantial inference-time reduction. Existing layer skipping approaches are predominantly training-based, requiring expensive retraining or fine-tuning of the base model, which is impractical under limited GPU resources. Recently, inference-time solutions based on similarity metrics have shown promising results in Large Language Models (LLMs). While efficiency strategies from LLMs are often adapted to VLMs, we find that similarity metrics effective for LLMs do not yield favorable results when applied directly to VLMs, **underscoring the need for VLM-specific, training-free layer skipping methods.**

VLMs have been observed to sometimes overlook the visual context, producing incorrect outputs due to reduced attention to image tokens. Building on this insight, we propose a training-free layer skipping strategy that uses reduced visual attention to identify unimportant layers in the model. In transformer-based LLMs and VLMs, inference consists of two distinct stages: *prefill*, where the model processes the entire input sequence once to populate the key–value (KV) caches, and *decode*, where tokens are generated autoregressively, one at a time, using these cached states. While prefill cost scales with the prompt length, decode cost scales linearly with the number of generated tokens. As shown in Figure 1, for our target vision–language workloads, decode latency overtakes prefill latency

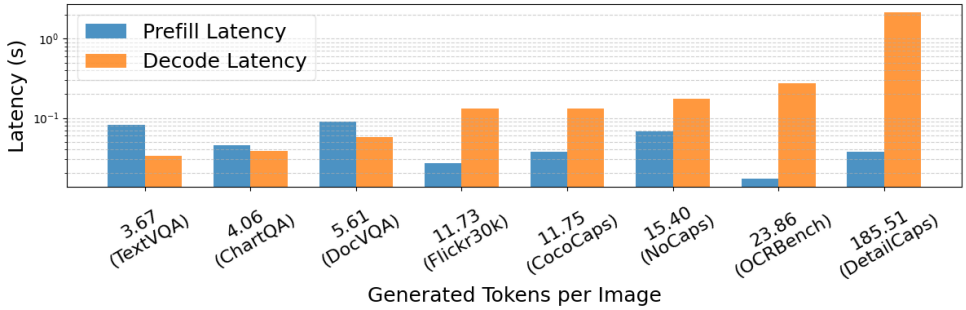



Figure 1: Prefill and decode latency per input sample averaged across 100 samples from different VLM benchmarks encompassing image captioning and visual QnA tasks. Latency values are measured on a single NVIDIA L40S GPU.

once the number of generated tokens per image exceeds 10. Many downstream applications — such as image captioning, content summarization, conversational assistants, and chain-of-thought (CoT) reasoning — naturally involve longer outputs, placing them firmly in this decode-dominated regime. We therefore focus on accelerating decode to improve end-to-end throughput. To this end, we introduce **FlashVLM, a visual attention–guided layer skipping strategy** that dynamically removes redundant computation during decoding, yielding substantial speedups without degrading output quality. Notably, our method is orthogonal to other efficiency techniques such as quantization and token dropping, and can be seamlessly combined with them for further performance improvements.

**Our Contributions** *Firstly*, we observe that **unlike LLMs, deeper layers in VLMs significantly impact model performance.** We conduct a detailed analysis of existing similarity metrics used for determining layer importance. We demonstrate that the metrics used for layer skipping in LLMs do not always yield favorable results when applied to VLMs. We introduce **FlashVLM, an inference-only layer skipping strategy for VLMs** based on attention to image tokens. *Secondly*, we perform a latency breakdown for the two stages of generation: prefill and decode. Our analysis reveals that the decode stage is the primary latency bottleneck for generation tasks, and we aim to perform layer skipping during decoding to maximize overall throughput. *Finally*, we demonstrate results across a wide range of visual question answering (QnA) and image captioning benchmarks, demonstrating the effectiveness of our proposed method. FlashVLM improves overall throughput by up to 21% with performance degradation of 1.7%.

## 2 Related Works

Recent advancements in optimizing large-scale models have focused on diverse strategies like pruning, quantization, linear attention, and activation sparsification. This section will specifically focus on methods that address layer redundancy, discussing both training-based and training-free solutions.

