From Models to Systems: A Comprehensive Survey of Efficient Multimodal Learning

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Abstract

The rapid expansion of multimodal models has surfaced formidable bottlenecks in computation, memory, and deployment, catalyzing the rise of Efficient Multimodal Learning (EML) as a pivotal research frontier. Despite intensive progress, a cohesive understanding of *what*, *how*, and *where* efficiency is manifested across the learning stack remains fragmented. This survey systematizes the EML landscape by introducing the first structured, model-to-system taxonomy. We distill insights from over 300 seminal works into three hierarchical levels—*model*, *algorithm*, and *system*—addressing architectural parsimony, execution refinement, and hardware-aware orchestration, respectively. Moving beyond a purely categorical review, we offer a methodological synthesis of the vertical synergies between these layers, elucidating how cross-layer co-design contributes to the fundamental "Efficiency-Utility-Privacy" trade-off. Through an integrative case study of Multimodal Large Language Models (MLLMs), we trace the field's evolutionary trajectory from initial structural adjustments to modern full-stack resource orchestration. Furthermore, we provide a holistic discussion and application-specific optimization blueprints for diverse domains and posit a paradigm shift toward self-regulating intelligence, where efficiency is an intrinsic, emergent property of the model's fundamental design rather than a post-hoc constraint. Finally, we present open challenges and future directions that will define the trajectory of EML research. This survey establishes a formal foundation for multimodal systems that are not only high-performing and generalizable but natively efficient and ready for ubiquitous deployment. We also maintain a Github repository to continuously update related work for research community.

1 Introduction

The paradigm shift toward multimodal learning has revolutionized artificial intelligence, enabling systems to jointly perceive, align, and reason over heterogeneous signals such as vision, language, audio, and sensor data (Baltrušaitis et al., 2018; Mo et al., 2024; 2023). This unification underpins critical advances in domains ranging from embodied robotics and autonomous driving to precision healthcare (Jin et al., 2025). However, this scaling success faces a formidable bottleneck: computational inefficiency. The quadratic complexity and massive parameter counts of modern multimodal transformers demand exorbitant memory and energy resources, often precluding deployment in real-time or resource-constrained environments. As the field moves to democratize these models beyond high-end clusters, establishing a systematic understanding of Efficient Multimodal Learning (EML) has become a critical academic and industrial frontier.

Unlike unimodal efficiency targeting homogeneous inputs, multimodal efficiency must orchestrate heterogeneous modalities with disparate semantics, resolutions, and temporal dynamics. Consequently, optimization cannot be isolated to a single layer; it must span the entire stack—from architecture and algorithms to hardware execution. To achieve this, a robust system must allocate computation adaptively, determining *what*, *how*, and *where/when* to process each modality under varying constraints. This evolution marks a paradigm shift from accuracy-centric learning to intelligence that is intrinsically efficient, resource-adaptive, and deployable at scale.

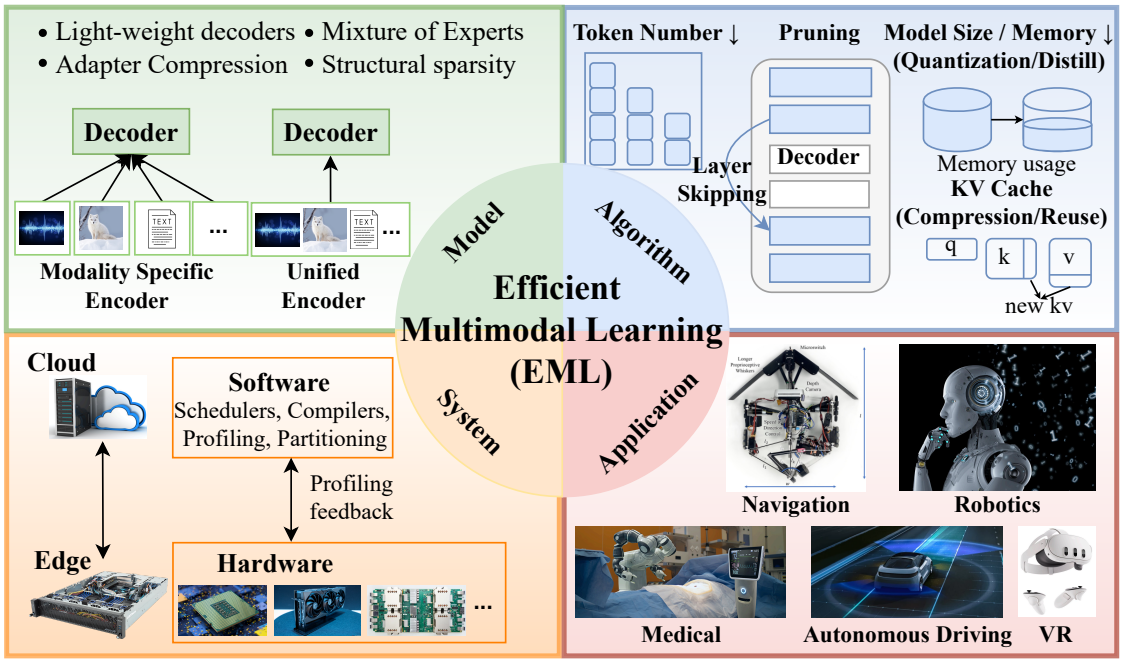

Figure 1: Overall landscape of Efficient Multimodal Learning (EML), organized across three interconnected levels—Model, Algorithm (Compression & Acceleration), and System—that jointly optimize architectural design, computation, and deployment, with representative applications illustrated.

Despite the explosion of research, the path to multimodal efficiency remains obscured by a fog of fragmented techniques. Current literature typically organizes methods by isolated stages or granular mechanisms (Jin et al., 2025; Shinde et al., 2025), which, while useful for cataloging, fails to answer a fundamental structural question: *Where exactly in the multimodal stack can efficiency be injected, and how do these injections interact?* Without a clear topological map, researchers risk optimizing specific modules in isolation, often neglecting the broader landscape of cross-layer opportunities. This lack of a full-stack perspective limits the community's ability to systematically exploit efficiency bottlenecks across the entire computing pipeline of EML development.

To bridge these isolated domains, this survey proposes the Model–Algorithm–System (MAS) taxonomy, a unified framework that synthesizes over 300 representative studies into a layered ecosystem. Rather than viewing efficiency as a collection of disparate tricks, we systematically map optimizations to their precise locus within the computing stack: ***(1) Model-level:*** reshaping architectural topology to define *what* to compute—encompassing modality-specific or unified encoders, sparse expert routing, and modular adapters. ***(2) Algorithm-level:*** modulating information flow to determine *how* to compute—via token compression, pruning, quantization, distillation, speculative decoding, and cache reuse. ***(3) System-level:*** orchestrating physical execution to decide *where* and *when* to compute—integrating cache management, edge–cloud collaboration, latency-aware scheduling, and hardware-software co-design.

Moving beyond a purely categorical review, this survey provides a methodological synthesis of the vertical synergies between these layers. We analyze Efficient Multimodal Large Language Models (MLLMs) as a primary proving ground, demonstrating how the convergence of perception, execution, and scheduling mitigates the fundamental "Efficiency-Utility-Privacy" trilemma. Furthermore, we establish application-specific optimization blueprints for diverse domains—from affective computing to spatial understanding and reasoning—and posit a paradigm shift toward self-regulating intelligence. In this nascent regime, efficiency is reframed not as a post-hoc constraint, but as an intrinsic, emergent property of the model's fundamental design. By delineating these critical open challenges and future directions, we offer the community a coherent guide to realizing natively efficient and scalable multimodal intelligence.

This survey makes the following contributions:

- **Unified Taxonomy:** We present the first blueprint integrating model, algorithm, and system efficiency into a holistic MAS framework for EML.
- **Cross-Level Analysis:** We deconstruct the dependencies between architectural sparsity, algorithmic compression, and system orchestration, offering a principled view of resource-aware intelligence.
- **MLLMs Synthesis:** We synthesize recent breakthroughs and evolution in efficient MLLMs as a critical convergence within the MAS framework, where vertical integration empowers scalable, real-world multimodal intelligence.
- **Future Roadmap:** We identify emerging applications and open questions, showing future directions toward sustainable, adaptive, and deployable multimodal learning.

2 Scope and Taxonomy

This survey focuses on techniques that explicitly enhance the *efficiency* of multimodal learning systems under realistic resource constraints such as limited FLOPs, latency, memory, or energy budgets. We include methods that *reduce*, *reallocate*, or *reuse* computation while maintaining multimodal performance, spanning model, algorithm, and system-level optimization. In contrast, topics orthogonal to efficiency—such as representation learning, pretraining objectives, or interpretability—are discussed only when they directly integrate efficiency-driven mechanisms (e.g., sparsity-inducing alignment, compression-guided adaptation). Within multimodal large language models (MLLMs), we focus on how their efficiency mechanisms align with our framework rather than exhaustively reviewing all variants; readers seeking comprehensive MLLM surveys may refer to specialized reviews (Jin et al., 2025; Xu et al., 2024; Shinde et al., 2025).

Figure 2 illustrates our MAS taxonomy, structuring the EML landscape across three interdependent levels: **model-level**, which reshapes architectural topology via modality-specific and -unified encoders, structural sparsity, structural decoding, and lightweight modular adaptation; **algorithm-level**, which refines execution via token compression, pruning, quantization, knowledge distillation, Prompting and speculative decoding, caching and reuse, and runtime sparsity; and **system-level**, which enables deployable efficiency through cache management and serving, edge cloud collaboration, latency-aware scheduling and pipelining, hardware-software codesign, and federated learning. Although each level targets a distinct stage of the multimodal pipeline, their interactions are tightly coupled—for example, model-level sparsity often depends on algorithm-level quantization for accuracy retention, while system-level scheduling can further amplify the efficiency gains of dynamic inference.

The remainder of this survey: Sections 3–5 examine efficiency across model, algorithm, and system levels, followed by analyses of efficient MLLM (Sec. 6), applications (Sec. 7), holistic discussion (Sec. 8), and open research challenges and opportunities (Sec. 9). Each section reflects our unique discussion and insights. Besides, we also present a case study for the edge EML system and list a subset of recent efficient multimodal models under our MAS framework in the Appendix 10.

3 Model

As shown in Fig. 3, model-level efficiency fundamentally reshapes the architectural topology to define *what* to compute. Efficient architectures seek to minimize redundant processing while preserving alignment, interaction, and representational richness. They reshape computation through explicit structural choices—encoder specialization, unified encoders, sparsity-aware routing, structural decoding, and modular adaptation—each offering a pathway to achieve scalable and expressive multimodal learning under limited budgets.

3.1 Modality-specific Encoders

Vision. The evolution of vision encoders reflects a continuous search for efficient topologies that balance perceptual fidelity with computational constraints. Early efficiency-oriented designs, such as Mo-

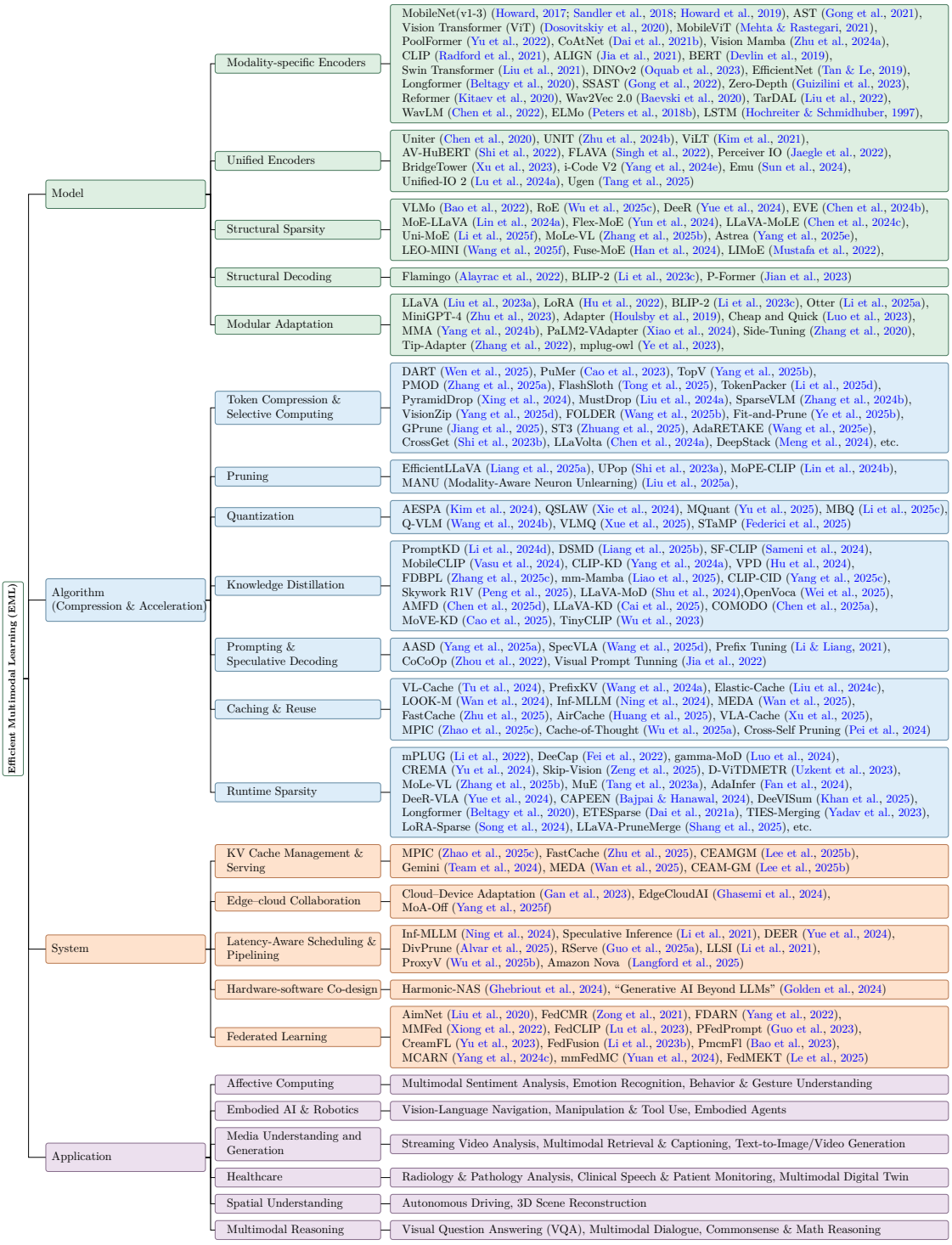

Figure 2: The MAS taxonomy for EML with representative works.

bileNet (Howard, 2017), ShuffleNet (Zhang et al., 2018), and EfficientNet (Tan & Le, 2019), mitigate computational redundancy via depthwise separable convolutions or compound scaling rules. While effective for local feature extraction, their lack of global context prompts the development of hybrid architectures like MobileViT (Mehta & Rastegari, 2021) and CoAtNet (Dai et al., 2021b), which synergize convolutional efficiency with Transformer expressivity. Pushing this structural evolution further, PoolFormer (Yu et al.,

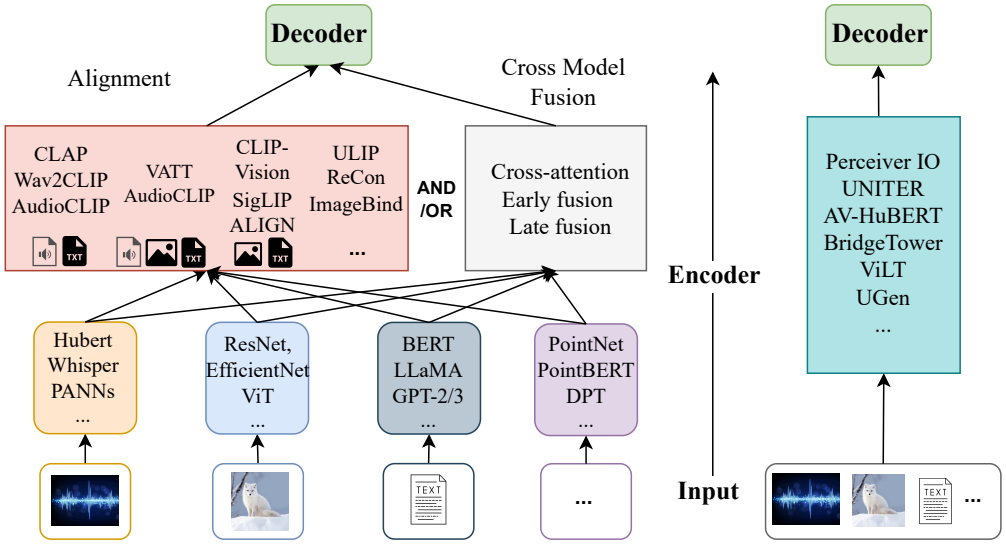

Figure 3: Structural paradigms of multimodal encoders. The taxonomy contrasts (left) decoupled modality-specific pipelines utilizing post-hoc alignment or fusion mechanisms with (right) natively unified encoders that collapse heterogeneous signals into a shared parameterized core. This architectural evolution reflects a shift toward functional consolidation, where unification acts as a structural prerequisite for efficiency.

