BIDIRECTIONAL GENERATIVE RETRIEVAL WITH MULTI-MODAL LLMS FOR TEXT-VIDEO RETRIEVAL

Anonymous authors

Paper under double-blind review

Abstract

In recent years, multi-modal large language models (MLLMs) have shown outstanding advancement in various multi-modal understanding tasks by leveraging the powerful knowledge of large language models (LLMs). Extending MLLMs to text-video retrieval enables handling more complex queries with multiple modalities beyond simple uni-modal queries for traditional search engines. It also provides a new opportunity to incorporate search into a unified conversational system, but MLLM-based text-video retrieval has been less explored in the literature. To this end, we investigate MLLMs' capabilities in text-video retrieval as a generation task, namely, generative retrieval, in two directions. An intuitive direction is *content generation* that directly generates the content given a query. Another direction is *query generation*, which generates the query given the content. Interestingly, we observe that in both text-to-video and video-to-text retrieval tasks, query-generation less suffers from the bias and significantly outperforms content-generation. In this paper, we propose a novel framework, Bidirectional Text-Video Generative Retrieval (BGR), that handles both text-to-video and video-to-text retrieval tasks by measuring the relevance using two generation directions. Our framework trains MLLMs by simultaneously optimizing two objectives, i.e., video-grounded text generation (VTG) and text-grounded video feature generation (TVG). At inference, our framework ensembles predictions by both generation directions. We also introduce a Prior Normalization, a simple plug-and-play module, to further alleviate the *prior bias* induced by the likelihood of uni-modal content data that often overwhelms the relevance between query and content. Our extensive experiments on multi-modal benchmarks demonstrate that BGR and Prior Normalization are effective in alleviating the prior bias, especially the text prior bias from LLMs' pretrained knowledge in MLLMs, achieving stateof-the-art performance.

034 035

037

004

010 011

012

013

014

015

016

017

018

019

021

023

025

026

027

028

029

031

032

1 INTRODUCTION

In recent years, large language models (LLMs) (Chowdhery et al., 2023; Touvron et al., 2023; Achiam et al., 2023; Jiang et al., 2023; Chung et al., 2022; Team, 2023) have gained attention 040 due to their powerful knowledge obtained during pretraining. To leverage LLMs' knowledge in 041 understanding visual recognition, LLMs have been extended into Multi-modal large language mod-042 els (MLLMs) (Alayrac et al., 2022; Driess et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2023b; Li et al., 2024b; Zhu 043 et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2024c;b; Liu et al., 2024) and they have demonstrated remarkable capabil-044 ities in comprehensive image and video understanding. Despite the success of MLLMs in various 045 multi-modal understanding tasks, adapting those models to text-video retrieval (i.e., text-to-video and video-to-text), which aims to find the most relevant video (or text) content among content can-046 didates given a text (or video) query as in Fig. 1a, has been less explored in the literature. 047

In general, MLLMs are trained to generate a text sequence given the image or video, enabling
 them to follow complex human instructions regarding visual information. Therefore, integrating
 the retrieval task into MLLMs can be easily extended to instruction-based retrieval beyond standard
 retrieval benchmarks with simple captions, in real-world chatting systems. Specifically, MLLMs can
 be applied to process more complex multi-modal queries to retrieve the most relevant multi-modal
 content as in Fig. 1b. The versatility, in addition to MLLMs' powerful knowledge, motivates our
 work to integrate the retrieval task into MLLMs by mainly exploring the Text-Video Retrieval task.

061

062

063

064

065

066

067

068 069

070

071

072

054



Figure 1: (a) illustrates the standard Text-Video Retrieval task. (b) illustrates the retrieval task based on human instruction with a multi-modal query asking to retrieve the multi-modal content. (c) shows that the query-generation model significantly outperforms the content-generation model.

073 In this paper, we formulate the Text-Video Retrieval task as a generation task by directly leveraging MLLMs' generation capabilities, *i.e.*, generative retrieval (Tay et al., 2022). Intuitively, when adapt-074 ing the generative retrieval to Text-Video Retrieval, one might want to generate a content modality 075 given a query modality, *i.e.*, content-generation. However, the query-generation model, which gen-076 erates the query given the content, significantly outperforms the content-generation model. For ex-077 ample, in text-to-video retrieval (T2V), the query-generation model which generates the text query given the video content surpasses the content-generation model which generates the video content 079 by a margin of 28.9 on R@1 in Fig. 1c. This is attributed to an undesirable bias towards the prior probability of the content, *i.e.*, prior bias. Specifically, on video-to-text retrieval (V2T), the content-081 generation model generating text content predominantly retrieves the caption with the highest text prior probability in Fig. 2a, *i.e.*, RANK-1 based on the text prior probability P(t)). In fact, this 083 caption is retrieved for approximately 777 out of 1,003 videos, accounting for 77% of the total. This implies that MLLMs provide suboptimal retrieval results in V2T ignoring the relevance between the 084 video query and the text content. We also observe that the text prior bias in V2T is more severe than 085 the video prior bias in T2V due to the LLMs' strong pretrained knowledge. Such text prior bias is prevalent even in other multi-modal tasks like visual question answering and captioning (Niu et al., 087 2021; Ramakrishnan et al., 2018; Cadene et al., 2019; Leng et al., 2024). Overall, both text prior 880 bias and video prior bias are exhibited in MLLMs with the content-generation model for generative 089 retrieval. 090

To handle both video and text retrievals, we propose a novel framework, Bidirectional Text-Video 091 Generative Retrieval (BGR), which measures the relevance between the video and text using two 092 generation directions. Our framework trains MLLMs by simultaneously optimizing two objectives, *i.e.*, video-grounded text generation (VTG) and text-grounded video feature generation (TVG). 094 At inference, BGR ensembles predictions by both generation directions. For instance, in text-to-095 video retrieval, BGR bolsters its predictions from content generation (video) by query generation 096 (text), which is more accurate and robust to prior bias as in Fig. 1c. We also propose a plugand-play module, Prior Normalization, which is a simple yet effective training-free score cali-098 bration method to further reduce the prior bias at retrieval inference. We showcase the effective-099 ness of our BGR equipped with Prior Normalization on four popular Text-Video Retrieval bench-100 mark datasets (DiDeMo (Anne Hendricks et al., 2017), ActivityNet (Caba Heilbron et al., 2015), LSMDC (Rohrbach et al., 2017), and MSRVTT (Xu et al., 2016)). Our in-depth analyses show-101 case that Prior Normalization can be extended to a Prior Normalized Decoding for a wide range of 102 multi-modal understanding tasks beyond retrieval. 103

- To sum up, our **contributions** are as follows:
- We formulate text-video retrieval as a generation problem by MLLMs. To the best of our knowledge, this paper is the first work that studies *prior bias* induced by the likelihood of uni-modal content data, which is severer in content generation than geury generation.

- We propose a novel retrieval framework, Bidirectional Text-Video Generative Retrieval (BGR), to leverage MLLMs' generative capabilities, which is composed of two objectives: video-grounded text generation (VTG) and text-grounded video feature generation (TVG).
 - We also present simple yet effective score calibration methods, Prior Normalization and Prior Normalized Decoding, which further reduce the prior bias, leading to performance improvements in BGR as well as in various MLLMs.
 - Our extensive analyses demonstrate that the query-generation model is especially effective in mitigating the text prior bias arising from strong LLMs' knowledge in MLLMs, and Prior Normalized Decoding successfully reduces the reliance on the textual data and encourages the model to balance its consideration between the visual and the text modality in various multi-modal understanding tasks.
- 119 120 121

123

108

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

2 PRELIMINARY AND MOTIVATION

2.1 PRELIMINARY

Text-Video Retrieval consists of two sub-tasks, *i.e.*, text-to-video retrieval (T2V) and video-to-text retrieval (V2T), aiming to find the most relevant video (or text) content given a text (or video) query. Previous approaches have conducted the retrieval task by employing video-text contrastive (VTC) and video-text matching (VTM) loss functions to align video and text features. The **VTC** loss focuses on aligning uni-modal video and text representation by maximizing the mutual information with the symmetric contrastive loss (Bain et al., 2021). Given the global features of video and text from each uni-modal encoder, $\tilde{v} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ and $\tilde{t} \in \mathbb{R}^D$, the VTC loss is defined as:

131 132

133 134

145

146 147

148

149

150

151

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{vtc}} = -\frac{1}{B} \sum_{n=1}^{B} \left(\log \frac{\exp\left(\tilde{v}^{(n)^{\top}} \tilde{t}^{(n)}\right)}{\sum_{m=1}^{B} \exp\left(\tilde{v}^{(n)^{\top}} \tilde{t}^{(m)}\right)} + \log \frac{\exp\left(\tilde{v}^{(n)^{\top}} \tilde{t}^{(n)}\right)}{\sum_{m=1}^{B} \exp\left(\tilde{v}^{(m)^{\top}} \tilde{t}^{(n)}\right)} \right), \quad (1)$$

135 where B is the batch size, and $\tilde{v}^{(n)}$ and $\tilde{t}^{(n)}$ denote the global features of the n-th video and text. On 136 the other hand, the **VTM** loss predicts whether the given pair of video and text is a match (positive) 137 or an unmatch (negative) pair, *i.e.*, a binary classification task, through a cross-modal fusion score. 138 One special token z is appended at the end (or start) of the sequence to aggregate information from the previous (or succeeding) tokens including both video and text in the cross-modal encoder. 139 Finally, the output feature of the special token, \tilde{z} , is used in the binary classification. In inference, 140 the VTM scores generally demonstrate superior performance compared to VTC scores but require 141 larger computational costs. Hence, in the literature (Li et al., 2023b;d), a hybrid approach has been 142 explored, which efficiently retrieves the top-k candidates by VTC, and then computes more accurate 143 scores by VTM for all pairs of the top-k candidates. 144

2.2 MOTIVATION

To analyze the phenomenon where the query-generation model outperforms the content-generation model that suffers from the prior bias, we revisit the inference procedure of T2V, which is as follows:

 $\mathbf{v}^* = \operatorname*{arg\,max}_{\mathbf{v}} P(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t}_{query}) = \operatorname*{arg\,max}_{\mathbf{v}} \frac{P(\mathbf{t}_{query}|\mathbf{v})P(\mathbf{v})}{P(\mathbf{t}_{query})} = \operatorname*{arg\,max}_{\mathbf{v}} P(\mathbf{t}_{query}|\mathbf{v})P(\mathbf{v}).$ (2)

152 In Eq. (2), to search for the most relevant video content \mathbf{v}^* given a text query \mathbf{t}_{query} , the model 153 takes into account the prior probability of video content $P(\mathbf{v})$ as well as the conditional probability 154 $P(\mathbf{t}_{query}|\mathbf{v})$ which measures the relevance between text query and video content. Similarly, the 155 inference procedure of V2T is $\mathbf{t}^* = \arg \max_{\mathbf{t}} P(\mathbf{v}_{query}|\mathbf{t})P(\mathbf{t})$, where the text prior probability 156 $P(\mathbf{t})$ is reflected to find an optimal text content given video query. We observe that when predicting 157 V2T, the model tends to retrieve the caption, which is less related to the video query v_{query} but has a high text prior probability (and vice versa), *i.e.*, the prior probability of text content overwhelms the relevance between text content and video query. Fig. 2b shows a representative example. The 159 'Caption 2' is incorrectly retrieved by two irrelevant video queries since its text prior probability (i.e., 160 uni-modal likelihood P(t) = 0.38) is much higher than the other captions (P(t) = 0.00). Hence, 161 the posterior probability $P(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v})$ of 'Caption 2' is significantly higher than the others, leading to



Figure 2: Result of MLLM's prediction on Video-to-Text Retrieval. (a) The upper heatmap illustrates the retrieval result on the content-generation model in V2T. 50 text-video pairs are sampled to
avoid visual clutter. The lower bar plot shows the prior probability of each caption. We observe that
the caption with the highest prior probability is retrieved by most videos. (b) illustrates an example
of MLLM's prediction on V2T.

the suboptimal retrieval result. This is attributed to the powerful knowledge of LLMs that MLLMs
excessively rely on rather than considering the visual contents, *i.e.*, the model exhibits the 'text prior bias'. This text prior bias is commonly observed in various multi-modal tasks like visual question answering and captioning as well as the retrieval task (Niu et al., 2021; Ramakrishnan et al., 2018; Cadene et al., 2019; Leng et al., 2024). Similarly, MLLMs also exhibit the 'video prior bias' on T2V, resulting in the significant performance gap between the content-generation and query-generation model as in Fig. 1c. Further discussion on the video prior bias is provided in Sec. E.1. As a result, we argue that alleviating the prior bias is crucial when MLLMs are used in Text-Video Retrieval.

