# Video-LLaVA: Learning United Visual Representation by Alignment **Before Projection**

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#### Abstract

The Large Vision-Language Model (LVLM) has enhanced the performance of various downstream tasks in visual-language understanding. Most existing approaches encode images and videos into separate feature spaces, which are then fed as inputs to large language models. However, due to the lack of unified tokenization for images and videos, namely misalignment before projection, it becomes challenging for a Large Language Model (LLM) to learn multimodal interactions from several poor projection layers. In this work, we unify visual representation into the language feature space to advance 015 the foundational LLM towards a unified LVLM. As a result, we establish a simple but robust LVLM baseline, Video-LLaVA, which learns from a mixed dataset of images and videos, mutually enhancing each other. Video-LLaVA achieves superior performances on a broad range of 9 image benchmarks across 5 image question-answering datasets and 4 image benchmark toolkits. Additionally, our Video-LLaVA also outperforms Video-ChatGPT by 5.8%, 9.9%, 18.6%, and 10.1% on MSRVTT, MSVD, TGIF, and ActivityNet, respectively. Notably, extensive experiments demonstrate that Video-LLaVA mutually benefits images and videos within a unified visual representation, outperforming models designed specifically for images or videos. We aim for this work to provide modest insights into the multimodal inputs for the LLM.

#### Introduction 1

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Recently, LLMs have gained rapid popularity in the AI community, such as GPT-3.5, GPT-4 (OpenAI, 2023), PaLM (Bi et al., 2020; Anil et al., 2023), and BLOOM (Scao et al., 2022). They rely on their powerful language comprehension abilities to follow human-provided instructions and provide corresponding responses. Typically, LLMs can only respond within the text input provided by the user, which is insufficient because human



Figure 1: Comparing Different LVLM Paradigms. Video-LLaVA aligns images and videos before projection, allowing LLM to learn from a unified visual representation and endowing LLM with the ability to comprehend both images and videos simultaneously.

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interaction with the world involves multiple channels, such as visual and textual. To this end, recent works (Ye et al., 2023; Zhu et al., 2023b; Alayrac et al., 2022) have mapped images into text-like tokens, enabling LLMs to emerge with the ability to comprehend images. Despite their effectiveness, empowering LLMs to understand videos is more challenging than image-only comprehension tasks. Nevertheless, recent work (Maaz et al., 2023; Li et al., 2023c; Zhang et al., 2023a) has made initial strides in enabling interactions between video and language.

However, most current LVLMs (Li et al., 2023b; Dai et al., 2023; Luo et al., 2023; Li et al., 2023a) can primarily handle a single visual modality, either image-language or video-language. We compare different LVLM paradigms as shown in Figure 1, where VideoChat (Li et al., 2023c) and Video-LLaMA (Zhang et al., 2023a) utilize a share visual encoder to handle both images and videos. However, due to the inherent differences in the media types of images and videos, it is challenging to learn a unified representation, and the performance falls significantly behind that of the specialized

video expert model, Video-ChatGPT. Therefore, X-LLM (Chen et al., 2023) and Macaw-LLM (Lyu et al., 2023) allocate a modality-specific encoder for each modality, attempting to enable a LLM to comprehend images or videos through several projection layers. But their performances are inferior to dedicated video expert models such as Video-ChatGPT (Maaz et al., 2023). We attribute this phenomenon to the lack of alignment before projection. Because image features and video features reside in their own spaces, this poses a challenge for a LLM to learn their interactions from several poor projection layers. Some similar phenomenon such as alignment before fusion has been discussed by AL-BEF (Li et al., 2021) and ViLT (Kim et al., 2021) in multi-model models. More recently, ImageBind-LLM (Han et al., 2023) focuses on enabling the LLM to simultaneously process multiple modal inputs by pre-aligning each modality to a common feature space (Girdhar et al., 2023). Based on a large image-language model, ImageBind-LLM converts other modalities into the most similar image features by retrieving from a training-free image cached database. However, the indirect alignment approach of ImageBind-LLM may lead to performance degradation, and the LLM has no knowledge of actual video data.