**Training-based Methods:** Training-based methods require training or fine-tuning the model to correctly interpret and make predictions with skipped computations. **Early-exit** frameworks allow for bypassing later layers in a model, based on the observation that models often reach the correct answer well before the final layer (Elhoushi et al., 2024). Early-exit methods have been extensively explored for language modeling for encoder-only transformers like BERT (Xin et al., 2020; Zhou et al.) and encoder-decoder architectures like T5 (Schuster et al., 2022; Elbayad et al., 2020). They rely either on confidence measures (Schuster et al., 2022) or train additional modules or classification heads (Elbayad et al., 2020; Schuster et al., 2022) to interpret the output of intermediate layers. Layerskip (Elhoushi et al., 2024) introduces an early-exit strategy for LLMs combined with speculative decoding to correct potential errors from exiting early. (Raposo et al., 2024) introduced **Mixture-of-depth** (MoD), which dynamically routes only a fraction of tokens through each layer instead of fully skipping layers. This facilitates that different tokens can require different levels of processing, reducing compute without affecting performance. For VLM models, layer skipping approaches can be applied either in the vision encoder or the language decoder. Videollm-MoD (Wu et al., 2024) applies MoD to the vision encoder, whereas Gamma-MoD (Luo et al., 2025) applied MoD to the language decoder. Unlike previous MoD methods, Gamma-

MoD introduces a shared router across all layers for token selection and avoids skipping the question tokens. Notably, both early-exit and MoD methods involving fine-tuning routers and model parameters involve substantial GPU resources.

**Training-free Methods:** Token-dropping methods have been widely adopted to accelerate VLM inference by removing redundant tokens either at the output of the vision encoder (Arif et al., 2025) or a few layers into the LLM decoder (Chen et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2025b). While inference-based strategies have been explored for addressing layer redundancy in language modeling, similar approaches for VLMs are still lacking. For instance, (Dalvi et al., 2020) analyzes the neuron-level redundancy in BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) models. ShortGPT (Men et al., 2025) identifies layers of interest in LLMs by measuring the cosine similarity between the input and the output of the layer, and skips layers during the prefilling stage for generative tasks. UIDL (Gromov et al., 2025) conducts a search to identify blocks of layers in LLMs that show the least deviation in angular distance between their input and output, ultimately eliminating the least important block. Notably, both these approaches demonstrate that deeper layers in LLMs are highly ineffective and redundant.

## 3 Our Approach

### 3.1 VLM Preliminaries

VLMs typically comprise four key components: a text tokenizer, a vision encoder, a projector, and a language decoder. The text tokenizer processes the language input by segmenting it into discrete tokens and converting them into text embeddings, referred to as *text tokens*. Similarly, the vision encoder partitions the input image into patches and transforms them into corresponding visual embeddings. These visual embeddings are then mapped into the text embedding space through the projector, producing *vision tokens*. Finally, the vision and text tokens are concatenated and fed into the language decoder. The majority of the computation in a VLM is concentrated in the vision encoder and the language decoder. However, the vision encoder processes each image only once, whereas the language decoder iteratively processes tokens for every generated output token. Therefore, our efficiency strategy focuses on skipping layers in the language decoder.

The language decoder consists of a stack of transformer layers, each consisting of a multi-head attention (MHA) block followed by a feed-forward network (FFN). The MHA takes as input $N$ tokens, consisting of both text and vision tokens, each represented as an embedding of dimension $d$, $X \in R^{N\times d}$. These are mapped into Query, Key and Value matrices $(Q, K, V) \in R^{N\times d}$. MHA then computes low-dimensional projections of $(Q, K, V)$ given by $(Q^i, K^i, V^i) \in R^{N\times d_k}$ for each head $i$ where $d_k = d/H$, $H$ denoting the number of attention heads. The scaled dot product attention for each head is then computed using

$$A^i = \text{Softmax}\left(\frac{Q^i K^{iT}}{\sqrt{d_k}}\right) \tag{1}$$

Here, $A \in R^{N\times N}$ denotes the attention of query tokens $Q^i$ to key tokens for the $i^{th}$ attention head.

### 3.2 Layer Skipping using Visual Attention

Visual attention denotes the fraction of the total attention that the model pays to the input context provided by the image to generate the next token. Previous research (Liu et al., 2024b; Sarkar et al., 2025a) has shown that low visual attention causes the model to ignore the input context and generate incorrect or hallucinated outputs. Based on this insight, ***we hypothesize that layers with low visual attention do not significantly contribute to generating the correct output, and can be skipped to reduce computations without compromising performance***.