190 191

192

3 Method

In this section, we first introduce a simple non-generative baseline for MLLM-based Text-Video
Retrieval that utilizes VTC and VTM losses in Sec. 3.1. Then, we present a novel framework,
Bidirectional Text-Video Generative Retrieval (BGR) in Sec. 3.2. BGR trains MLLMs with two objectives: video-grounded text generation (VTG) and text-grounded video feature generation (TVG).
During inference, BGR ensembles predictions by both generation directions. Lastly, we present a
plug-and-play score calibration method, Prior Normalization, which reduces the influence of priors
even in the content-generation model, and we extend it for various multi-modal tasks by introducing
Prior Normalized Decoding in Sec. 3.3.

201 202

203

3.1 MLLM BASELINE FOR TEXT-VIDEO RETRIEVAL

We here introduce a simple baseline of MLLM for Text-Video Retrieval by applying common 204 retrieval objectives, VTC and VTM. MLLMs are generally composed of a Vision Encoder, Pro-205 jection Layer, and LLM. The visual tokens are first extracted from the vision encoder and then 206 projected into the LLM's embedding space via the projection layer. Those tokens are concate-207 nated to the text tokens and fed to the LLM to perform multi-modal tasks. We fine-tune pretrained 208 VideoChat2 (Li et al., 2024b) which adopts the Q-Former and a linear layer as the projection layer 209 and LoRA to fine-tune an LLM, as illustrated in Fig. 3a. In addition to the projected L_v video tokens $\mathbf{v} = [v_1, \ldots, v_{L_v}] \in \mathbb{R}^{L_v \times D}$ and L_t text tokens $\mathbf{t} = [t_1, \ldots, t_{L_t}] \in \mathbb{R}^{L_t \times D}$ with the hidden dimension D, we append two additional special tokens $v_{\text{vtc}} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ and $t_{\text{vtc}} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ that indicate the end of 210 211 212 the video and text, respectively. These special tokens aggregate information of each modality and 213 their output representations (\tilde{v}_{vtc} and \tilde{t}_{vtc}) are used to calculate the VTC loss in Eq. (1). The crossmodal attention is masked to prevent information leakage from the other modality when obtaining 214 \tilde{v}_{vtc} and \tilde{t}_{vtc} . Similarly, one special token z_{vtm} is appended to calculate the VTM loss. We update the 215 parameters only in the linear projection layer and LoRA for parameter-efficient fine-tuning.



Figure 3: Overall architecture. (a) VideoChat2 with VTC and VTM (baseline). (b) VideoChat2 with VTC and our Bidirectional Text-Video Generative Retrieval (BGR), which optimizes both video-grounded text generation (VTG) and text-grounded video feature generation (TVG).

3.2 **BIDIRECTIONAL TEXT-VIDEO GENERATIVE RETRIEVAL**

239 Unlike the non-generative baseline of MLLM that focuses on the feature alignment using VTM, 240 to leverage the generative approach of MLLMs, we propose to generate the other modality (e.g., text) given the paired modality (e.g., video) as a condition (and vice versa), namely Bidirectional Text-Video Generative Retrieval (BGR). The overall architecture of BGR is depicted in Fig. 3b. 243

Training procedure. Along with the common pretraining objective for MLLMs of video-grounded 244 text generation (VTG), we newly introduce a text-grounded video feature generation (TVG) objec-245 tive for bidirectionality. We train a model for both objectives with shared parameters. To distinguish 246 the two different generations, we denote the probabilities measured by VTG and TVG as $P_{\rm vtg}$ and 247 P_{tvg} . Given a paired text t and video v, the VTG objective function of BGR is formulated as: 248

249 250

233

234

235

236 237

238

241

242

251

253

254

255

256 257 258

259 260 261

262

263

where $P_{\text{vtg}}(t_i|t_{\leq i}, \mathbf{v}) = \text{Softmax}(\text{Linear}(\tilde{t}_{i-1}))$. $\tilde{t} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ is the output feature of $t \in \mathbb{R}^D$ and t_0 is the start token of the text sequence.

 $\mathcal{L}_{\text{vtg}} = -\log P_{\text{vtg}}(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v}) = -\sum_{i=1}^{L_t} \log P_{\text{vtg}}(t_i|t_{< i}, \mathbf{v}),$

On the other hand, we formulate the **TVG** loss as a feature generation inspired by Fu et al. (2023b); Luo et al. (2020). The objective function of TVG is formulated as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{tvg}} = -\log P_{\text{tvg}}(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t}) = -\sum_{i=1}^{L_v} \log \frac{\exp\left(\tilde{v}_{i-1}^\top v_i\right)}{\sum_{n=1}^{\mathcal{V}} \exp\left(\tilde{v}_{i-1}^\top v_i^{(n)}\right)},\tag{4}$$

(3)

where \mathcal{V} is the number of training videos and $\tilde{v} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ is the output feature of $v \in \mathbb{R}^D$. However, we empirically observe that generating mean-pooled features at once rather than the sequence of video tokens yields better performance, so the final TVG loss is defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{tvg}} = -\log P_{\text{tvg}}(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t}) = -\log \frac{\exp\left(\tilde{v}_0^{\top} \, \bar{\mathbf{v}}\right)}{\sum_{n=1}^{\mathcal{V}} \exp\left(\tilde{v}_0^{\top} \, \bar{\mathbf{v}}^{(n)}\right)},\tag{5}$$

where v_0 is the start of the video token sequence and $\bar{\mathbf{v}} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ denotes the mean-pooled feature of 268 $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^{L_v \times D}$. Eq. (5) encourages the model to generate the video content feature from the entire 269 training videos $\{\mathbf{v}^{(1)}, \ldots, \mathbf{v}^{(\mathcal{V})}\}$.

Overall, we train BGR by combining the two objectives along with VTC as:

272 273

281

282 283 284

292 293

308

317 318 where \mathcal{L}_{vtc} can be obtained by Eq. (1). We note that two special tokens for VTC, v_{vtc} and t_{vtc} , are inserted into the VTG model and TVG model respectively to reduce the number of forward processes

(6)

 $\mathcal{L}_{bgr} = \mathcal{L}_{vtg} + \mathcal{L}_{tvg} + \mathcal{L}_{vtc},$

inserted into the VTG model and TVG model respectively to reduce the number of forward processes
 for training efficiency.

Inference procedure. During inference, given the task, it is more intuitive to use the output score of the model that generates the *content* given the query as the condition, which is referred to as the *content-generation* model of BGR (*e.g.*, V2T with VTG). Yet, instead, we observe that the *query-generation* model of BGR that generates the *query* given the content as the condition (*e.g.*, V2T with TVG) outperforms the content-generation model by alleviating dependencies on priors.

Returning to the objectives of TVG and VTG in Eq. (3) and (4), each objective can be rewritten as:

$$\frac{P_{\text{tvg}}(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t})}{\text{TVG-T2V}} \propto \underbrace{P_{\text{tvg}}(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v})}_{\text{TVG-V2T}} P_{\text{tvg}}(\mathbf{v}), \text{ and } \underbrace{P_{\text{vtg}}(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v})}_{\text{VTG-V2T}} \propto \underbrace{P_{\text{vtg}}(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t})}_{\text{VTG-T2V}} P_{\text{vtg}}(\mathbf{t}). \tag{7}$$

In Eq. (7), the content-generation model, *i.e.*, TVG-T2V and VTG-V2T, suffers from the prior bias, leading the model to ignore the visual-text correspondence and only take into account the content prior probability itself. In other words, the prediction of T2V using TVG is biased towards the video prior $P_{tvg}(\mathbf{v})$ in Eq. (7) (left), and the prediction of V2T with VTG is biased towards the text prior $P_{vtg}(\mathbf{t})$ in Eq. (7) (right). On the other hand, the query-generation models, *i.e.*, TVG-V2T and VTG-T2V, are less dependent on the content prior, resulting in the alleviation of prior bias. Overall, the inference procedure using both directional models for T2V and V2T is written as:

$$\mathbf{v}^{*} = \arg\max_{\mathbf{v}} \underbrace{P_{\text{vtg}}(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t}_{\text{query}})}_{\mathbf{query-generation}} + \underbrace{P_{\text{tvg}}(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t}_{\text{query}})}_{\text{content-generation}}, \quad \mathbf{t}^{*} = \arg\max_{\mathbf{t}} \underbrace{P_{\text{tvg}}(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v}_{\text{query}})}_{\mathbf{query-generation}} + \underbrace{P_{\text{vtg}}(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v}_{\text{query}})}_{\text{content-generation}}.$$
(8)

In Eq. (8), both the content-generation and query-generation models are used to find optimal con-295 tent among the content candidates. In the **content-generation model**, the optimal content with the 296 maximum likelihood is chosen by substituting the content candidates one by one in the **output** of 297 the model, which is **most likely to be generated by the query**. On the other hand, in **the query**-298 generation model, the optimal content with the maximum likelihood is chosen by substituting the 299 content candidates one by one in the input of the model, which is most likely to generate the 300 query. For example, in T2V, for the query-generation model, we fix the output of P_{vtg} as the given 301 text query and seek the best video content which most likely generates the text query by maximizing 302 $P_{\text{vtg}}(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t}_{\text{query}})$. On the other hand, for the content-generation model, we fix the input of P_{tvg} as the 303 given text query and seek the best video content which is most likely to be generated by maximizing 304 $P_{\text{tvg}}(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t}_{\text{query}})$. The optimal text content is similarly retrieved in V2T. Further details of the infer-305 ence strategy are provided in Sec. C. As a result, the bidirectional generation capability of BGR enables retrieval leveraging the query-generation model that easily decouples the prior probability 306 to alleviate the MLLMs' over-reliance on the priors. 307

309 3.3 PRIOR NORMALIZATION

To further alleviate the prior bias at retrieval inference, we here introduce a training-free score calibration method, Prior Normalization. Also, we extend the Prior Normalization to a decoding scheme, Prior Normalized Decoding, which is applicable to a wide range of multi-modal tasks, *e.g.*, visual question answering and visual captioning.

Prior Normalization in Text-Video Retrieval. We aim to calibrate the probability $P(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v})$ by normalizing the effect of the text prior $P(\mathbf{t})$ as:

$$P(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t})P(\mathbf{t})}{P(\mathbf{v})} \rightarrow \frac{P(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v})}{P(\mathbf{t})^{\alpha}} = \frac{P(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t})P(\mathbf{t})^{1-\alpha}}{P(\mathbf{v})},\tag{9}$$

where $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ is a hyperparameter which determines a normalization strength. Instead of directly using the standard probability of $P(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v})$ in Eq. (9) (left), we normalize it with the text prior $P(\mathbf{t})$ in Eq. (9) (right). Then, the normalized probability $P^{\alpha}(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v})$ is defined as:

$$\log P^{\alpha}(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v}) \triangleq \log \frac{P(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v})}{P(\mathbf{t})^{\alpha}} = \log P(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v}) - \alpha \cdot \log P(\mathbf{t}).$$
(10)

 $\begin{array}{ll} \begin{array}{ll} & P^{\alpha}(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t}) \text{ is similarly defined to normalize the effects of the video prior. We obtain the prior prob$ $ability as <math>P(\mathbf{t}) \triangleq \sum_{\mathbf{v}} P(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{t})$ by calculating all the combinations of video-text correspondences $P(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{t})$ using P_{vtg} or P_{tvg} . As a result, we use the normalized probability $P^{\alpha}(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v})$ to search an optimal text in Eq. (8) at inference, leading to an alleviation of biased prediction toward the prior. Interestingly, we observe that Prior Normalization is particularly effective in the content-generation model since the prior bias is prevalent in the content-generation model but already alleviated in the query-generation model (see Sec. 4.2 for details).

