

Video-guided Multimodal Machine Translation: A Survey of Models, Datasets, and Challenges

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Abstract

In recent years, machine translation has evolved with the integration of multimodal information. Infusion of multi-modality into translation tasks decreases ambiguity and enhances translation scores. Common modalities include images, speech, and videos, which provide additional context alongside the text to be translated. While multimodal translation with images has been extensively studied, video-guided machine translation (VMT) has gained increasing attention, particularly since Wang et al. (2019) first explored this task. In this paper, we provide a comprehensive overview of VMT, highlighting its unique challenges, methodologies, and recent advancements. Unlike previous surveys that primarily focus on image-guided multimodal translation, this work explores the distinct complexities and opportunities introduced by video as a modality.

1 Introduction

Multimodal Machine Translation (MMT) improves translation by incorporating more context. This context can be in the form of images, audio and video. This infusion of extra context helps in disambiguation of translated text and makes it more meaningful and accurate. MMT often mimics the way human translators annotate data. They take into account all the information that emanates from all modalities while translating the sentence in source language to target language. While MMT mostly focuses on images being the additional modality to the source text sentence, Video-guided machine translation has been picking immense interest as compared to other MMT techniques due to its ability to provide richer, more dynamic contextual information than images.

VMT takes advantage of the temporal and multimodal nature of videos, which combine visual, auditory, and textual data into a single cohesive source of information. Unlike static images, videos



Source Subtitle:Number one **drive shot** requires smaller swing but more focus.

Target Subtitle:第一、**抽球**。挥杆幅度要小，但是要集中力量。

System w/o Video:第一个**驾驶镜头**需要较小的挥杆，但更多的焦点。

System w/ Video:第一，**抽球**需要更小的挥杆动作，但要集中注意力

Figure 1: A case. The phrases with semantic ambiguity are highlighted in red. The wrong translations are in blue and the correct translations are in yellow taken from Kang et al. (2023)

capture sequences of events, actions, and interactions, offering a more comprehensive understanding of the context. This makes VMT particularly effective for tasks such as translating instructional videos, movies, or multimedia content, where temporal alignment and multimodal fusion are critical. For example, in a cooking video, the translation of a spoken instruction (e.g., "chop the onions") can be disambiguated by the visual demonstration of the action, ensuring the translation is both accurate and contextually appropriate. In Fig. 1 the phrase "drive shot" is better translated by VMT system by understanding the meaning of "shot".

The importance of video-guided MMT lies in its ability to address several limitations of traditional text-based and image-guided translation systems. Videos provide temporal continuity which enable models to capture the progression of events and actions over time. Second, the integration of multiple modalities (text, audio, and video) allows for more robust disambiguation of ambiguous terms

062 or phrases. VMT has practical applications in real-
063 world scenarios, such as cross-lingual video cap-
064 tioning, multimedia content localization, and assis-
065 tive technologies for the hearing impaired.

066 In this paper, we provide a comprehensive survey
067 of video-guided MMT, focusing on its methodolo-
068 gies, challenges, and advancements. Unlike previ-
069 ous surveys (Shen et al., 2024; Paul et al., 2024)
070 that primarily focus on general aspects of MMT
071 and image-guided MT, this work specifically high-
072 lights the unique aspects of video-guided MMT
073 and its growing importance in the field. We sys-
074 tematically categorize and analyze state-of-the-art
075 approaches and datasets while also identifying key
076 open problems and future research directions.

077 Our contributions are:

- 078 1. A novel taxonomy for video-guided multi-
079 modal machine translation, which systemat-
080 ically categorizes existing VMT approaches.
081 (Section 4)
- 082 2. Comprehensive comparisons of methods,
083 datasets, and state-of-the-art systems provided.
084 (Section 7)
- 085 3. Identifying key challenges and future research
086 directions to guide further advancements in
087 Video guided MT. (Section 9)

088 2 Background and Preliminaries

089 Machine translation involves translating texts from
090 one language to another language. From statistical
091 to neural MT has undergone pioneering transfor-
092 mations. We discuss below various stages of MT
093 developments connecting it with VMT.

