

GROUNDING MULTIMODAL LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS TO THE WORLD

Zhiliang Peng^{1*} Wenhui Wang^{2*} Li Dong^{2*}
Yaru Hao² Shaohan Huang² Shuming Ma² Qixiang Ye^{1†} Furu Wei^{2†}

¹University of Chinese Academy of Sciences

²Microsoft Research

<https://aka.ms/GeneralAI>

ABSTRACT

We introduce KOSMOS-2, a Multimodal Large Language Model (MLLM), enabling new capabilities of perceiving object descriptions (*e.g.*, bounding boxes) and grounding text to the visual world. Specifically, we represent text spans (*i.e.*, referring expressions and noun phrases) as links in Markdown, *i.e.*, “[text span] (bounding boxes)”, where object descriptions are sequences of location tokens. To train the model, we construct a large-scale dataset about grounded image-text pairs (GRIT) together with multimodal corpora. KOSMOS-2 integrates the grounding capability to downstream applications, while maintaining the conventional capabilities of MLLMs (*e.g.*, perceiving general modalities, following instructions, and performing in-context learning). KOSMOS-2 is evaluated on a wide range of tasks, including (i) multimodal grounding, such as referring expression comprehension and phrase grounding, (ii) multimodal referring, such as referring expression generation, (iii) perception-language tasks, and (iv) language understanding and generation. This study sheds a light on the big convergence of language, multimodal perception, and world modeling, which is a key step toward artificial general intelligence. Code can be found in <https://aka.ms/kosmos-2>.

1 INTRODUCTION

Multimodal Large Language Models (MLLMs) (Hao et al., 2022; Alayrac et al., 2022; Huang et al., 2023; Driess et al., 2023; OpenAI, 2023) have been a general-purpose interface across language, vision, and vision-language tasks. They are able to perceive general modalities, including texts, images, and audio, and generate responses using free-form texts under zero-shot and few-shot settings.

In this study, we unlock the referring and grounding capabilities of multimodal large language models, with the aim to construct a more flexible and general human-computer interface about vision-language tasks, Figure 1. With such a model, users can directly point to objects or image regions without requiring detailed text descriptions referring to them. It also enables the model to respond with visual answers (*i.e.*, bounding boxes), supporting more vision-language tasks such as referring expression comprehension while resolving their co-reference ambiguity.

Our proposed model, referred to as KOSMOS-2, is a Transformer-based causal language model built upon KOSMOS-1 (Huang et al., 2023), but has the major differences of grounding and referring capabilities. To unlock the grounding capability, we first construct a web-scale dataset of grounded image-text pairs (GRIT), which are built upon a subset of image-text pairs from LAION-2B (Schuhmann et al., 2022) and COYO-700M (Byeon et al., 2022). GRIT is combined with the multimodal corpora (*i.e.*, text corpora, image-text pairs and interleaved image-text data) to train the model. To construct GRIT, we propose an approach to extract and link text spans (*i.e.*, noun phrases and referring expressions) in image captions to spatial coordinates (*e.g.*, bounding boxes) of the corresponding objects or image regions. Spatial coordinates of each object are converted to a sequence of location tokens, which are appended atop text span of the object as an expansion. The expanded text span serves as a “*hyperlink*” ([text span] (location tokens)) to connect the objects or regions of the image to the caption, as shown in Figure 1. Given the “*hyperlink*” data and trained in the

* Equal contribution. † Corresponding authors.

Figure 1: KOSMOS-2 is a multimodal large language model which has new capabilities of multimodal grounding and referring. KOSMOS-2 can understand multimodal input, follow instructions, perceive object descriptions (e.g. bounding boxes), and ground language to the visual world.

causal language modeling fashion. KOSMOS-2 links text spans in the generated free-form text response to image regions, which facilitates generating more accurate, informational, and comprehensive vision-language predictions. Utilizing a pronoun as the text span in conjunction with location tokens, KOSMOS-2 can perceive the referring object and incorporate it into the reasoning process. This simple transform enables the ability of referring, providing a more flexible interaction interface.

Experimental results show that KOSMOS-2 achieves not only competitive performance on language and vision-language tasks, but also leading performance on grounding tasks (phrase grounding and referring expression comprehension) and referring tasks (referring expression generation). The grounding capability born with KOSMOS-2 enables it be applied to more downstream tasks, such as grounded image captioning, and grounded visual question answering.

2 GRIT: WEB-SCALE GROUNDED IMAGE-TEXT PAIRS

To learn the grounding capability, we first construct a large-scale dataset of grounded image-text pairs (GRIT), based on image-text pairs from a subset of COYO-700M (Byeon et al., 2022) and LAION-2B (Schuhmann et al., 2022). To this end, a pipeline is designed to extract and link text spans (e., noun phrases and referring expressions) in the caption to their corresponding image regions, Figure 2. The pipeline consists of two steps: generating noun-chunk-bounding-box pairs and producing referring-expression-bounding-box pairs, which are detailed in what follows.

Step-1: Generating noun-chunk-bounding-box pairs Given an image-text pair, we first extract noun chunks from the caption and associate them with image regions through a pretrained object detector. In specific, spaCy (Honnibal et al., 2020) is employed to parse the caption (e.g. "a field of flowers") and extract all noun chunks (e.g. "dog", "a field" and "flowers"). To reduce potential noise, we eliminate certain abstract noun phrases that are challenging to recognize in the image, such as "time", "love", and "freedom". Subsequently, the image and extracted noun chunks are fed to a pretrained grounding model (e.g., GLIP (Li et al., 2022b)) to obtain the associated bounding boxes. The non-maximum suppression algorithm is applied to remove bounding boxes that have a high overlap with others, regardless of whether they are associated with the same noun chunk or not. The noun-chunk-bounding-box pairs with predicted confidence scores higher than 0.65 are kept. If no bounding boxes are retained, we discard the corresponding image-caption pair.

Figure 2: The pipeline to construct web-scale grounded image-text pairs.

Step-2: Producing referring-expression-bounding-box pairs To endow model with the ability to ground diverse and complex linguistic descriptions, we expand noun chunks to referring expressions. In specific, spaCy is employed again to obtain dependency relations of the caption. A noun chunk is then expanded to a referring expression by recursively traversing its children in the dependency tree and concatenating children tokens with the noun chunk. We do not expand noun chunks with conjuncts. The noun chunks without children tokens are retained for the subsequent process. As illustrated in Figure 2, the noun chunk `dog` is expanded to `a dog in a field of owers`, the noun chunk `a field` is expanded to `a field of owers`, and the noun chunk `owers` remains unchanged as it cannot be expanded.

Furthermore, we only retain text spans that are not contained by others. As demonstrated in Figure 2, we keep the referring expression `a dog in a field of owers` and drop `a field of owers` and `owers` (as they are contained by `a dog in a field of owers`). The bounding box of the noun chunk `(dog)` is assigned to the corresponding generated referring expression `(a dog in a field of owers)`.

So far, we have more than 91M images, 115M text spans, and 137M associated bounding boxes. In comparison with publicly available visual grounding datasets, as shown in Table 8 in Appendix C.1, GRIT significantly improves the data scale. More data samples are shown in Appendix C.3.

3 KOSMOS-2: GROUNDED MULTIMODAL LARGE LANGUAGE MODEL

KOSMOS-2 is a grounded MLLM, which follows the model architecture and training objective of KOSMOS-1, but integrates grounding and referring capabilities. For example, KOSMOS-2 model can accept image regions drawn by users, provide visual answers (with bounding boxes), and ground the text output to the visual world. To endow the model with grounding and referring capabilities, we add grounded image-text pairs to the training data. For a text span (noun phrase and referring expression) and its corresponding bounding boxes in a grounded image-text pair, we discretize continuous coordinates of bounding boxes to a sequence of location tokens which are uniformly encoded alongside text tokens. We then link the location tokens and their corresponding text span via a "hyperlink" data format. Based on grounded image-text pairs, KOSMOS-2 model is trained to establish a mapping between image regions and their corresponding location tokens and connect the image regions with their associated text spans.

3.1 GROUNDED INPUT REPRESENTATION

Given a text span and its associated bounding boxes in a grounded image-text pair, we first convert the continuous coordinates of bounding boxes to a sequence of discrete location tokens (Chen et al., 2021). For an image with width W and height H , we respectively divide both the width and height into P segments. A total of $P \times P$ bins are calculated, with each bin comprising $(\frac{W}{P}) \times (\frac{H}{P})$ pixels. For each bin, we use a location token to represent the coordinates within that bin. When

mapping location tokens back to the continuous coordinates in the image, we utilize the center pixel coordinates of each bin.