Prior Normalization has been actively explored in the literature, including in the context of Bayesian approach (Cui et al., 2022; Ye et al., 2022) and maximum a posterior (MAP) estimation (Doucet et al., 2002; Fei-Fei & Perona, 2005). For example, Cui et al. (2022) have proposed an elegant prior normalization technique that transforms non-Gaussian prior into standard Gaussian distributions, enabling LIS-based MCMC sampling for high-dimensional Bayesian inverse problems. However, in this work, we first study prior normalization in the context of text-video retrieval with MLLMs by interpreting the likelihood of a single modality as the prior for calculating the joint probability.

338 Prior Normalized Decoding. We now extend Prior Normalization to a decoding scheme and in-339 troduce Prior Normalized Decoding for various multi-modal tasks, e.g., visual question answer-340 ing and visual captioning. Instead of the standard decoding based on the probability $P(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v}) =$ 341 $\prod_i P(t_i | t_{<i}, \mathbf{v})$, we use the normalized probability $P^{\alpha}(\mathbf{t} | \mathbf{v})$ to decode a text sequence. Here, un-342 like in retrieval, we simply obtain the prior probability P(t) in Eq. (10) with an empty video, *i.e.*, 343 $P(\mathbf{t}) \triangleq P(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v}_{empty})$, for decoding efficiency. By applying our Prior Normalized Decoding to vari-344 ous sampling strategies (e.g., nucleus sampling), the model generates the debiased text sequence by alleviating the reliance on the textual contents and utilizing the visual contents more (See Sec. 4.2 345 for experimental results on comprehensive image and video understanding benchmarks). 346

347 348

349

360

4 EXPERIMENTS

In this section, we evaluate the benefits of our method on four popular Text-Video Retrieval bench mark datasets and seven image and video understanding benchmarks. We first show an extensive
 analysis of BGR and then verify the effectiveness of Prior Normalization and Prior Normalized
 Decoding. Finally, we compare our model with the state-of-the-art models.

Datasets. For retrieval, we use DiDeMo (Anne Hendricks et al., 2017), ActivityNet (Caba Heilbron et al., 2015), LSMDC (Rohrbach et al., 2017), and MSRVTT (Xu et al., 2016) which contain diverse-length video and caption pairs. For a comprehensive evaluation of multi-modal understanding, we use MME (Fu et al., 2023a), MMBench (Liu et al., 2023c), SeedBench (Li et al., 2023a), MVBench (Li et al., 2024b), VideoMME (Fu et al., 2024), MLVU (Zhou et al., 2024), and NExT-QA (Xiao et al., 2021). Further dataset and implementation details are in Sec. A and Sec. B.

361 4.1 ANALYSIS ON BGR

362 Quantitative analysis. We first verify the effectiveness of our BGR in alleviating the prior bias 363 derived from the LLMs' pretrained knowledge in MLLMs when conducting Text-Video Retrieval. 364 The upper half of Tab. 1 (1) \sim (4) shows the performance of BGR for both T2V and V2T on four datasets, where there exist two variant results for each model of BGR, *i.e.*, (1) VTG-V2T, (2) TVG-366 V2T and (3) VTG-T2V, (4) TVG-T2V. Notably, across all datasets, the content-generation model 367 ((1) VTG-V2T and (4) TVG-T2V) is prone to exploit the prior bias during prediction, whereas 368 the query-generation model ((2) TVG-V2T and (3) VTG-T2V) shows enhanced performance by alleviating such prior bias. For instance, in V2T, the query-generation model (TVG-V2T) in (2) 369 shows 43.1, 39.6, 22.7, and 39.3 increase in R@1 compared to the content-generation model (VTG-370 V2T) in (1) on DiDeMo, ActivityNet, LSMDC, and MSRVTT, respectively. Similarly, for T2V, 371 the query-generation model (VTG-T2V) shows 28.9, 29.4, 21.2, and 14.8 improvements over the 372 content-generation model (TVG-T2V) by comparing (3) and (4). 373

Moreover, our backbone MLLM has a stronger text prior than the video prior since it is built on an LLM, so the performance gain by reducing the effect of prior is more dramatic in the VTG model with the text prior than in the TVG model with the video prior. In Tab. 1, the performance gap between T2V and V2T of the VTG (text generation) model $((1) \rightarrow (3))$ is larger than the one of the TVG (video feature generation) model $((4) \rightarrow (2))$ across all the datasets. Hence, it is crucial 378 Table 1: Ablation study on BGR and Prior Normalization. The upper half of the table (1) \sim 379 (4) shows the performance without Prior Normalization, and the lower half (5) \sim (8) presents the 380 one with Prior Normalization. Blue and red denote the content-generation models and the querygeneration models, respectively. 381

		I	DiDeN	10	Α	ActivtyNet			LSMDC			MSRVTT		
		R@1	R@5	R@10	R@1	R@5	R@10	R@1	R@5	R@10	R@1	R@5	R@10	
Video-to-Text	Retrieval (V2T)													
$(1) P_{\text{vtg}}(\mathbf{t} \mathbf{v}) $	/TG-V2T)	12.4	52.0	78.7	14.1	46.0	73.5	11.0	36.2	60.4	11.1	44.6	72.3	
$(2) \left P_{\text{tvg}}(\mathbf{t} \mathbf{v}) \right $	TVG-V2T)	55.5	83.8	90.9	53.7	82.8	91.2	33.7	57.9	69.0	50.4	77.1	85.7	
Text-to-Video	Retrieval (T2V)													
$(3) \left P_{\rm vtg}(\mathbf{v} \mathbf{t}) \right (\mathbf{v} \mathbf{t}) $	/TG-T2V)	76.4	91.2	93.8	71.0	90.3	94.8	45.8	65.1	73.0	56.6	79.4	87.0	
$4) P_{\rm tvg}(\mathbf{v} \mathbf{t}) $	TVG-T2V)	47.5	79.0	89.3	41.6	77.7	90.3	24.6	54.2	65.6	41.8	73.2	83.5	
Video-to-Text	Retrieval (V2T)													
$(5) P_{\text{vtg}}(\mathbf{t} \mathbf{v}) +$	Prior Normalization	72.2	91.6	93.8	66.2	89.0	93.3	44.5	65.0	71.9	55.5	80.3	87.9	
$(6) \left P_{\text{tvg}}(\mathbf{t} \mathbf{v}) + \right.$	Prior Normalization	56.1	83.7	90.9	53.8	82.8	91.2	34.1	58.2	69.0	50.5	76.8	85.8	
Text-to-Video	Retrieval (T2V)													
(7) $P_{\text{vtg}}(\mathbf{v} \mathbf{t}) +$	Prior Normalization	76.7	91.2	93.8	71.3	90.2	94.8	46.1	64.9	72.6	56.8	78.9	87.1	
$(8) P_{\rm tvg}(\mathbf{v} \mathbf{t}) +$	Prior Normalization	36.5	83.6	90.7	54.9	84.1	93.0	32.5	38.5	69.2	49.6	/6.5	86.2	
$P_{\text{tvg}}(\mathbf{t} \mathbf{v})$ (The child in chain	VG-V2T) Prediction first moves. Kids feet	dangl	le. Fee	t drop	P _t , Pe	vg(t v rson r	y) (TVC raises b	G-V2T ow at	T) Pred	liction:	amera	first	moves	
from bench.	Text prior probabili	ty P (1	t) RAI	NK-967	rig	ht. Th	e target Te	is sho xt pri	wn, th or pro	en the p babilit	people y P (t)) RAN	K-939	
$P_{\rm vtr}(\mathbf{t} \mathbf{v})0$	(TG-V2T) Prediction	:			$P_{\rm ytc}(\mathbf{t} \mathbf{v})$ (VTG-V2T) Prediction:									
A ferris whe	A ferris wheel first comes in to view. A ferris wheel						The camera pans up. Man in black jacket comes into							
can be seen s	pinning. The ferris w	heel	can be	e seen.	vie	w. Ar	nan in	a blac	k jack	et is sta	inding	. The	man in	
The ferris wh	eel is shown.				bla	ick co	at is fi	rst see	en. A	man in	a bla	<mark>ack</mark> ja	cket is	
					sta	nding.	The m	an in l	black	can be s	seen.			
	Text prior probab	ility F	'(t) R	ANK-I				lext p	orior p	robabi	hty P	(t) RA	INK-3	
	(a)								(b))				
	(a)								(b)					

e red denotes the incorrect prediction. The blue text stands for the repeated phrases.

417

418

419

to mitigate the model's high reliance on the prior during inference and we show that BGR is an effective method where the simple adoption of the query-generation model plays a pivotal role in ensuring that the model is not susceptible to the prior bias in its predictions.

Qualitative analysis. We here analyze the effectiveness of BGR on V2T with qualitative results in 420 Fig. 4. We observe that the query-generation model (TVG-V2T) successfully retrieves the ground-421 truth caption from the given video, but the content-generation model (VTG-V2T) retrieves the in-422 correct caption which totally ignores the correspondence with the given video. This phenomenon of 423 retrieving irrelevant captions indicates that the model prioritizes captions with high ranks in terms of 424 the text prior probability. For example, in Fig. 4a, the text prior probability rank of the ground-truth 425 caption is 967 out of 1,003, while the caption predicted by VTG is 1. Similarly, the text prior proba-426 bility rank of the ground-truth caption in Fig. 4b is 939 out of 1,003, whereas the one of the caption 427 predicted by the VTG model is 3. Interestingly, we also observe that the high text prior probability is 428 assigned to the caption which is longer and contains repeated phrases (e.g., "ferris wheel" in Fig. 4a and "man in black" in Fig. 4b) due to the autoregressive property of LLMs. The caption with a high 429 text prior probability hinders the accurate retrieval in VTG-V2T, while the prior bias is successfully 430 mitigated in TVG-V2T. Therefore, adopting the query-generation model of BGR is effective in that 431 it deviates from prior bias which degrades the performance.