2022) demonstrates that simple pooling operations can replace complex attention mechanisms within a "MetaFormer" architecture, achieving efficiency through pure topological simplification.

The subsequent shift to Vision Transformers (ViT) (Dosovitskiy et al., 2020) fully enables global reasoning but incurs quadratic complexity. To address this, hierarchical variants like Swin Transformer (Liu et al., 2021) reintroduce shifted-window attention to linearize complexity while preserving local priors. Simultaneously, Masked Autoencoders (MAE) (He et al., 2022) and BEiT v2 (Peng et al., 2022) resolve the scalability bottleneck by turning masked image modeling into an efficiency primitive, enabling large-scale pretraining with reduced overhead. More recently, alternatives emerge to challenge the dominance of attention entirely: Mamba-based backbones (Gu & Dao, 2024; Zhu et al., 2024a) and Kolmogorov–Arnold Networks (KANs) (Liu et al., 2024b) utilize state-space models or learnable splines to capture long-range dependencies with linear complexity $O(N)$, offering superior scaling laws.

Ultimately, modern encoder design moves beyond purely structural optimization to prioritize cross-modal alignability. Architectures like CLIP (Radford et al., 2021) and ALIGN (Jia et al., 2021) employ dual-stream encoders to project visual and textual features into a shared semantic space via the InfoNCE objective:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{InfoNCE}} = -\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\log\frac{\exp\big(\text{sim}(v_i,t_i)/\tau\big)}{\sum_{j=1}^{N}\exp\big(\text{sim}(v_i,t_j)/\tau\big)}, \tag{1}$$

where $\text{sim}(\cdot)$ denotes cosine similarity, τ is a temperature parameter, and N is the number of samples. Building on this foundation, SigLIP (Zhai et al., 2023) identifies the softmax normalization as a scalability bottleneck and replaces it with a pairwise sigmoid loss, decoupling memory usage from batch size. Complementing these global alignment methods, dense self-supervised encoders like the DINO series (Caron et al., 2021; Oquab et al., 2023; Siméoni et al., 2025) provide fine-grained visual features essential for multimodal understanding. This paradigm transforms visual encoders from static classifiers into flexible foundations for open-vocabulary multimodal systems.

Text. The evolution of text encoding traces a cyclical trajectory: moving from memory-efficient recurrence to parallelized attention, and finally converging on architectures that unify the strengths of both to support massive multimodal contexts. The foundational era relies on Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs), where architectures like LSTM (Hochreiter & Schmidhuber, 1997) and GRU (Cho et al., 2014) maintain hidden

states to capture temporal dependencies. While deep contextualized representations like ELMo (Peters et al., 2018a) demonstrate the representational power of this paradigm, the inherent sequentiality of recurrence prohibits parallel training, creating a fundamental barrier to scaling on modern hardware. Efficiency-oriented variants, such as IndRNN (Li et al., 2018) and LightRNN (Li et al., 2016), attempt to mitigate this by decoupling matrix operations or compressing vocabularies, yet the underlying throughput bottleneck persists.

The introduction of the Transformer (Vaswani et al., 2017) and BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) breaks this serial constraint by enabling fully parallel context aggregation. However, this architectural shift exchanges sequential latency for quadratic computational complexity ($O(N^2)$), which becomes prohibitive when processing long sequences of interleaved text tokens. To reconcile global context with computational viability, structural variants dismantle the dense attention matrix: Longformer (Beltagy et al., 2020) and BigBird (Zaheer et al., 2020) introduce sparse window mechanisms to reduce complexity to linear time, while Reformer (Kitaev et al., 2020) employs locality-sensitive hashing (LSH) to approximate global interactions. Simultaneously, approaches like Linformer (Wang et al., 2020) demonstrate attention matrices are low-rank, allowing for projection-based approximations that further compress the computational footprint.

As decoder-only LLMs like LLaMA (Touvron et al., 2023) become the backbone for modern VLMs, the frontier shifts toward revisiting recurrence to handle the explosive growth of multimodal context windows. Recent architectures, including Linear Transformers (Katharopoulos et al., 2020) and state-space models (SSMs) like TextMamba (Zhao et al., 2025b), abandon the standard softmax attention mechanism entirely. By combining the parallelizable training of Transformers with the constant inference memory of RNNs ($O(1)$), these designs unlock a critical capability for multimodal learning: the ability to sustain effectively infinite context windows. This transforms text encoders from a computational bottleneck into a scalable semantic anchor, capable of maintaining long-term dialogue history and reasoning over extensive descriptive inputs essential for multimodal systems.

Audio. The evolution of audio encoders parallels that of vision, transitioning from rigid convolutional priors to unified, efficiency-aware tokenization that aligns seamlessly with broader multimodal architectures. Early efficiency-oriented designs rely on architectural inductive biases: by treating log-Mel spectrograms as 2D image-like signals, convolutional encoders such as VGGish (Hershey et al., 2017) and CNN14 (Kong et al., 2020) leverage local connectivity to extract harmonic patterns. While effective, this approach defines efficiency primarily through parameter sharing and locality, often overlooking the temporal continuity intrinsic to acoustic signals. To overcome this and leverage massive unlabeled data, the paradigm shifts toward self-supervised learning (SSL) within hybrid topologies. Foundational frameworks like Wav2Vec 2.0 (Baevski et al., 2020) and HuBERT (Hsu et al., 2021) combine lightweight convolutional front-ends for local feature extraction with Transformer backbones for global context. By solving contrastive or masked unit prediction tasks, these methods redefine efficiency through the lens of data scalability, producing robust representations that generalize across tasks with minimal supervision.

A critical turning point toward architectural unification arrives with the adoption of patch-based masked modeling, inspired by Vision Transformers. The Audio Spectrogram Transformer (AST) (Gong et al., 2021) and SSAST (Gong et al., 2022) eliminate the convolutional hierarchy, treating spectrogram patches as discrete tokens for global self-attention. This shift not only simplifies the design space but also aligns audio encoding structurally with visual and textual modalities, facilitating cross-modal transfer and unified pretraining. However, the quadratic complexity of global attention poses a bottleneck for long-form audio processing. Addressing this, recent architectures like Audio Mamba (Yadav & Tan, 2024) adopt selective SSMs to bypass the attention mechanism. By capturing long-range dependencies with strict linear complexity ($O(N)$) and constant inference memory, these models naturally align with the continuous nature of sound. This trajectory culminates in a vital capability for multimodal learning: the creation of efficient, linear-time audio encoders that allow high-fidelity acoustic streams to be integrated into LLMs as native tokens, establishing a scalable foundation for real-time, omni-sensory understanding.

Beyond Canonical Modalities. Beyond vision, text, and audio, modalities such as thermal imagery, depth sensing, and time-series data extend multimodal learning into domains characterized by low resolution, sparsity, or temporal irregularity. Although heterogeneous, the evolution of their encoders reveals a convergent trajectory: moving from rigid priors to flexible, computation-aware abstractions.

Thermal imagery captures radiometric intensity rather than clear texture, often resulting in low-contrast, high-noise data. To process this efficiently, architectures must isolate informative features from clutter. Early designs such as TarDAL (Liu et al., 2022) employ dual-stream topologies to disentangle target semantics from noise via sub-networks. More recently, approaches like FW-SAT (Jiang & Chen, 2024) transition to ViT-based backbones but restrict computation through local window attention. This design mitigates the quadratic cost of global modeling while focusing resources on informative regions, preserving the structural details vital for interpreting low-quality thermal inputs without incurring the overhead of full self-attention.

Depth sensing provides explicit geometric cues but frequently suffers from sparse or missing measurements due to sensor limitations. To balance structural fidelity with computational cost, the field converges on hybrid architectures. Frameworks like Lite-Mono (Zhang et al., 2023a) and MonoDETR (Zhang et al., 2023b) integrate lightweight convolutions for high-frequency surface completion and Transformer blocks for global geometric reasoning. This hybrid topology effectively leverages the efficiency of convolutions for handling local sparsity (filling "holes" in the depth map) while reserving expensive attention operations solely for establishing long-range scale consistency.

Time-series data pose unique challenges regarding irregular sampling and extremely long-range dependencies. While RNNs capture local trends, their sequential nature prevents parallel training on massive datasets. To address this, efficient Transformers like Informer (Zhou et al., 2021) introduce sparse attention mechanisms, such as ProbSparse attention, to approximate global context with sub-quadratic cost ($O(N \log N)$). Most recently, the focus shifts to continuous-time architectures: State-space models like Mamba (Gu & Dao, 2024) and Liquid-S4 (Hasani et al., 2023) model temporal evolution via linear recurrence. By processing massive horizons with strict linear complexity ($O(N)$), these models resolve the memory bottleneck of Transformers, establishing a scalable paradigm for long-term forecasting and sequential reasoning.

3.2 Unified Multimodal Encoders

Unified multimodal encoders aim to collapse redundant, modality-specific pipelines into a shared computational backbone(Wang et al., 2022). Instead of maintaining parallel branches for each signal, these architectures introduce a centralized parameterized core—such as a joint Transformer trunk—that processes heterogeneous tokens within a single vector space. This paradigm shifts the definition of efficiency from simple resource reduction to functional consolidation, where cross-modal interactions occur deeply and repeatedly, turning unification itself into a mechanism for parameter and inference efficiency.

From Dual-stream Fusion to Shared Trunks. Early efforts focus on integrating visual and textual streams within a single Transformer. Models like UNITER (Chen et al., 2020), ViLT (Kim et al., 2021), and BridgeTower (Xu et al., 2023) discard heavy modality-specific extractors, instead encoding image patches and text tokens directly through a shared attention backbone. ViLT, in particular, demonstrates that a unified Transformer could replace complex convolutional front-ends, significantly reducing model footprint. These works establish the principle of parameter sharing as efficiency, proving that cross-modal understanding does not require independent feature hierarchies.

Multi-sensory Unification. Subsequent frameworks extend this unified paradigm to include audio and video. AV-HuBERT (Shi et al., 2022) generalizes SSL by jointly masking and predicting clustered audio–visual units, achieving strong recognition accuracy with orders of magnitude less labeled data. FLAVA (Singh et al., 2022) further scales this by employing a single Transformer to process image, text, and audio tokens, demonstrating that cross-modal co-training acts as an implicit regularizer. This holistic approach reduces the total pretraining compute compared to maintaining separate unimodal models, validating unification as a path to scalability.

Latent-Core and Autoregressive Unification. Recent designs unify capacity through latent bottlenecks or sequence-level modeling. Perceiver IO (Jaegle et al., 2022) and Perceiver-VL (Tang et al., 2023b) encode arbitrary modalities via a fixed-size latent array, decoupling computational cost from input size and resolution. Alternatively, UNIT (Zhu et al., 2024b) maintains lightweight modality-specific heads during pretraining but merges them at inference for a single shared encoder. More radically, autoregressive models such as Emu (Sun et al., 2024), Unified-IO 2 (Lu et al., 2024a), i-CodeV2 (Yang et al., 2024f), UGen (Tang et al., 2025), and Grok-1.5V (xAI / Grok team, 2024) embrace generative unification: they tokenize all

modalities into a single discrete sequence and optimize a unified next-token prediction objective:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{AR}} = -\sum_{t=1}^{T} \log p\big(y_t \,\big|\, y_{<t},\, \text{ctx}\big), \tag{2}$$

where y_t denotes the target token at step t, $y_{<t}$ represents the multimodal history, and ctx is the context. This formulation enables seamless conditioning and generation across modalities, establishing sequence modeling as the universal interface for multimodal efficiency.

3.3 Structural Sparsity

Structural sparsity enforces efficiency by utilizing conditional computation to activate only a subset of parameters during training or inference. Unlike pruning (which permanently removes weights), structural sparsity embeds dynamic routing directly into the model architecture, allowing systems to decouple total capacity from active computation. In multimodal contexts, this enables models to scale to billions of parameters while maintaining the inference footprint of much smaller networks, dynamically allocating resources based on input complexity.

Modality-Specialized Expert Routing. Early application of Mixture-of-Experts (MoE) in multimodal learning focus on mitigating cross-modal interference. Model architectures like VLMo (Bao et al., 2022) and LIMoE (Mustafa et al., 2022) introduce modality-aware routing, coupling shared attention mechanisms with modality-specific experts. By directing image and text tokens to distinct feed-forward networks (FFNs), these models achieve disentangled representation learning, proving that sparsity can enhance expert specialization while reducing the computational redundancy of monolithic transformers.

Unified Semantic Routing. Subsequent frameworks, such as Uni-MoE (Li et al., 2025f), have advanced from rigid modality partitioning to unified, content-driven routing. Here, experts are shared across modalities and activated dynamically based on token-level semantic complexity. This shift allows the architecture to adaptively allocate capacity—using more experts for complex reasoning tokens and fewer for simple patches—transforming sparsity from a static routing rule into a responsive, content-aware mechanism.

Budget-Aware Elasticity. Recent frameworks such as LEO-MINI (Wang et al., 2025f) and Flex-MoE (Yun et al., 2024) extend sparsity to resource-constrained deployment. Rather than maximizing capacity, they prioritize compute elasticity, employing hierarchical routing or mixed-rank experts to satisfy strict memory or latency budgets. Models like NVILA (Liu et al., 2025b) and SmolVLM (Marafioti et al., 2025) further optimize this by pruning token pathways, effectively creating any-budget architectures that dynamically adjust their active parameter set to fit the available hardware envelope.

From a computational standpoint, such MoE architectures successfully bound the active time complexity for the entire input sequence to $\mathcal{O}((N + M) \cdot D^2)$ (where N and M denote the sequence lengths of visual and textual tokens, and D is the hidden dimension, as detailed in Table 1). However, this mathematical decoupling of parameters from FLOPs inherently risks representational fragmentation. Because tokens are discretely routed, the continuity of the model's internal feature space can be disrupted, occasionally leading to representation collapse if the routing distribution becomes highly skewed. Consequently, while in-domain performance scales efficiently, zero-shot generalization may degrade when confronted with complex multimodal inputs that lack a dense, unified pathway to synthesize orthogonal features.

3.4 Structural Decoding

Structural decoding enhances efficiency by architecturally constraining the interface between high-resolution perception and autoregressive generation. Instead of allowing the language model to attend directly to dense, variable-length feature maps—which incurs prohibitive quadratic costs and modality misalignment—recent architectures introduce a learnable bottleneck that decouples decoding complexity from input dimensionality. Perceiver-style decoders like Flamingo (Alayrac et al., 2022) employ a resampler mechanism where fixed latent queries cross-attend to visual inputs, compressing spatiotemporal features into a constant number of visual tokens. Refining this principle, query-based transformers like BLIP-2 (Li et al., 2023c) utilize a lightweight

Table 1: Comparison of Representative Multimodal Interaction and Adaptation Mechanisms. The empirical parameter counts are estimations based on canonical implementations. Theoretical complexity bounds reflect the core mechanism step, omitting auxiliary overheads. N and M denote the sequence lengths of visual and textual tokens, respectively. D is the hidden dimension, K is the number of latent queries ($K \ll N$), E is the number of experts, r is the token retention ratio ($0 < r \leq 1$), and r_{rank} is the intrinsic rank for parameter-efficient tuning ($r_{rank} \ll D$).