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In this work, we introduce **Video-LLaVA**, a simple but powerful baseline for the LVLM simultaneously handling both images and videos. Specifically, As shown in Figure 1, Video-LLaVA initially aligns the representations of images and videos to a unified visual feature space. Since the visual representations are already aligned prior to projection, we employ a shared projection layer to map the unified visual representation for the LLM. To enhance computational efficiency, Video-LLaVA undergoes joint training of images and videos, achieving remarkable results with 1 training epoch.

As a result, The proposed Video-LLaVA greatly 107 enhances the ability of the LLM to simultaneously 108 understand both images and videos. For image understanding, Video-LLaVA surpasses advanced 110 LVLMs such as mPLUG-owl-7B and InstructBLIP-111 7B in 5 image benchmarks. Additionally, utilizing 112 4 benchmark toolkits for a more comprehensive 113 114 evaluation, Video-LLaVA-7B even outperforms IDEFICS-80B by 6.4% in MMBench. Moreover, 115 similar trends can be observed in video under-116 standing, where Video-LLaVA surpasses Video-117 ChatGPT by 5.8%, 9.9%, 18.6%, and 10.1% re-118

spectively on the MSVD, MSRVTT, TGIF, and ActivityNet video question-answering datasets. Extensive ablation experiments demonstrate that alignment before projection yields greater benefits. Additionally, joint training of images and videos can facilitate a unified visual representation in LLM comprehension.

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We summarize our primary contributions as follows:

- We introduce Video-LLaVA, a powerful LVLM baseline. During the training process, Video-LLaVA binds visual signals to the language feature space, unifying visual representations, and proposes a solution to align before projection. We enable an LLM to perform visual reasoning capabilities on both images and videos simultaneously.
- Extensive experiments demonstrate that a unified visual representation benefits LLMs in learning to simultaneously handle both images and videos, validating the complementarity of modalities, showcasing significant superiority when compared to models specifically designed for either images or videos.

## 2 Related Work

## 2.1 Large Language Models

When the well-known commercial model Chat-GPT (OpenAI, 2023) was introduced, the The AI community released open-source Large Language Models (LLMs) by instruction tuning and increasing model sizes. These include LLaMA (Touvron et al., 2023a), Vicuna (Chiang et al., 2023), Alpaca (Taori et al., 2023), and more recently, LLaMA 2 (Touvron et al., 2023b). These models are tuned with instruction sets to emulate conversations between humans and AI assistants. Furthermore, InstructGPT (Ouyang et al., 2022) is trained based on GPT-3 (Brown et al., 2020) with 175 billion parameters through aligning with human preferences. However, LLMs can only interact within text. In this work, we introduce Video-LLaVA, which builds upon the powerful reasoning capabilities of LLM to extend modality interactions to images and videos.

## 2.2 Large Vision-Language Models

When extending LLMs to multi-modal, especially involving images and videos, the main approaches can be categorized into two types in Table 1: *i*)

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treating LLM as a scheduler, <i>ii</i> ) treating LLM a	is a
decoder.	

Methods	Image	Video	Pre-aligned	Joint
LLMs as scheduler				
VisualChatGPT	<ul> <li>✓</li> </ul>	×	-	-
HuggingGPT	<ul> <li>✓</li> </ul>	X	-	-
MM-REACT	<ul> <li>✓</li> </ul>	~	-	-
ViperGPT	~	<b>~</b>	-	-
LLMs as decoder				
Mini-GPT4	~	X	-	×
LLaVA	<b>~</b>	X	-	×
Video-ChatGPT	×	~	-	×
VideoChat	<ul> <li>✓</li> </ul>	~	×	~
Video-LLaMA	~	~	×	~
ImageBind-LLM	<b>~</b>	<ul> <li></li> </ul>	<ul> <li></li> </ul>	×
Video-LLaVA (Ours)	<b>~</b>	~	<b>v</b>	<b>~</b>

Table 1: **Comparison between different Large Vision-Language Models.** For methods that treat LLMs as scheduler, they do not require pre-alignment and joint training.

LLMs as scheduler In the scheduler-based methods, various visual models are treated as plugand-play modules. LLM schedules them according to the specific visual task requirements, like the assembly of building blocks. Some of these methods focus on images, such as VisualChat-GPT (Wu et al., 2023) and HuggingGPT (Shen et al., 2023), while MM-REACT (Yang et al., 2023) and ViperGPT (Surís et al., 2023) can also handle videos. A key characteristic of these schedulerbased LVLMs is that they do not require end-toend training, hence eliminating the need for prealignment and joint training of each modality.