Image Understanding Benchmark Video Understanding Benchmark 435 436

Table 2: Results of Prior Normalized Decoding on various multi-modal tasks. The performances on seven different benchmarks are reported. † stands for the model with Prior Normalized Decoding.

	image officer standing benchmark				video enderstanding benefiniark							
Model	MME		MMBench	SeedBench	MVBench	VideoMME		MLVU	NExT-QA	SeedBench	avg. Δ	
	perception	cognition	en-dev	image	test	w/o subtitle	w/ subtitle	m-avg	mc-val	video	1	
GPT-4V Achiam et al. (2023)	1409.0	517.0	75.0	49.9	43.5	59.9	63.3	49.2	-	60.5	-	
VILA (Lin et al., 2024)	176	2.0	82.4	75.8	-	60.1	61.1	-	67.9	-	-	
IXC-2.5 (Zhang et al., 2024)	222	9.0	82.2	75.4	69.1	55.8	58.8	37.3	71.0	-	-	
VideoChat2 (Li et al., 2024b)	1231.4	274.3	63.9	67.8	60.1	42.2	53.0	45.8	78.9	54.5	-	
VideoChat2 [†] (Ours)	1284.5	322.5	66.2	68.0	62.3	47.1	56.3	48.5	79.4	55.4	+11.8	
LLaVA-Onevision (Li et al., 2024a)	1696.7	514.6	79.8	75.0	57.1	58.5	57.8	65.3	79.4	56.9	-	
LLaVA-Onevision [†] (Ours)	1708.6	535.0	81.3	75.3	58.9	61.7	62.1	65.8	79.5	57.0	+4.4	
InternVL2 (Chen et al., 2024b)	1622.7	582.5	81.8	76.1	65.8	51.3	51.7	50.8	80.4	56.4	-	
InternVL2 [†] (Ours)	1642.1	590.0	82.7	76.2	67.1	54.7	55.1	55.1	80.8	56.6	+4.1	

4.2 ANALYSIS ON PRIOR NORMALIZATION

Analysis of Prior Normalization on Retrieval. We verify the effectiveness of Prior Normalization 448 on Text-Video Retrieval shown in the lower half of Tab. 1 (5) \sim (8). We observe that the performance 449 of the content-generation model (TVG-T2V and VTG-V2T) is significantly improved after applying 450 our Prior Normalization. Specifically, in VTG-V2T, by comparing (1) and (5), the R@1 gain is 59.8, 451 52.1, 33.5, and 44.4 on each dataset. The efficacy of Prior Normalization is notable especially in 452 the content-generation models since simple adoption of the query-generation models of our BGR 453 has already alleviated the prior bias. Therefore, in terms of the query-generation models ((2) \rightarrow (6) 454 and $(3) \rightarrow (7)$, they show a relatively small performance gain or even on par with models without 455 Prior Normalization. Furthermore, by comparing (1) and (5), the performance gain on VTG-V2T 456 is relatively larger than the one on TVG-T2V ((4) and (8)) even though both are content-generation models, attributed to strong text prior bias on V2T than the video prior bias on T2V due to the 457 high reliance of MLLMs on LLMs' knowledge. Finally, after Prior Normalization, the VTG models 458 outperform the TVG models both in V2T and T2V since most MLLMs are pretrained only with the 459 VTG loss and the TVG loss is newly introduced at the fine-tuning phase. 460

461 Analysis of Prior Normalized Decoding on various multi-modal understanding benchmarks. 462 We provide an in-depth analysis of Prior Normalized Decoding on multi-modal understanding 463 benchmarks beyond retrieval. Tab. 2 presents the evaluation results on seven image and video understanding benchmarks which contain comprehensive tasks evaluating the model's image/video 464 understanding and reasoning ability. By applying Prior Normalized Decoding to three different 465 MLLMs (VideoChat2 (Li et al., 2024b), LLaVA-Onevision (Li et al., 2024a), and InternVL2 (Chen 466 et al., 2024b)), the performances are consistently improved across all the benchmarks by a margin of 467 11.8, 4.4, and 4.1 on average, respectively. This result implies that our simple training-free score cal-468 ibration for decoding successfully alleviates the MLLMs' over-reliance on the text and improves the 469 quality of the generated output by encouraging the models to refer more to the visual information. 470

- 471
- 472 473

432

433

434

446 447

4.3 COMPARISON WITH STATE-OF-THE-ART MODELS

474 475

In Tab. 3, we compare our model with state-of-the-art models both on T2V and V2T. First, by 476 comparing UMT and VideoChat2 baseline with the VTM loss, introduced in Sec. 3.1, the LLMs-477 based VideoChat2 underperforms the non-LLMs-based UMT in 5 out of 8 settings. However, with 478 our generative VTG objective, the model outperforms the VTM model across all settings. Also, 479 since a notable performance gain is observed in the content-generation models after applying Prior 480 Normalization as in Sec. 4.2, using an ensemble of the content-generation and the query-generation 481 model, BGR (*i.e.*, VTG + TVG), surpasses the VTM model by a margin of 6.6 in R@1 on average. 482 Finally, the ensemble of the model's output score optimized over three different objectives denoted 483 as BGR* (VTG + TVG + VTM), achieves the best performance across all datasets. Specifically, in DiDeMo and ActivityNet, the gap between our final model and UMT is 12.0 and 9.1 respectively 484 in T2V. As a result, our model achieves state-of-the-art performances both in V2T and T2V with an 485 8.3 increase in R@1 on average compared to UMT. More detailed results are provided in Sec. D.

	DiD T2V	eMo V2T	Activi T2V	ityNet V2T	LSN T2V	IDC V2T	MSR T2V	VTT V2T
All-in-one (Wang et al., 2023)	32.7	-	22.4	-	-	-	37.9	-
LAVENDER (Li et al., 2023e)	53.4	-	-	-	26.1	-	40.7	-
VINDLU (Cheng et al., 2023)	61.2	61.2	55.0	-	-	-	46.5	-
CLIP4Clip (Luo et al., 2022)	42.8	42.5	40.5	42.6	21.6	20.9	44.5	43.1
CLIP-ViP (Xue et al., 2023)	50.5	-	53.4	-	29.4	-	54.2	-
Cap4Video (Wu et al., 2023)	52.0	-	-	-	-	-	51.4	49.0
T-MASS (Wang et al., 2024)	55.3	-	-	-	30.3	-	52.7	50.9
MV-Adapter (Jin et al., 2024)	44.3	42.7	42.9	43.6	23.2	24.0	46.2	47.2
TeachCLIP (Tian et al., 2024)	43.7	-	42.2	-	-	-	46.8	-
InternVideo (Wang et al., 2022b)	57.9	59.1	62.2	62.8	34.0	34.9	55.2	57.9
UMT (Li et al., 2023d)	70.4	67.9	66.8	64.4	43.0	41.4	58.8	58.6
VideoChat2								
VTM (Baseline)	74.6	67.1	63.0	54.1	44.7	44.4	53.0	52.9
VTG (Ours)	76.7	72.2	71.3	66.2	46.1	44.5	56.8	55.5
TVG (Ours)	56.5	56.1	54.9	53.8	32.5	34.1	49.6	50.5
BGR (Ours)	78.6	74.0	73.6	69.5	47.7	44.9	59.8	58.7
BGR* (Ours)	82.4	80.2	75.9	73.9	51.1	50.9	62.0	61.2

Table 3: Comparison with state-of-the-art models. Prior Normalization is applied to our model
variants colored in blue. We report R@1 both on T2V and V2T.

5 RELATED WORKS

Multi-modal Large Language Models (MLLMs). In recent years, there has been a significant surge in the development of large language models (LLMs) (Chowdhery et al., 2023; Brown et al., 2020; Touvron et al., 2023; Chiang et al., 2023; Achiam et al., 2023; Jiang et al., 2023; Chung et al., 2022). Following the achievements, integrating a visual encoder into such LLMs has propelled progress in the vision-language multi-modal domain, known as multi-modal large language models (MLLMs) (Alayrac et al., 2022; Driess et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2023b; Li et al., 2023b; 2024b; Zhu et al., 2023). A notable MLLM includes Flamingo (Alayrac et al., 2022), which aligns the pretrained vision encoder and the language model and handles a sequence of text tokens interleaved with the visual content. More recently, both image MLLMs (Liu et al., 2023b; Zhang et al., 2023b; Liu et al., 2023a; Zhu et al., 2023) and video MLLMs (Li et al., 2023c; 2024b; Maaz et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023a) are further trained by visual instruction tuning to enhance visual understanding and reasoning. For example, VideoChat2 (Li et al., 2024b) has achieved state-of-the-art performances on various video multi-modal tasks by 3-stage pretraining with diverse instruction-tuning data.

Text-Video Retrieval. Text-Video Retrieval is one of the popular multi-modal tasks that aims to find the most relevant video based on text or vice versa. Early studies (Luo et al., 2022; Gorti et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2023; Xue et al., 2023) have focused on leveraging pretrained CLIP (Rad-ford et al., 2021) for joint embedding space learning between video and text. For example, Wu et al. (2023) have proposed Cap4Video by utilizing captions to enhance video-text alignment based on CLIP. However, such studies have shown unsatisfactory performances due to the limitation of shal-low fusion of the dual encoders. Recently, large-scale multi-modal video foundation models (Cheng et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2022a; Li et al., 2023d) have boosted the performance by implementing a cross-modal fusion, which learns the fine-grained interactions between the two modalities. Those models have adopted a hybrid inference approach which efficiently retrieves the top-k candidates by VTC and then computes their pairwise scores by VTM for more accurate retrievals.

6 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we observe that content-generation with MLLMs tends to retrieve the incorrect caption
from a given video (and vice versa) due to the prior bias in Text-Video Retrieval. Therefore, we
propose a Bidirectional Text-Video Generative Retrieval (BGR) to address the over-reliance on the
prior by ensembling predictions from both directions, *i.e.*, content-generation and query-generation.
Moreover, our simple plug-and-play score calibration module, Prior Normalization, further improves
the performances along with BGR in Text-Video Retrieval by reducing dependence on the prior. Our
experimental results highlight the potential of Prior Normalized Decoding applied to MLLMs in a
more balanced consideration of both textual and visual information in various multi-modal tasks.

540 REPRODUCIBILITY

We describe details of BGR in Sec. 3.2 and Prior Normalization in Sec. 3.3. We further provide dataset details and implementation details in Sec. A and Sec. B, respectively. Also, the inference strategy of our BGR is explained in Sec. C for reproducibility.

546 547 REFERENCES

542

543

544

548

549

550

551

552

553

554 555

556

561

562

563

564

565 566

567

568 569

570

571

572

573

574

578

579

580

- Josh Achiam, Steven Adler, Sandhini Agarwal, Lama Ahmad, Ilge Akkaya, Florencia Leoni Aleman, Diogo Almeida, Janko Altenschmidt, Sam Altman, Shyamal Anadkat, et al. Gpt-4 technical report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.08774*, 2023.
- Jean-Baptiste Alayrac, Jeff Donahue, Pauline Luc, Antoine Miech, Iain Barr, Yana Hasson, Karel Lenc, Arthur Mensch, Katherine Millican, Malcolm Reynolds, et al. Flamingo: a visual language model for few-shot learning. In *NeurIPS*, 2022.
- Lisa Anne Hendricks, Oliver Wang, Eli Shechtman, Josef Sivic, Trevor Darrell, and Bryan Russell. Localizing moments in video with natural language. In *ICCV*, 2017.
- 558 Max Bain, Arsha Nagrani, Gül Varol, and Andrew Zisserman. Frozen in time: A joint video and 559 image encoder for end-to-end retrieval. In *ICCV*, 2021.
 - Tom Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared D Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, et al. Language models are few-shot learners. In *NeurIPS*, 2020.
 - Fabian Caba Heilbron, Victor Escorcia, Bernard Ghanem, and Juan Carlos Niebles. Activitynet: A large-scale video benchmark for human activity understanding. In *CVPR*, 2015.
 - Remi Cadene, Corentin Dancette, Matthieu Cord, Devi Parikh, et al. Rubi: Reducing unimodal biases for visual question answering. In *NeurIPS*, 2019.
 - Jr-Jen Chen, Yu-Chien Liao, Hsi-Che Lin, Yu-Chu Yu, Yen-Chun Chen, and Yu-Chiang Frank Wang. Rextime: A benchmark suite for reasoning-across-time in videos. In *NeurIPS*, 2024a.
 - Zhe Chen, Weiyun Wang, Hao Tian, Shenglong Ye, Zhangwei Gao, Erfei Cui, Wenwen Tong, Kongzhi Hu, Jiapeng Luo, Zheng Ma, et al. How far are we to gpt-4v? closing the gap to commercial multimodal models with open-source suites. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2404.16821*, 2024b.
- Zhe Chen, Jiannan Wu, Wenhai Wang, Weijie Su, Guo Chen, Sen Xing, Muyan Zhong, Qinglong
 Zhang, Xizhou Zhu, Lewei Lu, et al. Internvl: Scaling up vision foundation models and aligning
 for generic visual-linguistic tasks. In *CVPR*, 2024c.
 - Feng Cheng, Xizi Wang, Jie Lei, David Crandall, Mohit Bansal, and Gedas Bertasius. Vindlu: A recipe for effective video-and-language pretraining. In *CVPR*, 2023.
- Wei-Lin Chiang, Zhuohan Li, Zi Lin, Ying Sheng, Zhanghao Wu, Hao Zhang, Lianmin Zheng, Siyuan Zhuang, Yonghao Zhuang, Joseph E Gonzalez, et al. Vicuna: An open-source chatbot impressing gpt-4 with 90%* chatgpt quality. URL https://lmsys. org/blog/2023-03-30-vicuna, 2023.
- Aakanksha Chowdhery, Sharan Narang, Jacob Devlin, Maarten Bosma, Gaurav Mishra, Adam Roberts, Paul Barham, Hyung Won Chung, Charles Sutton, Sebastian Gehrmann, et al. Palm: Scaling language modeling with pathways. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 2023.
- Hyung Won Chung, Le Hou, Shayne Longpre, Barret Zoph, Yi Tay, William Fedus, Yunxuan Li, Xuezhi Wang, Mostafa Dehghani, Siddhartha Brahma, et al. Scaling instruction-finetuned language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.11416*, 2022.
- ⁵⁹³ Tiangang Cui, Xin T Tong, and Olivier Zahm. Prior normalization for certified likelihood-informed subspace detection of bayesian inverse problems. *Inverse Problems*, 2022.