Mechanism Category	Typical Params	Time Complexity	Space Complexity	Key Representational Trade-off
Unified Self-Attention (Baseline)	Backbone dependent	$\mathcal{O}((N+M)^2 \cdot D)$	$\mathcal{O}((N+M)^2)$	Unconstrained interaction; quadratic cost limits high-resolution
Dense Cross-Attention	∼100M – 1B	$\mathcal{O}(M \cdot N \cdot D)$	$\mathcal{O}(M \cdot N)$	High memory footprint; preserves exact feature alignment
Latent Query Bottleneck	∼100M – 200M	$\mathcal{O}(K \cdot (N+M) \cdot D)$	$\mathcal{O}(K \cdot (N+M))$	Many-to-few mapping limits fine-grained visual granularity
Linear Attention / SSMs	Varies (Arch. dependent)	$\mathcal{O}((N+M) \cdot D^2)$	$\mathcal{O}(D^2)$	Potential loss of precise token-to-token retrieval capability
Token Reduction (e.g., ToMe)	0 (Training-free)	$\mathcal{O}((r \cdot N+M)^2 \cdot D)$	$\mathcal{O}((r \cdot N+M)^2)$	Analogous to low-pass filtering; smooths high-frequency details
Sparse Routing (MoE)	$\mathcal{O}(E \cdot D^2)$ total	$\mathcal{O}((N+M) \cdot D^2)$	$\mathcal{O}(E \cdot D^2)$	Risk of representation fragmentation and routing collapse
Modular Adaptation (e.g., LoRA)	∼1M – 50M	$\mathcal{O}((N+M) \cdot D \cdot r_{rank})$	$\mathcal{O}(D \cdot r_{rank})$	Rank restriction limits capacity for orthogonal multimodal shifts

Q-Former to act as a semantic bridge, actively distilling dense encoder outputs into a compact, text-aligned token set. Ultimately, structural decoding reframes efficiency as a problem of interface design: replacing exhaustive cross-attention with a bounded, fixed-capacity channel that effectively isolates the generative engine from the raw scale of sensory data while aligning heterogeneous modalities.

Mathematically, compressing a variable-length visual sequence N into a fixed number of latent queries K ($K \ll N$) drastically reduces the cross-modal interaction time complexity to $\mathcal{O}(K \cdot (N+M) \cdot D)$ (see Table 1). Yet, this architectural isolation inherently acts as an information bottleneck. This many-to-few mapping behaves analogously to a low-pass filter on the feature space, smoothing out high-frequency spatial details. Therefore, architectures relying on aggressive structural decoding face a clear representational trade-off: they excel at holistic semantic alignment (e.g., global VQA) but often struggle with tasks requiring dense, pixel-level grounding (e.g., small object detection), as the necessary representational granularity has been structurally pruned.

3.5 Modular Adaptation

Modular Adaptation mainly consists of bottleneck adapters(Houlsby et al., 2019) and low-rank adaptation (LoRA)(Hu et al., 2022). Adapters enhance efficiency by inserting lightweight, trainable modules between or within frozen pretrained components, enabling rapid specialization and cross-modal alignment without the cost of full-model retraining(Sung et al., 2022b;a). Functionally, these architectures operate at two distinct structural levels: inter-module connection and intra-module tuning. For cross-modal alignment, projection adapters—such as the simple linear layers in LLaVA (Liu et al., 2023a) or the multi-layer perceptrons in MiniGPT-4 (Zhu et al., 2023)—act as minimal connectors that project sensory features directly into the language model's embedding space. Complementing these connectors, parameter-efficient tuning methods like LoRA (Hu et al., 2022; Guo et al., 2025b) introduce low-rank decompositions as bypass pathways inside transformer layers, allowing the model's internal reasoning to adapt to new modalities using a fraction of the original parameter count. Recent modular advances, such as MMA (Yang et al., 2024b) and PaLM2-VAdapter (Xiao et al., 2024), extend this paradigm by creating plug-and-play adapter banks that can be dynamically swapped for different tasks. Taken together, adapter-based strategies redefine efficiency as the structural decoupling of capability expansion from backbone maintenance—achieving scalable alignment and transfer under strict memory and compute budgets.

However, the mathematical constraints of modular adaptation impose distinct representational limits. As outlined in Table 1, methods like LoRA restrict the update space by an intrinsic rank r_{rank} ($r_{rank} \ll D$), reducing the adaptation time complexity to $\mathcal{O}((N+M) \cdot D \cdot r_{rank})$. While this success is theoretically anchored in the intrinsic dimension hypothesis—which posits that models reside in a low-dimensional objective landscape during fine-tuning—this extreme low-rank constraint limits the model's capacity to internalize entirely new, orthogonal multimodal knowledge. Consequently, over-compressed adapters may struggle with complex cross-modal reasoning tasks that require mapping to entirely new feature spaces, occasionally leading to degraded generalization on out-of-distribution (OOD) domains.

3.6 Discussion and Key Insights

Model-level efficiency establishes the architectural foundation of EML by redesigning how computation is organized within and across modalities. Beyond the individual techniques cataloged above, our analysis reveals three fundamental paradigm shifts that define the next generation of efficient multimodal architectures:

- **From Explicit Perception to Latent-Core Abstraction:** The evolution from modality-specific pipelines to shared Transformer trunks and latent-core bottlenecks reflects a strategic shift toward the information bottleneck principle. By forcing heterogeneous signals through a fixed-size latent array or a learnable resampler, architectures effectively decouple the quadratic cost of perception from the autoregressive complexity of reasoning. This structural constraint serves as a "semantic filter", ensuring that the generative engine processes only the most salient cross-modal alignments.
- **Addressing Representational Asymmetry via Sparsity:** Multimodal data exhibits inherent representational asymmetry in information density; for instance, visual tokens often contain significantly higher spatial and temporal redundancy compared to the dense semantics of text. Structural sparsity, particularly through MoE and conditional routing, enables architectures to address this asymmetry dynamically. Instead of a monolithic processing pass, modern models utilize modality-aware or content-driven routing to allocate high-capacity experts only to "hard" tokens while bypassing redundant patches.
- **Efficiency as a Structural Prerequisite Not a Trade-off:** A pivotal insight is that efficiency has evolved from a post-hoc optimization into an intrinsic design primitive. Through mechanisms like modular adaptation and parameter-efficient tuning, efficiency is no longer viewed merely as a compromise on capability. Rather, it is a structural property that enables unprecedented model scalability—allowing systems to sustain effectively infinite context windows or perform real-time, omni-sensory reasoning that would be physically prohibitive under traditional dense architectures.

Ultimately, these model-level innovations culminate in a paradigm shift: the transition from modular concatenation toward natively unified foundations. By moving beyond the assembly of modality-specific encoders to form a cohesive world model, the architectural objective evolves from post-hoc alignment toward structural parsimony. Within this unified regime, efficiency is redefined not as a secondary trade-off or adjustment, but as an intrinsic, emergent property of the architecture's fundamental design, where computational capacity is natively and dynamically modulated by the latent semantic complexity of multimodal signals.

4 Algorithm

Algorithm-level efficiency defines *how* computation executes, compressing information flow within fixed architectural topologies. Unlike structural redesigns, these strategies target operation-level reductions in computation and memory footprint. As illustrated in Fig. 4, key techniques—ranging from token compression and quantization to state caching—systematically minimize data redundancy and arithmetic precision. By streamlining processing across both training-free and training-aware regimes, algorithm-level efficiency enhances runtime resource economy while preserving the model's structural integrity.

4.1 Token Compression & Selective Computing

Reducing redundant visual tokens has become a central mechanism for accelerating multimodal transformers, where the computation cost grows quadratically with token count. The objective is not mere token removal, but to identify and retain semantically informative regions that drive multimodal reasoning. This area has evolved along two complementary lines—training-free and training-based compression—each reflecting a balance between practicality and adaptivity.

Training-free Compression. Training-free approaches perform pruning or merging during inference without altering pretrained parameters. Early works exploit intrinsic attention maps or saliency patterns within vision encoders to prune tokens of low importance (Zhang et al., 2024b; Zhuang et al., 2025; Arif et al.,

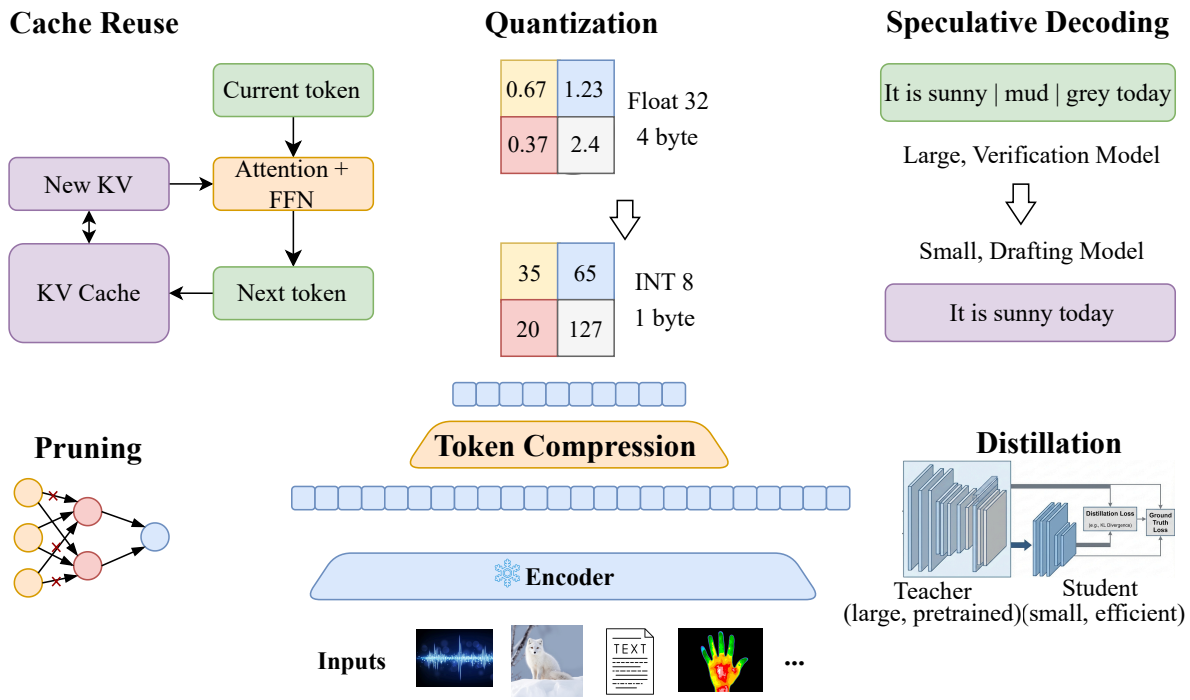

Figure 4: Algorithm-level efficiency for refining multimodal execution dynamics. This taxonomy illustrates the modulation of information flow across the EML pipeline through seven primary axes: (i) **Token compression and selective computing** to filter spatial redundancy and retain informative semantic regions; (ii) **Pruning** to eliminate structural redundancy within backbone architectures; (iii) **Quantization** to minimize memory bandwidth via precision discretization; (iv) **Knowledge distillation** to transfer reasoning behaviors and cognitive patterns to compact learners; (v) **Prompting and speculative decoding** to streamline input adaptation and parallelize generation; (vi) **Caching and reuse** to amortize prefill costs through temporal state persistence; and (vii) **Runtime sparsity** to enable adaptive computation based on input complexity. These strategies transform multimodal execution from static processing to a dynamic, information-flow-aware pipeline.

2025). Redundancy-aware methods extend this by measuring feature correlation or similarity to eliminate overlapping representations (Wen et al., 2025; Yang et al., 2025b;d; Tan et al., 2025). More recent advances adopt layer-adaptive or progressive pruning schedules that gradually reduce token counts across layers or decoding steps (Liu et al., 2024a; Zhuang et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2025e), mitigating abrupt information loss. Structural and optimization-aware frameworks further refine this process by modeling token relationships as graphs (Jiang et al., 2025; Xing et al., 2024; Arif et al., 2025) or formulating selection as constrained optimization (Ye et al., 2025b; Omri et al., 2025). Representative systems such as ST3 (Zhuang et al., 2025) and LLaVolta (Chen et al., 2024a) show that over 70% of visual tokens can be pruned while preserving multimodal accuracy, highlighting that meaningful compression is possible even without retraining.

Training-based Compression. Training-based methods embed learnable token selectors or merging modules into the model to co-optimize compression with downstream supervision. Learnable pruners such as P-Mod (Zhang et al., 2025a), FAST (Pertsch et al., 2025), and TokenPacker (Li et al., 2025d) introduce lightweight scoring networks that dynamically drop or aggregate tokens based on a learnable importance $\mathbf{s}_i$. The model is trained with a task loss $\mathcal{L}_{\text{task}}$ with sparsity weight controlling factor λ

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{select}} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{task}} + \lambda \left\|\mathbf{s}\right\|_1, \tag{3}$$

where $\mathbf{s} = (s_1, s_2, ..., s_N), s_i \in [0, 1]$ denotes the vector of learnable importance scores, N is the token length, $\lambda \left\|\mathbf{s}\right\|_1$ encourages sparsity in these scores. Pooling- and clustering-based frameworks (Wang et al.,

2025b; Yang et al., 2025d) further abstract semantically similar tokens into compact latent embeddings, effectively reducing sequence length while preserving semantics. Curriculum-based approaches (Chen et al., 2024a) progressively decrease token budgets throughout training, encouraging models to adapt to increasingly compressed representations. By integrating token selection into optimization, these approaches achieve higher accuracy under heavy compression and enable controllable trade-offs between efficiency and semantic fidelity.

4.2 Pruning

Model pruning enhances multimodal efficiency by structurally compressing large architectures through the removal of redundant layers, neurons, or attention heads, thereby reducing computation without extensive retraining. Early multi-stage frameworks (Wang et al., 2024c) jointly prune visual and textual branches via layer-wise(Sung et al., 2023b) and hidden-dimension reduction, while EfficientLLaVA (Liang et al., 2025a) formulates pruning as a generalization-aware search, automatically selecting attention and MLP weights using small proxy data. UPop (Shi et al., 2023a) and MoPE-CLIP (Lin et al., 2024b) advance this by performing unified, progressive pruning across modalities, dynamically allocating pruning ratios and refining masks during training to maintain convergence under high compression. More recent approaches such as MANU (Liu et al., 2025a) adopt modality-aware neuron pruning to remove cross-modal redundancies, improving both compactness and representational disentanglement. At a higher level, these methods shift pruning from static compression toward adaptive, semantically guided reduction—enabling deployable multimodal models that balance accuracy, scalability, and hardware efficiency.

4.3 Quantization

Quantization compresses model footprint and accelerates inference by mapping high-precision floating-point weights and activations into lower-bit discrete representations (e.g., INT8). Unlike pruning, which reduces the number of operations, quantization reduces the bit-width of operands, thereby lowering memory bandwidth and energy consumption. Formally, uniform affine quantization maps a real-valued tensor x to an integer q via a scaling factor Δ and a zero-point z:

$$q = \mathrm{clip}\Big(\Big\lfloor \frac{x}{\Delta} \Big\rceil + z,\ q_{\min},\ q_{\max}\Big), \qquad \hat{x} = \Delta\,(q - z), \tag{4}$$

where $\lfloor \cdot \rceil$ denotes rounding to the nearest integer, $[q_{\min}, q_{\max}]$ defines the discrete range, and $\hat{x}$ represents the dequantized approximation.