182 LLMs as decoder Regarding the approach of treating LLM as a decoder, this is our primary focus. 183 MiniGPT-4 (Zhu et al., 2023b) aligns image to-184 kens to the input of the large language model through several linear projection layers. How-186 ever, this alignment is weak and lacks feedback from human instructions. Subsequently, mPLUG-188 Owl (Ye et al., 2023) adopts a two-stage training 189 approach. In the first stage, images are aligned with language using an auto-regressive pretrain-191 ing style, and the second stage involves instruction 192 tuning through using a human instruction dataset. 193 With the increasing scale of large language model 194 195 backends, approaches such as InstructBLIP (Dai et al., 2023) and LLaVA (Liu et al., 2023b,a) col-196 lecte the larger human instruction datasets to train 197 a larger LVLMs (13B parameters). Each answer of instruction datasets strictly follow to the given 199

instructions. Then they undergo end-to-end training using human instruction datasets, enabling the LLM with visual reasoning capabilities. Moreover, Video-ChatGPT (Maaz et al., 2023) design a 100k video instruction dataset, successfully empowering LLMs to comprehend videos. VideoChat (Li et al., 2023c) and Video-LLaMA (Zhang et al., 2023a) achieve this by conducting joint training, allowing LLMs to simultaneously handle images and videos. Expanding LLMs to additional visual modalities typically requires pre-alignment, as seen in LLaMA-Adapter (Zhang et al., 2023b; Gao et al., 2023) and ImageBind-LLM (Han et al., 2023). They bind other modalities to the image space through ImageBind's (Girdhar et al., 2023) modality encoder. These models have demonstrated that a unified feature space is advantageous for enhancing LLM's multi-modal reasoning capabilities. Distinguished from prior work, Video-LLaVA not only pre-aligns image and video features but also conducts joint training of images and videos, facilitating LLMs in learning multi-modal reasoning capabilities from a unified visual representation.

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## 3 Video-LLaVA

#### 3.1 Model Structure

**Framework Overview** As shown in Figure 2, Video-LLaVA consists of LanguageBind encoders  $f_V$  (Zhu et al., 2023a) to extract features from the raw visual signal (images or videos), a large language model  $f_L$  such as Vicuna, visual projection layers  $f_P$  and a word embedding layer  $f_T$ . We initially obtain visual features using LanguageBind encoders. LanguageBind encoders are capable of mapping different modalities into the textual feature space, thereby providing us with a unified visual representation. Subsequently, the unified visual representation is encoded by shared projection layers, which is then combined with tokenized textual queries and fed into a large language model to generate corresponding responses.

United Visual Representation Our goal is to map images and videos into a shared feature space to enable the large language model to learn from a unified visual representation. We assume that the same information can be conveyed through multiple media. For example, a running dog can be expressed through language, a image or a video simultaneously. Therefore, we can compress information from different modalities into a common feature space, allowing the model to extract information



Figure 2: **Training framework and performance.** Video-LLaVA exhibits remarkable interactive capabilities between images and videos, despite the absence of image-video pairs in the dataset. (a) The Video-LLaVA framework demonstrates a data flow that generates corresponding responses based on input instructions. (b) Video-LLaVA achieves superior performances on a broad range of 15 datasets across image and video.

from a dense feature space, facilitating modality interactions and complementarity. Hence, we chose the modality encoders from LanguageBind (Zhu et al., 2023a), which align images and videos with the textual feature space.

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Alignment Before Projection Specifically, LanguageBind initializes from OpenCLIP (Ilharco et al., 2021), naturally aligning images and language in a shared feature space. Subsequently, it aligns video representations to the language space using 3 million video-text pairs from VIDAL-10M (Zhu et al., 2023a). By sharing a language feature space, the image and video representations ultimately converge into a unified visual feature space, which we refer to as emergent alignment of images and videos. Therefore, our video encoder and image encoder are initialized from the LanguageBind encoders zoo, pre-aligning the inputs for LLM and reducing the gap between representations of different visual signals. The unified visual representation is fed into LLM after passing through a shared projection layer.

