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ABSTRACT

011 Generating video from various conditions, such as text, image, and audio, en-
012 ables precise spatial and temporal control, leading to high-quality generation re-
013 sults. Most existing audio-to-visual animation models rely on uniformly sampled
014 frames from video clips. Such a uniform sampling strategy often fails to capture
015 key audio-visual moments in videos with dramatic motions, causing unsmooth
016 motion transitions and audio-visual misalignment. To address these limitations,
017 we introduce **KeyVID**, a keyframe-aware audio-to-visual animation framework
018 that adaptively prioritizes the generation of keyframes in audio signals to improve
019 the generation quality. Guided by the input audio signals, KeyVID first localizes
020 and generates the corresponding visual keyframes that contain highly dynamic
021 motions. The remaining frames are then synthesized using a motion interpolation
022 module, effectively reconstructing the full video sequence. This design enables
023 the generation of high frame-rate videos that faithfully align with audio dynam-
024 ics, while avoiding the cost of directly training with all frames at a high frame
025 rate. Through extensive experiments, we demonstrate that KeyVID significantly
026 improves audio-video synchronization and video quality across multiple datasets,
027 particularly for highly dynamic motions.

1 INTRODUCTION

030 Recent years have witnessed remarkable progress in video generation, driven by advancements in
031 diffusion-based models (Xing et al., 2024; Chen et al., 2023a; 2024; He et al., 2022; Singer et al.,
032 2023; Ho et al., 2022b; Guo et al., 2024; Hong et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2024; Fan et al., 2025;
033 Blattmann et al., 2023a;b). These frameworks typically condition the generation process on *text*
034 prompts and/or *image* inputs, where the text provides semantic guidance (*e.g.*, actions, objects, or
035 stylistic cues), while the image specifies spatial composition (*e.g.*, object layout, scene structure or
036 visual styles). Despite their success, these methods largely focus on aligning visual outputs with
037 static text or images, leaving dynamic, time-sensitive modalities such as *audio* underexplored.

038 Audio-Synchronized Visual Animation (ASVA) (Zhang et al., 2024b) aims to animate a static image
039 into a video with objects' motion dynamics that are semantically aligned and temporally synchro-
040 nized with the input audio. It utilizes audio cues to provide more fine-grained semantic and temporal
041 control for video generation, which requires deep understanding of audio semantics, audio-visual
042 correlations, and object dynamics. To achieve precise audio-visual synchronization in ASVA, it is
043 crucial to align key visual actions accurately with their corresponding audio signals. For example,
044 given an audio clip of hammering sounds, the hammer in the video should strike the nail exactly
045 when the impact sound occurs. However, this synchronization is constrained by the frame rates of
046 the video generation models. For example, AVSyncD (Zhang et al., 2024b) is trained to generate
047 videos at 6 FPS, posing a significant challenge for audio-synchronized video generation. Since au-
048 dio carries fine-grained temporal information, the key moments in the audio can be lost in uniformly
049 sampled low frame rate videos (see Fig. 1(a)), leading to compromised audio-video synchronization.

050 A straightforward solution is to train a video generation model on high frame rate data to match
051 the fine-grained temporal information in audio. However, this brute-force approach treats all time
052 steps equally and introduces redundant frames in low-motion regions. It also fails to leverage the
053 structural information in the input audio to focus the model capacity on salient moments, which is
crucial for audio-visual synchronization. In addition, this approach incurs substantial computational
costs in terms of GPU memory and training time. To alleviate this, a two-stage strategy has been