Post-Training Quantization (PTQ). PTQ applies low-bit mapping directly to pretrained models without requiring extensive retraining, making it highly deployable. However, multimodal models pose unique challenges due to the divergent statistical distributions of visual and textual features (Bhatnagar et al., 2025). Recent research addresses this via modality-aware calibration, where visual tokens—which often exhibit distinct outlier patterns compared to text—receive differentiated scaling or grouping. Approaches like Q-VLM (Wang et al., 2024b), MBQ (Li et al., 2025c), VLM-Q (Xue et al., 2025), and MQuant (Yu et al., 2025) introduce sensitivity-based mixed precision, assigning higher bit-widths to varying channels or tokens that are critical for cross-modal alignment. Complementing weight-centric methods, STaMP (Federici et al., 2025) targets activation quantization, employing sequence transformations to suppress outlier activations that typically destabilize low-bit inference in large vision-language models.

Quantization-Aware Training (QAT). Aggressive compression regimes (e.g., sub-4-bit) often incur catastrophic discretization errors that PTQ fails to mitigate. QAT addresses this by simulating quantization-induced noise during the optimization trajectory, enabling the network to re-learn representational fidelity within a constrained bit-width. To overcome the prohibitive memory overhead of applying QAT to large-scale MLLMs, EfficientQAT (Chen et al., 2025b) introduces a tiered optimization paradigm: it utilizes block-wise training of all parameters followed by end-to-end refinement of quantization scales, effectively circumventing the "memory wall" while preserving the accuracy of 70B-scale models. In the context of multimodal reasoning, specialized challenges such as cross-modal outlier distributions are addressed by QSLAW (Xie et al., 2024), which integrates modality-aware warm-up and learnable step sizes into the instruction-tuning phase. By co-optimizing discretization parameters with neural weights, these methodologies ensure that the delicate

semantic alignment between vision and language is preserved even in highly discretized spaces, bridging the gap between algorithmic compression and system-level inference throughput.

4.4 Caching and Reuse

The Key-Value (KV) cache is a critical bottleneck in autoregressive generation, where memory consumption grows linearly with sequence length and batch size. Optimization strategies aim to decouple memory growth from context length, ensuring long-horizon generation remains feasible within fixed hardware budgets.

Dynamic Eviction and Compression. Importance-based methods mitigate cache redundancy by selectively identifying and discarding non-essential tokens. Leveraging the high spatial redundancy of visual data relative to dense textual semantics, VL-Cache (Tu et al., 2024) introduces modality-aware pruning that aggressively evicts visual patches while shielding critical textual context. To enhance precision, ElasticCache (Liu et al., 2024c) and LOOK-M (Wan et al., 2024) employ attention entropy and anchor-based merging to differentiate between immutable semantic "anchors" and compressible repetitive patterns. Structural refinements, such as CSP (Pei et al., 2024), further stabilize this process by disentangling self-attention from cross-attention channels. On the deployment frontier, systems like FastCache (Zhu et al., 2025) and AirCache (Huang et al., 2025) implement retrieval-augmented hierarchies, offloading "cold" states to secondary storage while retaining "hot" states in GPU memory to balance extensive context horizons with limited hardware capacity.

Temporal and Cross-Session Reuse. Complementary to compression, reuse-oriented methods exploit the temporal coherence of multimodal signals to amortize computation. In dynamic scenarios like robotics or video streaming, the visual scene changes slowly. VLA-Cache (Xu et al., 2025) leverages this by reusing static background tokens across frames, recomputing only the dynamic patches relevant to the task. Similarly, Inf-MLLM (Ning et al., 2024) manages streaming inputs by identifying "attention saddle" points—tokens that sustain long-term dependencies—to maintain context over effectively infinite streams. Moving beyond single sessions, frameworks like MPIC (Zhao et al., 2025c) and Cache-of-Thought (Wu et al., 2025a) enable position-independent reuse. By projecting KV states into a transferable space or retrieving semantically related past states, these methods allow the model to reuse expensive prefill computations across different users or requests, significantly reducing latency for shared multimodal prompts.

4.5 Knowledge Distillation

Knowledge distillation (KD) has emerged as a pivotal technique for enhancing efficiency and reducing complexity in multimodal learning by transferring rich representations from sophisticated teacher models to lighter student models. We group KD for multimodal systems into (i) prediction-level (logits/soft labels), (ii) representation-level (feature/attention/relational alignment), and (iii) behavior-level (reasoning traces, preferences, or policy signals)

Prediction-level. Prediction-level distillation transfers multimodal knowledge by aligning the output probability distributions of teacher and student models. It serves as the most implementation-friendly strategy, enabling efficiency gains without altering the student's internal structure. Formally, the objective minimizes the divergence between the teacher's soft logits z_T and the student's logits z_S, often combined with ground-truth supervision:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{KD}} = \alpha T^2 \,\mathrm{KL}\big(\sigma(z_T/T) \,\|\, \sigma(z_S/T)\big) + (1-\alpha)\,\mathrm{CE}\big(y,\, \sigma(z_S)\big), \tag{5}$$

where σ denotes the softmax function, T is the temperature parameter controlling distribution smoothness, and α balances the Kullback–Leibler (KL) divergence against the standard Cross-Entropy (CE) loss. While early approaches focus on simple logit matching for domain adaptation (Miech et al., 2021; Kang et al., 2025), recent works extend this to semantic grounding. PromptKD (Li et al., 2024d) employs prompt-based supervision to distill task priors without labeled data, while FDBPL (Zhang et al., 2025c) introduces region-aware binary prompts to transfer fine-grained spatial decision signals. These methods provide a lightweight baseline for replicating reasoning behavior through output imitation.

Representation-level. Going beyond final predictions, representation-level distillation aligns intermediate features—such as attention maps, token embeddings, and relational matrices—to transfer the teacher's internal knowledge. Early works like CLIP-KD (Yang et al., 2024a) and TinyCLIP (Wu et al., 2023) validate direct feature matching to compress vision-language backbones. Recent advances target deeper structural alignment: DSMD (Liang et al., 2025b) employs dynamic scheduling to synchronize feature evolution, while SF-CLIP (Sameni et al., 2024) uses masked distillation to focus learning on salient spatial regions. Optimization also extends to architectural adaptation; MobileCLIP (Vasu et al., 2024) introduces dataset-level caching for efficient training, and mm-Mamba (Liao et al., 2025) utilizes progressive alignment to transfer Transformer-based knowledge into linear-time SSMs. Collectively, these strategies elevate KD from output mimicry to representational geometry transfer, preserving alignment fidelity under strict compute constraints.

Behavior-level. The most advanced form of KD transfers the teacher's underlying reasoning behaviors—how it decomposes problems, ranks alternatives, or formulates chains of thought (CoT). This paradigm captures decision dynamics rather than static snapshots, making it essential for complex instruction following. Systems such as Skywork R1V (Peng et al., 2025) introduce adaptive rationale-length supervision to balance completeness and conciseness in CoT generation, while VPD (Hu et al., 2024) employs visual–programmatic distillation to transfer explicit reasoning traces for structured tasks. Furthermore, preference-based methods like LLaVA-MoD (Shu et al., 2024) apply ranking distillation, where the student learns from the teacher's comparative judgments rather than full text reconstruction. Together, these methods mark a shift from predictive mimicry to cognitive emulation, allowing compact learners to approximate the deliberative, preference-driven reasoning of large VLMs.

4.6 Prompting and Speculative Decoding

This category of methods accelerates multimodal generation by optimizing the input conditioning logic rather than pruning the model structure. It encompasses two complementary strategies: learning compact prompts to adapt frozen backbones (reducing training/storage cost) and employing speculative drafting to parallelize decoding (reducing inference latency).

Parameter-Efficient Prompting. Prompt learning turns adaptation into a continuous optimization problem over the input space. Early approaches treat prompts as static global adapters, injecting a small set of learnable tokens into frozen backbones to enable task transfer with negligible parameter cost (Jia et al., 2022; Li & Liang, 2021). Prefix Tuning (Li & Liang, 2021) formalizes this by attaching task-specific key–value prefixes at each Transformer layer, effectively steering the attention mechanism without modifying weights. Addressing the limitations of static prompts, CoCoOp (Zhou et al., 2022) introduces context- and instance-aware prompting, where the conditioning tokens evolve dynamically based on image features. This evolution from static to dynamic prompting allows models to achieve specialized performance with extreme parameter efficiency, often updating less than 1% of the total weights.

Multimodal Speculative Acceleration. Speculative decoding accelerates inference by breaking the memory-bound sequential dependency of autoregressive generation. It employs a lightweight draft model (or a prompt-conditioned head) to propose multiple tokens cheaply, which are then verified in parallel by the full target model (Yang et al., 2025a; Hu et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2025d). In multimodal contexts, efficiency is maximized by identifying shared resources: since the visual encoder is computationally heavy but static during decoding, systems share the visual KV cache between the drafter and the verifier. This allows the draft model to focus solely on linguistic prediction, creating a draft-and-verify loop that amortizes the high cost of loading the full model parameters over multiple accepted tokens per step.

4.7 Runtime Sparsity

Runtime sparsity optimizes efficiency by dynamically pruning the computation graph during inference based on input complexity. Unlike static model pruning, which permanently removes parameters, runtime sparsity exploits the variance in sample difficulty—allocating full compute only to hard samples while processing easy ones via lightweight pathways. Structurally, these methods operate along two primary axes: reducing network depth (layer skipping or early exit) and sparsifying token connectivity (attention masking).

Layer Skipping. Layer skipping modulates computational depth by conditionally bypassing redundant Transformer blocks for easy tokens or frames. Observations suggest that many visual tokens stabilize early in the network, rendering deep processing unnecessary. Heuristic approaches like Skip-Vision (Zeng et al., 2025) prune low-impact visual tokens and their KV entries based on accumulated attention scores. Policy-based methods, such as D-ViTDMETR (Uzkent et al., 2023), employ reinforcement learning to make discrete execute-or-skip decisions per layer, reducing FLOPs by over 50% with minimal degradation. Recent advances treat depth as a continuous routing dimension; MoLe-VL (Zhang et al., 2025b) and λ-MoD (Luo et al., 2024) learn sparse activation paths based on token entropy or spatiotemporal salience. Similarly, mPLUG (Li et al., 2022) utilizes structural shortcuts to enable speculative partial-depth execution, demonstrating that adaptive depth can effectively balance representation power with inference speed.

Early Exit and Adaptive Termination. Early exit mechanisms transform fixed-depth backbones into dynamic cascades, allowing inference to terminate at intermediate layers once a confidence threshold is met. In vision-language tasks, frameworks like DeeCap (Fei et al., 2022) demonstrate that shallow layers often contain sufficient semantic information for simple captioning instances. More rigorously, MuE (Tang et al., 2023a) formalizes this via convergence monitoring, halting computation when cross-modal representations saturate. In temporal or embodied contexts, efficiency is driven by stability; DeeR (Yue et al., 2024) halts processing for video frames or robotic actions once the policy distribution stabilizes over time. While some solutions like AdaInfer (Fan et al., 2024) rely on parameter-free statistical checks, others like CREMA (Yu et al., 2024) and CAPEEN (Bajpai & Hanawal, 2024) integrate exit decisions into the training loop, distilling knowledge from deep layers to shallow exits to ensure consistent performance regardless of termination depth.

Attention Sparsity and Merging. Attention sparsity mitigates the quadratic complexity of self-attention by restricting connection density. Static methods like ETESparse (Dai et al., 2021a) utilize fixed-pattern constraints, while content-adaptive approaches such as LoRA-Sparse (Song et al., 2024) dynamically compute attention only over top-ranked keys to minimize redundant computation. Complementing these structural reductions, merging paradigms offer a training-free pathway for efficiency through representation aggregation. At the model level, TIES-Merging (Yadav et al., 2023) and related benchmarks (Sung et al., 2023a) consolidate diverse parameter sets from multiple checkpoints to enhance performance without adding inference overhead. At the token level, LLaVA-PruMerge (Shang et al., 2025) introduces an adaptive framework that synergistically combines cross-modal attention-based pruning with similarity-driven merging. By dynamically identifying task-relevant visual tokens and aggregating redundant features, it significantly compresses the input space for the LLM while maintaining high-fidelity multimodal reasoning. Together, these methods optimize connectivity by either pruning non-essential interactions or aggregating similar representations into dense, informative states.

4.8 Discussion and Key Insights

Algorithm-level efficiency optimizes the execution dynamics of multimodal models by actively modulating the density and precision of information flow. Our synthesis of recent advancements reveals three critical insights into how algorithmic strategies move beyond post-hoc compression toward intelligent, adaptive computation:

- **Exploiting Asymmetric Redundancy for Token Economy:** A core pillar of algorithmic efficiency is the identification of asymmetric redundancy across modalities. While textual tokens are semantically dense and sequential, visual tokens often exhibit high spatial and temporal correlation. Effective token compression and selective computing (Wen et al., 2025) succeed by treating visual patches not as independent units, but as a hierarchical graph of information. This allows models to achieve high pruning rates by focusing computational budgets on "high-entropy" regions while aggressively aggregating static background tokens.

- **Sensitivity-Aware Discretization in Heterogeneous Spaces:** The primary challenge in multimodal quantization lies in the divergent statistical distributions of visual and textual features. Our analysis suggests that the most robust quantization strategies—such as sensitivity-based mixed precision and outlier suppression—succeed by acknowledging this heterogeneity (Xue et al., 2025). Rather than applying a uniform bit-width, these methods protect the delicate cross-modal align-

ment by maintaining higher precision in channels or tokens that act as "semantic anchors", while quantizing redundant activations to ultra-low-bit levels.

- **From Predictive Mimicry to Cognitive Emulation:** The paradigm shift in KD from simple logit-matching to behavior-level emulation (Peng et al., 2025) highlights a deeper goal: transferring the reasoning process itself. By distilling reasoning traces, preference signals, and chain-of-thought (CoT) behaviors, algorithmic efficiency enables compact student models to approximate the deliberative reasoning of large-scale teachers. This transforms efficiency from a reduction of FLOPs into a maximization of cognitive throughput.

Ultimately, the trajectory of algorithm-level innovation heralds a decisive paradigm shift toward cognitive-aware dynamic orchestration. By transcending the rigid constraints of static execution through the strategic synergy of runtime sparsity and speculative decoding, next-generation EML frameworks are poised to resolve the fundamental "Efficiency-Utility-Alignment" trilemma. Within this nascent regime, algorithms will function as elastic reasoning engines, autonomously and natively modulating computational expenditure in direct response to the latent semantic complexity of the multimodal stream.

5 System

Distinct from model and algorithm optimizations, system-level approaches focus on resource orchestration—determining *where* and *when* workloads should execute under physical constraints. This layer operationalizes efficiency by balancing infrastructure trade-offs between latency, memory, and energy, as shown in Fig. 5. We examine critical strategies for scalable deployment: context-aware memory management, edge–cloud collaboration, latency-sensitive scheduling, hardware–software co-design, and federated learning.

5.1 KV Cache Management and Serving

In production environments, KV cache management is the primary determinant of system throughput and maximum concurrent users. Profiling studies by Lee et al. (Lee et al., 2025b) reveal that for long-context workloads, end-to-end latency is governed by memory bandwidth and kernel launch overheads rather than arithmetic intensity. To address this, modern serving engines integrate `torch.compile`, CUDA graph execution, and FlashAttention to fuse kernels and minimize scheduling gaps. Building on this, research focuses on orchestrating the lifecycle of KV states to maximize hardware utilization.