#### 3.2 Training Pipeline

273Overall, the process of generating responses by274Video-LLaVA is similar to that of a large language275model (GPT series). Given a textual input  $X_T$  and276visual signals  $X_V$ , the input signals are encoded277into a sequence of tokens according to Equation 1.

By maximizing the likelihood probability in Equation 2, the model ultimately achieves multi-modal understanding capabilities.

$$\mathbf{Z}_{\mathrm{T}} = f_{\mathbf{T}}(\mathbf{X}_{\mathrm{T}}), \mathbf{Z}_{\mathrm{V}} = f_{\mathbf{P}}(f_{\mathbf{V}}(\mathbf{X}_{\mathrm{V}})) \quad (1)$$

$$p\left(\mathbf{X}_{\mathrm{A}} \mid \mathbf{X}_{\mathrm{V}}, \mathbf{X}_{\mathrm{T}}\right) = \prod_{i=1}^{L} p_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{X}_{\mathrm{A}}^{[i]} \mid \mathbf{Z}_{\mathrm{V}}, \mathbf{Z}_{\mathrm{T}}^{[1:i-1]}\right)$$
(2)

where L is the length of the generated sequence  $\mathbf{X}_{A}$ , and  $\theta$  is a trainable parameter. We dynamically conduct joint training on images and videos, wherein a single batch contains both image and video samples simultaneously.

**Understanding Training** At this stage, the model is required to acquire the ability to interpret visual signals within a extensive image/video-text pair dataset. Each visual signal corresponds to a single round of conversation data ( $\mathbf{X}_q, \mathbf{X}_a$ ), where  $\mathbf{X}_T = \mathbf{X}_q$  and  $\mathbf{X}_a$  is the ground truth. The training objective of this stage is the original auto-regressive loss, where the model learns the basic ability to view the vision. We freeze the other parameters of the model during this process.

**Instruction Tuning** In this stage, the model is required to provide responses corresponding to different instructions. These instructions often involve more complex visual comprehension tasks, rather 278 279 280

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than just describing visual signals. Note that the conversation data  $(\mathbf{X}_q^1, \mathbf{X}_a^1, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_q^N, \mathbf{X}_a^N)$  consists of multiple rounds.

$$\mathbf{X}_{\mathrm{T}}^{r} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{X}_{\mathrm{q}}^{1}, & r = 1\\ \mathrm{Concat}(\mathbf{X}_{\mathrm{q}}^{r-1}, \mathbf{X}_{\mathrm{A}}^{r-1}, \mathbf{X}_{\mathrm{q}}^{r}), & r > 1 \end{cases}$$
(3)

where r represents the round number. As shown in Equation 3, when r > 1 we concatenate the conversations from all previous rounds with the current instruction as the input for this round. The training objective remains the same as in the previous stage. After this stage, the model learns to generate corresponding responses based on different instructions and requests. The LLM are also involved in training at this stage.

Zero-shot Image Question-answering To begin with, We evaluate our approach for image 317 understanding on five academic image questionanswering benchmarks. Compared to the state-319 of-the-art model InstructBLIP-7B, Video-LLaVA demonstrates powerful image understanding capabilities, outperforming across all five questionanswering benchmarks. Additionally, Video-LLaVA exhibits competitive results compared to 324 several more powerful LVLMs, which are tuned 326 based on 13B or 65B LLM, such as surpassing InstructBLIP-13B by 14.7% on VisWiz, highlight-327 ing its strong understanding ability in natural visual 328 environments.

## 4 Experiments

## 4.1 Experimental Setup

Model Settings We employ Vicuna-7B v1.5 as the large language model. The visual encoders are derived from LanguageBind, initialized from ViT-L/14. The text tokenizer is sourced from LLaMA, with approximately 32,000 classes. The share projection layers consist of 2 fully connected layers.

Data Details As shown in Figure 3, for the stage 338 of understanding pretraining, we use a subset 339 of 558K LAION-CC-SBU image-text pairs with BLIP (Li et al., 2022) captions, which is sourced 341 from CC3M (Sharma et al., 2018) and filtered by Liu (Liu et al., 2023b). The video-text pairs are de-343 rived from a subset provided by Valley (Luo et al., 2023), and we have access to 702k out of a total of 703k pairs, originating from WebVid (Bain et al., 346 2021). For the stage of instruction tuning, We gathered instructional datasets from two sources, including a 665k image-text instruction dataset from

## Stage 1: Understanding Pretraining concise caption

LAION-CC-SBU 558k	Valley 702k

## Stage 2: Instruction Tuning

LLaVA-mixed 665k	Video-ChatGPT 100k	
multi-turn conversations	/ detailed caption / reasoning	

Figure 3: **Data composition for training Video-LLaVA.** The dataset for stage 1 consists of single-turn conversation, focusing on concise visual descriptions. In stage 2, the dataset comprises multi-turn conversations, emphasizing complex visual reasoning abilities.