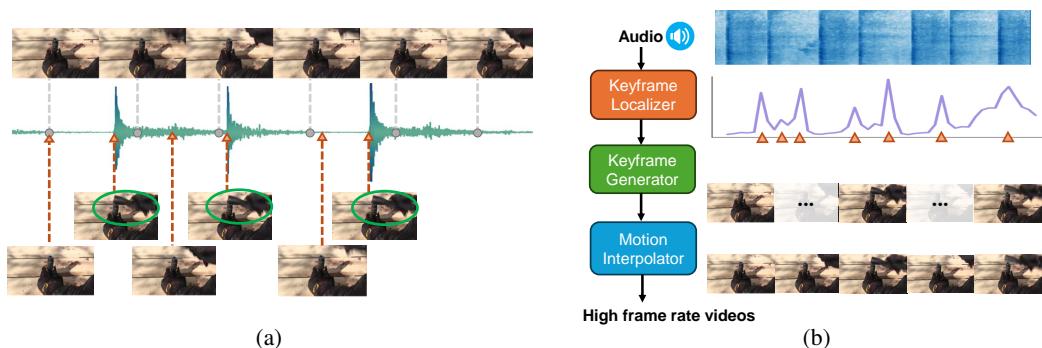


Figure 1: (a) **Uniform frames vs. keyframes.** *Top:* Uniformly sampled sparse frames, which fail to capture the key moments evident in the corresponding audio (*Middle*). *Bottom:* Keyframes precisely aligned with the hammer striking down, matching the critical moments in the audio waveform. (b) **KeyVID video generation pipeline.** KeyVID first detects keyframe time steps from the audio input with the *keyframe localizer* and then utilizes a *keyframe generator* to generate the corresponding visual keyframes. Intermediate frames are generated with the *motion interpolator*.

proposed that first generates low frame rate videos and then applies frame interpolation to obtain high frame rate videos (Blattmann et al., 2023a; Singer et al., 2023; Ho et al., 2022a). And a random frame rate strategy is proposed to use random frame sampling rates while maintaining a small, fixed number of frames during training (Singer et al., 2023; Zhou et al., 2022). However, the two-stage approach struggles in modeling highly dynamic sequences, where critical events may be lost due to the sparsity of the initial uniform frames, and the random frame rate strategy fails to model long-term temporal dependency at high frame rates due to the limited number of total frames.

In this work, instead of sampling uniform frames, we propose **KeyVID**, a **Keyframe-aware V**ideo **D**iffusion framework that adaptively selects and generates sparse yet informative keyframes guided by audio cues to capture critical audio-visual events (Fig. 1(b)). We first develop a keyframe selection strategy that identifies critical moments in the video sequence based on an optical flow-based motion score. We train a *keyframe localizer* that predicts such keyframe positions directly from the input audio cue. Next, instead of applying uniform downsampling to video frames, we select the keyframes to train a *keyframe generator*. The keyframe generator explicitly captures crucial moments of dynamic motion that might otherwise be missed with uniform sampling without requiring an excessively high number of frames. Then, we train a specialized *motion interpolator* to synthesize intermediate frames between the keyframes to generate high frame rate videos. The motion interpolator ensures smooth motion transition and precise audio-visual synchronization throughout the sequence. This approach is similar to how the animation industry creates smooth and dynamic movements, where the *Key Animator* establishes key moments in a scene and the *Inbetweener* fills in the gaps to ensure that the movements appear seamless and fluid. This selective temporal focus enables smoother motion transitions and sharper audio-visual synchronization without the overhead of dense uniform sampling.

We conducted extensive experiments across diverse datasets featuring varying degrees of motion dynamics and audio-visual synchronization. We demonstrate that our keyframe-aware approach outperforms state-of-the-art methods in video generation quality and audio-video synchronization. In particular, on the AVSync15 dataset (Zhang et al., 2024b), we achieve an FVD score (Unterthiner et al., 2018) of 263.3, and a RelSync score (Zhang et al., 2024b) of 49.06, outperforming the state-of-the-art by absolute margins of **85.8**, and **3.54**, respectively. Our user study demonstrates a clear preference towards videos generated by KeyVID over those produced by baseline methods.

The main contributions of our work are as follows:

- We propose a novel keyframe-aware audio-to-visual animation framework that first localizes keyframe positions from the input audio and then generates the corresponding video keyframes using a diffusion model.
- We design a keyframe generator network that selectively produces sparse keyframes from the input image and audio, effectively capturing crucial motion dynamics.
- Comprehensive experiments demonstrate our superior performance in audio-synchronized video generation, particularly in highly dynamic scenes with distinct audio-visual events.