094 2.1 Neural Machine Translation

095 Neural Machine Translation (NMT) has evolved
096 significantly through key innovations in neural
097 architectures. Sutskever et al. (2014) pioneered
098 sequence-to-sequence learning using LSTMs,
099 demonstrating that reversing source sentences im-
100 proved translation by shortening dependencies,
101 achieving a BLEU score of 34.8 on English-French
102 tasks. Bahdanau et al. (2016) introduced attention
103 mechanisms, enabling dynamic focus on relevant
104 source segments and addressing long-sequence lim-
105 itations. Luong et al. (2015) refined this with global
106 and local attention models. The transformer ar-
107 chitecture (Vaswani et al., 2023) eliminated recur-
108 rence entirely, using self-attention for superior par-
109 allelization. Subword segmentation techniques like

byte-pair encoding (Sennrich et al., 2016) improved
rare-word handling through compositional transla-
tion units. Multilingual NMT systems achieved
zero-shot translation via shared parameters and lan-
guage tokens, revealing interlingual representations
(Wu et al., 2016).

2.2 Image Guided Machine Translation

Image-guided machine translation (IMT), which
uses visual information as an additional modal-
ity, gained momentum with the introduction of the
Multi30K dataset by Elliott et al. (2016). However,
the scarcity of paired image-text datasets led to al-
ternative approaches such as retrieval-based image
machine translation (Fang and Feng, 2022; Tang
et al., 2022a; Zhang et al., 2020), which retrieves
relevant images, and text-to-image-guided machine
translation (Calixto et al., 2019; Li et al., 2022a;
Long et al., 2021; Yuasa et al., 2023; Guo et al.,
2023), where synthetic images are generated from
text.

2.3 Other Forms

Beyond IMT, text-in-image machine translation
Chen et al. (2023); Lan et al. (2023); Ma et al.
(2022, 2024, 2023) focuses on translating text em-
bedded within images. Another development in
MMT is simultaneous machine translation (SiMT)
Haralampieva et al. (2022); Imankulova et al.
(2020); Ive et al. (2021), which generates trans-
lations before receiving the full input to reduce
latency while maintaining quality.

In all of the above cases videos are not a part
of the modeling. Therefore video-guided machine
translation has emerged which incorporates tempo-
ral information alongside visual and textual data
for improved translation accuracy.

3 Problem Formulation

The task of VMT involves contextually appropri-
ate translations of source language text by uti-
lizing additional modalities such as video and
audio. Formally, given a source language text
 $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n\}$ and a corresponding video
frame sequence $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$ (which may
include associated audio $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k\}$),
the goal is to produce a target language translation
 $T = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_p\}$ that is linguistically accurate
and contextually aligned with the multimodal in-
put. The objective of video-guided MT is to learn a
mapping function f that maximizes the likelihood