LLaVA v1.5 (Liu et al., 2023a) and a 100k video-text instruction dataset from Video-ChatGPT.

**Training Details** In the training process, we resize and crop each image, resulting in a size of 224×224 for each processed image. We uniformly sample 8 frames from each video, and each frame undergoes image pre-processing. The data in each batch is a random combination of images and videos. In the first stage, we train for one epoch with a batch size of 256, using the AdamW optimizer with a cosine learning rate schedule. In the second stage, we reduce the batch size to 128. The initial learning rate for both stages is set to 1e-3, with a warmup ratio of 0.03. Additional hyper-parameter settings can be found in the appendix.

## 4.2 Quantitative Evaluation

Zero-shot Video Understanding As shown in Table 2, we conduct a quantitative assessment of the video question-answering capabilities of large video-language models on four datasets, including MSVD-QA (Chen and Dolan, 2011), MSRVTT-QA (Xu et al., 2016), TGIF-QA (Jang et al., 2017) and ActivityNet-QA (Yu et al., 2019). The evaluation pipeline for video understanding follows Video-ChatGPT. We report the accuracy and score, which is assessed using GPT-Assistant. Video-LLaVA consistently outperforms Video-ChatGPT in terms of question-answering accuracy, which is an advanced large video-language model. Moreover, Video-LLaVA surpasses the powerful baseline of Video-ChatGPT by 5.8%, 9.9%, 18.6%, and 10.1% on MSRVTT, MSVD, TGIF, and ActivityNet, respectively. Additionally, we conduct comparisons with the recent SOTA model, Chat-UniVi (Jin et al., 2023). Despite Chat-UniVi utilizing more datasets such as MIMIC-IT (Li et al., 2023a), Video-LLaVA still demonstrate compet350

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Mathada	LIMaiza	MSVD-QA		MSRVT	Г-QА	TGIF-	QA	ActivityNet-QA	
Methods LLM size		Accuracy	Score	Accuracy	Score	Accuracy	Score	Accuracy	Score
FrozenBiLM	1B	32.2	-	16.8	-	41.0	-	24.7	-
VideoChat	7B	56.3	2.8	45.0	2.5	34.4	2.3	-	2.2
LLaMA-Adapter	7B	54.9	3.1	43.8	2.7	-	-	34.2	2.7
Video-LLaMA	7B	51.6	2.5	29.6	1.8	-	-	12.4	1.1
Video-ChatGPT	7B	64.9	3.3	49.3	2.8	51.4	3.0	35.2	2.7
Chat-UniVi	7B	65.0	3.6	54.6	3.1	60.3	3.4	45.8	3.2
Video-LLaVA	7B	70.7	3.9	59.2	3.5	70.0	4.0	45.3	3.3

Table 2: **Comparison between different LVLMs on video reasoning benchmarks**. We employ ChatGPT-Assistant to evaluate the performance following Video-ChatGPT (Maaz et al., 2023). The version of ChatGPT is "gpt-3.5-turbo".