High-Throughput Memory Pooling. Instead of viewing compression merely as a way to reduce FLOPs, system-level approaches treat it as a mechanism to increase batch size and GPU occupancy. FastCache (Zhu et al., 2025) introduces a stream-aware memory pool that dynamically manages KV blocks across concurrent decoding sessions. By optimizing the physical layout of cached states, it mitigates memory fragmentation—a common issue in dynamic length generation—thereby removing I/O bottlenecks to support high-throughput serving. Similarly, MEDA (Wan et al., 2025) utilizes per-layer entropy to guide adaptive memory allocation, ensuring that scarce VRAM is physically reserved for information-dense layers, increasing the maximum supported sequence length on a single device.

Shared State Serving and Persistence. For multi-turn or multi-user scenarios, the system bottleneck shifts to the repeated loading of redundant contexts. Reuse-oriented architectures decouple the logical KV state from its physical storage, enabling zero-copy sharing across requests. MPIC (Zhao et al., 2025c) implements position-independent caching, allowing the serving backend to map multiple user prompts to the same shared physical memory block, regardless of their position indices. This significantly reduces the memory bandwidth requirement for prefix loading. At the industrial scale, Gemini 1.5 (Team et al., 2024) demonstrates the necessity of unified state management, where a centralized cache orchestration layer enables persistent context reuse across massive, heterogeneous multimodal streams. This transition from per-request computation to persistent shared memory transforms the KV cache from a temporary buffer into a globally managed system asset.

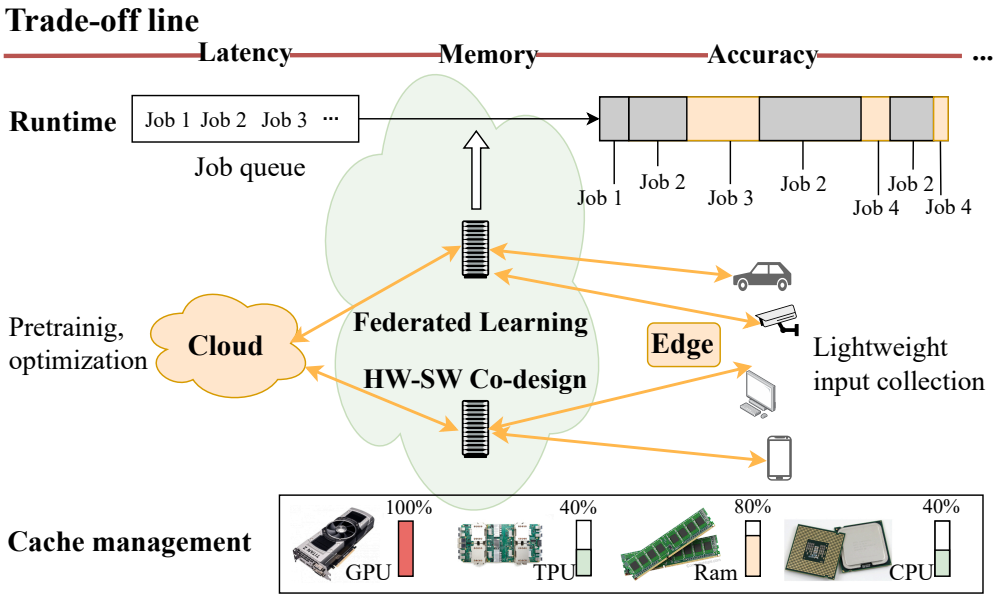

Figure 5: System-level efficiency for elastic resource orchestration. This framework illustrates the final operationalization of EML, where theoretical gains are translated into realized performance across five primary axes defined in our MAS taxonomy: (i) **KV Cache Management and Serving** to decouple memory growth from sequence length and optimize throughput; (ii) **Edge-cloud Collaboration** for establishing hierarchical cognitive pipelines and uncertainty-guided offloading; (iii) **Latency-Aware Scheduling and Pipelining** to maximize hardware utilization by reordering and overlapping cross-modal requests; (iv) **Hardware-software (HW-SW) Co-design** to natively align model architectural topology with the physical constraints of heterogeneous accelerators; and (v) **Federated Learning** to enable privacy-preserving, communication-efficient training across distributed, heterogeneous clients. Collectively, these strategies transform static multimodal execution into a dynamic, hardware-aware ecosystem.

5.2 Edge–Cloud Collaboration

Real-world multimodal deployment operates under a fundamental tension: edge devices suffer from compute limitations, while cloud servers face latency and bandwidth bottlenecks. Edge–cloud collaboration resolves this by establishing a hierarchical computing architecture that dynamically partitions workloads based on resource availability and privacy concerns.

Adaptive Inference Offloading. This paradigm treats the edge as a low-latency semantic filter and the cloud as a high-capacity reasoning engine. System-level frameworks like EdgeCloudAI (Ghasemi et al., 2024) and MoA (Yang et al., 2025f) implement split-computing architectures. Instead of transmitting raw video streams, lightweight edge modules (e.g., CNNs or small VLMs) perform preliminary analytics to filter redundant frames or extract feature embeddings. Only high-value, hard-to-resolve samples are transmitted to the cloud-hosted large model. Evaluations on testbeds like NSF COSMOS (Raychaudhuri et al., 2020) demonstrate that this adaptive partitioning significantly reduces bandwidth consumption and end-to-end latency while maintaining near-cloud accuracy.

Collaborative Continuous Learning. Beyond static inference, system efficiency also entails maintaining model relevance over time without incurring massive data transfer costs. Frameworks for Cloud–Device Collaborative Adaptation (Gan et al., 2023) introduce uncertainty-guided interaction mechanisms. Here, edge devices utilize uncertainty quantification to identify out-of-distribution or ambiguous samples. Only these "hard" examples are uploaded for cloud-based labeling and training, after which a distilled, lightweight update is synchronized back to the edge. This bidirectional loop minimizes communication overhead and

preserves privacy by keeping routine data local, ensuring that the system continuously adapts to evolving environments with minimal operational cost.

5.3 Latency-Aware Scheduling and Pipelining

Achieving low-latency multimodal inference requires moving beyond simple sequential execution to sophisticated scheduling that maximizes hardware utilization. Multimodal models introduce a unique system challenge: the "stalled pipeline" problem, where the large language model (LLM) often sits idle waiting for the visual encoder to process high-resolution images. System-level scheduling addresses this by optimizing the timeline of execution—reordering, overlapping, and routing requests to hide latency bubbles.

Asynchronous Pipelining and Overlap. To alleviate the computational stalls inherent in sequential cross-modal dependencies, recent system-level frameworks prioritize fine-grained temporal parallelism. RServe (Guo et al., 2025a) introduces a split-scheduling architecture that actively interleaves compute-intensive vision encoding with the language prefill phases of concurrent requests. By decoupling these execution stages and managing per-request embeddings asynchronously, it effectively masks the latency of visual encoding, yielding a 2× throughput improvement over traditional sequential serving. For high-throughput streaming environments, Inf-MLLM (Ning et al., 2024) employs a streaming-aware scheduler that dynamically governs the token memory lifecycle through adaptive KV retention. This methodology enables sustained long-context generation on a single GPU while significantly curtailing the latency spikes characteristic of heuristic eviction policies such as H2O (Zhang et al., 2023c).

Heterogeneous Routing and Tiering. In distributed environments, latency is optimized by routing requests to the most appropriate resource tier. Yuan et al. (Yuan et al., 2025) propose a decoupled architecture for edge-cloud systems, where lightweight encoders run on edge devices and LLMs on servers. They employ a Gaussian Process-Upper Confidence Bound (GP-UCB) scheduler to dynamically select the optimal offloading target and power configuration, minimizing energy consumption under strict latency constraints. At the production scale, Amazon Nova (Langford et al., 2025) adopts a tiered deployment strategy (Micro, Lite, Pro, Premier). By routing queries based on complexity—sending simple captioning tasks to cheaper models and complex reasoning to larger ones—the system satisfies strict Service Level Agreements (SLAs) while optimizing the global cost-latency trade-off.

5.4 Hardware-Software Co-design

As multimodal models scale, system efficiency is increasingly constrained by the mismatch between algorithmic requirements and hardware capabilities. Specifically, multimodal workloads exhibit diverse *arithmetic intensities*: dense layers in LLMs are typically compute-bound, while high-resolution visual encoders or attention mechanisms are often memory-bound. Hardware-software co-design addresses this by aligning the model's operational structure with the physical topology of the underlying accelerators.

Workload Characterization and Mapping. The first strategy involves systematically profiling operators to map them onto the most suitable heterogeneous hardware units. Golden et al. (Golden et al., 2024) demonstrate that treating all layers uniformly leads to resource underutilization. By characterizing the compute intensity and bandwidth demands of multimodal kernels, they propose a heterogeneity-aware mapping strategy. Compute-dense modules (e.g., large MLPs) are routed to high-FLOP units (like GPUs), while bandwidth-bound operations (e.g., normalization) are allocated to memory-rich processors or near-memory compute units. This approach minimizes data movement—the primary energy consumer in modern chips—by ensuring that each hardware component processes the workload type it was designed for.

Joint Architecture-Hardware Search. Instead of fitting a fixed model onto hardware, the second strategy uses Neural Architecture Search (NAS) to co-optimize the model structure and its deployment parameters. Harmonic-NAS (Ghebriout et al., 2024) exemplifies this joint optimization paradigm. It searches for modality-specific backbones and fusion networks under strict hardware constraints (e.g., latency, energy, or peak memory on an edge device). By incorporating hardware feedback directly into the search loop, it discovers a Pareto frontier of architectures that maximize accuracy within specific physical budgets. This

effectively shifts the design process from a sequential "train-then-deploy" workflow to a unified co-design loop, producing hybrid architectures natively efficient for their target deployment platforms.

5.5 Federated Learning

In scenarios involving sensitive data—such as medical imaging or personal sensor streams—centralized training is often precluded by privacy regulations and bandwidth constraints. Federated Multimodal Learning (FML) addresses this by training models across distributed clients while keeping raw data local. From a system perspective, the primary bottleneck in FML is the communication overhead of synchronizing large multimodal backbones. To mitigate this, the standard aggregation protocol (FedAvg) is often adapted to exchange only lightweight updates. Formally, in communication round t, the server aggregates updates from K clients as:

$$w_{t+1} = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{n_k}{n} w_t^{(k)}, \qquad n = \sum_{k=1}^{K} n_k, \tag{6}$$

where w represents the learnable parameters (often restricted to adapters or prompts rather than full weights), and n_k denotes the local sample count.

Communication-Efficient Tuning. To avoid transmitting massive gradients of foundational models, recent systems focus on parameter-efficient federated tuning. FedCLIP (Lu et al., 2023) and PFedPrompt (Guo et al., 2023) freeze heavy multimodal backbones and exchange only lightweight adapters or prompt vectors. This reduces communication payload by orders of magnitude (from GBs to MBs per round) while utilizing the generalization power of pre-trained models. Similarly, CreamFL (Yu et al., 2023) and FedMEKT (Le et al., 2025) perform aggregation at the representation level (knowledge distillation) rather than the parameter level, further decoupling communication cost from model size.

Heterogeneity and Missing Modalities. A unique system challenge in FML is device heterogeneity: different clients may possess different sensor configurations (e.g., some have cameras, others only IMUs). Frameworks like FedCMR (Zong et al., 2021) and PmcmFL (Bao et al., 2023) address this via missing-modality robustness mechanisms. PmcmFL aligns local embeddings to a shared prototype library, enabling the global model to aggregate knowledge from heterogeneous clients even when specific modalities are absent locally. Additionally, participant selection strategies like mmFedMC (Yuan et al., 2024) estimate the Shapley value of each client's modality contribution, ensuring that the system prioritizes high-quality, diverse updates to maximize convergence speed under bandwidth limits.

Modality-Specific Privacy Disentanglement. For sensor-rich environments, system efficiency also involves disentangling private user attributes from shared task features (Dai et al., 2024). Approaches like FDARN (Yang et al., 2022) and MCARN (Yang et al., 2024c) employ dual-encoder architectures to separate modality-agnostic (shared) features from modality-specific (private) noise. By aggregating only the shared components, these systems reduce the dimensionality of the uploaded update and enhance privacy guarantees, ensuring that the system learns generalizable patterns without overfitting to device-specific noise.

5.6 Discussion and Key Insights

System-level efficiency marks the final operationalization of EML, where theoretical algorithmic gains are translated into realized performance under physical constraints. Our synthesis reveals that at this layer, efficiency has evolved from a localized optimization of FLOPs into a global orchestration of data movement, temporal alignment, and trust:

- **Transitioning from Arithmetic to I/O-Bound Resource Management:** In production-scale MLLM serving, the primary bottleneck has shifted from arithmetic intensity to memory bandwidth and I/O overheads. Modern system efficiency is defined by the fluidity of the KV cache lifecycle. By treating the KV cache as a globally managed, persistent asset rather than a transient per-request buffer, systems can decouple memory growth from context length, transforming memory fragmentation into a manageable pool of high-throughput tokens.

- **Hierarchical Cognitive Pipelining via Edge-Cloud Symbiosis:** Edge-cloud collaboration transcends simple workload partitioning; it establishes a hierarchical cognitive pipeline mirroring biological sensory systems. By utilizing the edge as a low-latency semantic filter to prune modal redundancy, the system reserves cloud-scale reasoning for high-value outliers. This synergy ensures that efficiency is maintained through continuous, uncertainty-guided adaptation across the device-cloud continuum, effectively balancing the trilemma of latency, bandwidth, and accuracy.
- **Structural-Temporal Symbiosis as a Design Necessity:** The "stalled pipeline" problem in multimodal workloads exposes the mismatch between fixed-topology accelerators and dynamic cross-modal dependencies. True efficiency emerges when the model's structural topology is natively aligned with its temporal execution. Through joint architecture-hardware co-design and modality-aware scheduling, the design process evolves into a unified co-design loop that eliminates pipeline bubbles and minimizes data movement—the primary energy consumer in modern infrastructure.
- **Privacy-Efficiency-Utility Equilibrium in Decentralized EML:** As EML extends to sensitive domains, privacy is no longer a post-hoc constraint but a systemic dimension of efficiency. FML requires a delicate equilibrium: optimizing communication costs through parameter-efficient tuning while maintaining robustness against missing modalities. The future lies in privacy-aware resource economy, where modality-specific feature disentanglement enables secure, high-fidelity collaboration without the overhead of centralized data aggregation.

Ultimately, these insights posit that the future of EML lies in *elastic resource orchestration*—a self-regulating infrastructure that dynamically reconfigures its compute, memory, and communication pathways to satisfy the volatile, multi-objective demands of real-world multimodal intelligence.

6 Efficient MLLMs

Rather than an isolated research niche, Efficient MLLMs serve as the ultimate proving ground for our MAS framework. The evolution of this field, as visualized in Fig. 6, reveals a distinct maturity curve: a trajectory that begins with **architectural consolidation**, pivots toward **algorithmic refinement**, and is currently converging on **system-level orchestration**.