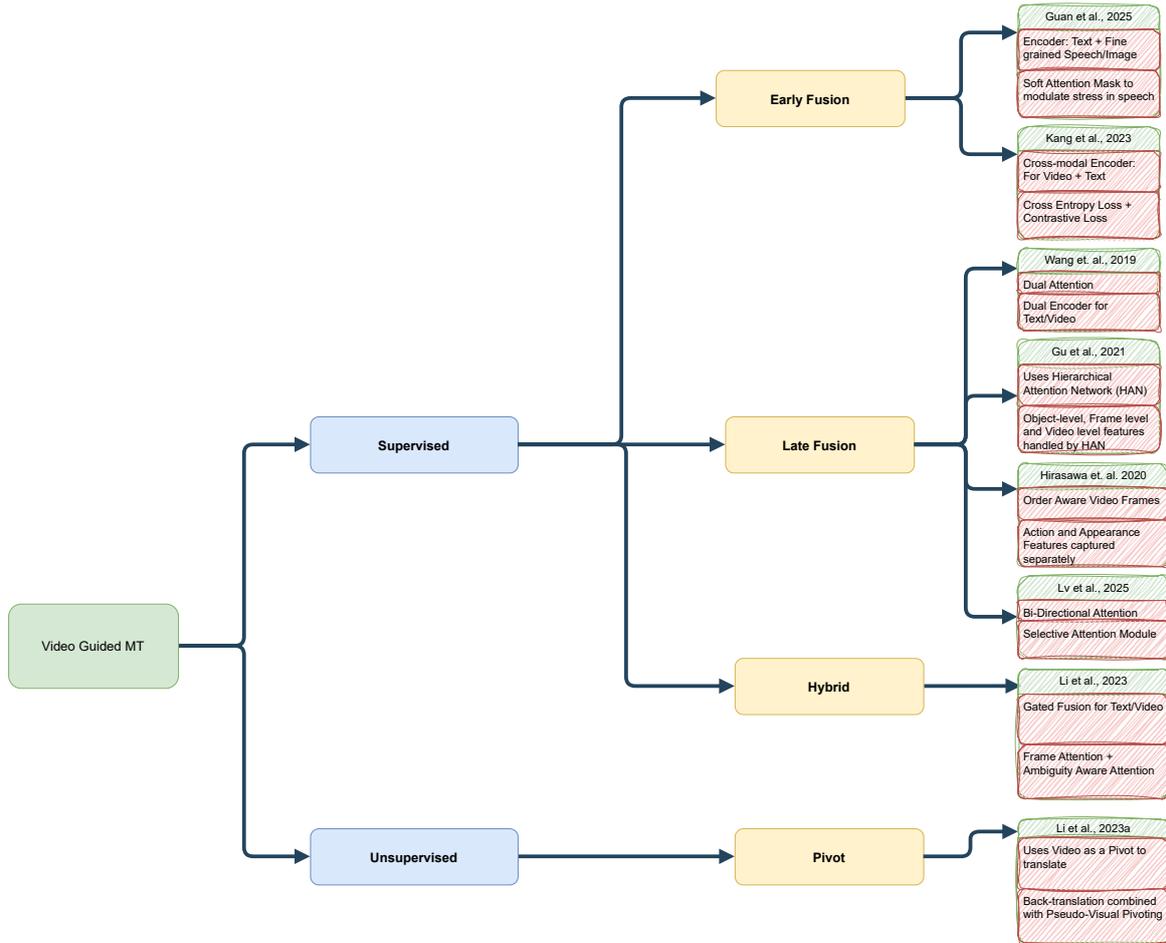


Figure 2: Taxonomy for Video Guided Machine Translation

of the target translation T given the source text S , video V , and audio A , expressed as

$$f(S, V, A) = \arg \max_T P(T | S, V, A).$$

This involves optimizing model parameters to minimize the discrepancy between the predicted translation \hat{T} and the ground truth T , typically using cross-entropy loss or other sequence-level objectives. The integration of video and audio modalities introduces unique challenges, such as temporal alignment and scalability, which distinguish video-guided MT from traditional text-based or image-guided MT and necessitate specialized approaches to effectively harness the rich, dynamic information provided by multimodal inputs. Video-guided multimodal MT leverages multiple modalities (text, video, and audio) to improve translation quality. The approaches can be broadly categorized based on how they handle modality fusion. Below and in Fig. 2, we present a taxonomy of these approaches, with supervised approaches focusing on **Late Fu-**

sion, Early Fusion, Hybrid Fusion and unsupervised approaches focusing on **Video Pivoting**.

4 Video Guided Machine Translation.

4.1 Late Fusion

The early approaches in VMT utilized separate encoders for video and text modalities and combined them at a later stage in the VMT pipeline.

Wang et al. (2019) designed a multimodal sequence to sequence model with temporal attention and source attention for videos and text embeddings respectively.