Mathada	ни	Dec	Iı	nage Qi	iestion A	nswerin	g		Benchr	nark Toolk	it
Methods		Kes.	VQA <sup>v2</sup>	GQA	VisWiz	SQA <sup>I</sup>	VQA <sup>T</sup>	POPE	MMB	LLaVA <sup>W</sup>	MM-Vet
LLaVA-1.5	Vicuna-7B	336	-	62.0*	-	-	-	-	-	-	30.5
BLIP-2	Vicuna-13B	224	41.0	41.0	19.6	61.0	42.5	85.3	-	38.1	22.4
InstructBLIP	Vicuna-13B	224	-	49.5	33.4	63.1	50.7	78.9	-	58.2	25.6
<b>IDEFICS-80B</b>	LLaMA-65B	224	60.0	45.2	36.0	-	30.9	-	54.5	-	-
MiniGPT-4	LLaMA-7B	224	-	30.8	47.5	25.4	19.4	-	23.0	-	22.1
IDEFICS-9B	LLaMA-7B	224	<u>50.9</u>	38.4	35.5	-	25.9	-	<u>48.2</u>	-	-
mPLUG-Owl	LLaMA-7B	224	-	14.0	39.0	2.8	38.8	-	46.6	-	-
Otter	LLaMA-7B	224	-	38.1	50.0	27.2	21.2	-	32.6	-	24.6
InstructBLIP	Vicuna-7B	224	-	<u>49.2</u>	34.5	<u>60.5</u>	<u>50.1</u>	-	36.0	<u>60.9</u>	<u>26.2</u>
Video-LLaVA	Vicuna-7B	224	74.7*	<b>60.3</b> *	<u>48.1</u>	66.4	51.8	84.4	60.9	73.1	32.0

Table 3: **Comparison between different LVLMs on image understanding benchmarks.** Res. indicate input image resolution. Benchmark names are abbreviated due to page limitations. VQA-v2 (Goyal et al., 2017); GQA (Hudson and Manning, 2019); VisWiz (Gurari et al., 2018); SQA<sup>1</sup>: ScienceQA-IMG (Lu et al., 2022); VQA<sup>T</sup>: TextVQA (Singh et al., 2019); POPE (Li et al., 2023d); MMB: MMBench (Liu et al., 2023c); LLaVA<sup>W</sup>: LLaVA-Bench (In-the-Wild) (Liu et al., 2023b); MM-Vet (Yu et al., 2023). \* donates that there is some overlap in the training data.

itive results, surpassing Chat-UniVi on MSVD, MSRVTT, and TGIF datasets. In summary, these results validate Video-LLaVA's ability to comprehend videos and provide contextually appropriate responses based on instructions.

Zero-shot Image Question-answering As shown in Table 3, we evaluate our approach for image understanding on five academic image questionanswering benchmarks. Compared to the stateof-the-art model InstructBLIP-7B, Video-LLaVA demonstrates powerful image understanding capabilities, outperforming across all five questionanswering benchmarks. Additionally, Video-LLaVA exhibits competitive results compared to several more powerful LVLMs, which are tuned based on 13B or 65B LLM, such as surpassing InstructBLIP-13B by 14.7% on VisWiz, highlighting its strong understanding ability in natural visual environments. Furthermore, to ensure a fair comparison, we replace the image encoder in LLaVA-1.5 with the LanguageBind-Image encoder, called LLaVA-1.5<sup> $\dagger$ </sup>. This demonstrates that the perfor-

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mance improvement observed in Video-LLaVA is not solely attributed to a stronger image encoder.

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Evaluation under Benchmark Toolkits Additionally, we evaluate LVLMs using several benchmark toolkits for visual instruction tuning. These benchmark toolkits provide a detailed assessment of the model's capabilities through robust evaluation metrics. Video-LLaVA outperform InstructBLIP-7B by 24.9%, 12.2%, and 5.8% on MMBench, LLaVA-Bench, and MM-Vet, respectively. It is worth noting that Video-LLaVA-7B still demonstrates advanced performance compared to larger LLM models, surpassing InstructBLIP-13B by 6.4% on MM-Vet and IDEFICS-80B (Laurençon et al., 2023) by 6.4% on MMBench. These results demonstrate that Video-LLaVA exhibits a strong understanding of semantic aspects of scenes, enabling it to answer open-ended and free-form natural language questions about images.

**Object Hallucination Evaluation** As shown in Table 4, we report evaluation results for zero-shot object hallucinations, utilizing a evaluation pipeline

Mathada	11.14	Adersarial		Popular			Random			
Methods	ethods LLM		F1-Score	Yes	Accuracy	F1-Score	Yes	Accuracy	F1-Score	Yes
MiniGPT-4	Vicuna-13B	66.6	71.4	66.7	68.3	72.2	64.1	77.8	78.9	54.8
InstructBLIP	Vicuna-13B	<u>74.4</u>	<u>78.5</u>	69.0	81.4	83.5	62.6	88.7	89.3	55.2
MM-GPT	LLaMA-7B	50.0	66.7	100.0	50.0	66.7	100.0	50.0	66.7	100.0
Video-LLaVA	Vicuna-7B	81.6	80.8	45.8	85.3	84.0	42.1	<u>86.2</u>	<u>85.2</u>	42.0