6.1 The Evolutionary Trajectory: From Models to Systems

The chronological progression of MLLM efficiency (see Fig. 6) reflects the shifting bottlenecks of large-scale efficient multimodal intelligence:

- **The Foundational Era (Model-Centric):** Initial efforts primarily targeted the training bottleneck. Early frameworks like BLIP-2 (Li et al., 2023c) and LLaVA (Liu et al., 2023a) focused on minimizing the cost of cross-modal alignment through modular adapters and frozen backbones. This era established the principle of "architectural frugality", where efficiency was synonymous with parameter-efficient fine-tuning.
- **The Inference Pivot (Algorithm-Centric):** As MLLMs moved toward deployment, the bottleneck shifted to memory and latency limits. Algorithm-level strategies matured from static pruning to dynamic runtime reduction. Innovations like LOOK-M (Wan et al., 2024) and Spec-VLA (Wang et al., 2025d) demonstrate a move toward "semantic-aware execution", where computation is selectively allocated to critical tokens (e.g., text-guided KV merging) to sustain long-context reasoning within fixed hardware envelopes.
- **The Deployment Frontier (System-Centric):** Most recently, we observe a significant surge in system-level optimizations—a trend driven by the transition from lab prototypes to high-throughput production. Works such as MiniCPM-V (Yao et al., 2024), EdgeShard (Zhang et al., 2024a), MPIC (Zhao et al., 2025c), and the speed-oriented co-design of Gemini 3-Flash (Google, 2025) highlight that the current frontier lies in resource orchestration. This shift acknowledges that even

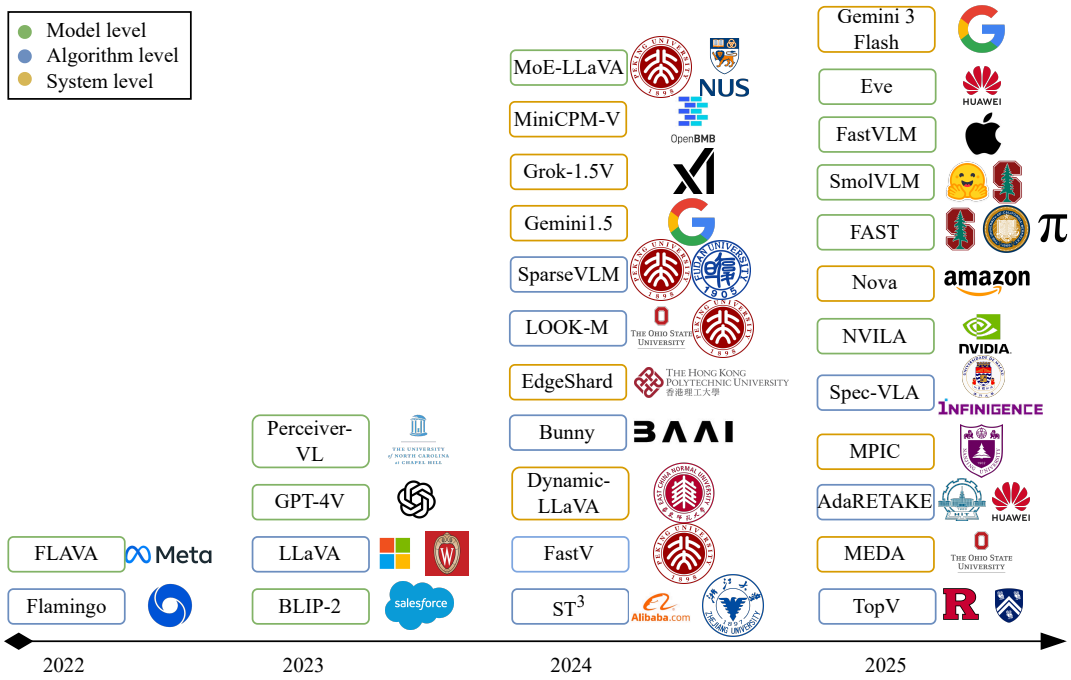

Figure 6: Chronological overview of representative efficient MLLMs. Models are categorized by primary optimization level: **model-level** (green), **algorithm-level** (blue), and **system-level** (orange). This distribution highlights a distinct paradigm shift, where model- and algorithm-level optimizations are dominant in the early stages, while system-level resource orchestration has gained significant prominence in recent years.

the most efficient model can fail in real-world scenarios without asynchronous pipelining and elastic memory management.

6.2 Discussion: Vertical Synergy as the Final Frontier

Our analysis of the MLLM landscape reveals three key insights regarding the synergy between MAS layers:

- **Decoupling Capacity from Cost:** Structural sparsity (e.g., MoE-LLaVA (Lin et al., 2024a)) represents a successful synthesis of model-level topology and algorithmic routing. By decoupling total parameters from active FLOPs, MLLMs are evolving into "sparse-active" systems that can scale in knowledge without scaling in inference latency.
- **The Convergence of Perception and Scheduling:** Recent systems like FastVLM (Vasu et al., 2025) and NVILA (Liu et al., 2025b) suggest that the boundary between "visual perception" and "system scheduling" is blurring. By designing architectures that are natively compatible with CUDA-graph execution and kernel fusion, these models ensure that architectural efficiency translates directly into wall-clock speed gains.
- **Towards Self-Regulating Computation:** The emerging trend of adaptive efficiency (e.g., MiniCPM-V (Yao et al., 2024)) suggests a future where MLLMs learn not only to reason, but to *self-regulate*. In this paradigm, efficiency becomes an internal optimization objective where the model autonomously decides the optimal path across the MAS stack—choosing *what* (Model), *how* (Algorithm), and *where* (System) to compute based on real-time constraints.

To conclude, efficient MLLMs serve as the genesis of multimodal systems where efficiency is no longer an afterthought, but an intrinsic, self-regulating property of intelligent computation.

7 Applications and Benchmarks

After detailing the methodological advances in the preceding sections, we now turn to the diverse application domains and benchmarking ecosystems that serve as the primary drivers for EML. As summarized in Table 2, these domains are not merely downstream tasks but represent distinct frontiers where the efficiency-performance trade-off is governed by specific physical and operational constraints. From the millisecond-latency requirements of autonomous driving to the memory-intensive horizons of long-video understanding, these applications necessitate a tight integration of MAS optimizations.

Table 2: A Taxonomy of application domains and benchmarks in EML. This table highlights the diverse modality combinations—ranging from canonical audio-visual pairs to complex sensor streams—that necessitate domain-specific MAS optimization strategies to balance computational fidelity with deployment constraints. V: Visual, T: Text, A: Audio, S: Spatial (LiDAR+GPS+Radar), D: Depth, Act: Action, Sen: Sensor, Tab: Tables, Cha: Charts.

Applications	**Task**	**Benchmark**	**Modalities**
Affective Computing	Sentiment Analysis, Emotion & Behavior Recognition	CMU-MOSI (Zadeh et al., 2016), CMU-MOSEI (Zadeh et al., 2018), IEMOCAP (Busso et al., 2008), MELD (Poria et al., 2019), CH-SIMS (Yu et al., 2020)	V+T+A
Embodied AI & Robotics	VLN, Manipulation, Embodied Agents	R2R (Anderson et al., 2018), REVERIE (Qi et al., 2020), ALFRED (Shridhar et al., 2020), Ego4D (Grauman et al., 2022), TEACh (Padmakumar et al., 2022), Habitat (Savva et al., 2019)	V+D, T+S+Act
Media Understanding & Generation	Video QA, Streaming Analysis, Retrieval & Generation	MSR-VTT (Xu et al., 2016), TVR (Lei et al., 2020b), Video-MME (Fu et al., 2024), MVBench (Li et al., 2024b), LAION-5B (Schuhmann et al., 2022), WebVid2M (Bain et al., 2021), TVQA+ (Lei et al., 2020a), AVA ActiveSpeaker (Roth et al., 2020)	V+T+A
Healthcare	Radiology Analysis, Clinical Speech, Digital Twin	MIMIC-CXR (Johnson et al., 2019), IU-Xray (Demner-Fushman et al., 2015), PPMI (Marek et al., 2011), MedVidQA (Gupta et al., 2023), mPower (Bot et al., 2016)	V+T+A+Sen
Spatial Understanding	Autonomous Driving, 3D Scene Reconstruction	nuScenes (Caesar et al., 2020), Waymo Open Dataset (Sun et al., 2020), KITTI (Geiger et al., 2012), Argoverse (Chang et al., 2019), Drive&Act (Martin et al., 2019)	V+S+IMU
Multimodal Reasoning	VQA, Math Reasoning, Visual Dialogue	VQAv2 (Goyal et al., 2017), GQA (Hudson & Manning, 2019), OK-VQA (Marino et al., 2019), VCR (Zellers et al., 2019), ScienceQA (Lu et al., 2022), MathVista (Lu et al., 2024b), ChartQA (Masry et al., 2022)	Tab+Cha+V+T

7.1 Affective Computing

Affective computing serves as a critical frontier for EML, where the objective of inferring nuanced human emotions from tri-modal cues—audio, visual, and linguistic—is fundamentally constrained by temporal transience and stringent privacy imperatives (Wang et al., 2025c). The core efficiency challenge in this domain lies in the high-frequency and ephemeral nature of affective signals, which necessitates a transition from computationally expensive monolithic encoders toward modular, on-device adaptation. Within our MAS framework, affective computing exemplifies a classic case of cross-layer synergy: model-level adapter tuning minimizes the memory footprint of backbone networks to enable rapid task specialization, while algorithm-level innovations—such as the dynamic token pruning and quantized inference utilized in UGotMe (Li et al., 2025b)—exploit the inherent spatiotemporal redundancy in facial and vocal features to achieve real-time responsiveness. This structural decoupling ensures that the generative reasoning engine is only invoked for high-entropy emotional transitions, while routine behavioral monitoring is offloaded to efficient primitives. Ultimately, these advancements move toward a paradigm of empathetic edge intelligence, where system-level constraints on latency and power consumption dictate the selection of lightweight fusion strategies, ensuring that affective intelligence remains continuous, responsive, and privacy-preserving without reliance on cloud-based orchestration.

7.2 Embodied AI and Robotics

Embodied AI and robotics represent the physical manifestation of EML, where the sensory-motor loop demands absolute synchronization between high-dimensional perception and real-time action generation under strict latency envelopes. The primary efficiency bottleneck in this domain arises from the explosive computational complexity of Vision-Language-Action (VLA) trajectories, necessitating a transition from static mapping to resource-aware execution (Chen et al., 2025c). Within our MAS framework, foundational systems like PaLM-E (Li et al., 2025e) and RT-2 (Zitkovich et al., 2023) exemplify how model-level structural priors and system-level asynchronous pipelining coalesce to hide the latency of compute-intensive visual encoding behind lightweight action decoding loops. This evolution highlights a broader movement toward adaptive sensor orchestration, where the agent dynamically modulates its perceptual resolution or sensor sampling rate based on task uncertainty. By utilizing the MAS system layer to prioritize computational budgets for high-stakes manipulation or navigation sub-goals, these systems effectively bridge the gap between abstract understanding and embodied reality, ensuring that multimodal intelligence remains responsive and scalable within the physical bounds of mobile hardware.

7.3 Media Understanding and Generation

Media understanding and generation drive the frontiers of EML by interpreting and synthesizing content across vast spatiotemporal horizons, where efficiency is governed by the quadratic complexity of multimodal attention (Ye et al., 2025a; He et al., 2024a). The core challenge in this domain is to exploit the massive inherent redundancy in high-resolution video and audio streams to enable long-context reasoning without memory collapse. Recent innovations pivot from dense global modeling toward content-aware execution, utilizing algorithmic token pruning and temporal windowing—as demonstrated in Video-ChatGPT (Maaz et al., 2024) and CLIPER (Wu et al., 2024b)—to linearize the computational footprint of high-resolution media. This domain serves as a primary proving ground for MAS system-level orchestration, where the reuse of KV cache states and the dynamic offloading of cold tokens allow MLLMs to sustain effectively infinite context windows for streaming analysis. By aligning model-level structural sparsity with system-level memory persistence, media systems are evolving into responsive, long-form interpreters capable of real-time retrieval and generative QA across massive, heterogeneous archives.

7.4 Healthcare

In clinical intelligence, efficiency is a structural necessity due to massive imaging data, strict privacy regulations, and limited on-site compute. The goal is to maximize diagnostic fidelity while minimizing the computational footprint of multimodal stacks. Recent advances demonstrate a shift toward model-level

specialization (Zhao et al., 2026); for instance, pretraining frameworks like BioViL-T (Bannur et al., 2023) extend beyond static image-report pairs to model longitudinal radiology studies, improving report grounding through the structural alignment of temporal data. Complementing this, algorithm-level innovations focus on augmenting compact backbones with structured expertise. Knowledge-enhanced systems like KARGEN (Li et al., 2024c) fuse disease graphs with frozen LLMs to mitigate hallucinations, proving that specialized, instruction-tuned architectures like CXR-LLaVA (Lee et al., 2025a) can outperform massive general-purpose VLMs in radiology reporting tasks while maintaining a fraction of the inference cost. Furthermore, EML operationalizes efficiency via cost-effective curriculum learning, as evidenced by LLaVA-Med (Li et al., 2023a), which facilitates the rapid training of biomedical assistants in under 15 hours by transitioning from basic vocabulary alignment to complex reasoning. Beyond imaging, multimodal pathology models enable slide-level diagnosis, while speech- and sensor-based systems (Ji & Zhou, 2024; Ji et al., 2025a) support clinical monitoring. Ultimately, these efforts converge on a privacy-centric system orchestration, where system-level deployment on secure, on-site hardware necessitates the MAS synergy of lightweight fusion and verifiable reasoning to ensure scalable, interpretable, and ethically-compliant clinical intelligence.

7.5 Spatial Understanding

Spatial understanding, even physical understanding, represents a critical efficiency frontier where high-fidelity geometric perception—integrating LiDAR, camera, and radar signals—must operate within the rigid latency and energy envelopes of edge devices. The bottleneck in this domain lies in the inherent dimensionality of 3D sensor streams, necessitating a paradigm shift from dense volumetric fusion to projection-based efficiency. Frameworks like PointPillars (Lang et al., 2019) and BEVFusion (Liu et al., 2023b) operationalize this by projecting sparse 3D point clouds into compact 2D Bird's-Eye-View (BEV) grids, significantly reducing memory bandwidth and kernel launch overheads while preserving the geometric fidelity essential for safe navigation. This evolution highlights a deeper synergy between model topology and hardware-software co-design, where the architectural layout is natively aligned with the memory-access patterns of automotive-grade accelerators to prevent the "stalled pipeline" problem in multi-sensor synchronization. Furthermore, algorithmic innovations like FusionPainting (Xu et al., 2021) refine this process through sparse hybrid fusion, utilizing cross-modal semantic "painting" to minimize redundant computation by focusing resources on informative regions rather than exhaustive global processing. Together, these advancements move toward a heterogeneity-aware paradigm, where the system orchestrates the mapping of compute-dense modules to high-FLOP units and memory-bound operations to near-memory compute units, ultimately enabling real-time, efficient spatial intelligence that maintains high-resolution grounding under tight compute budgets.

7.6 Multimodal Reasoning

Multimodal reasoning marks the critical transition from sensory perception to symbolic intelligence, necessitating the synthesis of heterogeneous evidence for multi-step decision-making. The primary bottleneck of monolithic transformers in this domain is the propensity for semantic hallucinations and logic collapses during multi-step inference, which traditionally necessitates massive parameter redundancy to maintain stability. To address this, the field is shifting from dense statistical mapping—exemplified by early cross-attention models like UNITER (Chen et al., 2020)—toward modular functional decoupling. Frameworks such as ViperGPT (Surís et al., 2023) and VisProg (Gupta & Kembhavi, 2023) operationalize this by redefining reasoning as a programmatic execution problem, where the LLM serves as a high-level planner that invokes specialized, low-latency sub-routines only for necessary perceptual sub-goals. This structural evolution ensures that expensive generative resources are reserved for deliberative logic while routine sensory grounding is offloaded to efficient primitives, effectively embodying a "Thinking Fast and Slow" paradigm within the MAS system layer. Furthermore, in high-stakes domains such as mathematics and physics, specialized architectures like MathGLM-vision (Yang et al., 2024d) and ScienceQA (Lu et al., 2022) integrate verifiable process rewards to prune erroneous reasoning paths early, demonstrating how structured decomposition allows compact models to achieve high symbolic fidelity while minimizing the cumulative computational footprint of long-horizon tasks. Ultimately, these advancements move toward a neuro-symbolic synergy where efficiency is realized through the strategic orchestration of a hierarchical model stack, balancing expressive power with verifiable resource economy.

8 Holistic Discussion: Methodological Synthesis and Application-Driven Insights

The preceding analysis of model, algorithm, and system levels establishes that EML is no longer a collection of isolated optimization tricks, but a sophisticated exercise in cross-layer co-design. This section synthesizes these dimensions into a unified methodological framework, exploring how vertical synergy and application-specific constraints redefine the boundaries of multimodal intelligence.