Hirasawa et al. (2020) introduce a novel approach to video representation in machine translation by incorporating positional encodings, making the model aware of the temporal order of frames. They further enhance the video representation by distinguishing between two types of features: action and appearance. The action features, captured by a dedicated video encoder, focus on motion information crucial for disambiguating verbs in the

Models	Datasets	Modelling Approaches	En-Zh	Zh-En
Wang et al. (2019)	VaTex	Dual Attention and Dual Encoder for Text/Video	29.1	26.4
Hirasawa et al. (2020)	VaTex	Order-aware video frames using positional embeddings.	35.4	-
Gu et al. (2021)	VaTex	Hierarchical Attention Network (HAN) applied at object, frame, and video levels.	35.9	-
Li et al. (2023b)	EVA	Introduces Frame Attention and Ambiguity-Aware Attention.	-	27.6
Li et al. (2023a)	Vatex	Uses Video as Pivot between languages	29.6	26.6
Kang et al. (2023)	VaTex BigVideo	Introduces additional contrastive loss.	37.6 44.8	-
Guan et al. (2025)	TriFine	Uses fine-grained speech features with soft attention masks.	38.06	25.51
Lv et al. (2025)	TopicVD	Uses selective attention and Bi-Attention on Text and Videos.	29.33	-

Table 1: Overview of Multimodal Translation Models, Approaches, and BLEU scores in En-Zh and Zh-En Directions

198 translation process. Conversely, appearance fea- 220
199 tures, extracted by an image encoder, provide de- 221
200 tailed information about objects and scenes within 222
201 each frame, aiding in the disambiguation of nouns. 223
202 This dual-feature approach allows the model to bet- 224
203 ter align visual cues with textual elements. 225

204 **Gu et al. (2021)** introduce a novel approach to 226
205 video representation inspired by Hierarchical At-
206 tention Networks (HAN) (Miculicich et al., 2018).
207 Their model divides video input processing into
208 two distinct components: motion representation
209 and spatial representation. For capturing motion
210 dynamics, they employ a pretrained I3D (Carreira
211 and Zisserman, 2017) network. The spatial aspect
212 is handled by a specialized HAN, which constructs
213 a multi-level representation hierarchy: object-level,
214 frame-level, and video-level. In this special HAN,
215 each successive level of representation serves as
216 a helper for the higher level, allowing for a pro-
217 gressively more comprehensive understanding of
218 the video’s spatial content. The object-level fea-
219 tures inform the frame-level representation, which

in turn contributes to the overall video-level under-
standing. This hierarchical approach enables the
model to capture both fine-grained spatial details
and broader contextual information. For generat-
ing the translated sentence, the authors utilize a
GRU (Gated Recurrent Unit) (Chung et al., 2014)
network as the decoder.

227 **Lv et al. (2025)**. integrates the selective atten-
228 tion module and the bidirectional attention module
229 by taking inspiration from Li et al. (2021) and Tang
230 et al. (2022b). Their architecture utilizes two en-
231 coders each for video and source text and fuses
232 the obtained representations using a cross modal
233 bidirectional attention mechanism. The fused rep-
234 resentations are then decoded into target-language
235 subtitles using an autoregressive transformer de-
236 coder. An empirical evaluation across multiple do-
237 mains reveals that the model’s performance notably
238 diminishes in out-of-domain scenarios.