Table 4: **Zero-shot object hallucination evaluation results** are reported for three POPE evaluation settings. "Yes" indicates the proportion of positive responses to the given question.

derived from a polling-based query method (Li et al., 2023d). Video-LLaVA demonstrates competitive performance across three subsets: random, popular, and adversarial. Specifically, when compared to the 7B foundation model, Video-LLaVA consistently outperforms MM-GPT (Gong et al., 2023) across all three POPE hallucination evaluation subsets. Furthermore, when benchmarked against the larger 13B LLM, Video-LLaVA even surpasses Mini-GPT4 comprehensively. The successful performance of Video-LLaVA in object hallucination detection validates the consistency between unified visual representations and the generation of textual descriptions.

## 4.3 Ablation Results

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#### 4.3.1 Alignment Before Projection

To validate the performance degradation caused by separated visual representation, we conduct experiments to to explore the performance of the LLM learning from different visual representations. We define the use of LanguageBind image encoder as unified visual representation while the MAE encoder (He et al., 2022) is separated visual representation, which is a well-known and effective image feature extractor. We only replace the image encoder with the MAE image encoder of the same scale and keep the LanguageBind video encoder. We compare the united visual representation and the separated visual representation on 13 benchmarks, including 9 image understanding benchmarks and 4 video understanding benchmarks.

For Image Understanding The unified visual rep-462 resentation demonstrates strong performance, sur-463 passing the separated visual representation com-464 prehensively across 5 image question-answering 465 datasets and 4 benchmark toolkits in Figure 4. Ad-466 467 ditionally, we observe a significant margin of performance improvement in the unified visual repre-468 sentation on the POPE, MMBench, LLaVA-Bench, 469 and MM-Vet benchmark toolkits. This highlights 470 that the unified visual representation not only en-471

hances performance in image question-answering but also provides benefits in other aspects of image understanding, such as reducing object hallucination and improving OCR capabilities.



Figure 4: **Effect of alignment before projection on image.** "United" refers to the unified visual representation, while "Separated" refers to the separated visual representation.

For Video Understanding Due to replacing the image encoder with the MAE encoder, the video features and image features are no longer unified during LLM's initial learning of visual representations. In Figure 5, compared to separated visual representation, the united visual representation significantly improves performance across 4 video question-answering datasets. Separated visual representations not only exhibit lower accuracy in question-answering, but also demonstrate a similar trend in answer scores. These results demonstrate that the unified visual representation can help the LLM further learn and understand videos.

## 4.3.2 Joint Training

This subsection aims to validate the complementarity of images and videos during joint training, which can mutually enhance the LLM's understand-

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Figure 5: **Effect of alignment before projection on video.** We validate and report the accuracy and score on four video question-answering datasets.

ing of images and videos based on a unified visual representation.

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For Image Understanding As shown in Figure 6, We find that both images and videos benefit from joint training, demonstrating mutual improvement in visual understanding. In comparison to LLaVA, we conduct evaluations of image questionanswering on VisWiz, focusing on three aspects: i) unanswerable, predicting whether visual questions are unanswerable; *ii*) number, tasks related to numerical understanding; and *iii*) other, additional visual understanding tasks. Video-LLaVA outperform LLaVA in unanswerable and number tasks, indicating that joint training with videos alleviates the object hallucination in images and enhances the understanding of numerical signals in images. A similar trend is observed on the LLaVA-Bench, where video data significantly improves LLM's performance in complex reasoning and image conversation tasks.



Figure 6: **Effect of joint training on image.** (a) We evaluate on the image question answering dataset, namely VisWiz. (b) We evaluate on a benchmark toolkit proposed by LLaVA, namely LLaVA-Bench (In-the-Wild). We reproduce the results of LLaVA at a resolution of 224×224 for a fair comparison.