594 595 596	Tri Dao. FlashAttention-2: Faster attention with better parallelism and work partitioning. In <i>ICLR</i> , 2024.
597 598	Arnaud Doucet, Simon J Godsill, and Christian P Robert. Marginal maximum a posteriori estimation using markov chain monte carlo. <i>Statistics and Computing</i> , 2002.
599 600 601	Danny Driess, Fei Xia, Mehdi SM Sajjadi, Corey Lynch, Aakanksha Chowdhery, Brian Ichter, Ayzaan Wahid, Jonathan Tompson, Quan Vuong, Tianhe Yu, et al. Palm-e: An embodied multi-modal language model. In <i>ICML</i> , 2023.
603 604	Li Fei-Fei and Pietro Perona. A bayesian hierarchical model for learning natural scene categories. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2005.
605 606 607	Chaoyou Fu, Peixian Chen, Yunhang Shen, Yulei Qin, Mengdan Zhang, Xu Lin, Jinrui Yang, Xiawu Zheng, Ke Li, Xing Sun, et al. Mme: A comprehensive evaluation benchmark for multimodal large language models. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2306.13394</i> , 2023a.
608 609 610 611	Chaoyou Fu, Yuhan Dai, Yondong Luo, Lei Li, Shuhuai Ren, Renrui Zhang, Zihan Wang, Chenyu Zhou, Yunhang Shen, Mengdan Zhang, et al. Video-mme: The first-ever comprehensive evaluation benchmark of multi-modal llms in video analysis. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.21075</i> , 2024.
612 613 614	Tsu-Jui Fu, Linjie Li, Zhe Gan, Kevin Lin, William Yang Wang, Lijuan Wang, and Zicheng Liu. An empirical study of end-to-end video-language transformers with masked visual modeling. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2023b.
615 616 617	Valentin Gabeur, Chen Sun, Karteek Alahari, and Cordelia Schmid. Multi-modal transformer for video retrieval. In <i>ECCV</i> , 2020.
618 619 620	Satya Krishna Gorti, Noël Vouitsis, Junwei Ma, Keyvan Golestan, Maksims Volkovs, Animesh Garg, and Guangwei Yu. X-pool: Cross-modal language-video attention for text-video retrieval. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2022.
621 622 623	Albert Q Jiang, Alexandre Sablayrolles, Arthur Mensch, Chris Bamford, Devendra Singh Chaplot, Diego de las Casas, Florian Bressand, Gianna Lengyel, Guillaume Lample, Lucile Saulnier, et al. Mistral 7b. arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.06825, 2023.
625 626 627	Xiaojie Jin, Bowen Zhang, Weibo Gong, Kai Xu, Xueqing Deng, Peng Wang, Zhao Zhang, Xiaohui Shen, and Jiashi Feng. Mv-adapter: Multimodal video transfer learning for video text retrieval. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2024.
628 629	Jie Lei, Linjie Li, Luowei Zhou, Zhe Gan, Tamara L Berg, Mohit Bansal, and Jingjing Liu. Less is more: Clipbert for video-and-language learning via sparse sampling. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2021.
630 631 632 633	Sicong Leng, Hang Zhang, Guanzheng Chen, Xin Li, Shijian Lu, Chunyan Miao, and Lidong Bing. Mitigating object hallucinations in large vision-language models through visual contrastive de- coding. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2024.
634 635 636	Bo Li, Yuanhan Zhang, Dong Guo, Renrui Zhang, Feng Li, Hao Zhang, Kaichen Zhang, Yanwei Li, Ziwei Liu, and Chunyuan Li. Llava-onevision: Easy visual task transfer. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2408.03326</i> , 2024a.
637 638 639 640	Bohao Li, Rui Wang, Guangzhi Wang, Yuying Ge, Yixiao Ge, and Ying Shan. Seed-bench: Bench- marking multimodal llms with generative comprehension. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.16125</i> , 2023a.
641 642 643	Junnan Li, Ramprasaath Selvaraju, Akhilesh Gotmare, Shafiq Joty, Caiming Xiong, and Steven Chu Hong Hoi. Align before fuse: Vision and language representation learning with momentum distillation. In <i>NeurIPS</i> , 2021.
644 645 646	Junnan Li, Dongxu Li, Caiming Xiong, and Steven Hoi. Blip: Bootstrapping language-image pre- training for unified vision-language understanding and generation. In <i>ICML</i> , 2022.
647	Junnan Li, Dongxu Li, Silvio Savarese, and Steven Hoi. Blip-2: Bootstrapping language-image pre-training with frozen image encoders and large language models. In <i>ICML</i> , 2023b.

648 649 650	KunChang Li, Yinan He, Yi Wang, Yizhuo Li, Wenhai Wang, Ping Luo, Yali Wang, Limin Wang, and Yu Qiao. Videochat: Chat-centric video understanding. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.06355</i> , 2023c.
651 652 653	Kunchang Li, Yali Wang, Yizhuo Li, Yi Wang, Yinan He, Limin Wang, and Yu Qiao. Unmasked teacher: Towards training-efficient video foundation models. In <i>ICCV</i> , 2023d.
654 655 656	Kunchang Li, Yali Wang, Yinan He, Yizhuo Li, Yi Wang, Yi Liu, Zun Wang, Jilan Xu, Guo Chen, Ping Luo, et al. Mvbench: A comprehensive multi-modal video understanding benchmark. <i>CVPR</i> , 2024b.
657 658 659	Linjie Li, Zhe Gan, Kevin Lin, Chung-Ching Lin, Zicheng Liu, Ce Liu, and Lijuan Wang. Lavender: Unifying video-language understanding as masked language modeling. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2023e.
660 661 662	Yongqi Li, Wenjie Wang, Leigang Qu, Liqiang Nie, Wenjie Li, and Tat-Seng Chua. Generative cross-modal retrieval: Memorizing images in multimodal language models for retrieval and beyond. In <i>ACL</i> , 2024c.
663 664 665	Ji Lin, Hongxu Yin, Wei Ping, Pavlo Molchanov, Mohammad Shoeybi, and Song Han. Vila: On pre-training for visual language models. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2024.
666 667	Tsung-Yi Lin, Michael Maire, Serge Belongie, James Hays, Pietro Perona, Deva Ramanan, Piotr Dollár, and C Lawrence Zitnick. Microsoft coco: Common objects in context. In <i>ECCV</i> , 2014.
668 669 670	Fuxiao Liu, Kevin Lin, Linjie Li, Jianfeng Wang, Yaser Yacoob, and Lijuan Wang. Aligning large multi-modal model with robust instruction tuning. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2306.14565</i> , 2023a.
670 671 672	Haotian Liu, Chunyuan Li, Qingyang Wu, and Yong Jae Lee. Visual instruction tuning. In <i>NeurIPS</i> , 2023b.
673 674	Haotian Liu, Chunyuan Li, Yuheng Li, and Yong Jae Lee. Improved baselines with visual instruction tuning. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2024.
675 676 677 678	Yuan Liu, Haodong Duan, Yuanhan Zhang, Bo Li, Songyang Zhang, Wangbo Zhao, Yike Yuan, Jiaqi Wang, Conghui He, Ziwei Liu, et al. Mmbench: Is your multi-modal model an all-around player? <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.06281</i> , 2023c.
679 680	Yuqi Liu, Pengfei Xiong, Luhui Xu, Shengming Cao, and Qin Jin. Ts2-net: Token shift and selection transformer for text-video retrieval. In <i>ECCV</i> , 2022.
681 682 683	Huaishao Luo, Lei Ji, Botian Shi, Haoyang Huang, Nan Duan, Tianrui Li, Jason Li, Taroon Bharti, and Ming Zhou. Univl: A unified video and language pre-training model for multimodal understanding and generation. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2002.06353</i> , 2020.
685 686 687	Huaishao Luo, Lei Ji, Ming Zhong, Yang Chen, Wen Lei, Nan Duan, and Tianrui Li. Clip4clip: An empirical study of clip for end to end video clip retrieval and captioning. <i>arXiv preprint</i> <i>arXiv:2104.08860</i> , 2022.
688 689 690	Muhammad Maaz, Hanoona Rasheed, Salman Khan, and Fahad Shahbaz Khan. Video-chatgpt: Towards detailed video understanding via large vision and language models. <i>arXiv preprint</i> <i>arXiv:2306.05424</i> , 2023.
691 692 693 694	Antoine Miech, Dimitri Zhukov, Jean-Baptiste Alayrac, Makarand Tapaswi, Ivan Laptev, and Josef Sivic. Howto100m: Learning a text-video embedding by watching hundred million narrated video clips. In <i>ICCV</i> , 2019.
695 696	Yulei Niu, Kaihua Tang, Hanwang Zhang, Zhiwu Lu, Xian-Sheng Hua, and Ji-Rong Wen. Counter- factual vqa: A cause-effect look at language bias. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2021.
697 698 699 700	Bryan A Plummer, Liwei Wang, Chris M Cervantes, Juan C Caicedo, Julia Hockenmaier, and Svet- lana Lazebnik. Flickr30k entities: Collecting region-to-phrase correspondences for richer image- to-sentence models. In <i>ICCV</i> , 2015.
704	Leigang Qu, Haochuan Li, Tan Wang, Wenjie Wang, Yonggi Li, Ligjang Nie, and Tat Seng Chua