239	4.2 Early Fusion		
240	This fusion occurs when different modalities are		
241	embedding together before being passed on to a		
242	shared encoder.		
243	Kang et al. (2023) introduces a cross-modal		
244	encoder that jointly processes video and text rep-		
245	resentations. The model enhances video features		
246	with positional encodings to capture temporal infor-		
247	mation. This cross-modal architecture enables the		
248	model to focus on relevant parts of both text and		
249	video inputs, facilitating more effective multimodal		
250	understanding. The training process incorporates		
251	two key objectives: cross-entropy loss in the de-		
252	coder for sequence generation, and a novel cross-		
253	modal contrastive learning (CTR) objective. The		
254	CTR objective is designed to learn shared seman-		
255	tics between video and text modalities, encouraging		
256	similar video-text pairs to have closer representa-		
257	tions while pushing dissimilar pairs apart in the		
258	embedding space.		
259	Guan et al. (2025) introduces the FIAT archi-		
260	tecture, a uni-modal encoder that integrates mul-		
261	tiiple fine-grained inputs for video-guided transla-		
262	tion. The model incorporates various types of tags,		
263	including entities, audio sentiments, locations, ex-		
264	pressions, and video captions, alongside source		
265	subtitles. The cross-modal encoder processes these		
266	diverse inputs jointly, allowing for complex inter-		
267	actions between different modalities. To capture		
268	nuanced speech information, the architecture em-		
269	ploys a soft attention mask that incorporates stress		
270	patterns from the audio. This attention mecha-		
271	nism helps the model focus on emphasized parts of		
272	speech, improving the accuracy and naturalness of		
273	translations.		
274	4.3 Hybrid Fusion		
275	Li et al. (2023b) introduce SAFA (Selective At-		
276	tention with Frame Attention) that integrates two		
277	key innovations: frame attention and selective at-		
278	tention. The frame attention mechanism, inspired		
279	by gated fusion techniques, encourages the model		
280	to focus on the most relevant video frames, par-		
281	ticularly central frames where subtitles typically		
282	appear. This is implemented through a frame at-		
283	tention loss. The selective attention component		
284	dynamically determines when to leverage visual		
285	information for translation, especially useful for		
286	handling ambiguous text. To further enhance the		
287	model’s ability to handle ambiguity, SAFA incorpo-		
288	rates an ambiguity-aware loss, encouraging heavier		
		reliance on video information for ambiguous text	289
		while prioritizing textual cues for non-ambiguous	290
		cases.	291
	4.4 Unsupervised Methods		292
	Li et al. (2023a) uses videos to serve as a "univer-		293
	sally pivot" to bridge language pairs without parallel		294
	corpora, with spatial-temporal graphs providing		295
	fine-grained visual grounding for both close and		296
	distant language pairs. Video pivoting in MMT		297
	leverages visual content from videos as an inter-		298
	mediary to align source and target languages in		299
	unsupervised settings. This approach addresses the		300
	challenge of latent space alignment between lan-		301
	guages by exploiting the shared visual-semantic		302
	information in videos, which provide richer spatial-		303
	temporal context than static images. The core		304
	mechanism involves multimodal back-translation		305
	combined with pseudo-visual pivoting, where mod-		306
	els learn a shared multilingual embedding space.		307
	Table 1 presents a comparison between all exist-		308
	ing approaches.		309
	5 Video Encoders		310
	Recent advances in video encoding architectures		311
	have significantly expanded the toolkit for video		312
	understanding in VMT tasks moving beyond tradi-		313
	tional 3D CNNs and ResNet-based approaches		314
	to specialized transformer architectures and cross-		315
	modal alignment strategies. Transformer-based		316
	models like VideoSwin Transformer (Liu et al.,		317
	2021) introduced locality-constrained spatiotemporal		318
	attention through shifted window mechanisms		319
	which reduced computational costs by 20× com-		320
	pared to 3D CNNs through hierarchical feature		321
	processing. Concurrently, ViViT (Arnab et al.,		322
	2021) demonstrated pure-transformer efficacy by		323
	factorizing spatial-temporal tokens and leveraging		324
	image-pretrained weights through temporal adap-		325
	tation of vision transformers. Contrastive learn-		326
	ing frameworks such as CLIP4Clip (Luo et al.,		327
	2021) adapted image-text pretrained CLIP mod-		328
	els for video retrieval via parameter-free similar-		329
	ity calculation and temporal alignment modules		330
	and jointly optimized video-text embeddings. This		331
	paradigm was extended by VideoCLIP(Xu et al.,		332
	2021), which incorporated hard negative mining		333
	during contrastive pretraining to boost zero-shot		334
	performance on video QA and aslo enabled tem-		335
	poral localization without task-specific fine-tuning.		336
	Emerging foundational encoders like VideoPrism		337

(Zhao et al., 2024) unified global-local video understanding through hybrid contrastive and masked autoencoding pretraining. For multimodal integration, VideoGPT+ (Maaz et al., 2024b) introduced dual spatial-temporal pathways combining ViT-L/14 image encoders with TimeSformer (Bertasius et al., 2021) video models via adaptive pooling gates. The MERV (Chung et al., 2025) framework advanced specialized knowledge fusion by spatiotemporally aligning features from DINOv2 (Oquab et al., 2024), ViViT (Arnab et al., 2021)(temporal), and SigLIP (Zhai et al., 2023) encoders through cross-attentive mixing, boosting VideoLLM performances. These architectures collectively address VMT’s core requirements - balancing spatial-temporal resolution, cross-modal alignment, and computational efficiency - while providing adaptable frameworks for integrating domain-specific visual knowledge into translation pipelines.