**For Video Understanding** In Table 5, we evaluate our model on four video question-answering datasets. Compared to Video-LLaVA\* without image in training, the model trained with joint images and videos achieves comprehensive improvements across all four video datasets. These results demon-

Methods	MSVD	MSRVTT	TGIF	ActivityNet
Video-LLaVA*	64.8	58.3	67.8	40.7
Joint with Image	70.7	59.2	70.0	45.3
$\Delta$ Acc.	+ 5.9%	+ 0.9%	+ 2.2%	+ 4.6%

Table 5: **Effect of joint training on video.** We evaluate on four video question-answering datasets. \* denotes that we utilized only video data in both the first and second stages.

strate that joint training of images and videos facilitates LLM's understanding of visual representations. 519

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## 5 Conclusion and Future Directions

In this work, we introduce Video-LLaVA, a simple but powerful large visual-language baseline model. We propose a novel framework to address the issue of misalignment before projection, utilizing a LanguageBind encoder to pre-bind visual signals into the language feature space. To enable a LLM to comprehend both images and videos simultaneously, we conduct joint training on images and videos, allowing the LLM to learn multi-modal interactions from a unified visual representation. Extensive experiments demonstrate that joint training on images and videos mutually benefits performance. Furthermore, we validate that aligning visual representations before projection aids LLM learning. Remarkably, LLM, after learning from a unified visual representation, exhibits the remarkable ability to simultaneously engage with both images and videos, showcasing a powerful comprehension of unified visual concepts. These results collectively demonstrate the effectiveness of the Video-LLaVA training framework. As a unified visual training framework, the performance of Video-LLaVA even surpasses that of expert models designed specifically for images or videos.

**Future work** While Video-LLaVA exhibits strong competitiveness in both images and videos, we observe that it faces difficulty in grasping temporal relationships and spatio-temporal localization. Video-LLaVA can serve as a baseline to extend to additional visual-related modalities, such as depth and infrared images. Additionally, we could explore how to incorporate timestamp embeddings effectively, enabling large visual-language models to answer questions related to temporal relationships.

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## A Appendix

## A.1 Training Setting

We show some training settings as shown in Table 6. video encoder and image encoder are not trained in both stages. The projection layer consists of 2 linear layers with a GeLU activation function between them. Image and video share the projection layer.

Config	Pretraining Instruction tuning
Video encoder	LanguageBind-Video-LoRA-800M
Image encoder	LanguageBind-Image-600M
LLM	Vicuna v1.5-7B (Chiang et al., 2023)
Optimizer	AdamW
Deepspeed	Zero2
Epochs	1
Vision select layer	-2
Weight decay	0.0
Warmup ratio	0.03
Learning rate schedule	cosine decay
Learning rate	1e-3 2e-5
Batch size	256 128

Table 6: Training setting.

#### A.2 Limitation

While Video-LLaVA exhibits strong competitiveness in both images and videos, we still observed some limitations of Video-LLaVA. To begin with, Video-LLaVA performs moderately in understanding long videos. In Table 2, Chat-UniVi surpasses 0.5 on ActivityNet-QA because Video-LLaVA only utilizes uniformly sampled 8 frames to comprehend the video, which results in the loss of detailed information from long videos. Additionally, training Video-LLaVA is computationally expensive, requiring 3-4 days to complete the training process on 8 A100-80G GPUs.

## A.3 Broader Impacts

While Video-LLaVA holds great potential and application value in multi-modal understanding, it may also have some negative social impacts:

- Information credibility: Video-LLaVA can generate realistic texts, including false information and misleading content.
- Bias and discrimination: The training data for Video-LLaVA often comes from the internet, where various biases and discriminatory content may exist. If these unequal patterns are learned and amplified by the model, they may be reflected in the generated responses.

• Social influence: People may become overly reliant on Video-LLaVA for information and problem-solving, instead of actively thinking and seeking multiple sources of information. This can lead to increased dependency, reduced autonomy in thinking, and judgment skills. 872

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#### A.4 Licenses

The majority of this project is released under the Apache 2.0 license. The service is a research preview intended for non-commercial use only, subject to the model License of LLaMA (Touvron et al., 2023a).

#### A.5 Exhibition Board

We show some **unselected** samples here, and these videos are sourced from Video-ChatGPT.



Figure 7: Samples of Video-LLaVA in video understanding.



Figure 8: Samples of Video-LLaVA in video understanding. Figure 9: Samples of Video-LLaVA in video understanding.



Figure 10: Samples of Video-LLaVA in video understanding.