108 **2 RELATED WORK**

109
 110 **Video Diffusion Models.** Diffusion models (Xing et al., 2024; Chen et al., 2023a; 2024; He et al.,
 111 2022; Singer et al., 2023; Ho et al., 2022b; Guo et al., 2024; Hong et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2024;
 112 Fan et al., 2025; Blattmann et al., 2023a;b) emerge as powerful tools to generate high-quality videos.
 113 For the data sample $\mathbf{x}_0 \sim p_{\text{data}}(\mathbf{x})$, Gaussian noise is added over T steps, creating a noisy version
 114 \mathbf{x}_T . A model ϵ_θ is trained to invert this process by predicting and subtracting the noise. For latent
 115 video generation (Xing et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2023; He et al., 2022; Blattmann et al., 2023b),
 116 \mathbf{x} is encoded into a latent vector \mathbf{z} using an encoder $\mathcal{E}(\cdot)$ to reduce computation. The noise-adding
 117 diffusion process and the learned reverse process are conducted on \mathbf{z} instead. Recent advancements
 118 in video diffusion models leverage pre-trained text encoders (Radford et al., 2021; Raffel et al.,
 119 2020) to inject text conditions into the denoising process for text-to-video generations (Blattmann
 120 et al., 2023b; Hong et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2023a; Luo et al., 2023). Moreover, image conditioning
 121 can also be introduced to enhance video generation by providing visual features that control the
 122 visual contents (Wu et al., 2024a; Yang et al., 2023; Li et al., 2023b; Chen et al., 2023b; Wei et al.,
 123 2023) or frame conditions (Xing et al., 2024; Chen et al., 2024; Guo et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2020;
 124 Voleti et al., 2022; Franceschi et al., 2020; Babaeizadeh et al., 2018).

125 **Audio-to-Video Generation.** Compared to text and image, audio provides not only semantic cues
 126 but also fine-grained temporal signals for motion generation. **Prior studies explored domain-specific**
 127 **audio-conditioned motion synthesis in 2D and 3D** (Sun et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2024a; Wu et al.,
 128 2024b; Sung-Bin et al., 2024; Richard et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2024), and more recent works leverage
 129 pretrained audio encoders (Girdhar et al., 2023; Elizalde et al., 2023) for general video generation.
 130 Existing methods either treat audio as a *global feature* for style/semantic control (Hertz et al., 2023;
 131 Kim et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2023) or enforce *uniform temporal alignment* with audio clips (Lee et al.,
 132 2022; Ruan et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2024b). However, their motion quality is often limited by low
 133 frame rates or costly uniform sampling strategies, especially in highly dynamic scenes. In contrast,
 134 we introduce a *keyframe-aware framework* that localizes audio-critical moments, generates visual
 135 keyframes accordingly, and interpolates intermediate frames. This selective temporal focus enables
 136 smoother motion transitions and sharper audio-visual synchronization without the overhead of dense
 137 uniform sampling.

138 **Keyframe-based Video Processing.** In video processing, keyframes are pivotal in compressing
 139 video clips by retaining essential features, thereby facilitating efficient analysis of lengthy videos
 140 or high-dynamic motions (Kulhare et al., 2016; Shen et al., 2024; Lee et al., 2024; Xu et al.,
 141 2024; Ataallah et al., 2024). In the realm of video generation, keyframes serve as foundational
 142 references, enabling the synthesis of intermediate frames that ensure temporal coherence and visual
 143 consistency. For long video generation, current approaches employ keyframe-based generation
 144 pipelines to enhance long-term coherence in video synthesis (Zheng et al., 2024; Yin et al., 2023).
 145 Others focus on interpolation techniques from keyframes, which predict missing frames between
 146 keyframes input, ensuring motion realism and visual consistency in dynamical motions (Geng et al.,
 147 2024; Jain et al., 2024).