We define ***visual attention*** as the attention between the current text query token $q^i \in R^{1\times d_k}$ and the vision tokens, averaged across all heads, where $I_{\text{start}}$ and $I_{\text{end}}$ denote the start and end indices of vision tokens. We define ***layer importance score***, given by Equation 2, as the sum of attention scores for that layer across all vision tokens.

$$\text{A}_v = \sum_{j=I_{\text{start}}}^{I_{\text{end}}} \left(\frac{1}{H}\sum_{i=1}^{H} \text{A}^i[-1, j]\right) \tag{2}$$

We demonstrate the visual attention scores across different layers of LLaVA models in Figure 2. We observe that despite vision tokens constituting 99% of the input, they receive <10% of the overall attention for most layers in LLaMA, and <20% in Qwen, with some layers exhibiting particularly low visual attention scores. We propose to identify and skip layers with the lowest $A_v$ scores. The detailed algorithm for our layer skipping is given in Algorithm 1.

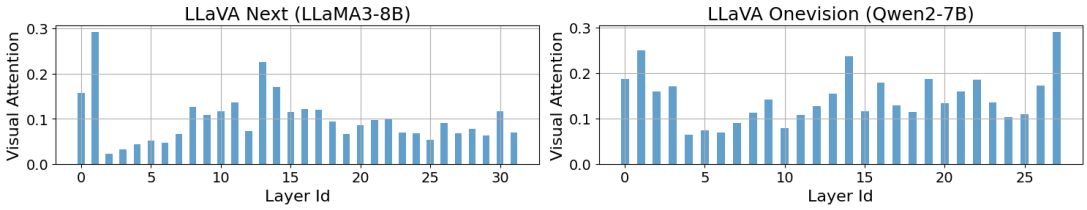



Figure 2: Layerwise visual attention averaged across all query tokens for 500 sample images from OCRBench.

**Algorithm 1** Layer Selection based on Visual Attention

**Input:** Sample set $\mathcal{S}$, total number of decoder layers $L$, skip ratio $r \in [0, 1]$
**Output:** Selected layer indices to skip

```
Initialize list of layerwise attention sums: L_attn_sum ← [0] × L
Initialize total number of tokens: n_tokens ← 0
for each sample s ∈ S do
    for each generated token t for s do
        n_tokens ← n_tokens + 1
        for each layer l in range(L) do
            A_{v,l} = attention score of current query token q_t to image tokens for layer l based on Equation 2
            L_attn_sum[l] ← L_attn_sum[l] + A_{v,l}
        end for
    end for
end for
for each layer l in range(L) do
    L_attn_avg[l] ← L_attn_sum[l] / n_tokens
end for
Sort L_attn_avg in increasing order
k ← ⌊r × L⌋
return first k layer indices from sorted L_attn_avg
```

### 3.3 Layer Skipping Metrics

We compare layer importance based on visual attention with layer importance metrics proposed in literature based on magnitude, direction of vectors and depth-wise approaches.

**L2 Norm:** The L2 norm difference measures the change in magnitude between a layer's input $X_{in}$ and output $X_{out}$, as computed in Equation 3.

$$\text{norm_diff}(X_{in}, X_{out}) = abs(\|X_{\text{in}}\|_2 - \|X_{\text{out}}\|_2) \tag{3}$$

**Cosine Similarity:** LLM models utilize pre-normalization before each layer, making output magnitude less informative. Prior research (Men et al., 2025) recommends magnitude-agnostic metrics, such as cosine similarity (Men et al., 2025) or angular distance (Gromov et al., 2025), which measures the direction between a layer's input and output, as computed in Equations 4 and 5.

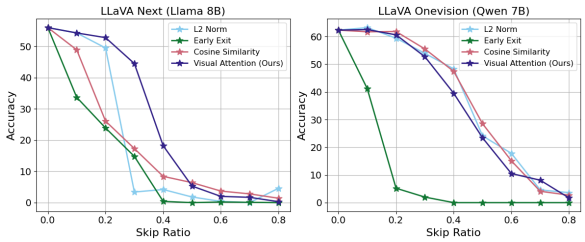



Figure 3: OCRBench accuracy for different layer skip metrics and skip ratios.

$$\text{cosine_similarity}(X_{\text{in}}, X_{\text{out}}) = \frac{X_{\text{in}} \cdot X_{\text{out}}}{\|X_{\text{in}}\|\|X_{\text{out}}\|} \tag{4}$$

$$\text{ang_dist}(X_{\text{in}}, X_{\text{out}}) = \frac{1}{\pi} arccos\left(\frac{X_{\text{in}} \cdot X_{\text{out}}}{\|X_{\text{in}}\|\|X_{\text{out}}\|}\right) \tag{5}$$

**Early-exit:** In early-exit frameworks, layer importance is estimated based on depth, with deeper layers being less important. Previous research on layer skipping in LLMs has found that deeper layers are often redundant (Elhoushi et al., 2024; Gromov et al., 2025).