6 Analysis

This section presents a targeted analysis of recent multimodal translation models, focusing on three critical areas: cross-modal fusion strategies, the use of auxiliary loss functions, and the scaling of datasets and input modalities.

Cross-Modal Fusion: The design and depth of cross-modal fusion have a significant impact on translation quality. Early approaches, such as Wang et al. (2019), employed dual attention and dual encoders to handle video and text inputs separately. While foundational, these architectures lacked the capacity to model complex interactions between modalities. Subsequent models introduced more sophisticated fusion techniques—Hirasawa et al. (2020) encoded frame order through positional embeddings, and Gu et al. (2021) advanced this with hierarchical attention across object, frame, and scene levels. These enhancements led to notable improvements in En-Zh BLEU scores, underscoring the importance of structured and temporally-aware fusion mechanisms. Similarly, Lv et al. (2025) introduced discourse-level topic information via selective and bi-attention, though the impact was relatively modest—indicating that while more information can help, effective integration is crucial.

Auxiliary Loss Functions: The introduction of auxiliary learning objectives, particularly contrastive losses, has proven effective in strengthening cross-modal alignment. Kang et al. (2023)

achieved the highest En-Zh BLEU score by combining a contrastive loss with standard translation objectives. This allowed the model to more effectively discriminate between semantically aligned and unaligned video-text pairs. Similarly, Li et al. (2023b) leveraged ambiguity-aware attention as a form of auxiliary supervision, yielding the highest Zh-En BLEU score. These results demonstrate that auxiliary objectives targeting representation quality and semantic clarity can lead to significant translation gains. (Li et al., 2023a) uses back translation for latent space alignment for videos and text with pseudo-visual pivoting.

Scaling of Data and Additional Features: Model performance has also benefited from scaling both data and modalities. The use of large-scale datasets, as in Kang et al. (2023), clearly contributes to better generalization and more robust cross-modal representations. Additionally, Guan et al. (2025) incorporated fine-grained speech features alongside video and text, achieving strong En-Zh performance. However, the asymmetry in Zh-En results suggests that the effectiveness of additional modalities such as audio depends on language direction or modality alignment quality.

7 Datasets

Table 2 presents all the datasets used in Video-guided machine Translation.

Vatex dataset introduced in (Wang et al., 2019) is one of the most widely used benchmarks for video-guided multimodal machine translation. It consists of multilingual video descriptions and is designed to facilitate research in video captioning and translation. The dataset contains over 41,000 videos collected from the MSR-VTT (Xu et al., 2016) dataset, with each video annotated with 10 English descriptions and their corresponding translations in Mandarin Chinese. The videos cover a diverse range of topics, including sports, music, and everyday activities, making it a robust resource for training and evaluating multimodal MT models.

EVA (Li et al., 2023b) is a large-scale resource focused on subtitle ambiguity. It contains 852,000 Japanese-English and 520,000 Chinese-English parallel subtitle pairs, each aligned with corresponding video clips sourced from movies and TV episodes. EVA also features a specially curated evaluation set where subtitle ambiguity is guaranteed and the accompanying video is necessary for

Dataset	Language	Clips	Secs	Sen	Domain	Genre	AM	FT	S	A-S Alignment	TB
How2	En-Pt	186K	5.8	186K	Instruction	Short Video	×	×	✓	✓	×
VATEX	En-Zh	41K	10	129K	Captions	Short Video	×	×	✓	×	×
VISA	En-Ja	40K	10	40K	Subtitle	Film and Television	✓	×	×	×	×
EVA	En-Zh/Ja	1.4M	10	1.4M	Subtitle	Film and Television	✓	×	×	×	×
BigVideo	En-Zh	3.3M	8	4.5M	Subtitle	Short Video	✓	×	×	×	×
MAD-VMT	En-Zh	193K	-	193K	Caption	Movies	×	×	×	×	×
Trifine	En-Zh	2.4M	10	2.4M	Subtitle	Short Video	✓	✓	✓	✓	×
TopicVD	En-Zh	122K	8.4	122K	Subtitle	Documentary	×	×	×	✓	✓