Each bounding box can be represented using its top-left point (x_{tl}, y_{tl}) and bottom-right point (x_{br}, y_{br}) , which are discretized to top-left and bottom-right location tokens, respectively. A top-left location token $\langle loc_{tl} \rangle$ and a bottom-right one $\langle loc_{br} \rangle$ are used with special boundary tokens ($\langle box \rangle$ and $\langle /box \rangle$) to form the bounding box representation $\langle box \rangle \langle loc_{tl} \rangle \langle loc_{br} \rangle \langle /box \rangle$. In instances where the text span is linked to multiple bounding boxes, a special $\langle delim \rangle$ is employed to concatenate the location tokens of these bounding boxes. The resulting representation can be expressed as $\langle box \rangle \langle loc_{tl}^i \rangle \langle loc_{br}^i \rangle \langle delim \rangle \dots \langle loc_{tl}^j \rangle \langle loc_{br}^j \rangle \langle /box \rangle$.

Accordingly, we arrange the text span and its associated location tokens in a format resembling a “hyperlink” in Markdown. For the text span with a single bounding box, the resultant sequence is “ $\langle p \rangle$ text span $\langle /p \rangle \langle box \rangle \langle loc_{tl} \rangle \langle loc_{br} \rangle \langle /box \rangle$ ”, where $\langle p \rangle$ and $\langle /p \rangle$ are special tokens indicating the beginning and end of the text span. Such a format conveys to the model that image regions within $\langle loc_{tl} \rangle \langle loc_{br} \rangle$ are associated with text span.

Take Figure 1 as an example, the input representation is:

```
<s><image> Image Embedding</image><grounding><p> It</p><box><loc 44><loc 863 >
</box> sits next to<p>a camp re</p><box><loc 4><loc 1007 ></box></s>
```

where $\langle s \rangle$ and $\langle /s \rangle$ indicate the start- and end-of-sequence, $\langle image \rangle$ and $\langle /image \rangle$ represent the beginning and end of encoded image embeddings, $\langle grounding \rangle$ is a special token employed to signal the model that the subsequent sequence includes text spans and their associated location tokens. We map input text tokens and location tokens to embeddings via a lookup table. A vision encoder, accompanied by a re-sampler module, is utilized to acquire image embeddings.

For language-only data, cross-modal paired data (image-text pairs), and interleaved multimodal data, we use the same input representations as in KOSMOS-1. Therefore, in these cases, the $\langle grounding \rangle$ token is not required to be prepended.

3.2 GROUNDED MULTIMODAL LARGE LANGUAGE MODEL

KOSMOS-2 uses a Transformer-based causal language model as the foundation architecture and is trained through the autoregressive language modeling task. In addition to multimodal corpora used in KOSMOS-1 (including text corpora, image-caption pairs, and interleaved image-text data), we add GRIT into training. The training loss only considers discrete tokens, such as text and location tokens. The model learns to locate and understand image regions through the location tokens, associate text spans to image regions, and output bounding boxes of the image region using location tokens.

KOSMOS-2 enhances MLLMs (Huang et al., 2023) by incorporating grounding and referring capabilities. Specifically, we can use $\langle grounding \rangle \dots \langle p \rangle$ text span $\langle /p \rangle$ as input to prompt KOSMOS-2 to generate location tokens for the text span in multimodal grounding tasks. We can also employ a pronoun as a text span in conjunction with location tokens, such as $\langle grounding \rangle \dots \langle p \rangle$ It $\langle /p \rangle \langle box \rangle \langle loc_{tl} \rangle \langle loc_{br} \rangle \langle /box \rangle$, to enable KOSMOS-2 to perceive the referring objects or regions, providing a flexible human-computer interaction fashion. Furthermore, we can simply prepend the $\langle grounding \rangle$ token in conventional vision-language tasks (like image captioning) to facilitate new applications, resulting in more accurate, informative, and comprehensive responses.

3.3 MODEL TRAINING

Setup KOSMOS-2 is trained upon GRIT, text corpora, image-caption pairs, and interleaved image-text data. The training procedure involves a batch size of 419K tokens, consisting of 185K tokens from text corpora, 215K tokens from original and grounded image-caption pairs, and 19K tokens from interleaved data. The model is trained for 60K steps, utilizing approximately 25 billion tokens, using an AdamW optimizer with $(0.9; 0.98)$, a weight decay of 0.01, and a dropout rate of 0.1. The learning rate increases to $2e-4$ during the first 375 warm-up steps and linearly decays to zero. The model is trained on 256 V100 GPUs for 24 hours. To tell the model when to ground text output to the visual world, we prepend the $\langle grounding \rangle$ token to the grounded caption during training.

Figure 3: Input format of evaluations on phrase grounding and referring expression comprehension.

The vision encoder has 24 layers with 1,024 hidden size and 4,096 FFN intermediate size. The multimodal large language model component is a 24-layer LLaMA Transformer (Wang et al., 2022a; Ma et al., 2022) with 2,048 hidden dimensions, 32 attention heads, and 8,192 FFN intermediate size. The total number of trainable parameters amounts to approximately 1.6B. The image resolution is set to 224 224 and the patch size is 144. To discretize the continuous coordinates, we divide the width and height of the image into 32 equally sized bins, with each bin encompassing an area of 7 7 pixels. A total of 32 32 location tokens are added to the vocabulary. KOSMOS-2 uses the weights of KOSMOS-1 for initialization, the newly added 3232 word embeddings of location tokens are initialized randomly. We update all the parameters during training and instruction tuning.

Instruction Tuning After model training, instruction tuning is used to better align KOSMOS-2 with human instructions. We combine vision-language instruction datasets (LaVA-Instruct (Liu et al., 2023a)) and language-only instruction datasets (Unnatural Instructions (Honovich et al., 2022) and FLANv2 (Longpre et al., 2023)) with the training data to tune the model. In addition, we construct grounded instruction data by utilizing the pairs of bounding boxes and text spans (GPT-4). Given an expression-bounding-box pair, we use “<sp> expression</sp> ” as the input instruction, and prompt the model to generate the corresponding location tokens of the bounding boxes. We also use the prompt like “<p> It </p><box><loc_tl><loc_br></box> is” to ask the model to generate expressions according to its bounding boxes. More templates are included in Appendix C.2.

4 EVALUATION

KOSMOS-2 is initially assessed on multimodal grounding (Sec. 4.1) and multimodal referring (Sec. 4.2) tasks to evaluate its new capabilities, while also being tested on perception-language (Sec. 4.3) and language tasks (Sec. 4.4) to examine conventional MLLM abilities. As mentioned in Sec. 3.2, the grounding capability allows new applications to emerge for KOSMOS-2. More details can be found in Appendix A.

4.1 MULTIMODAL GROUNDING

To evaluate the ability of multimodal grounding, we use a generative fashion to test KOSMOS-2 on grounding tasks including phrase grounding and referring expression comprehension. The former requires the model to predict a set of bounding boxes based on one or more given phrases that maybe interrelated within a single caption. The latter encourages the model to locate the object described in a text referring expression within a given image.

For both phrase grounding and referring expression comprehension, KOSMOS-2 generates location tokens which are then converted to bounding boxes for evaluation. The input format is “<s><image> Image Embedding</image><grounding> ...”, where “<grounding> ” is used to prompt the model to generate locations tokens in its response.

Model	Zero-shot	Val Split			Test Split		
		R@1	R@5	R@10	R@1	R@5	R@10
VisualBert (Li et al., 2019)	7	70.4	84.5	86.3	71.3	85.0	86.5
MDETR (Kamath et al., 2021)	7	83.6	93.4	95.1	84.3	93.9	95.8
GLIP (Li et al., 2022b)	7	86.7	96.4	97.9	87.1	96.9	98.1
FIBER (Dou et al., 2022)	7	87.1	96.1	97.4	87.4	96.4	97.6
GRILL (Jin et al., 2023)	3	-	-	-	18.9	53.4	70.3
KOSMOS-2	3	77.8	79.2	79.3	78.7	80.1	80.1

Table 1: Phrase grounding results on Flickr30k Entities. We report the R@1, R@5, and R@10 metrics, where R@1/5/10 means calculating the recall using the top 1/5/10 generated bounding boxes.