## 4 Experimental Results

### 4.1 Experimental Setup

**Models and Datasets:** We demonstrate results for LLaVA Onevision (Li et al., 2024) and LLaVA-Next (Liu et al., 2024a) with two different LLMs LLaMA-8B (Touvron et al., 2023) and Qwen-7B (Bai et al., 2023). We use 500 samples from OCRBench as our calibration set to determine layer importance based on visual attention as described in the previous section. We demonstrate results across 7 benchmarks, including image captioning tasks like NoCaps (Agrawal et al., 2019), CocoCaps (Chen et al., 2015), Flickr30k (Young et al., 2014),

| Model | Dataset | Method | Skip Ratio | Rouge_L (↑) | Throughput Estimation | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | Prefill time/ sample (ms) (↓) | Decode time/ token (ms) (↓) | Avg length | Throughput (tokens/s)(↑) |
| LLaVA-Next (LLaMA3-8B) | NoCaps | Baseline | 0.0 | 0.6146 | 50.7 | 12.9 | 12.5 | 22.09 |
| | | ShortGPT | 0.20 | 0.0503 | 14.8 | 13.0 | 64 | 34.17 |
| | | UIDL | 0.20 | 0.2527 | **14.8** | 10.8 | 29.5 | 34.88 |
| | | Ours | 0.20 | **0.6005** | 49.9 | **10.6 (-17.8%)** | 13.6 | **25.58 (+15.8%)** |
| | Flickr30k | Baseline | 0.0 | 0.5317 | 40.3 | 12.8 | 12.8 | 24.55 |
| | | ShortGPT | 0.20 | 0.0354 | **13.4** | 12.7 | 64 | 35.12 |
| | | UIDL | 0.20 | 0.2446 | 13.6 | **10.8** | 23.3 | 34.78 |
| | | Ours | 0.20 | **0.5301** | 40.7 | 10.9 (-14.8%) | 13.4 | **27.71 (+12.9%)** |
| | CocoCaps | Baseline | 0.0 | 0.6067 | 48.9 | 12.9 | 12.4 | 22.63 |
| | | ShortGPT | 0.20 | 0.0365 | 15.0 | 13.1 | 64 | 34.32 |
| | | UIDL | 0.20 | 0.2282 | **14.7** | 10.7 | 27.6 | 34.77 |
| | | Ours | 0.20 | **0.5898** | 47.3 | **10.6 (-17.8%)** | 12.8 | **25.78 (+13.9%)** |
| LLaVA Onevision (Qwen2-7B) | NoCaps | Baseline | 0.0 | 0.5526 | 68.3 | 12.0 | 15.4 | 15.276 |
| | | ShortGPT | 0.20 | 0.1742 | 11.7 | 12.0 | 5.21 | 8.05 |
| | | UIDL | 0.20 | **0.5958** | **11.7** | 10.0 | 11.2 | 14.86 |
| | | Ours | 0.20 | 0.528 | 67.7 | **9.8 (-18.3%)** | 16.7 | **17.47 (+14.4%)** |
| | Flickr30k | Baseline | 0.0 | 0.5363 | 26.9 | 12.0 | 11.7 | 23.98 |
| | | ShortGPT | 0.20 | 0.1542 | 11.6 | 12.0 | 7.98 | 21.82 |
| | | UIDL | 0.20 | 0.5361 | **11.7** | **10.0** | 11.3 | **27.65** |
| | | Ours | 0.20 | **0.5375** | 26.9 | **10.0 (-16.7%)** | 11.9 | 26.51 (+10.6%) |
| | CocoCaps | Baseline | 0.0 | 0.611 | 37.2 | 12.3 | 11.8 | 20.06 |
| | | ShortGPT | 0.20 | 0.1491 | 11.9 | 10.0 | 8.7 | 21.97 |
| | | UIDL | 0.20 | 0.5754 | **11.7** | 9.9 | 11 | **22.79** |
| | | Ours | 0.20 | **0.6024** | 36.7 | **9.7 (-21.14%)** | 11.9 | 22.11 (+10.22%) |
| | DetailCaps | Baseline | 0.0 | 0.3024 | 37.6 | 11.6 | 185.5 | 38.34 |
| | | ShortGPT | 0.20 | 0.0467 | 11.4 | 11.5 | 43.6 | 33.08 |
| | | UIDL | 0.20 | **0.2885** | **11.4** | **9.6** | 149.5 | **44.83** |
| | | Ours | 0.20 | 0.2864 | 38.0 | **9.6 (-20%)** | 147.7 | 44.32 (+15.6%) |