Table 2: Overview of Video Guided Machine Translation Datasets. "Secs" denote the duration of each clip. "Sen" denote the number of sentences in the dataset. "AM" denote the availability of ambiguity-aware dataset. "FT" denotes the availability of fine-grained tags of the dataset. "S" denotes the availability of Audio. "A-S" alignment indicates whether the Audio-Video are aligned. "TB" denotes topic based segregation of the dataset.

disambiguation, directly addressing a major limitation of prior MMT datasets.

How2 (Sanabria et al., 2018) was one of the first datasets addressing multimodal language understanding. It contains 79,114 instructional videos along with English subtitles and aligned Portuguese subtitles. All the clips contain the summary of the event occurring in the clip.

VISA (Li et al., 2022b) contains clips from movies and TV along with parallel subtitles in English and Japanese. All subtitles are ambiguous and fall into either the "Polysemy" or "Ambiguous" category. Hence, any translation task involving these subtitles must rely on the corresponding video clip for context.

BigVideo (Kang et al., 2023) is a large-scale dataset specifically focusing on video subtitle translation. It contains 4.5 million English-Chinese sentence pairs aligned with 156,000 unique videos, totaling 9,981 hours of content. It is currently the largest video-guided machine translation dataset available. BigVideo contains two specially annotated test sets: Ambiguous and Unambiguous. The Ambiguous set contains source inputs that require video context for accurate translation, while the Unambiguous set includes self-contained text suitable for translation without visual cues.

The **MAD-VMT** (Shurtz et al., 2024) (Movie Audio Descriptions for Video-guided Machine Translation) dataset is derived from the MAD dataset, which contains transcribed audio descriptions of movies typically used for visually impaired audiences. To create MAD-VMT, the English transcriptions from MAD were machine-translated into Chinese using Google Translate. This approach was adopted to increase the amount and lexical diversity of both source and target language pre-training data for video-guided machine translation tasks.

TopicVD (Lv et al., 2025) is a topic-based

dataset designed for VMT of documentaries, addressing the lack of large-scale, diverse video data in long-form videos. It consists of 256 documentaries spanning eight topics - Economy, Food, History, Figure, Military, Nature, Social, and Technology, comprising 285 hours of video and 122,930 Chinese-English parallel subtitle pairs, with contextual information for each video-subtitle pair. The dataset enables research on domain adaptation as experiments show that visual and contextual information significantly enhance translation performance, especially in in-domain scenarios.

Trifine (Guan et al., 2025) is a comprehensive tri modal dataset designed for vision-audio-subtitle analysis and translation tasks. It features a parallel corpus of English-Chinese subtitles, complemented by fine-grained audio labels such as audio sentiment and stress, as well as video labels including location, entities, expressions, and actions.

8 Previous Surveys

Shen et al. (2024) explores Multimodal Machine Translation in detail covering various aspects like Image-guided MT, In-Image MT, Video-guided MT and Chat Multimodal MT. It explores image-guided MT in utmost detail, underlining its modelling approaches and datasets in detail. It also touches upon various works which analyze the extent of the importance of images in improving the translations. However, Shen et al. (2024) doesn't explore the intricacies of video-guided MT by going into the depth of modeling and taxonomy of VMT. Similarly, Paul et al. (2024) surveys MMT papers related to Indian Languages with Image-guided MT in focus. Video-guided MT differs from general Multimodal MT which covers wide range of MMT tasks. Since video modality is information heavy, it demands its own analysis and dedicated survey.