4.1.1 PHRASE GROUNDING

We evaluate phrase grounding task on Flickr30k Entities (Plummer et al., 2015) val and test splits. To reduce ambiguity, we do not prompt the model with individual phrases; instead, we use the current phrase along with the preceding words as input where preceding words serve as context: “... {phrase} </p>”. For the example shown in Figure 3(1), the model needs to predict the locations of phrases “a man”, “a blue hard hat”, “orange safety vest” and “an intersection” in the caption “A man in a blue hard hat and orange safety vest stands in an intersection”. To generate location tokens for the phrase “a man” that is the beginning of the caption, the prompt is “A man</p>”. For phrase “orange safety vest” the prompt is “A man in a blue hard hat and orange safety vest</p>”. When there are multiple persons in the image, the context “a man in a blue hard hat and orange safety vest” helps the model locate the object to reduce ambiguity.

We convert location tokens in “<box>...</box>” from the model’s response into bounding boxes. A generated bounding box is correct if its intersection over union (IoU) with the ground-truth bounding box is greater than 0.5. If KOSMOS-2 generates a location sequence that can not be converted correctly (e.g., “<box><location></box>”), we treat it as a negative sample. We use the ANY-BOX protocol in MDETR (Kamath et al., 2021) and report the R@1, R@5, and R@10 metrics, where R@1/5/10 means calculating the recall using the top 1/5/10 generated bounding boxes. If there are fewer than 5 or 10 bounding boxes generated by KOSMOS-2, we use all available bounding boxes.

Results Table 1 presents results on Flickr30k Entities (Plummer et al., 2015) val and test splits. KOSMOS-2 outperforms GRILL (Jin et al., 2023), which relies on an attached detector, by a large margin under zero-shot setting. Moreover, our model outperforms the finetuned VisualBert (Li et al., 2019) model by 7.4% R@1 on both val and test splits. Compared with other methods, KOSMOS-2 does not involve prior design (e.g., object queries or proposals), leading to similar results among R@1, R@5, and R@10. These results demonstrate that KOSMOS-2 can generate high-quality locations without the need for post-processing redundant locations.

4.1.2 REFERRING EXPRESSION COMPREHENSION

The model is tested using three well-established datasets: RefCOCO (Yu et al., 2016), RefCOCO+ (Yu et al., 2016) and RefCOCOg (Mao et al., 2015). Both RefCOCO and RefCOCO+ were generated through a two-player game while RefCOCO+ is designed to exclude spatial relations. RefCOCOg incorporates spatial relations and features longer expressions. Different from phrase grounding on Flickr30k entities, we measure this task by using referring expression as the input: “<image> Image Embedding / <image> <grounding> <p> referring expression </p>”. For the example in Figure 3(2), the input sequence is “A man in a blue hard hat and orange safety vest”. The predicted bounding box is correct if its IoU with the ground-truth bounding box is greater than 0.5. The failed decoded sequence is treated as a negative sample. Regardless of whether the model’s response contains one or multiple bounding boxes, we only use the first generated bounding box to measure the accuracy.

Results Table 2 reports referring comprehension results on RefCOCO, RefCOCO+ and RefCOCOg. KOSMOS-2 also obtains promising zero-shot performance on the comprehension task, significantly

Model	Zero-shot	RefCOCO			RefCOCO+			RefCOCOg	
		val	testA	testB	val	testA	testB	val	test
UNITER (Chen et al., 2019)	7	81.41	87.04	74.17	75.90	81.45	66.70	74.86	75.77
MDETR (Kamath et al., 2021)	7	87.51	90.40	82.67	81.13	85.52	72.96	83.35	83.31
OFA (Wang et al., 2022c)	7	90.05	92.93	85.26	84.49	90.10	77.77	84.54	85.20
FIBER (Dou et al., 2022)	7	90.68	92.59	87.26	85.74	90.13	79.38	87.11	87.32
VisionLLM (Wang et al., 2023)	7	86.70	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
GRILL (Jin et al., 2023)	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	47.50
KOSMOS-2	3	52.32	57.42	47.26	45.48	50.73	42.24	60.57	61.65

Table 2: Accuracy of referring expression comprehension.

Figure 4: The input format of referring expression generation evaluation under (1) zero-shot and (2) few-shot settings. The bounding boxes shown in the image are for visualization purposes.

outperforming previous zero-shot models on RefCOCOg benchmark. However, compared to previous well-netuned works, KOSMOS-2 achieves slightly lower performance on RefCOCO and RefCOCO+ than on RefCOCOg. This discrepancy can be attributed to the data distribution present in RefCOCO and RefCOCO+, where they tend to use a shorter referring expression (“left bottom”) during the two-player game. Hence, one of our future goals is to enhance MLLMs’ ability to accurately understand more types of human expressions.

4.2 MULTIMODAL REFERRING

In addition to multimodal grounding tasks, we evaluate the model’s ability to understand image regions or objects users refer to via inputting bounding boxes. Compared with previous MLLMs that can only refer image regions or objects to the model via detailed text descriptions, directly referring to image regions using its bounding boxes is more effective and reduces ambiguity.

We evaluate the model on the referring expression generation task, which aims to generate unambiguous text descriptions of specific objects or regions within the bounding box. We employ the widely used RefCOCOg dataset (Mao et al., 2015) to evaluate the model’s performance under both zero-shot and few-shot settings, showcasing its adaptability in different scenarios.

Evaluation Setup The model is tasked with generating an associated text description for an object or region given its location tokens of the bounding boxes (“<box><loc_{tl}><loc_{br}></box>”). Benefiting from the unified input format, we use “<p><box><loc_{tl}><loc_{br}></box> is” as prompt to encourage the model to predict its text description. Figure 4 (1) and (2) demonstrate the input format for zero-shot and few-shot referring expression generation, respectively. Following previous works, we report results using METEOR and CIDEr metrics. The image resolution is 224 × 224. Greedy search is used for decoding.

Results Table 3 presents the zero-shot and few-shot results of on RefCOCOg. We compare KOSMOS-2 with a netuned listener-speaker model, which introduces an added reward-based module (SLR). Our model obtains impressive zero-shot performance and even outperforms netuned SLR by

Model	Setting	RefCOCOg	
		Meteor	CIDEr
SLR (Yu et al., 2017)	Finetuning	15.4	59.2
SLR+Rerank (Yu et al., 2017)	Finetuning	15.9	66.2
KOSMOS-2	Zero-shot	12.2	60.3
	Few-shot ($k = 2$)	13.8	62.2
	Few-shot ($k = 4$)	14.1	62.3

Table 3: Results of referring expression generation on RefCOCOg.

Model	Flickr30k	VQAv2
	CIDEr	VQA acc.
FewVLM (Jin et al., 2022)	31.0	-
METALM (Hao et al., 2022)	43.4	41.1
Flamingo-3B (Alayrac et al., 2022)	60.6	49.2
Flamingo-9B (Alayrac et al., 2022)	61.5	51.8
BLIP-2 (Vicuna-13B) (Li et al., 2023b)	71.6	65.0
KOSMOS-1 (Huang et al., 2023)	67.1	51.0
KOSMOS-2 (1.6B)	80.5	51.1

Table 4: Zero-shot image captioning results on the Flickr30k test set and zero-shot visual question answering results on the VQAv2 test-dev set.

1.1 CIDEr scores. For the few-shot setting, KOSMOS-2 achieves larger improvements, highlighting its in-context learning ability.

4.3 PERCEPTION-LANGUAGE TASKS

In addition to multimodal grounding and referring tasks, we also evaluate KOSMOS-2 on the vision-language tasks. In particular, we perform zero-shot evaluations on two popular tasks, including image captioning and visual question answering. Appendix E provides a more comprehensive comparison on SEED-Bench (Li et al., 2023a) between KOSMOS-2 and recent MLLMs.

For image captioning, we evaluate the model on the widely used Flickr30k¹ test set. The beam search algorithm is used for caption generation, with a beam size of 5. The results are reported using CIDEr (Vedantam et al., 2015) metrics evaluated by COCOEval². The prompt “An image of” is used to generate the image description. For visual question answering, we evaluate zero-shot performance on the test-dev set of VQAv2. Greedy search is used for decoding. We report VQA scores obtained from VQAv2 evaluation server². The prompt “Question: {question} Answer: {answer}” is used as the prompt for the dataset. The image resolution is 224 for both two tasks.

Table 4 displays the zero-shot performance. For image captioning on Flickr30k, KOSMOS-2 with much fewer parameters achieves a remarkable score of 80.5, which significantly outperforms Flamingo-3B (60.6), Flamingo-9B (61.5), and BLIP-2 (Vicuna-13B) (71.6) with large margins. For visual question answering on VQAv2, KOSMOS-2 achieves a VQA accuracy of 51.1, which is on par with KOSMOS-1 (51.0) but lower than BLIP-2 (Vicuna-13B) at 65.0. With more comprehensive functions e.g. grounding and referring capabilities, KOSMOS-2 demonstrates competitive performance in perception-language tasks.