Table 1: Image Caption Evaluation on LLaVA with two different backbones. The best values for each column are highlighted in bold. If the average length of the generated output tokens is approximately double or more than the average length of the ground truth captions, it is marked in red, indicating the presence of repetitions or nonsensical tokens.

and DetailCaps (Dong et al., 2024), and visual QnA benchmarks like OCRBench (Liu et al., 2024c), and ChartQA (Masry et al., 2022). For throughput estimation, we use 100 samples from each benchmark. Evaluation is performed on NVIDIA L40S GPUs.

**Evaluation Metrics:** For throughput measurement, we report (a) *Prefill time/sample*, which is the average time required to process the entire input sequence and generate the first output token for a single input sample; (b) *Decode time/sample*, or the average time required to generate all subsequent output tokens (after the first token) for a single input sample; (c) *Decode time/token* measuring the total decoding time divided by the total number of output tokens generated (excluding the first token); and *Overall throughput (tokens/s)* defined as the total number of output tokens generated (including the first token) divided by the total time for both prefill and decode stages.

**Baselines:** We compare FlashVLM with two SoTA inference-only layer skipping methods, ShortGPT (Men et al., 2025) and UIDL (Gromov et al., 2025). ShortGPT uses *cosine similarity*, described in Equation 4, to determine layer importance, and proposes skipping only during *prefill* stage. UIDL skips a block of consecutive layers instead of individual layers. It conducts a search with a block size that matches the skip ratio, identifying the block with the least deviation in angular distance (as described in Equation 5) between its input and output.

### 4.2 Evaluating different layer skipping metrics

We compare different layer skipping metrics in Figure 3. We skip layers during the decode phase and plot the accuracy vs skip ratio on OCRBench for LLaMA and Qwen backbones. We observe that early-exit or skipping deeper layers leads to a

| Model | Dataset | Method | Skip Ratio | Accuracy (↑) | Throughput Estimation | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | Prefill time/ sample (ms) (↓) | Decode time/ token (ms) (↓) | Avg length | Throughput (tokens/s)(↑) |
| LLaVA-Next (LLaMA3-8B) | OCRBench | Baseline | 0.0 | 0.56 | 21.4 | 12.8 | 33.7 | 35.89 |
| | | ShortGPT | 0.20 | 0.002 | 12.2 | 13.2 | 128 | 38.85 |
| | | UIDL | 0.20 | 0.073 | **12.0** | **10.6** | 95.3 | 45.88 |
| | | Ours | 0.20 | **0.528** | 21.4 | 11.0 (-14.1%) | 16.9 | **38.01 (+5.9%)** |
| | ChartQA | Baseline | 0.0 | 0.6872 | 42.1 | 13.4 | 4.1 | 14.11 |
| | | ShortGPT | 0.20 | 0.0 | 14.4 | 13.3 | 16 | 27.91 |
| | | UIDL | 0.20 | 0.1268 | **14.2** | **10.7** | 12.4 | 28.99 |
| | | Ours | 0.20 | **0.644** | 41.8 | 10.8 (-19.4%) | 4.4 | **15.29 (+8.4%)** |
| LLaVA Onevision (Qwen2-7B) | OCRBench | Baseline | 0.0 | 0.623 | 17.0 | 12.0 | 23.8 | 35.42 |
| | | ShortGPT | 0.20 | 0.049 | **11.5** | 12.0 | 46.4 | 22.45 |
| | | UIDL | 0.20 | 0.445 | 11.7 | 10.0 | 47.4 | **45.86** |
| | | Ours | 0.20 | **0.606** | 17.0 | **9.9 (-17.5%)** | 32.0 | 42.8 (+20.8%) |
| | ChartQA | Baseline | 0.0 | 0.8004 | 45.0 | 12.3 | 4.1 | 8.96 |
| | | ShortGPT | 0.20 | 0.0084 | **12.0** | 11.9 | 9.1 | 17.25 |
| | | UIDL | 0.20 | 0.3868 | **12.0** | 10.0 | 3.5 | 9.03 |
| | | Ours | 0.20 | **0.796** | 44.0 | **10.0 (-18.67%)** | 4.0 | **9.24 (+3.13%)** |