516	9 Challenges and Future Directions		564
517	This section discusses about various challenges		565
518	in VMT and also points towards possible future		566
519	research directions		567
520	9.1 Challenges		568
521	Information Redundancy and Computational		569
522	Overhead According to Guan et al. (2025), VMT		570
523	requires selecting multiple frames to extract coarse-		572
524	grained visual features. However, not all frames		573
525	contribute equally to translation quality, leading to		574
526	increased computational overhead. The inclusion		575
527	of redundant frames can also introduce regulariza-		576
528	tion issues, impacting model performance.		
529	Audio Integration in VMT While VMT primar-		577
530	ily relies on visual cues for translation, incorporat-		578
531	ing audio is crucial. Audio provides essential con-		579
532	textual information, such as speaker intent, tone,		580
533	and background sounds, which significantly en-		582
534	hance translation accuracy. However, effectively		583
535	fusing audio with video representations remains a		584
536	challenge. Guan et al. (2025) has only introduced		585
537	a trimodal dataset with audio and fine grained tags.		586
538	Data Scarcity in Low-Resource Languages		587
539	VMT models require triplet data—video, source		588
540	text, and target text—for training. However, such		589
541	datasets are scarce, particularly for low-resource		590
542	languages and underrepresented language families.		591
543	This data bottleneck limits the scalability and gen-		592
544	eralization of VMT models. Table 2 shows that		593
545	most video-guided MT datasets consist of English		594
546	and Chinese data with no representation from other		595
547	language families.		596
548	9.2 Future Directions		597
549	Integrating World Knowledge using Video		598
550	LLMs Enhancing VMT with external world		599
551	knowledge, such as named entities (famous per-		600
552	sonalities, cultural references) and idiomatic ex-		601
553	pressions, could improve translation accuracy.		602
554	Techniques like knowledge graph integration or		603
555	retrieval-augmented generation could be explored.		604
556	Pretrained large-scale multimodal models, trained		605
557	on extensive text-image corpora, could be fine-		
558	tuned for VMT. Video LLMs like Maaz et al.		
559	(2024b), Cheng et al. (2024) and Maaz et al.		
560	(2024a) inherently capture rich cross-modal rep-		
561	resentations and have instruction following ability		
562	making them valuable for video-guided translation		
563	tasks which may involve reasoning. Video-LLMs		
	also provide an able ground to explore agentic ma-		564
	chine translation setups as seen in Wu et al. (2025)		565
	which can further the reasoning and generalization		566
	ability of translation systems.		567
	High-Quality Multilingual and Domain-Specific		568
	Datasets Developing large-scale, high-quality		569
	datasets across multiple language families and di-		570
	verse domains is essential for improving VMT.		571
	This would address current data scarcity challenges		572
	and enhance translation performance in various		573
	contexts. Only Lv et al. (2025) currently has do-		574
	main specific segregation of data in English and		575
	Chinese.		576
	Real-Time Translation with Low Latency		577
	Achieving real-time video-guided translation with		578
	minimal latency is a key goal. Optimizations such		579
	as efficient frame selection, lightweight transformer		580
	architectures, and parallelized inference pipelines		581
	could be explored to enable low-latency, high-		582
	accuracy translations. Recently Chen et al. (2024)		583
	attempted to cruch stream video using Video LLMs.		584
	However, they lose out on better representation for		585
	spatial and temporal features.		586
	10 Conclusion		587
	In this paper, we provide a comprehensive overview		588
	of video-guided machine translation (VMT). We		589
	begin by discussing the background and evolution		590
	of multimodal machine translation (MMT) to VMT.		591
	Next, we present a taxonomy of various VMT ap-		592
	proaches based on their model design. We then		593
	review the datasets commonly used for VMT re-		594
	search. Finally, we discuss the key challenges in		595
	VMT and explore potential future directions for		596
	advancing this task.		597
	Limitations		598
	Since video-guided machine translation is an		599
	emerging field, any survey on this topic must be		600
	continuously updated to reflect new research de-		601
	velopments. As new datasets, models, and ap-		602
	proaches are introduced, the landscape of VMT		603
	evolves rapidly, making it challenging to maintain		604
	a comprehensive and up-to-date overview.		605
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