4.4 LANGUAGE TASKS

We evaluate KOSMOS-2 on eight language tasks, including cloze and completion tasks (StoryCloze, HellaSwag), Winograd-style tasks (Winograd, Winogrande), commonsense reasoning (PIQA), and

¹<https://github.com/salaniz/pycocoevalcap>

²<https://eval.ai/challenge/830/overview>

Model	Story Cloze	Hella Swag	Winograd	Winogrande	PIQA	BoolQ	CB	COPA
LLM	72.9	50.4	71.6	56.7	73.2	56.4	39.3	68.0
KOSMOS-1	72.1	50.0	69.8	54.8	72.9	56.4	44.6	63.0
KOSMOS-2	72.0	49.4	69.1	55.6	72.9	62.0	30.4	67.0

Table 5: Zero-shot performance comparisons of language tasks between KOSMOS-2, KOSMOS-1 and LLM. LLM uses the same text data and training setup to reimplement a language model as KOSMOS-1. For a fair comparison, we report results of KOSMOS-2 and KOSMOS-1 without instruction tuning. Results of KOSMOS-1 and the LLM baseline are from Huang et al., 2023.

three SuperGLUE benchmark (Wang et al., 2019) datasets (BoolQ, CB, and COPA). We report the zero-shot results in Table 5. Compared with KOSMOS-1, KOSMOS-2 achieves similar performance on StoryCloze, HellaSwag, Winograd, Winogrande, and PIQA, experiences a decrease in performance on CB, but shows improvement on BoolQ and COPA. In summary, KOSMOS-2 demonstrates new multimodal grounding and referring capabilities when achieving comparable performance on language tasks, which demonstrates its potential to be a versatile model.

5 RELATED WORK

The thriving development of large language models (LLMs, Brown et al., 2020; Chowdhery et al., 2022; Touvron et al., 2023) has paved the way for multimodal large language models (MLLMs, OpenAI, 2023; Alayrac et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022b; Li et al., 2023b; Huang et al., 2023; Driess et al., 2023; Pan et al., 2023; Lv et al., 2023), which seek to integrate language understanding and reasoning with multimodal perception and comprehension. Flamingo (Alayrac et al., 2022) fuses a pretrained vision encoder and an LLM by introducing gated cross-attention structures, demonstrating impressive multimodal in-context learning capabilities. KOSMOS-1 (Huang et al., 2023) is another work showing impressive performance under zero/few-shot and multimodal chain-of-thought prompting settings. It is trained from scratch using web-scale multimodal corpora. Recently, instruction-tuning based MLLMs (Liu et al., 2023a; Zhu et al., 2023; Dai et al., 2023; Ye et al., 2023; Gong et al., 2023) endow pretrained LLMs (Touvron et al., 2023; Chiang et al., 2023) multimodal instruction-following capability by constructing high-quality multimodal instruction datasets. Meanwhile, some works are proposed to bridge vision systems with LLMs. VisionLLM (Wang et al., 2023) provides a flexible interaction interface for visual tasks, such as object detection, and segmentation. DetGPT (Pi et al., 2023) combines an MLLM and an extra detector (Liu et al., 2023b) for grounding.

Compared to detectors or grounding models (Chen et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2021; Li et al., 2022b; Liu et al., 2023b) KOSMOS-2 benefits from the advantages of LLMs, such as the ability to comprehend more complex linguistic descriptions and perform superior reasoning. In contrast to existing MLLM methods, KOSMOS-2 incorporates grounding as a foundational capability for MLLMs in various downstream applications, resulting in more informative and comprehensive predictions. Please see Appendix F for more comparisons.

6 CONCLUSION

We proposed KOSMOS-2, a multimodal large language model, that can ground to the visual world. Specifically, we pretrained KOSMOS-2 by augmenting the multimodal corpora used by KOSMOS-1 with GRIT, a large-scale dataset of Grounded Image-Text pairs, which is created by extracting and associating noun phrases and referring expressions in the caption to the objects or regions in the scene. KOSMOS-2 enabled new capabilities of perceiving image regions and grounding text output to the visual world, which makes grounding as a foundation capability of MLLMs in many downstream applications. Extensive experiments demonstrated that KOSMOS-2 exhibited competitive performance in language tasks, while achieving impressive results in vision-language tasks, grounding tasks, and referring tasks. KOSMOS-2 sheds a light on the big convergence of language, multimodal perception, multimodal grounding, and multimodal referring.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Some example figures are from the WHOOPS corpus (Bitton-Guetta et al., 2023). We would like to acknowledge ydshieh from HuggingFace for both the online demo and the integration of our work into the HuggingFace's transformers. We would also like to acknowledge the efforts of the NVIDIA team for integrating KOSMOS-2 into the NVIDIA foundation model endpoints.

ETHICS STATEMENT

The model presented in this paper is intended for academic and research purposes. The utilization of the model to create unsuitable material is strictly forbidden and not endorsed by this work. The accountability for any improper or unacceptable application of the model rests exclusively with the individuals who generated such content. We also put Microsoft AI Principles³ practice when developing the models.

REFERENCES

- Jean-Baptiste Alayrac, Jeff Donahue, Pauline Luc, Antoine Miech, Iain Barr, Yana Hasson, Karel Lenc, Arthur Mensch, Katherine Millican, Malcolm Reynolds, Roman Ring, Eliza Rutherford, Serkan Cabi, Tengda Han, Zhitao Gong, Sina Samangooei, Marianne Monteiro, Jacob Menick, Sebastian Borgeaud, Andrew Brock, Aida Nematzadeh, Sahand Sharifzadeh, Mikolaj Binkowski, Ricardo Barreira, Oriol Vinyals, Andrew Zisserman, and Karen Simonyan. Flamingo: a visual language model for few-shot learning. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* 2022. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=EbMuimAbPbs>.
- Nitzan Bitton-Guetta, Yonatan Bitton, Jack Hessel, Ludwig Schmidt, Yuval Elovici, Gabriel Stanovsky, and Roy Schwartz. Breaking common sense: WHOOPS! a vision-and-language benchmark of synthetic and compositional images. *arXiv, abs/2303.07274*, 2023.
- Tom Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared D Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, Sandhini Agarwal, Ariel Herbert-Voss, Gretchen Krueger, Tom Henighan, Rewon Child, Aditya Ramesh, Daniel Ziegler, Jeffrey Wu, Clemens Winter, Chris Hesse, Mark Chen, Eric Sigler, Mateusz Litwin, Scott Gray, Benjamin Chess, Jack Clark, Christopher Berner, Sam McCandlish, Alec Radford, Ilya Sutskever, and Dario Amodei. Language models are few-shot learners. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 33, pp. 1877–1901. Curran Associates, Inc., 2020.
- Emanuele Bugliarello, Aida Nematzadeh, and Lisa Anne Hendricks. Weakly-supervised learning of visual relations in multimodal pretraining. *arXiv:2305.14281*2023a.
- Emanuele Bugliarello, Laurent Sartran, Aishwarya Agrawal, Lisa Anne Hendricks, and Aida Nematzadeh. Measuring progress in fine-grained vision-and-language understanding. *arXiv:2305.07558*2023b.
- Minwoo Byeon, Beomhee Park, Haecheon Kim, Sungjun Lee, Woonhyuk Baek, and Saehoon Kim. Coyo-700m: Image-text pair dataset, 2022.
- Ting Chen, Saurabh Saxena, Lala Li, David J. Fleet, and Geoffrey E. Hinton. Pix2seq: A language modeling framework for object detection. *arXiv, abs/2109.10852*, 2021.
- Yen-Chun Chen, Linjie Li, Licheng Yu, Ahmed El Kholy, Faisal Ahmed, Zhe Gan, Yu Cheng, and Jingjing Liu. Uniter: Universal image-text representation learning. *European Conference on Computer Vision*2019.
- Wei-Lin Chiang, Zhuohan Li, Zi Lin, Ying Sheng, Zhanghao Wu, Hao Zhang, Lianmin Zheng, Siyuan Zhuang, Yonghao Zhuang, Joseph E. Gonzalez, Ion Stoica, and Eric P. Xing. Vicuna: An open-source chatbot impressing gpt-4 with 90%* chatgpt quality, March 2023. URL: <https://lmsys.org/blog/2023-03-30-vicuna/>.