Table 2: Visual QnA evaluation on LLaVA with two different backbones. The best values are bolded. The average length of the generated output, substantially exceeding the ground truth, is marked in red, indicating repetitive or nonsensical tokens.

sharp drop in accuracy even when only 10% of the layers are skipped, equating to 2 layers for Qwen and 3 layers for LLaMA. This is a key difference with LLM models where deeper layers have been found to highly ineffective (Gromov et al., 2025). Interestingly, using cosine similarity or L2 norm difference to determine layer importance yields promising performance for Qwen, but leads to a decline in accuracy for LLaMA, suggesting these are not consistent metrics across LLMs. *We find that cosine similarity identifies deeper layers for LLaMA, whereas L2 norm difference skips the first layer, which likely contributes to the observed accuracy drop.* On the other hand, our proposed visual attention approach shows promising results for both models, with no significant decrease in accuracy when skipping up to 20% of the layers. We will demonstrate results from several other benchmarks in the following sections.

### 4.3 Results and Analysis

**Evaluation on Image Captioning:** We present results for image captioning tasks in Table 1. For our proposed strategy, prefill latency remains unchanged since we do not skip layers during the prefill stage. We obtain latency improvements in decoding proportional to the number of skipped layers. For example, for a skip ratio of ∼20% for LLaMA decoder, we observe a reduction in decode time/token by 15% for Flickr30k to 18% for NoCaps and CocoCaps. Similarly, for Qwen-7B backbone, we obtain a decoding latency reduction, ranging from from 17% to 21%. Overall throughput is strongly affected by the length of the generated output. In our measurements, prefill latency is typically 4 to 5 times higher than the per-token decode latency, though the exact ratio depends on the input image size. When the generation is long, decode latency dominates the total time, making it the primary factor for improving tokens-per-second. In contrast, for shorter outputs with only a few tokens, prefill latency forms a large share of the total latency, which limits overall throughput.

We also find that skipping layers can unintentionally increase generation length by producing repetitive or unnecessary tokens. This artificially inflates throughput for that task, but at the cost of correctness. Such behavior is particularly pronounced in LLaMA when using methods like ShortGPT and UIDL, where the higher throughput numbers do not reflect usable outputs. Hence, we mark these numbers with red in Tables 1 and 2. We suspect that this occurs since deeper layers in LLaMA are deemed less critical by these approaches, based on cosine similarity and angular distance metrics, and skipped, leading to degraded output quality.

Our approach achieves an overall throughput improvement of up to 15.8% for LLaMA-3 and 15.6% for Qwen-2 backbones. UIDL achieves the best throughput performance trade-off for captioning tasks for Qwen. However, it suffers a significant accuracy drop for LLaMA. ShortGPT is observed

to perform poorly for both models. Even though it skips layers only during prefill and not during decoding, this appears to negatively impact performance, as those layers cannot leverage the image context since the necessary input token representations were never cached.

**Evaluation on Visual QnA:** We present evaluation results for visual QnA tasks in Table 2. We observe that both ShortGPT and UIDL suffer a substantial drop in accuracy for both model backbones as the task complexity increases, with ShortGPT attaining close to zero accuracy in many cases. On the contrary, our approach shows promising results on these tasks with performance drops of 1.7% and 0.44% for OCRBench and ChartQA on Qwen. For LLaMA, FlashVLM degrades performance by 3.2% and 4.3% for OCRBench and ChartQA respectively. We obtain throughput improvements of up to 20.8% for OCRBench with a performance degradation of 1.7%. The throughput gains for ChartQA are limited due to their very short generation lengths. However, most real-world tasks like content summarization and UI navigation require substantially longer output, in which case our approach offers greater benefits.