702 703 704	Alec Radford, Jong Wook Kim, Chris Hallacy, Aditya Ramesh, Gabriel Goh, Sandhini Agarwal, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, Pamela Mishkin, Jack Clark, et al. Learning transferable visual models from natural language supervision. In <i>ICML</i> , 2021.
705 706 707	Sainandan Ramakrishnan, Aishwarya Agrawal, and Stefan Lee. Overcoming language priors in visual question answering with adversarial regularization. In <i>NeurIPS</i> , 2018.
708 709 710	Anna Rohrbach, Atousa Torabi, Marcus Rohrbach, Niket Tandon, Christopher Pal, Hugo Larochelle, Aaron Courville, and Bernt Schiele. Movie description. <i>IJCV</i> , 2017.
711 712	Yi Tay, Vinh Tran, Mostafa Dehghani, Jianmo Ni, Dara Bahri, Harsh Mehta, Zhen Qin, Kai Hui, Zhe Zhao, Jai Gupta, et al. Transformer memory as a differentiable search index. <i>NeurIPS</i> , 2022.
713 714 715	InternLM Team. InternIm: A multilingual language model with progressively enhanced capabilities, 2023.
716 717	Kaibin Tian, Ruixiang Zhao, Zijie Xin, Bangxiang Lan, and Xirong Li. Holistic features are almost sufficient for text-to-video retrieval. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2024.
718 719 720 721	Hugo Touvron, Thibaut Lavril, Gautier Izacard, Xavier Martinet, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Timothée Lacroix, Baptiste Rozière, Naman Goyal, Eric Hambro, Faisal Azhar, et al. Llama: Open and efficient foundation language models. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.13971</i> , 2023.
722 723 724	Jiamian Wang, Guohao Sun, Pichao Wang, Dongfang Liu, Sohail Dianat, Majid Rabbani, Raghuveer Rao, and Zhiqiang Tao. Text is mass: Modeling as stochastic embedding for text-video retrieval. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2024.
725 726 727 728	Jinpeng Wang, Yixiao Ge, Rui Yan, Yuying Ge, Kevin Qinghong Lin, Satoshi Tsutsui, Xudong Lin, Guanyu Cai, Jianping Wu, Ying Shan, et al. All in one: Exploring unified video-language pre-training. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2023.
729 730 731	Junke Wang, Dongdong Chen, Zuxuan Wu, Chong Luo, Luowei Zhou, Yucheng Zhao, Yujia Xie, Ce Liu, Yu-Gang Jiang, and Lu Yuan. Omnivl: One foundation model for image-language and video-language tasks. In <i>NeurIPS</i> , 2022a.
732 733 734 735	Yi Wang, Kunchang Li, Yizhuo Li, Yinan He, Bingkun Huang, Zhiyu Zhao, Hongjie Zhang, Jilan Xu, Yi Liu, Zun Wang, et al. Internvideo: General video foundation models via generative and discriminative learning. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2212.03191</i> , 2022b.
736 737	Wenhao Wu, Haipeng Luo, Bo Fang, Jingdong Wang, and Wanli Ouyang. Cap4video: What can auxiliary captions do for text-video retrieval? In <i>CVPR</i> , 2023.
738 739 740	Junbin Xiao, Xindi Shang, Angela Yao, and Tat-Seng Chua. Next-qa: Next phase of question- answering to explaining temporal actions. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2021.
741 742	Jun Xu, Tao Mei, Ting Yao, and Yong Rui. Msr-vtt: A large video description dataset for bridging video and language. In <i>CVPR</i> , 2016.
743 744 745 746	Hongwei Xue, Yuchong Sun, Bei Liu, Jianlong Fu, Ruihua Song, Houqiang Li, and Jiebo Luo. Clip-vip: Adapting pre-trained image-text model to video-language representation alignment. In <i>ICLR</i> , 2023.
747 748 740	Keying Ye, Zifei Han, Yuyan Duan, and Tianyu Bai. Normalized power prior bayesian analysis. Journal of Statistical Planning and Inference, 2022.
750 751	Youngjae Yu, Jongseok Kim, and Gunhee Kim. A joint sequence fusion model for video question answering and retrieval. In <i>ECCV</i> , 2018.
752 753 754	Bowen Zhang, Hexiang Hu, and Fei Sha. Cross-modal and hierarchical modeling of video and text. In <i>ECCV</i> , 2018.
755	Hang Zhang, Xin Li, and Lidong Bing. Video-llama: An instruction-tuned audio-visual language model for video understanding. In <i>EMNLP</i> , 2023a.

- Pan Zhang, Xiaoyi Dong, Yuhang Zang, Yuhang Cao, Rui Qian, Lin Chen, Qipeng Guo, Haodong Duan, Bin Wang, Linke Ouyang, et al. Internlm-xcomposer-2.5: A versatile large vision language model supporting long-contextual input and output. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2407.03320*, 2024.
- Yanzhe Zhang, Ruiyi Zhang, Jiuxiang Gu, Yufan Zhou, Nedim Lipka, Diyi Yang, and Tong Sun.
 Llavar: Enhanced visual instruction tuning for text-rich image understanding. *arXiv preprint* arXiv:2306.17107, 2023b.
- Junjie Zhou, Yan Shu, Bo Zhao, Boya Wu, Shitao Xiao, Xi Yang, Yongping Xiong, Bo Zhang,
 Tiejun Huang, and Zheng Liu. Mlvu: A comprehensive benchmark for multi-task long video
 understanding. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2406.04264*, 2024.
- Deyao Zhu, Jun Chen, Xiaoqian Shen, Xiang Li, and Mohamed Elhoseiny. Minigpt-4: Enhancing vision-language understanding with advanced large language models. *arXiv preprint* arXiv:2304.10592, 2023.

810 APPENDIX 811

812 813	The appendix is organized into the following sections:
814	• Annendix A: Dataset Details
815	A 1 Text Video Detrioval
816	- A.1 Text- video Kenteval
817	- A.2 comprehensive image and video onderstanding
818	• Appendix B: Implementation Details
819	• Appendix C: Inference Details of BGR
820	 Appendix D: Detailed Results of Comparison with State-of-The-Art Models
821	 Appendix E: Further Discussion on Prior Normalization
822	– E.1 Alleviation of Prior Bias
823	 E.3 Prior Normalized Decoding in Visual Captioning
024 825	• Appendix F: Mathematical Analysis on Prior Normalization
826	• Appendix G: Discussion on Computational Cost
827	• Appendix H: Results on Image-Text Retrieval
828	Appendix I: Qualitative Results on Instruction-based Retrieval
829	Appendix I: Negative Impacts and Limitations
830	• Appendix J. Negative impacts and Limitations
831	
832	A DATASET DETAILS
833	Α 1 ΤΕΥΤ ΥΙΝΕΟ ΡΕΤΡΙΕΥΛΙ
834	A.1 TEXT-VIDEO RETRIEVAL
836	DiDeMo (Anne Hendricks et al., 2017). Distinct Describable Moments (DiDeMo) contains 10K
837	videos which are divided into 5-second segments. It has a total of 26K moments whose descriptions
838	are detailed and contain camera movement, temporal transition indicators, and activities. We follow the provided works Dain at al. (2021): Lei at al. (2021): Lee at al. (2022): We at al. (2022): Change
839	et al. (2023). Li et al. (2023d) by concatenating all captions of one video and solving the task
840	as a paragraph-video retrieval task. The number of training and test samples is 8,394 and 1,003,
841	respectively.
842	ActivityNet (Caba Heilbron et al., 2015). ActivityNet dataset contains 19K videos from YouTube.
843	which are categorized into 200 different types of activities. On average, each category has 137
844	videos and each video has 1.41 activities which are annotated with temporal boundaries. Similar to
845 946	DiDeMo, we also concatenate all the captions of a video to form a paragraph-video retrieval task on
040 8/17	the 'vall' split by following Zhang et al. (2018); Gabeur et al. (2020); Luo et al. (2022); Cheng et al. (2023); Li et al. (2023d). Therefore, the number of training and test samples is 10,000 and 4,017
848	respectively.
849	LENDC (Debubach et al. 2017). Lanza Saala Maxia Description Challence (LENDC) contains
850	LSWIDC (Konrbach et al., 2017). Large Scale Movie Description Challenge (LSMDC) contains 118K short video clips from 202 movies with captions from the movie script or from transcribed
851	DVS (descriptive video services) for the visually impaired. Our model is trained with 101.055
852	videos and evaluated on 1,000 videos.
853	MSRVTT (Xu et al. 2016) Microsoft Research Video to Text (MSRVTT) contains 10K video
854	clips from 20 categories, with each video clip annotated with 20 sentences. There are 29K unique
855	words in all captions. Following the literature Yu et al. (2018); Luo et al. (2022); Miech et al. (2019);
850 057	Gabeur et al. (2020); Wu et al. (2023); Cheng et al. (2023); Li et al. (2023d), we train our model
858	with 9,000 \times 20 training samples and 1,000 test samples.
859	A 2 COMPREHENSIVE IMAGE AND VIDEO UNDERSTANDING
860	A.2 COMPREHENSIVE IMAGE AND VIDEO UNDERSTANDING
861	MME (Fu et al., 2023a). Multi-modal large language Model Evaluation benchmark (MME) is
000	composed of 14 subtasts where all the complex are manually appointed NOTE targets to access

composed of 14 subtasks where all the samples are manually annotated. MME targets to assess 862 MLLMs' perception and cognition abilities including OCR, existence of objects, commonsense rea-863 soning, numerical calculation, code reasoning, etc.

MMBench (Liu et al., 2023c). MMBench is a bilingual benchmark to evaluate the MLLMs' multi modal understanding abilities. This benchmark includes multiple-choice questions across the 20
 ability dimensions like spatial relationship, physical property, attribute recognition, object localiza tion, etc.

SeedBench (Li et al., 2023a). SeedBench aims at a comprehensive assessment of generative models and contains 19K manually annotated multiple-choice questions across the 12 ability dimensions both on the image and video domain. The questions cover both spatial and temporal understanding like scene understanding, action prediction, procedure understanding, etc.

MVBench (Li et al., 2024b). Multi-modal Video understanding Benchmark (MVBench) consists of 20 challenging video understanding tasks that can effectively assess the ability to comprehend temporal evolution in dynamic videos. It consists of 9 main tasks for spatial understanding, which are then further split into a total of 20 tasks for temporal understanding.

VideoMME (Fu et al., 2024). Multi-Modal Evaluation benchmark of MLLMs in Video analysis
(VideoMME) evaluates the ability of MLLMs to handle sequential visual data on 6 primary visual domains with 30 subcategories. The videos are categorized as short, medium, and long, ranging from 11 seconds to 1 hour. A total of 900 videos are in the benchmark with 2,700 questions.

MLVU (Zhou et al., 2024). Multi-task Long Video Understanding benchmark (MLVU) targets to
 assess long video understanding performance spanning 7 video genres including movies, egocentric
 videos, cartoons, etc. MLVU contains 2,593 questions on 9 categories like topic reasoning, plot
 question answering, action count, ego reasoning, etc.

NExT-QA (Xiao et al., 2021). NExT-QA is a video question answering task aiming to evaluate
 causal action reasoning, temporal action reasoning, and common scene comprehension. This dataset
 includes 47,692 multiple-choice questions and 52,044 open-ended questions on a total of 5,440
 videos.

B IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

batch size

BGR details. Our BGR is built upon VideoChat2 (Li et al., 2024b) and is further fine-tuned on each Text-Video Retrieval dataset. Specifically, VideoChat2 consists of a visual encoder, Q-Former, a linear projection layer, and a LLM. The visual encoder and LLM are initialized with UMT-L (Li et al., 2023d) and Mistral-7B-Instruct-v0.2 (Jiang et al., 2023), respectively. We freeze parameters in the visual encoder, Q-Former, and LLM, and only update parameters in the linear projection layer and LoRA for parameter-efficient fine-tuning, resulting in 48M trainable parameters among 7B total parameters (0.7%). We accumulate gradients from the TVG and VTG loss and update the trainable parameters at once.

	DiDeMo	ActivityNet	LSMDC	MSRVTT				
optimizer		Adan	nW					
optimizer momentum		$\beta_1 = 0.9, \beta_2$	$\beta_2 = 0.95$					
weight decay	1.0							
warmup epochs		1						
total epochs		5						
input frames		16)					
max sequence length	196	196	128	128				
learning rate	2e-4	1e-4	1e-4	1e-5				

Table 4: Experimental settings in Text-Video Retrieval.