8.1 The Mechanics of Vertical Synergy

The fundamental insight of the MAS framework lies in the realization that efficiency gains are non-linear; the most profound accelerations occur at the intersection of layers rather than within them. At the **model-algorithm interface**, we observe that structural decisions—such as the transition from dual-stream encoders to unified, sequence-based foundations—do not merely simplify the architecture but fundamentally reshape the optimization landscape for algorithmic compression. Unified foundations provide a homogeneous semantic space that mitigates the modality-specific outlier distributions that historically plagued quantization and pruning. Furthermore, the **algorithm-system nexus** reveals that theoretical compression (e.g., sub-4-bit quantization or token eviction) only translates into realized speedups when natively supported by hardware-aware execution kernels. The evolution from generic matrix multiplication toward specialized tensor-core utilization and kernel fusion highlights that algorithmic sparsity must be structured and hardware-aligned to bypass the memory-wall constraints of modern accelerators. Ultimately, true efficiency emerges when the model's structural topology is designed to be natively compatible with the system's execution dynamics, ensuring that every theoretical efficiency manifests as a measurable gain in wall-clock throughput.

8.2 Application-Driven Tactical Blueprints

The deployment of EML systems is rarely a pursuit of universal optimality; instead, it is a pragmatic navigation of the "Efficiency-Utility-Privacy" trilemma, dictated by the unique physical and regulatory constraints of specific domains. In **Latency-Critical environments** such as embodied AI and autonomous driving, the blueprint prioritizes structural-temporal symbiosis. Here, the system must utilize the edge-cloud continuum not as a simple storage tier, but as a hierarchical cognitive pipeline where low-level sensory filtering at the edge prevents bandwidth-induced decision stalls. Conversely, in **Fidelity-Critical domains** like medical imaging and scientific discovery, the optimization focus shifts toward precision-preserving algorithms and federated system architectures. In these contexts, the methodological goal is to ensure that aggressive discretization does not erode the delicate semantic nuances required for diagnostic accuracy, while simultaneously utilizing decentralized learning to bypass the overhead of massive data aggregation. Finally, **Throughput-Oriented cloud services** demand a decoupling of capacity from cost, favoring structural sparsity (e.g., MoE) and aggressive cache management. By aligning the resource lifecycle with the momentary semantic complexity of user queries, these systems can sustain massive concurrent horizons within finite hardware budgets, demonstrating that the "optimal" MAS configuration is a dynamic, domain-specific equilibrium.

8.3 Reframing Efficiency: Toward Self-Regulating Intelligence

Looking beyond current methodologies, the synthesis of MAS layers points toward a fundamental reframing of efficiency: the transition from post-hoc adjustments to intrinsic, self-regulating properties. Historically, efficiency was treated as a secondary constraint—a "patch" applied to a pre-trained model for deployment. However, the emergence of natively efficient foundations and adaptive execution graphs suggests a future where intelligence and efficiency are inseparable. We envision a regime of cognitive-aware orchestration, where multimodal systems possess an internal representation of their own computational cost and hardware environment. In this paradigm, the model autonomously decides *what* information to process (Model), *how* to compress the computation (Algorithm), and *where* to execute the workload (System) based on real-time uncertainty and resource availability. This evolution toward self-regulating computation marks the final stage of the transition from models to systems, where efficiency is no longer an external metric to be minimized, but an emergent property of the model's fundamental structural design—an inherent parsimony that mirrors the biological efficiency of the human brain in processing the multimodal complexity of the physical world.

9 Open Challenges and Future Directions

Despite rapid progress in EML domain, several challenges remain unresolved. We summarize key questions and outline promising directions to drive the next generation of scalable, deployable, and intelligent multimodal systems—across both understanding and generation tasks.

9.1 Unified Tokenization Across Modalities

Unified multimodal scaling faces a critical bottleneck in *tokenization*—the translation of continuous signals into discrete transformer-compatible units. Current modality-specific tokenizers often suffer from semantic misalignment and disparate sequence lengths, destabilizing compute budgets and hindering efficient unified pretraining. A pivotal frontier is universal tokenization, which aligns diverse modalities within a shared semantic space while dynamically adapting granularity to satisfy strict latency and memory constraints. Promising directions include shared discrete codebooks for semantic alignment, variable-rate hierarchical strategies to compress redundancy, and tokenizer-scheduler co-design to optimize KV-cache reuse and streaming inference. Future benchmarks must standardize evaluation under fixed token budgets to rigorously assess these unified efficiency gains.

9.2 Multimodal Multi-Task Generalization & Robustness

Current efficient models are often optimized for specific modality pairs (e.g., vision–language), leaving their transferability to new tasks or missing-modality scenarios unproven. A critical challenge is ensuring that efficiency gains are intrinsic to the architecture rather than overfitted to a specific dataset configuration. Future research must move beyond narrow, single-domain evaluations to establish cross-modal efficiency benchmarks. These should rigorously stress-test transferability—such as training on one modality set and evaluating resource-accuracy trade-offs on another—to ensure robust deployment across heterogeneous real-world conditions.

9.3 Hardware-Software Co-Design and Deployment

Bridging the gap between algorithmic efficiency and physical realization requires a paradigm shift toward hardware-software co-design. While optimization kernels for unimodal tasks (e.g., CNNs, LLMs) are mature, hardware support for multimodal interaction mechanisms—such as high-bandwidth cross-attention and dynamic modality switching—remains sparse. Future research must move beyond generic optimizations to develop multimodal-native accelerators and compiler-aware strategies, including operator fusion for fusion layers and hardware-friendly sparsity patterns. Furthermore, deploying on constrained platforms (mobile, AR/VR, robotics) necessitates robust edge–cloud orchestration to dynamically balance on-device latency with cloud-scale reasoning.

9.4 Human-Centric and Perceptual Efficiency

True efficiency extends beyond minimizing computational overhead to maximizing Quality of Experience (QoE) for the end-user. Current metrics (e.g., FLOPs, latency) often fail to capture human-centric constraints such as cognitive load, perceptual latency, and fairness. For instance, in real-time multimodal interaction, users are often sensitive to response fluidity and initial time-to-token rather than total throughput. A critical frontier lies in aligning system-level optimization with human perception thresholds. This involves redefining loss functions to penalize latency spikes that disrupt cognitive flow, and designing adaptive systems that trade off imperceptible fidelity drops for gains in interactivity. Future research must bridge the gap between system efficiency (resource usage) and user efficacy (satisfaction and interpretability).

9.5 Privacy-Aware Efficiency and Security

The pursuit of efficiency often necessitates trade-offs that jeopardize security, such as offloading inference to the cloud or employing aggressive compression that may inadvertently widen the attack surface for model

inversion. Current research on jointly optimizing efficiency and privacy—such as secure aggregation or compressed encrypted inference—remains sparse, particularly for high-dimensional, sensitive modalities like medical imaging and voice biometrics. A critical future direction is the co-design of efficiency and privacy, moving beyond post-hoc defenses. This includes developing architectural sparsification (e.g., pruning, routing) that is intrinsically resistant to membership inference attacks, and designing multi-objective systems that dynamically optimize latency, energy, and privacy budgets. Ultimately, the field will provide a reliable solution to the "Privacy-Efficiency-Utility" trilemma to enable trusted multimodal deployment.

10 Conclusion

This survey presents a comprehensive roadmap for Efficient Multimodal Learning, synthesizing over 300 studies into a unified Model–Algorithm–System taxonomy. We demonstrate that efficiency arises from the synergistic co-design of compact architectures, adaptive algorithms, and hardware-aware orchestration, rather than isolated optimizations. This reveals a critical paradigm shift: efficiency is evolving from a post-hoc constraint into an intrinsic design primitive. This work guides future work in navigating performance–cost trade-offs, paving the way for multimodal systems that are capable, robust, sustainable, and deployable across real-world applications.

Broader Impact Statement

The rapid proliferation of multimodal learning, especially MLLMs, has ushered in a critical "efficiency wall", where the exponential demand for computational power and memory threatens the scalability, accessibility, and sustainability of multimodal intelligence. This survey, through the systematic lens of the MAS taxonomy, delivers a multi-faceted impact on the research community and broader society.

1. Advancing the Academic Paradigm Toward Full-stack Co-design. The primary intellectual merit of this work lies in transforming Efficient Multimodal Learning (EML) from a collection of isolated, modality-specific heuristics into a structured, engineering discipline. By establishing the MAS framework, this paper provides a unified blueprint for "vertical synergies"—encouraging researchers to move beyond single-layer optimizations toward hardware-aware architectural search and algorithm-system co-design. This holistic perspective is essential for demystifying the complexity of multimodal interactions and establishing a theoretical foundation for where and how efficiency can be injected without collapsing semantic fidelity.

2. Democratization of High-Capability AI. Multimodal intelligence is currently concentrated within resource-rich industrial laboratories due to the prohibitive costs of training and serving massive models. This survey fosters the democratization of AI by systematizing strategies like parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT), knowledge distillation, and modular adaptation. These methodologies lower the barrier to entry, empowering researchers and developers with limited compute budgets to build and specialize high-performing multimodal systems. Furthermore, the emphasis on on-device EML ensures that advanced AI capabilities are no longer tethered to massive cloud infrastructures, allowing for pervasive, decentralized intelligence in various local environments.

3. Environmental Sustainability and "Green AI". As the carbon footprint of training and deploying large-scale AI becomes a global concern, the transition toward EML is a structural necessity for environmental sustainability. By promoting techniques that linearize quadratic complexity ($O(N^2) \rightarrow O(N)$) and maximize hardware utilization per watt, this work directly supports the global effort toward "Green AI". The focus on KV-cache reuse, token compression, and persistent state management reduces the cumulative energy consumption of long-horizon multimodal generation, making massive-scale deployment socially and environmentally responsible.

4. Societal Safety, Privacy, and Human-Centric AI. Beyond hardware metrics, the MAS framework emphasizes that computational efficiency must ultimately serve human-centric objectives. As EML systematically lowers deployment barriers, advanced multimodal models are increasingly migrating to ubiquitous edge devices. In sensitive domains such as healthcare and affective computing, the paradigm shift toward on-device inference—enabled by algorithmic compressions like quantization and modular adaptation—fundamentally

realizes "privacy-by-design" by retaining user data locally. However, this pervasive decentralization introduces an inherent security dichotomy: while it minimizes data-in-transit risks, it amplifies exposure to edge-specific vulnerabilities. Operating in physically accessible, low-power environments necessitates robust architectural safeguards to defend against adversarial model extraction and physical tampering, ensuring that ubiquitous intelligence strictly preserves user trust. Furthermore, in high-stakes arenas such as embodied AI and autonomous systems, computational efficiency is inextricably linked to physical safety. By drastically minimizing "perception-action latency", the optimization strategies outlined in this survey empower intelligent agents to process real-world stimuli in near-real-time, effectively mitigating the risk of catastrophic failures in highly dynamic and unpredictable environments.

In summary, this work offers a roadmap for the next generation of multimodal systems where efficiency is not a post-hoc optimization, but an intrinsic, self-regulating property that aligns artificial intelligence with the physical and ethical constraints of the human world.

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Appendix

A Case Study

To validate the descriptive and prescriptive power of the Model–Algorithm–System (MAS) framework, we conduct a retrospective analysis of a real-world edge multimodal system: the ultra-low-power audio–text emotion recognition pipeline by Mitsis et al. (Mitsis et al., 2025). While this system predates our framework, its design trajectory offers a compelling validation: under strict deployment constraints, the optimization choices naturally converge toward the principles codified in MAS. This case study demonstrates how the MAS framework serves as both an explanatory lens for existing successful designs and a principled blueprint for future resource-constrained multimodal systems.

A.1 Model Level: Topology and Primitive Selection

Hardware-Aligned Encoder Specialization. The MAS model level dictates that architectural topology must be intrinsically decoupled from redundancy. Consistent with this, the case system avoids generic large-scale backbones, opting for *modality-specific specialization*: a compact transformer with a CNN front-end for acoustics, and a lightweight keyword-spotting encoder for text. These choices reflect core MAS design primitives: early dimensionality reduction, the use of depthwise separable convolutions, and unified embedding dimensions to facilitate low-cost fusion.

Minimalist Late Fusion. To balance expressivity with latency, the system employs a fusion strategy that strictly separates representation learning from cross-modal reasoning—a key MAS recommendation for edge devices. The fusion head is implemented as a lightweight two-layer MLP:

$$h_{\text{cat}} = \text{Concat}(h^{(a)}, h^{(t)}), \quad \hat{y} = \text{Softmax}(W_2, \sigma(W_1 h_{\text{cat}})), \tag{7}$$

where σ denotes the activation function. This design minimizes parameters and avoids the quadratic complexity of cross-attention, ensuring the fusion mechanism remains agnostic to input sequence length and friendly to cache-limited hardware.

Constraint-Aware Primitive Selection. The MAS framework emphasizes that "efficiency starts at design time". This is evident in the system's architectural constraints: the exclusive use of ReLU6 activations, single-head attention mechanisms, and static tensor shapes. These are not merely algorithmic preferences but model-level structural decisions explicitly chosen to map efficiently to the specific instruction set architecture (ISA) of the target Edge TPU.

A.2 Algorithm Level: Flow Modulation and Robustness

Pre-Deployment Adaptation. The training pipeline exemplifies the MAS principle of "optimizing information flow before physical mapping". Rather than relying solely on post-training compilation, this work integrates algorithmic constraints—such as quantization-aware training (QAT)—directly into the learning loop. This ensures that the model's weights learn to accommodate the precision loss inherent to 8-bit integers.

Algorithmic Substitution for Model Capacity. Instead of scaling up model depth to handle noisy real-world data, the system leverages algorithm-level robustness strategies. Aggressive domain-targeted augmentations (e.g., frequency masking, shifting) and label smoothing are employed to mitigate the domain shift between PC-recorded training data and MCU-recorded inference data. From an MAS perspective, this demonstrates how *algorithmic complexity* (during training) can effectively substitute for *model capacity* (during inference), maintaining high accuracy without inflating the parameter budget.

A.3 System Level: Execution Orchestration

Train–Inference Consistency. A recurring failure mode in multimodal deployment is the misalignment between offline data loaders and online feature extractors. The case system adheres to the MAS requirement

for *pipeline coherence* by utilizing the Silicon Labs MLTK MicroFrontend for both training and on-device inference. This ensures bit-exact consistency in spectrogram generation, eliminating a common source of system-level degradation.

Hardware-Software Co-Design. The system demonstrates the tight coupling between model architecture and hardware constraints characterized by MAS. The Edge TPU imposes strict limits: INT8-only execution, unbatched 3D tensors, and specific supported operations. The design process reflects a bidirectional optimization loop: system constraints dictated the removal of complex attention heads, while model requirements drove the selection of specific compiler directives.

Quantifiable Efficiency Gains. The final deployed system satisfies multidimensional resource budgets, validating the effectiveness of the MAS-aligned approach:

- **Latency:** ≈22 ms per inference (Real-time),
- **Storage:** 1.8 MB (INT8 quantized),
- **Memory footprint:** ≈1.4 MB peak RAM,
- **Energy:** ≈2.5 W active power.

A.4 Conclusion: MAS as a Blueprint

This analysis confirms that high-efficiency multimodal systems are not products of isolated optimizations but of vertical synergy. The case study illustrates the hierarchical reasoning inherent to MAS, which naturally yields a deployable multimodal system under real hardware constraints.

- **Model:** Define *what* to compute by selecting hardware-friendly, modality-specific topologies.
- **Algorithm:** Determine *how* to compute by embedding quantization and robustness constraints into the learning objective.
- **System:** Decide *where* to compute by enforcing pipeline consistency and respecting accelerator-specific operation sets.

B Subset of Recent Efficient Multimodal Models

Tables 3 and 4 present a curated subset of recent efficient multimodal models organized under the MAS framework. Our goal is not to enumerate all existing systems, but to highlight representative architectures that capture the dominant design patterns in practice.