**Layer skipping for different model sizes:** We present accuracy vs skip ratios on OCRBench using FlashVLM for LLaVA Onevision with Qwen-7B and Qwen-0.5B in Figure 5. This shows that bigger models are more resilient to layer skipping, suggesting higher layer redundancy in bigger models.

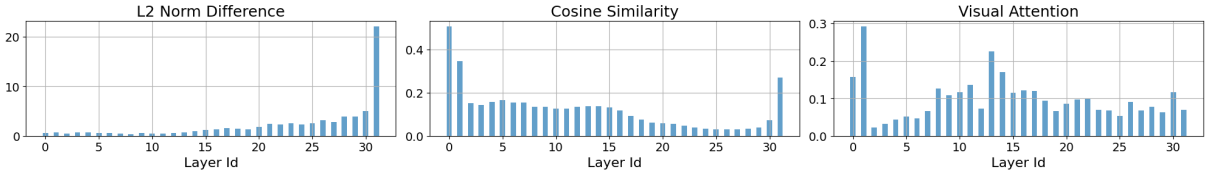
**Layer Importance Score Visualization:** We visualize the layerwise scores based on different metrics like L2 norm difference, cosine similarity and visual attention for LLaVA-Next (LLaMA3-8B) and LLaVA Onevision (Qwen2-7B) based on 500 samples from OCRBench (Liu et al., 2024c) in Figure 4a and 4b respectively. We observe that later layers exhibit high values for *L2 norm difference* for both models, with the middle layers having the lowest scores. However, for LLaMA, the first layer also has one of the lowest values of L2 norm difference, which leads to the first layer being skipped early on when L2 norm difference is the chosen metric. *Cosine similarity* is high for the initial and last three layers for Qwen, with middle layers having low values. However, for LLaMA, it shows the lowest values for the later layers except the last layer. This probably leads to the observed accuracy drop on LLaMA using cosine similarity, since we find that later layers play a key role in maintaining VLM performance. For *visual attention*, lowest scores are observed for layer ids 2 to 6 for LLaMA and for layer ids 4 to 7 and 10 for Qwen.

To further verify if the attention patterns are consistent across benchmarks, we plot the layerwise visual attention scores for LLaMA3-8B on different benchmarks in Figure 4c. We observe that for the same model, similar attention patterns are observed across benchmarks. This suggests that our attention-based layer identification strategy, based on a subset of data samples for a particular task, can generalize effectively across different benchmarks.

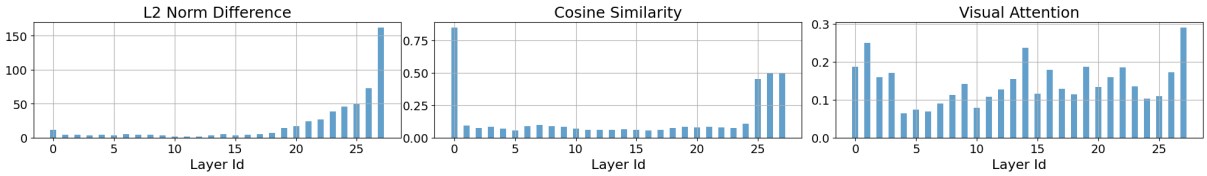
**Comparison with token merging methods:** For token merging approaches, we compare our method against ToMe (Token Merging) (Bolya et al., 2022) and PiToMe (Protect Informative Tokens before Merging) (Tran et al., 2024), which exploit token redundancy to increase throughput without requiring additional training. ToMe progressively merges similar tokens within a transformer using a lightweight matching algorithm, whereas PiToMe extends ToMe by prioritizing the preservation of informative tokens through an additional graph-energy–based metric. $r$ controls the number of tokens merged per layer in ToMe, while in PiToMe, $r$ denotes the fraction of tokens preserved in each layer. Notably, both ToMe and PiToMe were originally developed for Vision Transformers (ViTs). We extend these techniques to reduce the number of vision tokens in VLMs, and present the results in Table 3. Generally, we drop tokens both in the base image and sub-images, whereas, for "w/o base" we drop tokens only in the sub-images. While these methods yield throughput improvements, they suffer significant accuracy degradation, making them unusable for complex tasks like OCRBench and ChartQA.