³<https://www.microsoft.com/ai/responsible-ai>

- Aakanksha Chowdhery, Sharan Narang, Jacob Devlin, Maarten Bosma, Gaurav Mishra, Adam Roberts, Paul Barham, Hyung Won Chung, Charles Sutton, Sebastian Gehrmann, Parker Schuh, Kensen Shi, Sasha Tsvyashchenko, Joshua Maynez, Abhishek B Rao, Parker Barnes, Yi Tay, Noam M. Shazeer, Vinodkumar Prabhakaran, Emily Reif, Nan Du, Benton C. Hutchinson, Reiner Pope, James Bradbury, Jacob Austin, Michael Isard, Guy Gur-Ari, Pengcheng Yin, Toju Duke, Anselm Levskaya, Sanjay Ghemawat, Sunipa Dev, Henryk Michalewski, Xavier García, Vedant Misra, Kevin Robinson, Liam Fedus, Denny Zhou, Daphne Ippolito, David Luan, Hyeontaek Lim, Barret Zoph, Alexander Spiridonov, Ryan Sepassi, David Dohan, Shivani Agrawal, Mark Omernick, Andrew M. Dai, Thanumalayan Sankaranarayanan Pillai, Marie Pellat, Aitor Lewkowycz, Erica Oliveira Moreira, Rewon Child, Oleksandr Polozov, Katherine Lee, Zongwei Zhou, Xuezhi Wang, Brennan Saeta, Mark Díaz, Orhan Firat, Michele Catasta, Jason Wei, Kathleen S. Meier-Hellstern, Douglas Eck, Jeff Dean, Slav Petrov, and Noah Fiedel. PaLM: Scaling language modeling with pathwaysArXiv, abs/2204.02311, 2022.
- Wenliang Dai, Junnan Li, Dongxu Li, Anthony Meng Huat Tiong, Junqi Zhao, Weisheng Wang, Boyang Li, Pascale Fung, and Steven C. H. Hoi. Instructblip: Towards general-purpose vision-language models with instruction tuningArXiv, abs/2305.06500, 2023.
- Zi-Yi Dou, Aishwarya Kamath, Zhe Gan, Pengchuan Zhang, Jianfeng Wang, Linjie Li, Zicheng Liu, Ce Liu, Yann LeCun, Nanyun Peng, Jianfeng Gao, and Lijuan Wang. Coarse-to-fine vision-language pre-training with fusion in the backboneArXiv, abs/2206.07643, 2022.
- Danny Driess, F. Xia, Mehdi S. M. Sajjadi, Corey Lynch, Aakanksha Chowdhery, Brian Ichter, Ayzaan Wahid, Jonathan Tompson, Quan Ho Vuong, Tianhe Yu, Wenlong Huang, Yevgen Chebotar, Pierre Sermanet, Daniel Duckworth, Sergey Levine, Vincent Vanhoucke, Karol Hausman, Marc Toussaint, Klaus Greff, Andy Zeng, Igor Mordatch, and Peter R. Florence. Palm-e: An embodied multimodal language modelArXiv, abs/2303.03378, 2023.
- Tao Gong, Chengqi Lyu, Shilong Zhang, Yudong Wang, Miao Zheng, Qianmengke Zhao, Kuikun Liu, Wenwei Zhang, Ping Luo, and Kai Chen. Multimodal-gpt: A vision and language model for dialogue with humansArXiv, abs/2305.04790, 2023.
- Yaru Hao, Haoyu Song, Li Dong, Shaohan Huang, Zewen Chi, Wenhui Wang, Shuming Ma, and Furu Wei. Language models are general-purpose interactive agentsArXiv, abs/2206.06336, 2022.
- Matthew Honnibal, Ines Montani, Soe Van Landeghem, and Adriane Boyd. spaCy: Industrial-strength Natural Language Processing in Python. 2020. doi: 10.5281/zenodo.1212303. URL <https://github.com/explosion/spaCy>.
- Or Honovich, Thomas Scialom, Omer Levy, and Timo Schick. Unnatural instructions: Tuning language models with (almost) no human labor, 2022. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2212.09689>.
- Shaohan Huang, Li Dong, Wenhui Wang, Yaru Hao, Saksham Singhal, Shuming Ma, Tengchao Lv, Lei Cui, Owais Khan Mohammed, Qiang Liu, Kriti Aggarwal, Zewen Chi, Johan Bjorck, Vishrav Chaudhary, Subhojit Som, Xia Song, and Furu Wei. Language is not all you need: Aligning perception with language modelsArXiv, abs/2302.14045, 2023.
- Woojeong Jin, Yu Cheng, Yelong Shen, Weizhu Chen, and Xiang Ren. A good prompt is worth millions of parameters: Low-resource prompt-based learning for vision-language models. In Proceedings of the 60th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers) pp. 2763–2775, Dublin, Ireland, May 2022. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2022.acl-long.197. URL <https://aclanthology.org/2022.acl-long.197>.
- Woojeong Jin, Subhabrata Mukherjee, Yu Cheng, Yelong Shen, Weizhu Chen, Ahmed Hassan Awadallah, Damien Jose, and Xiang Ren. Grill: Grounded vision-language pre-training via aligning text and image regionsArXiv, abs/2305.14676, 2023.
- Aishwarya Kamath, Mannat Singh, Yann LeCun, Ishan Misra, Gabriel Synnaeve, and Nicolas Carion. Mdetr - modulated detection for end-to-end multi-modal understandingArXiv, abs/2105.11655, 2021. ICCV, pp. 1760–1770, 2021.

- Alexander Kirillov, Eric Mintun, Nikhila Ravi, Hanzi Mao, Chloe Rolland, Laura Gustafson, Tete Xiao, Spencer Whitehead, Alexander C. Berg, Wan-Yen Lo, Piotr Dollár, and Ross Girshick. Segment anything. *arXiv:2304.02643*2023.
- Ranjay Krishna, Yuke Zhu, Oliver Groth, Justin Johnson, Kenji Hata, Joshua Kravitz, Stephanie Chen, Yannis Kalantidis, Li-Jia Li, David A. Shamma, Michael S. Bernstein, and Li Fei-Fei. Visual genome: Connecting language and vision using crowdsourced dense image annotations. *International Journal of Computer Vision* 123:32–73, 2016.
- Katherine Lee, Daphne Ippolito, Andrew Nystrom, Chiyuan Zhang, Douglas Eck, Chris Callison-Burch, and Nicholas Carlini. Deduplicating training data makes language models better. *arXiv:2107.06499*2021.
- Bohao Li, Rui Wang, Guangzhi Wang, Yuying Ge, Yixiao Ge, and Ying Shan. Seed-bench: Benchmarking multimodal llms with generative comprehensions. *arXiv, abs/2307.16125*, 2023a.
- Junnan Li, Dongxu Li, Caiming Xiong, and Steven Hoi. Blip: Bootstrapping language-image pre-training for unified vision-language understanding and generation. *International Conference on Machine Learning* pp. 12888–12900. PMLR, 2022a.
- Junnan Li, Dongxu Li, Silvio Savarese, and Steven Hoi. BLIP-2: Bootstrapping language-image pre-training with frozen image encoders and large language models. *arXiv, abs/2301.12597*, 2023b.
- Kunchang Li, Yinan He, Yi Wang, Yizhuo Li, Wen Wang, Ping Luo, Yali Wang, Limin Wang, and Yu Qiao. Videochat: Chat-centric video understanding. *arXiv, abs/2305.06355*, 2023c.
- Liunian Harold Li, Mark Yatskar, Da Yin, Cho-Jui Hsieh, and Kai-Wei Chang. Visualbert: A simple and performant baseline for vision and language. *arXiv, abs/1908.03557*, 2019.
- Liunian Harold Li, Pengchuan Zhang, Haotian Zhang, Jianwei Yang, Chunyuan Li, Yiwu Zhong, Lijuan Wang, Lu Yuan, Lei Zhang, Jenq-Neng Hwang, Kai-Wei Chang, and Jianfeng Gao. Grounded language-image pre-training. *CVPR* 2022b.
- 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. *ECCV*, pp. 740–755, 2014.
- Haotian Liu, Chunyuan Li, Qingyang Wu, and Yong Jae Lee. Visual instruction tuning. *arXiv:2304.08485*2023a.
- Siyi Liu, Zhaoyang Zeng, Tianhe Ren, Feng Li, Hao Zhang, Jie Yang, Chun yue Li, Jianwei Yang, Hang Su, Jun-Juan Zhu, and Lei Zhang. Grounding dino: Marrying dino with grounded pre-training for open-set object detection. *arXiv, abs/2303.05499*, 2023b.
- Shayne Longpre, Le Hou, Tu Vu, Albert Webson, Hyung Won Chung, Yi Tay, Denny Zhou, Quoc V Le, Barret Zoph, Jason Wei, et al. The flan collection: Designing data and methods for effective instruction tuning. *arXiv:2301.13688*2023.
- Tengchao Lv, Yupan Huang, Jingye Chen, Lei Cui, Shuming Ma, Ya-Chi Chang, Shaohan Huang, Wenhui Wang, Li Dong, Weiyao Luo, Shaoxiang Wu, Guoxin Wang, Cha Zhang, and Furu Wei. Kosmos-2.5: A multimodal literate model. *arXiv, abs/2309.11419*, 2023.
- Shuming Ma, Hongyu Wang, Shaohan Huang, Wenhui Wang, Zewen Chi, Li Dong, Alon Benhaim, Barun Patra, Vishrav Chaudhary, Xia Song, and Furu Wei. TorchScale: Transformers at scale. *CoRR*, abs/2211.13184, 2022.
- Muhammad Maaz, Hanoona Rasheed, Salman Khan, and Fahad Shahbaz Khan. Video-chatgpt: Towards detailed video understanding via large vision and language models. *arXiv, abs/2306.05424*, 2023.
- Junhua Mao, Jonathan Huang, Alexander Toshev, Oana-Maria Camburu, Alan Loddon Yuille, and Kevin P. Murphy. Generation and comprehension of unambiguous object descriptions. *CVPR* pp. 11–20, 2015.