Experimental settings. The self-attention mechanism in our model is implemented under FlashAttention2 (Dao, 2024) and we sample 16 frames per video for all datasets. As for a max sequence length, we use 128 for LSMDC and MSRVTT, and 196 for DiDeMo and ActivityNet. The learning rate is 1e-4 for ActivityNet and LSMDC, 1e-4 for MSRVTT, and 2e-4 for DiDeMo with AdamW optimizer. We train our model 5 epochs on 8 × A100 GPUs with a batch size of 20, 18, 32, and

36 for DiDeMo, ActivityNet, LSMDC, and MSRVTT, respectively. For inference, we select top-16 candidates according to the similarity from the VTC loss and re-rank them by comparing their VTG (or TVG) scores. More details are summarized in Tab. 4.

C INFERENCE DETAILS OF BGR



Figure 5: Four variants of BGR for inference. Note (a) and (b) are the content-generation models of BGR, and (c) and (d) are the query-generation models of BGR.

At inference of BGR, instead of autoregressively generating the output for retrieval, BGR calculates the posterior probability in Eq. (8) by replacing the input or output of the probability with content candidates. Fig. 5 illustrates the inference details of BGR. For the content-generation models, in Fig. 5a (V2T) and Fig. 5b (T2V), we fix the *input* of the model as a video (or text) query and seek the best text (or video) content by replacing the *output* with text (or video) candidates. On the other hand, for the query-generation models, in Fig. 5c (T2V) and Fig. 5d (V2T), we fix the output of the model as a text (or video) query and seek the best video (or text) content by replacing the *input* with video (or text) candidates. This simple trick reduces the computational cost for generation by 72 times per text-video pair. As mentioned in Sec. 3.2, adopting the query-generation model at inference is effective in alleviating the prior bias.

DETAILED RESULTS OF COMPARISON WITH STATE-OF-THE-ART MODELS D

Table 5: Comparison with state-of-the-art models on T2V. Prior Normalization is applied to our model variants highlighted in blue cells.

		DiDeM	0	A	ActivityNet			LSMD	С	MSRVTT		
	R@1	R@5	R@10	R@1	R@5	R@10	R@1	R@5	R@10	R@1	R@5	R@10
Text-to-Video Retrieval (T2V)												
All-in-one (Wang et al., 2023)	32.7	61.4	73.5	22.4	53.7	67.7	-	-	-	37.9	68.1	77.1
LAVENDER (Li et al., 2023e)	53.4	78.6	85.3	-	-	-	26.1	46.4	57.3	40.7	66.9	77.6
VINDLU (Cheng et al., 2023)	61.2	85.8	91.0	55.0	81.4	89.7	-	-	-	46.5	71.5	80.4
CLIP4Clip (Luo et al., 2022)	42.8	68.5	79.2	40.5	72.4	83.4	21.6	41.8	49.8	44.5	71.4	81.6
CLIP-ViP (Xue et al., 2023)	50.5	78.4	87.1	53.4	81.4	90.0	29.4	50.6	59.0	54.2	77.2	84.8
Cap4Video (Wu et al., 2023)	52.0	79.4	87.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	51.4	75.7	83.9
T-MASS (Wang et al., 2024)	55.3	80.1	87.7	-	-	-	30.3	52.2	61.3	52.7	77.1	85.6
MV-Adapter (Jin et al., 2024)	44.3	72.1	80.5	42.9	74.5	85.7	23.2	43.9	53.2	46.2	73.2	82.7
TeachCLIP (Tian et al., 2024)	43.7	71.2	-	42.2	72.7	-	-	-	-	46.8	74.3	-
InternVideo (Wang et al., 2022b)	57.9	82.4	88.9	62.2	85.9	93.2	34.0	53.7	62.9	55.2	79.6	87.5
UMT (Li et al., 2023d)	70.4	90.1	93.5	66.8	89.1	94.9	43.0	65.5	73.0	58.8	81.0	87.1
UMT + Prior Normalization (Ours)	75.4	92.6	94.9	73.2	91.5	96.0	45.1	67.2	74.6	62.4	83.5	88.1
VideoChat2												
VTM (Baseline)	74.6	90.3	93.4	63.0	87.7	94.1	44.7	67.5	73.4	53.0	77.7	87.1
VTG (Ours)	76.7	91.2	93.8	71.3	90.2	94.8	46.1	64.9	72.6	56.8	78.9	87.1
TVG (Ours)	56.5	83.6	90.7	54.9	84.1	93.0	32.5	58.5	69.2	49.6	76.5	86.2
BGR (Ours)	78.6	92.6	93.9	73.6	91.5	95.1	47.7	66.6	73.1	59.8	80.4	88.0
BGR* (Ours)	82.4	93.0	93.8	75.9	91.9	95.1	51.1	68.7	74.1	62.0	82.4	88.2

		DiDeM	0	A	ActivityNet			LSMDC			MSRVTT		
	R@1	R@5	R@10	R@1	R@5	R@10	R@1	R@5	R@10	R@1	R@5	R@10	
Video-to-Text Retrieval (V2T)													
CLIP4Clip (Luo et al., 2022)	42.5	70.6	80.2	42.6	73.4	85.6	20.9	40.7	49.1	43.1	70.5	81.2	
Cap4Video (Wu et al., 2023)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	49.0	75.2	85.0	
T-MASS (Wang et al., 2024)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50.9	80.2	88.0	
MV-Adapter (Jin et al., 2024)	42.7	73.0	81.9	43.6	75.0	86.5	24.0	42.8	52.1	47.2	74.8	83.9	
InternVideo Wang et al. (2022b)	59.1	81.8	89.0	62.8	86.2	93.3	34.9	54.6	63.1	57.9	79.2	86.4	
UMT (Li et al., 2023d)	67.9	88.6	93.0	64.4	89.1	94.8	41.4	64.3	71.5	58.6	81.6	86.5	
UMT + Prior Normalization (Ours)	75.7	92.3	95.5	73.8	92.1	96.5	45.7	67.9	73.9	63.0	83.8	89.1	
VideoChat2													
VTM (Baseline)	67.1	89.9	93.5	54.1	84.1	91.7	44.4	65.1	72.0	52.9	78.5	87.2	
VTG (Ours)	72.2	91.6	93.8	66.2	89.0	93.3	44.5	65.0	71.9	55.5	80.3	87.9	
TVG (Ours)	56.1	83.7	90.9	53.8	82.8	91.2	34.1	58.2	69.0	50.5	76.8	85.8	
BGR (Ours)	74.0	92.1	93.8	69.5	90.2	93.3	44.9	65.8	72.6	58.7	81.7	88.2	
BGR [*] (Ours)	80.2	92.8	93.7	73.9	90.5	93.6	50.9	68.8	73.5	61.2	82.7	88.4	

Table 6: Comparison with state-of-the-art models in V2T. Prior Normalization (PN) is applied to our model variants highlighted in blue cells.

Tab. 3 only demonstrates R@1 performance. We here show detailed results including R@1, R@5, and R@10 on DiDeMo, ActivityNet, LSMDC, and MSRVTT in Tab. 5 and Tab. 6. We first observe that the previous non-MLLMs-based Text-Video Retrieval model like UMT also suffers from the prior bias that hinders correct predictions. Therefore, a remarkable performance gain is observed by applying our Prior Normalization to UMT. Specifically, on T2V in Tab. 5, the R@1 is increased by 5.0, 6.4, 2.1, and 3.6 on DiDeMo, ActivityNet, LSMDC, and MSRVTT, respectively, resulting in 4.3 increase on average. However, by referring to Tab. 1, the R@1 is increased by 9.5 on average in the content-generation model. Similarly, on V2T in Tab. 6, the average R@1 gap is 6.5 in UMT while the one is 47.5 in Tab. 1. This signifies that the prior bias problem is more severe in the MLLMs-based model than in the non-MLLMs-based model, and our BGR and Prior Normalization successfully alleviate such bias especially attributed to LLMs' pretrained knowledge.

E FURTHER DISCUSSION ON PRIOR NORMALIZATION

E.1 ALLEVIATION OF PRIOR BIAS





To verify the alleviation of the prior bias, we provide heatmaps in Fig. 6 when applying the content-generation (blue) and query-generation (orange) models. In Fig. 6a, with the content-generation model, the caption with the highest text prior probability, *i.e.*, the 24-th caption, is retrieved by most videos. On the other hand, the query-generation model leads to a balanced prediction where each caption is retrieved by its own paired video in Fig. 6b. This reveals that the query-generation model successfully alleviates the prior bias and considers video-text correspondences more. Furthermore, as discussed in Sec. 1 and Sec. 2.2, even though there exist both text prior bias and video prior bias, the text prior bias is more severe due to the high reliance of MLLMs on LLMs' pretrained knowledge. This becomes evident when comparing Fig. 6a and Fig. 6c, a clear vertical line is observed on V2T in Fig. 6a. This result indicates that MLLMs are more biased toward text prior than video prior due to the LLMs' pretrained knowledge.

1026 1027 1028		
1029		
1030 1031 1032	 What happened before the person opened the door? (A) Took the towel. (B) Took the book. (VideoChat2†; Ours) (C) Opened the door. (VideoChat2, (D) Sat at the table VideoChat2 w/o video) 	What happened after the person held the dish? (A) Took the book. (B) Took the cup/glass/bottle (VideoChat2, (C) Took the blanket. VideoChat2 w/o video) (D) Closed the closet/cabinet. (VideoChat2 ⁺ ; Ours)
1033 1034 1035	(a) Bias towards repeated phrases.	(b) Bias towards common sense.
1036	Figure 7. Qualitative results of Prior Normaliz	zed Decoding on MVBench. Blue signifies the

Figure 7: **Qualitative results of Prior Normalized Decoding on MVBench.** Blue signifies the accurate prediction, while red denotes the incorrect prediction.

1038 1039

1040

E.2 QUALITATIVE RESULTS OF PRIOR NORMALIZED DECODING ON MVBENCH.

1041 To show how Prior Normalized Decoding corrects the model's output, we demonstrate the qual-1042 itative results in Fig. 7, which illustrates predictions of VideoChat2, VideoChat2 w/o video, 1043 and VideoChat2 + Prior Normalized Decoding (*i.e.*, VideoChat2^{\dagger}). We observe that the naive 1044 VideoChat2 often tends to follow the predictions based on the text prior (*i.e.*, VideoChat2 w/o video) 1045 and outputs incorrect answers. We here discern two kinds of bias: bias towards repeated phrases, 1046 already discussed in Sec. 4.1, and bias towards common sense. In Fig. 7a, for the question of "What 1047 happened before the person opened the door?", due to the repetition of 'Opened the door' from the 1048 question in one of the answer candidates, a high text prior probability is assigned to the option "(C) Opened the door". Similarly, in Fig. 7b, for the question of "What happened after the person held 1049 the dish?", the VideoChat2 w/o video model prioritizes the likely action sequence "(B) Took the 1050 cup/glass/bottle" based on the common sense from LLMs' pretrained knowledge where one usually 1051 takes the cup/glass/bottle after holding the dish. Hence, VideoChat2 also predicts an incorrect an-1052 swer by highly depending on the wrong text prior while our Prior Normalized Decoding successfully 1053 corrects the answer by reducing the effect of text prior and referring more to the visual information. 1054 Overall, Prior Normalized Decoding is a simple task-agnostic score calibration method that allevi-1055 ates the predominance of linguistic cues and ensures balanced consideration between the video and 1056 text.

1057

1058 E.3 PRIOR NORMALIZED DECODING IN VISUAL CAPTIONING

We also apply our Prior Normalized Decoding to VideoChat2 on video captioning in Fig. 8. The standard VideoChat2 usually generates a hallucinated text by overlooking the visual content. For example, in Fig. 8a, the word 'apple' is hallucinated which does not appear in the video. Similarly, in Fig. 8b, the standard VideoChat2 also generates a hallucinated phrase "They are trimming the dog's nails" while the dog licks his feet in the video. However, with our Prior Normalized Decoding (denoted as VideoChat2[†]), the hallucinated text is successfully removed by encouraging the model to take into account visual contents more.