Table 3: Representative efficient multimodal models summarized under the MAS framework in recent years. V: Video/Image, T: Text, A: Audio, MSM: multiple sensor modalities, Act: Action, Clin: Clinical, TS: Time series, Geo: location coordinates.

	Model	Backbone	Year	Parameters	Efficient strategy	Modalities
Model Level	Cobra (Zhao et al., 2025a)	Mamba, DINOv2-L, SigLIP	2025	2.8B/7B	Modality Specific	V+T
	LLaVA-Gemma (Hinck et al., 2024)	CLIP ViT-L+Gemma	2024	2B/7B	Modality Specific	V+T
	FW-SAT (Jiang & Chen, 2024)	Swin-Transformer–style	2024	-	Modality Specific	V+Thermal
	UGen (Tang et al., 2025)	TinyLlama	2025	1.1B	Unified	V+T
	i-Code V2 (Yang et al., 2024f)	OmniVL, WavLM Large, Z-Code	2024	1.4B	Unified	V+T+Speech
	Unified-IO 2 (Lu et al., 2024a)	Transformer+ViT-based	2024	1.1B/3.2B/6.8B	Unified	V+T+A+Act
	UNIT (Zhu et al., 2024b)	ViT-H	2024	632M	Unified	V+T
	Emu (Sun et al., 2024)	EVA-01-CLIP + LLaMA	2024	14B	Unified	V+T
	Grok-1.5V (xAI / Grok team, 2024)	Grok-1.5 LLM	2024	-	Unified	V+T
	Astrea (Yang et al., 2025e)	Vicuna-1.5, Hermes2-Yi	2025	13B/34B	Structural Sparsity	V+T
	FMT (Xu & Wang, 2025)	ResNet-50, BERT	2025	-	Structural Sparsity	V+T
	LEO-MINI (Wang et al., 2025f)	Llama3	2025	8B	Structural Sparsity	V+T
	NVILA (Liu et al., 2025b)	SigLIP, Qwen2	2025	8B/15B	Structural Sparsity	V+T
	SmolVLM (Marafioti et al., 2025)	SigLIP, SmolLM2	2025	up to 2.2B	Structural Sparsity	V+T
	Elastic EVE (Rang et al., 2025)	PanGu, ResNet-50, SigLIP, ViT-L	2025	1.8B	Structural Sparsity	V+T
	MoMa (Lin et al., 2024c)	Early-fusion multimodal Transformer	2024	1.4B/2.3B	Structural Sparsity	V+T
	MoME (Shen et al., 2024)	Vicuna-7B, CLIP, DINO, Pix2Struct	2024	7B	Structural Sparsity	V+T
	LLaVA-MoLE (Chen et al., 2024c)	LLaVA-1.5	2024	7B	Structural Sparsity	V+T
	MoE-LLaVA (Lin et al., 2024a)	MoE-LLaVA	2024	1.6B/1.8B/2.7B	Structural Sparsity	V+T
	EVE (Chen et al., 2024b)	BEiTv2-initialized	2024	-	Structural Sparsity	V+T
	RoE (Wu et al., 2025c)	LLaVA-1.5, LLaVA-HR, VILA	2024	7B	Structural Sparsity	V+T
	CuMo (Li et al., 2024a)	Mistral/Mixtral-8, CLIP-L	2024	7B–13B	Structural Sparsity	V+T
	Flex-MoE (Yun et al., 2024)	Transformer	2024	37M	Structural Sparsity	Clin
	Fuse-MoE (Han et al., 2024)	Longformer, Transformer, CNN, DenseNet	2024	-	Structural Sparsity	V+Clin+TS
	Omni-SMoLA (Wu et al., 2024a)	PaLI-X/PaLI-3	2024	5B/55B	Structural Sparsity	V+T
	Wander (Guo et al., 2025b)	BERT-base+ViT	2025	80-220M	Adapters	V+T+A
	Enhancing-LoRA (Ji et al., 2025b)	BLIP	2025	223M	Adapters	V+T
	CROME (Ebrahimi et al., 2024)	ViT-G, Vicuna, Flan-T5-XXL	2024	7B/13B/11B	Adapters	V+T
	MMA (Yang et al., 2024b)	CLIP	2024	-	Adapters	V+T
	PaLM2-VAdapter (Xiao et al., 2024)	CoCa ViT, PaLM 2	2024	1.8B/2.0B/2.8B/10.8B	Adapters	V+T
Algorithm Level	ST3 (Zhuang et al., 2025)	LLaVA-1.5	2025	7B/13B	Token Compression	V+T
	DART (Wen et al., 2025)	LLaVA-1.5/NEXT, Video-LLaVA, Qwen2-VL, MiniCPM	2025	7B/8B	Token Compression	V+T
	TopV (Yang et al., 2025b)	LLaVA-1.5, Inern-VL2, Video-LLaVA	2025	2B/7B/13B/26B	Token Compression	V+T
	VisionZip (Yang et al., 2025d)	LLaVA-1.5, LLaVA-NEXT	2025	7B/13B	Token Compression	V+T
	TokenCarve (Tan et al., 2025)	LLaVA-1.5	2025	7B/13B	Token Compression	V+T
	AdaRETAKE (Wang et al., 2025e)	LLaVA-Video, Qwen2/2.5-VL	2025	7B/72B	Token Compression	V+T
	HIReD (Arif et al., 2025)	ShareGPT4V, LLaVA-Next, LLaVA-1.5	2025	7B/13B	Token Compression	V+T
	Fit-and-Prune (Ye et al., 2025b)	LLaVA-1.5, LLaVA-NEXT, LLaVA-HR	2025	7B	Token Compression	V+T
	TOKEN (Omri et al., 2025)	LLaVA-1.5, VILA	2025	7B/13B/8B	Token Compression	V+T
	Folder (Wang et al., 2025b)	LLaVA-1.5, MiniGPT4v2, MMVP, Video-LLaVA, BLIP	2025	7B/13B	Token Compression	V+T
	FAST (Pertsch et al., 2025)	$\pi 0$ VLA, OpenVLA	2025	3B/7B	Token Compression	V+T+Act
	ZipVL (He et al., 2024b)	LLaVA-Next/1.5, LongVA, Qwen-VL	2024	7B/13B	Token Compression	V+T
	MUST-Drop (Liu et al., 2024a)	LLaVA-1.5, LLaVA-Next, Video-LLaVA	2024	7B	Token Compression	V+T
	LLaVolta (Chen et al., 2024a)	CLIP ViT-L/14, Vicuna-v1.5	2024	7B	Token Compression	V+T
	PyramidDrop (Xing et al., 2024)	LLaVA-NeXT, LLaVA-1.5	2024	7B	Token Compression	V+T
	GPrune (Jiang et al., 2025)	LLaVA-NeXT	2024	8B	Token Compression	V+T
	P-Mod (Zhang et al., 2025a)	LLaVA-1.5, LLaVA-NeXT	2024	7B	Token Compression	V+T
	TokenPacker (Li et al., 2025d)	LLaVA-1.5	2025	7B/13B	Token Compression	V+T
	DeepStack (Meng et al., 2024)	Vicuna, CLIP	2024	7B/13B	Token Compression	V+T
	MoPE-CLIP (Lin et al., 2024b)	CLIP-ViT-B/32, SE-CLIP	2024	194M	Pruning	V+T
	MANU (Liu et al., 2025a)	LLaVA-1.5, Idefics2	2025	7B/8B	Pruning	V+T
	EfficientLLaVA (Liang et al., 2025a)	LLaVA-v1.5/LLaVA-SQA	2025	7B+	Pruning	V+T
	Q-VLM (Wang et al., 2024b)	MoE-LLaVA, LLaVA	2025	7B/13B/1.6B	Quantization	V+T
	MBQ (Li et al., 2025c)	LLaVA-onevision, InternVL2, Qwen2-VL	2025	7B/8B/26B/72B	Quantization	V+T
	MQuant (Yu et al., 2025)	InternVL2, Qwen/2-VL, MiniCPM, GLM,	2025	8B/9.6B/7B/9B/72B	Quantization	V+T
	VLMQ (Xue et al., 2025)	Qwen2-VL, Qwen2.5-VL, LLaVA-onevision	2025	7B/2B	Quantization	V+T
	STaMP (Federici et al., 2025)	Qwen 2.5, Llama3/3.2, PixArt-Σ, SANA	2025	0.6B/1.6B/1B/3B/8B	Quantization	V+T
	QSLAW (Xie et al., 2024)	CLIP-ViT-L, LLaMA, Vicuna	2024	7B–13B	Quantization	V+T

Table 4: Representative efficient multimodal models summarized under the MAS framework in recent years. V: Video/Image, T: Text, A: Audio, MSM: multiple sensor modalities, Act: Action, Clin: Clinical, TS: Time series, Geo: location coordinates.

	Model	Backbone	Year	Parameters	Efficient strategy	Modalities
Algorithm Level	DHO (Kang et al., 2025)	CLIP ViT-B/L, ResNet, MobileNetV2, DFN ViT-H	2025	3.5M-304M	Knowledge Distillation	V+T
	FDBPL (Zhang et al., 2025c)	CLIP-style, ViT-L/14, ViT-B/32	2025	-	Knowledge Distillation	V+T
	Comodo (Chen et al., 2025a)	TimeSformer, Mantis, MOMENT	2025	150M	Knowledge Distillation	V+Motion
	MoveKD (Cao et al., 2025)	LLaVA-1.5, LLaVA-NeXT	2025	1.7B/7B/13B	Knowledge Distillation	V+T
	mm-Mamba (Liao et al., 2025)	mmMamba-linear, mmMamba-hybrid	2025	2.7B	Knowledge Distillation	V+T
	OpenVoca (Wei et al., 2025)	ResNet-50, ResNet-152, EfficientNet	2025	-	Knowledge Distillation	V+T
	CLIP-CID (Yang et al., 2025c)	ViT-B/32, ViT-B/16, OPENCLIP ViT-bigG/1	2025	-	Knowledge Distillation	V+T
	Skywork R1V (Peng et al., 2025)	Skywork R1	2025	38B	Knowledge Distillation	V+T
	TAID (Shing et al., 2025)	Qwen2, InternVL2	2025	8B/ 72B	Knowledge Distillation	V+T
	PromptKD (Li et al., 2024d)	ViT-B/16, ViT-L/14, CLIP	2024	-	Knowledge Distillation	V+T
	DSMD (Liang et al., 2025b)	VIT, BERT	2024	197M	Knowledge Distillation	V+T
	AMFD (Chen et al., 2025d)	ResNet-18	2024	-	Knowledge Distillation	V+MSM
	CLIP-KD (Yang et al., 2024a)	ViT-B, CLIP-ViT-L	2024	350M	Knowledge Distillation	V+T
	LLavaKD (Cai et al., 2025)	SigLIP-B, Qwen1.5	2024	7B	Knowledge Distillation	V+T
	LLaVA-MoD (Shu et al., 2024)	CLIP ViT-L/14, Qwen-1.5/2	2024	8B	Knowledge Distillation	V+T
	VPD (Hu et al., 2024)	PaLI-3/PaLI-X	2024	5B/55B	Knowledge Distillation	V+T
	MEDA (Wan et al., 2025)	LLaVA-family, InternVL, LongVA	2025	7B–32B	Caching & Reuse	V+T
	FastCache (Zhu et al., 2025)	LLaVA-1.5	2025	7B	Caching & Reuse	V+T
	AirCache (Huang et al., 2025)	LLaVA-OneVision, InternVL2, Qwen2-VL	2025	1B/4B/7B/8B/26B	Caching & Reuse	V+T
	VLA-Cache (Xu et al., 2025)	OpenVLA, OpenVLA-OFT, CogAct	2025	-	Caching & Reuse	V+T+Act
	VL-Cache (Tu et al., 2024)	llava-v1.6-mistral, llava-v1.6	2024	7B/34B	Caching & Reuse	V+T
	PrefixKV (Wang et al., 2024a)	LLaVA-1.5	2024	7B/13B	Caching & Reuse	V+T
	ElasticCache (Liu et al., 2024c)	LLaVA-1.5, Qwen2-VL	2024	7B/13B	Caching & Reuse	V+T
	CSP (Pei et al., 2024)	InceptionV3, ResNet-50, Space2Vec	2024	40M	Caching & Reuse	V+Geo
	LOOK-M (Wan et al., 2024)	LLaVA-v1.5, InternVL-v1.5, MobileVLM-v2	2024	3B/7B/13B	Caching & Reuse	V+Chat
	AASD (Yang et al., 2025a)	LLaVA-1.5, LLaVA-NeXT, InternVL-1.5	2024	7B/13B	Speculative Decoding	V+T
	SpecVLA (Wang et al., 2025d)	OpenVLA	2025	7B	Speculative Decoding	V+T+ACT
	λ-MoD (Luo et al., 2024)	LLaVA-1.5, LLaVA-HR, Mini-Gemini-HD	2024	7B/13B	Runtime Sparsity	V+T
	LoRA-Sparse (Song et al., 2024)	LLaVA-1.5	2024	7B/13B	Runtime Sparsity	V+T
	LLaVA-PruneMerge (Shang et al., 2025)	LLaVA-1.5, Video-LLaVA	2025	7B/13B	Runtime Sparsity	V+T
	SkipVision (Zeng et al., 2025)	LLaVA, LLaVA-HD, CoS	2025	8B	Runtime Sparsity	V+T
	MoLe-VL (Zhang et al., 2025b)	OpenVLA, CogAct VLA	2025	7B	Runtime Sparsity	V+T+Act
	DeeVISum (Khan et al., 2025)	PaLI-Gemma2 VLMs	2025	3B/10B/28B	Runtime Sparsity	V+T+A
System Level	MEDA (Wan et al., 2025)	LLaVA-family, InternVL, LongVA	2025	7B–32B	Cache Management	V+T
	FastCache (Zhu et al., 2025)	LLaVA-1.5	2025	7B	Cache Management	V+T
	MPIC (Zhao et al., 2025c)	LLaVA-1.6	2025	7B	Cache Management	V+T
	Cache-of-Thought (Wu et al., 2025a)	GPT-4o, Qwen-VL-2, OpenFlamingo	2025	3B/7B/9B	Cache Management	V+T
	CEAM-GM (Lee et al., 2025b)	Code Llam, SeamlessM4T, Chameleon	2025	34B	Cache Management	V+T+Speech
	Gemini 1.5 (Team et al., 2024)	Gemini 1.5 Pro/Flash	2024	-	Cache Management	V+T+A
	CloudEdgeCo (Wang et al., 2025a)	any ReID, CNN	2025	-	Edge–cloud Collaboration	V+TS
	MoA (Yang et al., 2025f)	Qwen2-VL-2B, Qwen2.5-VL	2025	2B/7B	Edge–cloud Collaboration	V+T
	EdgeCloudAI (Ghasemi et al., 2024)	cloud VLM, CNN	2024	-	Edge–cloud Collaboration	V+T
	RServer (Guo et al., 2025a)	Qwen2.5-VL	2025	72B	Job Scheduling	V+T
	Amazon Nova (Langford et al., 2025)	Nova	2025	-	Job Scheduling	V+T
	ProxyV (Wu et al., 2025b)	Vicuna-1.5 InternLM2.5	2025	7B	Job Scheduling	V+T
	DivPrune (Alvar et al., 2025)	LLaVA-1.5, LLaVA-1.6	2025	7B	Job Scheduling	V+T
	Inf-MLLM (Ning et al., 2024)	Vicuna, LLaMA-2, Pythia, Chat-UniVi, Flash-VStream	2024	7B	Job Scheduling	V+T
	MCARN (Yang et al., 2024c)	CNN/RNN/GNN-style	2024	-	Federated Learning	V+Sensor
	mmFedMC (Yuan et al., 2024)	LSTM, CNN	2024	-	Federated Learning	MSM
	FedMEKT (Le et al., 2025)	MLP, LSTM	2025	-	Federated Learning	V+TS