OpenAI. Gpt-4 technical report. 2023.

Xichen Pan, Li Dong, Shaohan Huang, Zhiliang Peng, Wenhui Chen, and Furu Wei. Kosmos-g: Generating images in context with multimodal large language models. *ArXiv*, abs/2310.02992, 2023.

Renjie Pi, Jiahui Gao, Shizhe Diao, Rui Pan, Hanze Dong, Jipeng Zhang, Lewei Yao, Jianhua Han, Hang Xu, and Lingpeng Kong. Detgpt: Detect what you need via reasoning. *ArXiv*, abs/2305.14167, 2023.

Bryan A. Plummer, Liwei Wang, Christopher M. Cervantes, Juan C. Caicedo, J. Hockenmaier, and Svetlana Lazebnik. Flickr30k entities: Collecting region-to-phrase correspondences for richer image-to-sentence models. *International Journal of Computer Vision*, 23:74–93, 2015.

Christoph Schuhmann, Romain Beaumont, Richard Vencu, Cade Gordon, Ross Wightman, Mehdi Cherti, Theo Coombes, Aarush Katta, Clayton Mullis, Mitchell Wortsman, et al. Laion-5b: An open large-scale dataset for training next generation image-text models. *ArXiv*, abs/2210.08402, 2022.

Hugo Touvron, Thibaut Lavril, Gautier Izacard, Xavier Martinet, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Timothée Lacroix, Baptiste Rozière, Naman Goyal, Eric Hambro, Faisal Azhar, Aurélien Rodriguez, Armand Joulin, Edouard Grave, and Guillaume Lample. Llama: Open and efficient foundation language models. *ArXiv*, abs/2302.13971, 2023.

Ramakrishna Vedantam, C Lawrence Zitnick, and Devi Parikh. Cider: Consensus-based image description evaluation. *IEEE CVPR*, pp. 4566–4575, 2015.

Alex Wang, Yada Pruksachatkun, Nikita Nangia, Amanpreet Singh, Julian Michael, Felix Hill, Omer Levy, and Samuel R Bowman. SuperGLUE: A stickier benchmark for general-purpose language understanding systems. *ArXiv*:1905.00537, 2019.

Hongyu Wang, Shuming Ma, Shaohan Huang, Li Dong, Wenhui Wang, Zhiliang Peng, Yu Wu, Payal Bajaj, Saksham Singhal, Alon Benhaim, Barun Patra, Zhun Liu, Vishrav Chaudhary, Xia Song, and Furu Wei. Foundation transformers. *CoRR*, abs/2210.06423, 2022a.

Jianfeng Wang, Zhengyuan Yang, Xiaowei Hu, Linjie Li, Kevin Lin, Zhe Gan, Zicheng Liu, Ce Liu, and Lijuan Wang. GIT: A generative image-to-text transformer for vision and language. *CoRR*, abs/2205.14100, 2022b.

Peng Wang, An Yang, Rui Men, Junyang Lin, Shuai Bai, Zhikang Li, Jianxin Ma, Chang Zhou, Jingren Zhou, and Hongxia Yang. Unifying architectures, tasks, and modalities through a simple sequence-to-sequence learning framework. *International Conference on Machine Learning*, 2022c.

Wen Wang, Zhe Chen, Xiaokang Chen, Jiannan Wu, Xizhou Zhu, Gang Zeng, Ping Luo, Tong Lu, Jie Zhou, Y. Qiao, and Jifeng Dai. VisionLLM: Large language model is also an open-ended decoder for vision-centric tasks. *ArXiv*, abs/2305.11175, 2023.

Zhengyuan Yang, Zhe Gan, Jianfeng Wang, Xiaowei Hu, Faisal Ahmed, Zicheng Liu, Yumao Lu, and Lijuan Wang. Unitab: Unifying text and box outputs for grounded vision-language modeling. In *European Conference on Computer Vision*, 2021.

Yuan Yao, Qi-An Chen, Ao Zhang, Wei Ji, Zhiyuan Liu, Tat-Seng Chua, and Maosong Sun. Pevl: Position-enhanced pre-training and prompt tuning for vision-language models. *Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, 2022.

Qinghao Ye, Haiyang Xu, Guohai Xu, Jiabo Ye, Ming Yan, Yi Zhou, Junyan Wang, Anwen Hu, Pengcheng Shi, Yaya Shi, Chenliang Li, Yuanhong Xu, Hehong Chen, Junfeng Tian, Qiang Qi, Ji Zhang, and Feiyan Huang. mplug-owl: Modularization empowers large language models with multimodality. *ArXiv*, abs/2304.14178, 2023.

Licheng Yu, Patrick Poirson, Shan Yang, Alexander C. Berg, and Tamara L. Berg. Modeling context in referring expressions. *ArXiv*, abs/1608.00272, 2016.

Licheng Yu, Hao Tan, Mohit Bansal, and Tamara L. Berg. A joint speaker-listener-reinforcer model for referring expressions. *IEEE CVPR*, pp. 3521–3529. IEEE Computer Society, 2017.

Yan Zeng, Xinsong Zhang, and Hang Li. Multi-grained vision language pre-training: Aligning texts with visual concepts. *arXiv:2111.08276*, 2021.

Haotian Zhang, Pengchuan Zhang, Xiaowei Hu, Yen-Chun Chen, Liunian Li, Xiyang Dai, Lijuan Wang, Lu Yuan, Jenq-Neng Hwang, and Jianfeng Gao. Glipv2: Unifying localization and vision-language understanding. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35:36067–36080, 2022.

Deyao Zhu, Jun Chen, Xiaoqian Shen, Xiang Li, and Mohamed Elhoseiny. Minigt-4: Enhancing vision-language understanding with advanced large language models. *arXiv:2304.10592*, 2023.

A EXAMPLES OF KOSMOS-2

We evaluate KOSMOS-2 on a variety of tasks, including multimodal grounding, multimodal referring, vision-language, and language tasks, as discussed in Section 4. To provide a more intuitive understanding of the model’s capabilities, we have included several visualizations in this section. Figure 5 (1) illustrates an example of multimodal grounding, while Figure 5 (4-6) and Figure 9 (2) showcase multimodal referring via bounding boxes.

However, as previously mentioned, the grounding capability of KOSMOS-2 enables a range of new applications to emerge. For instance, Figure 6 highlights the potential of the multimodal referring capability for enhancing human-AI interaction in visual dialogue. In Figure 7, our approach exhibits its in-context learning ability for fine-grained object detection, utilizing both text and image descriptions. Examples of grounded visual question answering can be seen in Figure 5 (2-3) and Figure 8 (1), while Figure 5 (7) and Figure 9 demonstrate grounded detailed image captioning.

Image credits: We would like to express our gratitude for the images sourced from the WHOOPS corpus (Bitton-Guetta et al., 2023), SA-1B (Kirillov et al., 2023), and MS COCO (Lin et al., 2014).

B TRAINING HYPERPARAMETERS

The hyperparameters of KOSMOS-2 are listed in Table 6, while the instruction tuning hyperparameters are listed in Table 7.