1067 1068

1069

F MATHEMATICAL ANALYSIS ON PRIOR NORMALIZATION

1070 1071 In this section, we provide a mathematical analysis on Prior Normalization. We focus on searching the most relevant video given a text query, *i.e.*, text-to-video retrieval by $P(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t})$, which can be written as:

$$P(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v})P(\mathbf{v})}{P(\mathbf{t})}.$$
(11)

1074 1075 1076

1073

1077 As discussed in Tab. 1 and Fig. 6, query generation (or likelihood) $P(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v})$ is more accurate than 1078 content generation $P(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t})$. In other words, even if $P(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v})$ predicts accurately, the final result $P(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t})$ 1079 can lead to incorrect retrievals due to a highly skewed video prior probability $P(\mathbf{v})$, namely, prior bias.



VideoChat2: A little girl peels an apple with an apple peeler. She cuts the apple into slices. She holds a slice up to show the camera.

VideoChat2⁺: A young girl peels potatoes on a cutting board behind a counter. The girl moves the potato across the board to get at the skin to peel it off. The girl then repeats the process to get the potato completely clean.

(a)



VideoChat2: A person is holding a little dog. They are trimming the dog's nails. The dog gets up and pants a lot.

VideoChat2⁺: A person is holding a little dog in their hands. The dog licks his feet while the person continues to hold him.

(b)

Figure 8: **Qualitative results of Prior Normalized Decoding in Video Captioning on ActivityNet.** † stands for the model with Prior Normalized Decoding. The hallucinated text is highlighted in red.

1110 We will discuss the case where a too large prior gap in $P(\mathbf{v})$ leads to incorrect retrieval results in the 1111 posterior $P(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t})$ when the likelihood $P(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{v})$ is correct but the gap is relatively small. Specifically, 1112 we first assume that the likelihood predicts correctly but the prior gap is too larger than the likelihood 1113 gap. Then we prove that the posterior probability results in a wrong prediction.

Assume that the likelihood predicts correctly, *i.e.*, $P(\mathbf{t}_m | \mathbf{v}_m) > P(\mathbf{t}_m | \mathbf{v}_n) > 0, \forall n \neq m$ but the gap is small. Then, it can be written as:

$$0 < \log P(\mathbf{t}_m | \mathbf{v}_m) - \log P(\mathbf{t}_m | \mathbf{v}_n) < \varepsilon,$$
(12)

where the $\varepsilon > 0$ is the maximum gap. Eq. (12) means the retrieval score of *m*-th video (positive sample) is larger than the one of *n*-th video (negative sample) given the *m*-th text, and the gap is smaller than the maximum gap ε .

Another assumption is that the strong prior $P(\mathbf{v}_n)$ over video candidates as:

$$\log P(\mathbf{v}_n) - \log P(\mathbf{v}_m) > c\varepsilon,\tag{13}$$

(by c > 1)

(18)

where c > 1. In other words, the prior gap is larger than the likelihood gap.

Then, the posterior gap, which is the gap of retrieval scores measured by the posterior probability, is
 given as:

1129	$\log P(\mathbf{v}_m \mathbf{t}_m)$	$(1 - \log P(\mathbf{v}_n \mathbf{t}_m))$	(14)
------	---------------------------------------	---	------

1130	$= \log P(\mathbf{t}_m \mathbf{v}_m) + \log P(\mathbf{v}_m) - \log P(\mathbf{t}_m \mathbf{v}_n) - \log P(\mathbf{v}_n)$	(by Eq. (11))	(15)
1131	$< \varepsilon + \log P(\mathbf{v}_m) - \log P(\mathbf{v}_n)$	(by Eq. (12))	(16)
4400		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	

$$\begin{array}{ccc} 1132 \\ 1133 \\ 1133 \end{array} < \varepsilon - c\varepsilon = \varepsilon(1-c) \\ \varepsilon = \varepsilon(1-c) \end{array} \tag{by Eq. (13)} \tag{17}$$

1134 Table 7: Inference time comparison of Prior Normalized Decoding. The inference time (seconds 1135 per sample) is reported in parentheses. † stands for the model with Prior Normalized Decoding.

Model	MME	MMBench	MVBench	VideoMME	MLVU	NExT-QA	SeedBench	avg. Δ
VideoChat2 (Li et al., 2024b)	1505.7 (1.5)	63.9 (1.2)	60.1 (2.4)	42.2 (4.1)	45.8 (6.9)	78.9 (1.4)	61.2 (0.9)	-
VideoChat2 [†] (Ours)	1607.0 (2.0)	66.2 (1.2)	62.3 (2.4)	47.1 (4.1)	48.5 (7.1)	79.4 (1.5)	61.7 (1.0)	+16.3 (+4.9

1141 This concludes the proof. $P(\mathbf{v}_n|\mathbf{t}_m) < P(\mathbf{v}_n|\mathbf{t}_m)$ indicates that the posterior probability $P(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{t})$ 1142 retrieves a wrong *n*-th video \mathbf{v}_n given *m*-th query text \mathbf{t}_m due to the too strong prior $P(\mathbf{v})$. Our Prior 1143 Normalization effectively reduces the impact of prior $P(\mathbf{v})$ and improves the retrieval performance. 1144

1145 1146

1147

1136 1137

1140

G DICUSSION ON COMPUTATIONAL COST

1148 Since traversing all video candidates requires intensive computational cost, we employ a re-ranking 1149 approach to efficiently obtain the retrieval scores among top-k candidates. The VTG and TVG 1150 scores generally demonstrate superior performance compared to VTC scores but require a larger 1151 computational cost. Therefore, we adopt a hybrid approach which efficiently retrieves the top-k1152 candidates by VTC loss, and then computes more accurate scores using VTG (or TVG) for all pairs of the top-k candidates. This re-ranking approach among top-k candidates significantly reduces the 1153 inference time complexity of the single-tower model from O(mn) to O(k(m+n)) given m videos 1154 and n texts, where $k \ll m, n$. As a result, the inference time is 307 times faster than traversing all 1155 candidate videos on ActivityNet (97 hours \rightarrow 19 minutes). 1156

1157 Furthermore, although our final model, BGR*, requires an ensemble of output scores optimized for 1158 three different objectives (*i.e.*, VTM, VTG, and TVG), the overall inference process remains efficient due to the shared feature extraction stage across all objectives. In Tab. 3, ensembling VTM, VTG, 1159 and TVG boosts R@1 significantly, e.g., 82.4 on DiDeMo, while achieving a 19% improvement in 1160 inference speed compared to processing each objective separately. 1161

1162 Finally, Tab. 7 demonstrates the additional inference time overhead of Prior Normalized Decoding 1163 on the benchmarks in Tab. 2. Since these benchmarks consist of multi-choice questions, the number 1164 of newly generated tokens by the model is less than 10 tokens. This implies that Prior Normalized Decoding introduces only a marginal increase in inference time. In Tab. 7, the average performance 1165 is improved by 16.3 while the additional inference time is only increased by 4.9%. On the other 1166 hand, the inference time might be increased if the number of newly generated tokens becomes large. 1167

1168

1169 1170

1171

1174

RESULTS ON IMAGE-TEXT RETRIEVAL Η

1172 Table 8: Results on image-text retrieval in Flickr30K and COCO. Prior Normalization is applied 1173 to our model variants highlighted in blue cells.

1175		Flickr30K							COCO					
		image-to-text		text-to-image		image-to-text		text-to-image						
1176		R@1	Ř@5	R@10	R@1	R@5	R@10	R@1	Ř@5	R@10	R@1	R@5	R@10	
1177	generative approach													
1178	TIGeR (Qu et al., 2024) GRACE (Li et al. 2024c)	-	-	-	71.7 68.4	91.8 88.9	95.4 93.7	-	:	-	46.1 41.5	69.0 69.1	76.1 79.1	
1179	non-generative approach ALBEF (Li et al., 2021)	94.1	99.5	99.7	82.8	96.3	98.1	77.6	94.3	97.2	60.7	84.3	90.5	
1180	BLIP (Li et al., 2022)	96.7	100.0	100.0	86.7	97.3	98.7	82.4	95.4	97.9	65.1	86.3	91.8	
1181	BLIP-2 (Li et al., 2023b) BLIP-2 + Prior Normalization (Ours)	97.6 99.4	100.0 100.0	100.0 100.0	89.7 90.7	98.1 98.4	98.9 99.1	85.4 89.2	97.0 96.9	98.5 98.5	68.3 68.9	87.7 89.0	92.6 92.8	
1182	VideoChat2													
1183	VTM (Baseline) VTG (Ours)	95.9 95.1	99.7 99.6	99.7 99.7	86.3 87.5	97.2 97.4	98.4 98.5	78.5 80.2	93.6 94.0	96.6 96.7	62.0 63.4	84.7 84.8	90.7 90.8	
1184	TVG (Ours) BGR (Ours)	97.1 96.8	99.4 99.6	99.6 99.7	80.4 88.8	95.7 97.6	97.9 98.5	79.6 82.6	93.6 94.6	96.7 96.8	56.5 64.6	82.0 85.5	89.5 90.9	
1185	BGR ⁺ (Ours)	98.7	99.7	99.7	89.3	97.8	98.5	85.1	95.1	96.9	65.9	86.1	91.3	

1186

Our BGR with Prior Normalization is a generic framework that can be applied to text-image re-1187 trieval in a generative manner. Tab. 8 shows the performance of BGR on text-image retrieval in Flick3r (Plummer et al., 2015) and COCO (Lin et al., 2014). Our BGR outperforms all the text-image generative retrieval baselines. Furthermore, we compare our model with non-generative text-image retrieval models and our BGR surpasses BLIP-2 both on Flickr30K and COCO in image-to-text retrieval. Interestingly, our Prior Normalization can also be applied to BLIP-2 enhancing performance across all settings and achieving a new state-of-the-art result. These results signify the effectiveness of our BGR and Prior Normalization even in text-image retrieval.

1195 -

I QUALITATIVE RESULTS ON INSTRUCTION-BASED RETRIEVAL

In this section, we explore the MLLMs' versatility in the human instruction-based retrieval task. We note that the benchmark for human instruction-based retrieval is not yet studied, so we customize ReXTime (Chen et al., 2024a), originally released for the moment-retrieval task, adequately to our setting and we provide qualitative results on several examples. In Fig. 9, we mainly ask the model to retrieve a certain part of the video and the answer given the video and question, *i.e.*, multi-modal queries and multi-modal contents. Specifically, in Fig. 9a, the user asks to retrieve the answer and the relevant part of the video to "What does the man do after walking the tube back?". Our BGR successfully retrieves the relevant part of the video including the 3rd, 4th, and 5th frames along with the text "The man goes up the tow rope.", as the action "walking the tube back" occurs in the 3rd frame. This retrieved video includes the action where the man goes up the tow rope. Furthermore, we ask two different questions with the same video in Fig. 9b and 9c. Our model retrieves the relevant part of the video and the answer well by following the instructions. In Fig. 9b, the scene of gaining momentum for throwing the javelin and the text "To gain momentum for throwing the javelin off into the distance." are retrieved given the question "Why does the person begin running down the track?" and the full video. Interestingly, as the question is changed to "How does the person throw the javelin off into the distance?", the retrieved scene and text are changed to the content depicting "running down the track". Overall, integrating the retrieval task into MLLMs enables them to handle complex human instruction-based retrieval in the real-world chatting system.

1215 J NEGATIVE IMPACTS AND LIMITATIONS

Negative impacts. Our BGR and Prior Normalization, in themselves, do not have negative societal impacts. However, if there exist biases (*e.g.*, race, gender, religion, and culture) in the benchmark dataset, our model might learn those biases.

Limitations. Our final model requires the ensemble of the model's output scores optimized over three different objectives (VTG, TVG, and VTM). Therefore, in inference, scores are obtained from three different objectives, requiring further inference time.



Figure 9: Qualitative results of human instruction-based retrieval on ReXTime.