## 5 Conclusions and Future Work

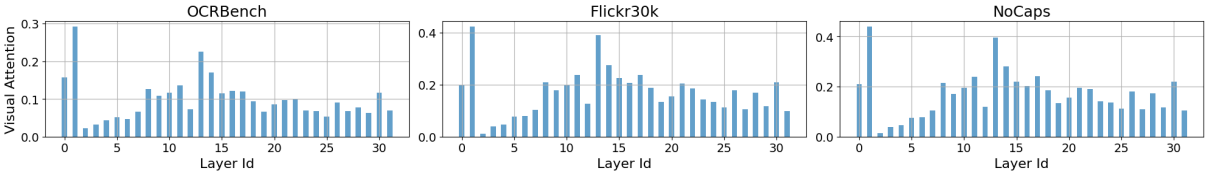
This paper addresses the critical need for inference efficiency in VLMs by proposing an innovative, inference-only layer skipping strategy. Previous research has demonstrated that large foundation models exhibit significant layer redundancy, which can be leveraged to speed up inference. Notably, deeper layers have been found to be ineffective for LLMs. Our findings reveal that, unlike LLMs, deeper layers play a crucial role in the performance of VLMs. Moreover, traditional layer skipping strategies are usually training-based, requiring substantial GPU resources. To address this, we pro-




(a) Layer scores for LLaVA-Next (LLaMA3-8B) based on L2 norm difference (left), cosine similarity (middle), and visual attention (right)




(b) Layer scores for LLaVA Onevision (Qwen2-7B) based on L2 norm difference (left), cosine similarity (middle), and visual attention (right)




(c) Layer scores for LLaVA-Next (LLaMA3-8B) based on visual attention for different benchmarks: OCRBench (left), Flickr30k (middle), and NoCaps (right). We observe similar trends in layer scores across all benchmarks.

Figure 4: Layer score visualization for different layer skipping metrics on two different models, across three benchmarks.

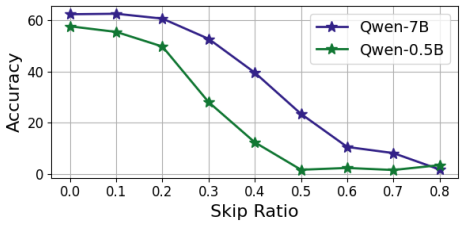



Figure 5: Evaluation across different model sizes

| Dataset | Method | Accuracy | Throughput Gain |
|---|---|---|---|
| OCR-Bench | Baseline | 62.3 | 1× |
| | ToMe (r=10) | 36.4 | 1.11× |
| | ToMe w/o base (r=10) | 57.5 | 1.08× |
| | PiToMe (r=0.95) | 32.7 | 1.6× |
| | PiToMe w/o base (r=0.95) | 55.4 | 1.4× |
| | Ours | **60.6** | 1.21× |
| ChartQA | Baseline | 80.04 | 1× |
| | ToMe (r=10) | 40.2 | 1.3× |
| | ToMe w/o base (r=10) | 64.6 | 1.5× |
| | PiToMe (r=0.95) | 35.36 | 2.2× |
| | PiToMe w/o base (r=0.95) | 62.28 | 1.8× |
| | Ours | **79.6** | 1.03× |

Table 3: Comparison of our approach with token merging methods on LLaVA Onevision (Qwen2-7B)

pose an inference-only approach based on visual attention for layer skipping in VLMs. The proposed strategy exhibits promising results, achieving notable inference speedups while maintaining high performance across a diverse range of tasks. In future, we aim to extend this attention-based approach to the prefilling stage of VLM inference, which holds the potential for even greater computational gains. Additionally, future work will focus on investigating why deeper VLM layers are more critical than their LLM counterparts.

## Limitations

The current implementation of our layer-skipping strategy is specifically targeted at the decoding phase of VLM inference. Consequently, the strategy does not currently provide a reduction in prefill latency. The focus on decoding is increasingly justified by the shift toward complex reasoning tasks, such as Chain-of-Thought (CoT) reasoning. In these workloads, models generate extended sequences of tokens to solve intricate problems, making the decoding phase the primary bottleneck for

total inference time. In such cases, the prefill latency becomes relatively negligible compared to the cumulative decode time. However, a more holistic approach that incorporates prefill-stage skipping remains an objective for future development.

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