Hyperparameters	
Image embedding number	64
Location tokens	1,024
Training steps	60,000
Warmup steps	375
Optimizer	AdamW
Learning rate	2e-4
Learning rate decay	Linear
Adam	(0.9, 0.98)
Weight decay	0.01
Batch size of text corpora	93
Batch size of original image-caption pairs	1,117
Batch size of grounded image-text pairs	1,117
Batch size of interleaved data	47

Table 6: Hyperparameters of KOSMOS-2

Hyperparameters	
Training steps	10,000
Warmup steps	375
Learning rate	1e-5
Batch size of language instruction data	117
Batch size of vision-language instruction data	351
Batch size of grounded image-text pairs & grounded instruction data	1404
Batch size of text corpora	30
Batch size of interleaved data	15

Table 7: Instruction tuning hyperparameters of KOSMOS-2

C GRIT

C.1 COMPARISON WITH OTHER DATASETS

We compare the created GRIT with existing publicly accessible visual grounding datasets in Table 8. One can see that our GRIT dataset significantly outperforms other existing visual grounding datasets in terms of the number of images, objects, and text spans. With 90,614,680 images, 137,349,210 objects, and 114,978,233 text spans, GRIT is a considerably larger dataset than any of its counterparts, such as Flickr Entities (Plummer et al., 2015), RefCOCOg (Mao et al., 2015), RefCOCO (Yu et al., 2016), RefCOCO+ (Yu et al., 2016), and Visual Genome (Krishna et al., 2016).

In addition, the data in GRIT is more diverse: regarding the text descriptions, GRIT encompasses both referring expressions and noun chunks. Each referring expression or noun chunk could be associated with one or more bounding boxes. More importantly, the image-caption pairs utilized in the dataset are derived from large-scale web datasets (LAION-2B (Schuhmann et al., 2022) and COYO-700M (Byeon et al., 2022)), which implies a rich variety of content covering various scenes and topics. This diversity contributes to providing a more comprehensive and realistic setting for visual grounding tasks, ultimately enhancing the generalization capabilities of models.

Figure 5: Selected examples generated by Kosmos-2. The examples include (1) visual grounding, (2)-(3) grounded question answering, (4)-(6) multimodal referring via bounding boxes, and (7) grounded image captioning. (Best viewed in color)

Figure 6: Examples of visual dialogue generated by `visio-2`. (Best viewed in color)

Figure 7: Examples of object detection with multimodal descriptions from OS-2.

Figure 8: Examples generated by κ MOS-2. (Best viewed in color)

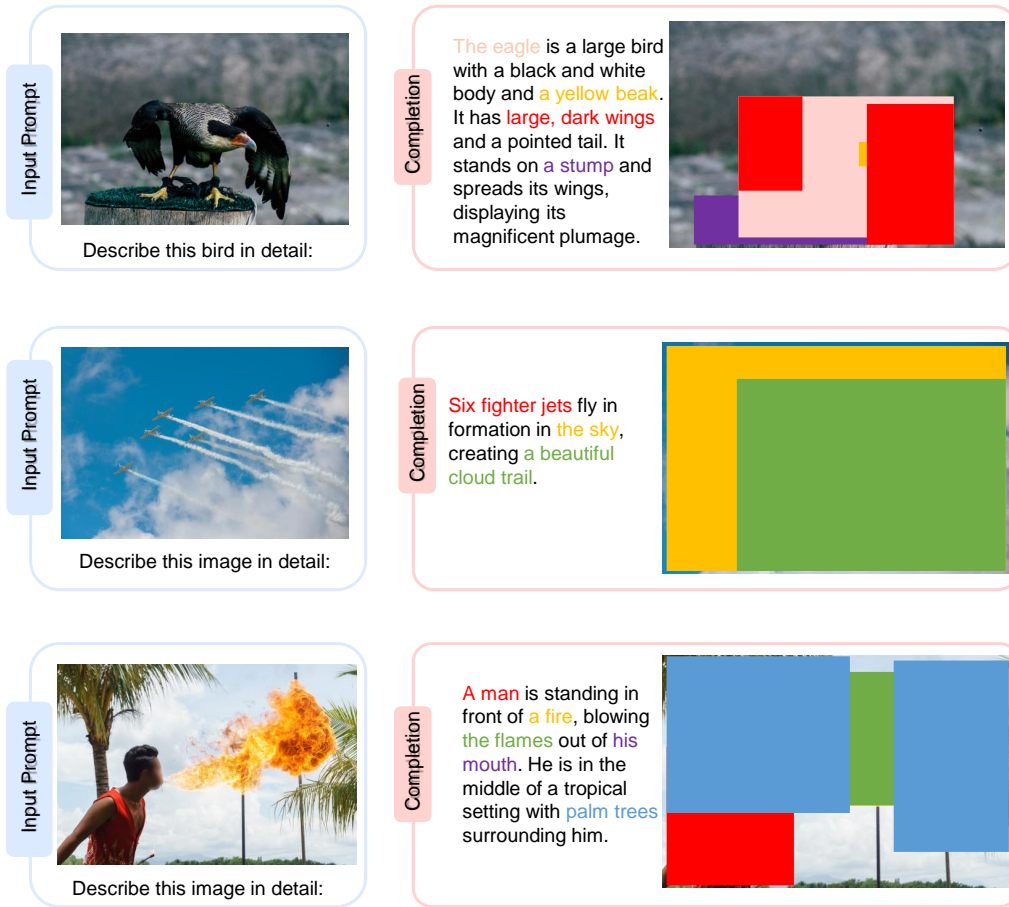


Figure 9: Examples of grounded image captioning generated by KOSMOS-2. (Best viewed in color)

Dataset	Images	Objects	Text Spans	Avg Expression Length
Flickr Entities (Plummer et al., 2015)	31,783	275,775	513,644	-
RefCOCOg (Mao et al., 2015)	26,711	54,822	85,474	8.43
RefCOCO (Yu et al., 2016)	19,994	50,000	142,209	3.61
RefCOCO+ (Yu et al., 2016)	19,992	49,856	141,564	3.53
Visual Genome (Krishna et al., 2016)	108,077	4,102,818	-	-
GRIT (Ours)	90,614,680	137,349,210	114,978,233	4.7

Table 8: Comparison GRIT with existing visual grounding datasets.

C.2 TEMPLATES FOR GROUNDED INSTRUCTION DATA

Table 9 presents the instruction templates of expression generation based on its associated bounding boxes during instruction tuning.

C.3 EXAMPLES OF GRIT

We present some examples of the GRIT corpus in Figures 10,11,12,13. The grounded image-text pairs span over various domains and contain different numbers of objects.

1. "What is <p> it </p><box><loc_tl><loc_br></box>? It is {expression}."
2. "What is <p> this </p><box><loc_tl><loc_br></box>? This is {expression}."
3. "Describe <p> this object </p><box><loc_tl><loc_br></box>. This object is {expression}."
4. "<p> It </p><box><loc_tl><loc_br></box> is {expression}."
5. "<p> This </p><box><loc_tl><loc_br></box> is {expression}."
6. "<p> The object </p><box><loc_tl><loc_br></box> is {expression}."

Table 9: Instruction templates used for expression generation.

Ablation Settings	RefCOCO			RefCOCO+			Flickr30k		RefCOCog	
	val	testA	testB	val	testA	testB	val	test	val	test
Baseline	52.3	57.4	47.3	45.5	50.7	42.2	77.8	78.7	60.6	61.7
- Instruction tuning	49.2	56.3	43.8	45.1	50.1	40.6	76.7	77.5	59.6	60.0
- Expression data	41.4	45.1	38.1	35.7	37.1	34.3	78.5	79.0	29.2	28.3

Table 10: Ablation of linguistic description type of objects. Zero-shot Recall@1 metric is tested on Flickr30k while zero-shot accuracy protocol is reported on RefCOCO+/g.

D ABLATION STUDY

In Section 2, a pipeline is proposed for constructing web-scale grounded image-text pairs in two steps: generating noun-chunk-bounding-box pairs and producing referring-expression-bounding-box pairs. This process results in two types of text descriptions: noun-chunks and referring expressions. To assess the impact of these two description types on the final visual grounding performance, ablation studies are conducted. It is found that using referring expression data alone is insufficient for training the model. Therefore, a mixture of the two types of data (text spans) is used for training, which also serves as the default setting.

From Table 10, it can be observed that the performance experiences a slight degradation when the instruction tuning phase is disabled. This can be attributed to our utilization of referring expression data to enhance the multimodal referring capability during the instruction tuning phase. Upon further removal of the referring expression data (i.e., disabling Step 2 in Figure 2), there is a significant decline in the results on referring expression comprehensive benchmarks. This highlights the effectiveness of the construction pipeline we proposed in Section 2.

E EVALUATION ON SEED-BENCH

Existing benchmarks for MLLMs are limited by inadequate qualitative examples and unsuitable assessments for open-form output. To address, SEED-Bench (Li et al., 2023a) was proposed as a superior benchmark, which consists of 19K multiple choice questions with accurate human annotations and covers 12 evaluation dimensions across both image and video modalities. This comprehensive and objective benchmark enables precise and in-depth evaluation of MLLMs. On SEED-Bench, we compare KOSMOS-2 with popular MLLMs including MiniGPT4 (Zhu et al., 2023), LLaVA (Liu et al., 2023a), BLIP-2 (Li et al., 2023b), InstructBLIP (Dai et al., 2023), MultiModal-GPT (Gong et al., 2023), mPLUG-Owl (Ye et al., 2023), VideoChat (Li et al., 2023c) and Video-ChatGPT (Maaz et al., 2023), Table 11.

As shown in Table 11, KOSMOS-2 demonstrates remarkable performance with significantly fewer parameters than the counterparts. Although it is marginally outperformed by InstructBLIP (Dai et al., 2023), KOSMOS-2 surpasses the other models in the comparison. Specifically, KOSMOS-2 achieves the best results in scene understanding, instance location, instance interaction, visual reasoning, and action recognition tasks.

One noteworthy observation is that KOSMOS-2 excels in several instance-level tasks (e.g., instance location, instance interaction), indicating that its grounding capability is crucial for fine-grained

Table 11: Performance comparison on SEED-Bench (Li et al., 2023a). T_1 to T_{12} represent various tasks in the fields of Image and video understanding and reasoning: T_1 - Scene Understanding, T_2 - Instance Identity, T_3 - Instance Attribute, T_4 - Instance Location, T_5 - Instance Counting, T_6 - Spatial Relation, T_7 - Instance Interaction, T_8 - Visual Reasoning, T_9 - Text Recognition, T_{10} - Action Recognition, T_{11} - Action Prediction, and T_{12} - Procedure Understanding. Furthermore, T_I represents the average performance across the first nine image-based tasks, T_V signifies the average performance on the last three video-related tasks, and T_{All} indicates the mean performance over all twelve tasks.

Model	Language Model	Performance on 12 tasks														
		T_1	T_2	T_3	T_4	T_5	T_6	T_7	T_8	T_9	T_I	T_{10}	T_{11}	T_{12}	T_V	T_{All}
<i>Large Language Models</i>																
LLaMA	LLaMA-7B	26.3	27.4	26.2	28.3	25.1	28.8	19.2	37.0	9.0	26.6	33.0	23.1	26.2	27.3	26.8
Vicuna	Vicuna-7B	23.4	30.7	29.7	30.9	30.8	28.6	29.8	18.5	13.4	28.2	27.3	34.5	23.8	29.5	28.5
<i>Multimodal Large Language Models (Image)</i>																
MultiModal-GPT	LLaMA-7B	43.6	37.9	31.5	30.8	27.3	30.1	29.9	51.4	18.8	34.5	36.9	25.8	24.0	29.2	33.2
LLaVA	LLaMA-7B	42.7	34.9	33.5	28.4	41.9	30.8	27.8	46.8	27.7	37.0	29.7	21.4	19.1	23.8	33.5
mPLUG-Owl	LLaMA-7B	49.7	45.3	32.5	36.7	27.3	32.7	44.3	54.7	28.8	37.9	26.7	17.9	26.5	23.0	34.0
MiniGPT-4	Vicuna-7B	56.3	49.2	45.8	37.9	45.3	32.6	47.4	57.1	11.8	47.4	38.2	24.5	27.1	29.9	42.8
BLIP-2	Flan-T5-XL	59.1	53.9	49.2	42.3	43.2	36.7	55.7	45.6	25.9	49.7	32.6	47.5	24.0	36.7	46.4
InstructBLIP	Vicuna-7B	60.2	58.9	65.6	43.6	57.2	40.3	52.6	47.7	43.5	58.8	34.5	49.6	23.1	38.1	53.4
KOSMOS-2(ours)	Decoder-only 1.3B	63.4	57.1	58.5	44.0	41.4	37.9	55.7	60.7	25.9	54.4	41.3	40.4	27.0	37.5	50.0
<i>Multimodal Large Language Models (Video)</i>																
Video-ChatGPT	LLaMA-7B	37.2	31.4	33.2	28.4	35.5	29.5	23.7	42.3	25.9	33.9	27.6	21.3	21.1	23.5	31.2
VideoChat	Vicuna-7B	47.1	43.8	34.9	40.0	32.8	34.6	42.3	50.5	17.7	39.0	34.9	36.4	27.3	33.7	37.6

understanding and reasoning. This highlights the superiority of KOSMOS-2 in handling complex tasks that require a deeper understanding of the underlying data.

F DISCUSSION WITH MORE METHODS

In the field of Vision-Language Models (VLMs), several innovative approaches have been proposed, emphasizing the incorporation of spatial information or object detection in pretraining. OFA (Wang et al., 2022c) targets unifying various cross and mono modal tasks including image generation, visual grounding, image captioning, image classification, language modeling, etc., and has achieved impressive performances, by utilizing the concept of bounding boxes as tokens from Pix2Seq (Chen et al., 2021). PEVL (Yao et al., 2022) also processes spatial positions as discrete tokens (Chen et al., 2021) and integrated them with language tokens in a unified masked language modeling framework. X-VLM (Zeng et al., 2021) presents an approach that concentrates on multi-grained pretraining. It leverages bounding boxes to glean region-level visual features, aligning them with fine-grained text descriptions through contrastive learning. GLIPv2 (Zhang et al., 2022) model streamlines the process by merging localization pretraining with vision-language pretraining. It employs three tasks: phrase grounding, region-word contrastive learning, and masked language modeling. GRILL (Jin et al., 2023) leverages object-text alignments for learning object grounding and localization, facilitating task transferability, demonstrating adaptability across various tasks such as visual question answering, captioning, and grounding tasks, with zero or few training instances.

Unlike these approaches, our proposed model, KOSMOS-2, aims to unlock the referring and grounding capabilities of multimodal large language models (MLLMs) by training location and language tokens in an auto-regressive paradigm. KOSMOS-2 not only performs well on conventional vision-language tasks such as image captioning, visual question answering, and visual grounding, but also integrates these capabilities into downstream tasks to enable new applications in an open-ended style, thereby extending the capabilities of MLLMs. As Bugliarello et al. emphasize, teaching VLMs object concepts is essential for effectively learning fine-grained skills (Yao et al., 2022; Zeng et al., 2021; Li et al., 2022a). This perspective provides a plausible explanation for our impressive evaluation results on conventional benchmarks and a comprehensive benchmark for MLLMs.

Previous research (Li et al., 2022a; Lee et al., 2021; Bugliarello et al., 2023a) has underscored the significance of data curation in bolstering performance. In this work, we have taken a different approach by creating the GRIT dataset, specifically designed to unlock new capabilities for MLLMs. The methodology employed in the construction of this dataset is generalizable and could offer valuable insights for the larger research community in creating large-scale, task-specific datasets.



Figure 10: Example from GRIT. Caption: “A serving of kale and roasted vegetable salad on an aluminium tray served with a small white bowl filled with creamy light green avocado Caesar dressing”.

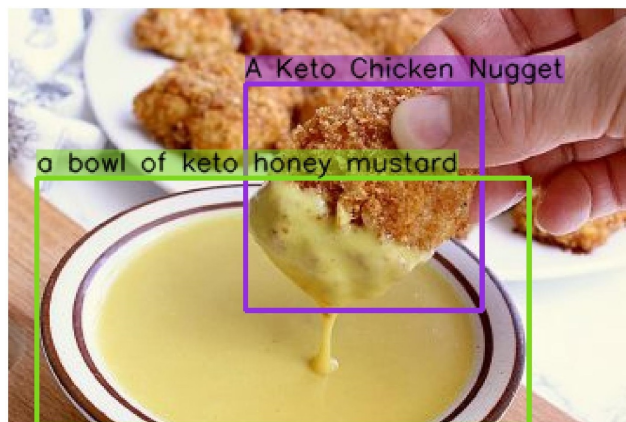


Figure 11: Example from GRIT. Caption: “A Keto Chicken Nugget being dipped into a bowl of keto honey mustard.”.