148 **3 METHODS**

149 In this section, we present our keyframe-aware audio-conditioned video generation framework
 150 **KeyVID**. Given an input audio and the first frame of a video, we follow a three-stage generation
 151 process (Fig. 1(b)) and train three separate models: (1) **Keyframe Localizer** predicts a motion score
 152 curve from the input audio and detects the keyframe positions (Sec. 3.1); (2) **Keyframe Generator**
 153 generates keyframe images at detected keyframe positions conditioned on the input image and audio
 154 (Sec. 3.2); (3) **Motion Interpolator** synthesizes intermediate frames to reconstruct a smooth video
 155 with dense frames conditioned on the generated keyframe images and input audio (Sec. 3.3).

156 **3.1 KEYFRAME LOCALIZATION FROM AUDIO**

157 We train a keyframe localizer to infer keyframe locations from input by exploiting the correlation
 158 between acoustic events and motion changes. For instance, a hammer striking a table generates a
 159 sharp sound that often aligns with a sudden visual transition. The network learns to predict motion
 160 scores from the input audio and then localizes keyframes from the motion score sequence.

161 **Optical Flow based Motion Score.** To train the keyframe localizer, we first generate keyframe
 162 labels by analyzing optical flow from training video sequences, as shown in Fig. 2(a). We first
 163 obtain a *motion score* for each frame by calculating the optical flow and averaging it across

162 all pixels to represent the motion intensity of
 163 the frame. These scores collectively form a
 164 temporal motion curve across the frames.
 165

166 Specifically, we employ a pre-trained RAFT
 167 model (Teed & Deng, 2020) as the optical flow
 168 estimator. Given a video clip consisting of
 169 frames $\{I_j\}_{j=1}^T$, RAFT computes the optical
 170 flow field \mathbf{OF}_t between two frames I_j and
 171 I_{j+1} . The optical field consists of horizontal
 172 (u_t) and vertical (v_t) components at each
 173 pixel, and the motion score $M(t)$ of frame t is
 174 calculated as:

$$M(t) = \sum_{i,j} (|u_t(h, w)| + |v_t(h, w)|), \quad (1)$$

175 where $t = 1, \dots, T - 1$ denotes the time step
 176 of the video with T frames. (h, w) represents
 177 the pixel location.

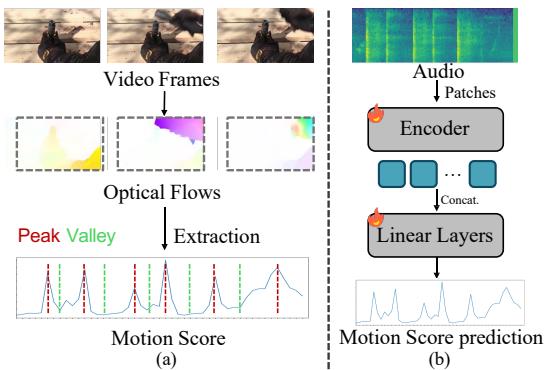
178 **Motion Score Prediction.** We train the
 179 keyframe localizer to predict motion scores
 180 from input audio, enabling it to learn the underlying relationship between motion dynamics and
 181 acoustic cues. As shown in Fig. 2(b), the keyframe localizer first converts the raw audio into a spec-
 182 trogram and extract audio features using a pretrained Transformer-based encoder (Girdhar et al.,
 183 2023). To better align the audio features with the temporal resolution of motion cues, we modify
 184 the patchify stride to increase the number of patches and interpolate the positional embeddings of
 185 the encoder (see Appendix A). The audio features are then passed through fully connected layers to
 186 predict motion scores. We train the model with \mathcal{L}_1 loss between the prediction and the ground-truth
 187 motion score calculated by Eq. (1).

188 **Keyframe Selection.** Given motion scores $\{M(t)\}_{t=1}^T$ of the video frames, we select $T_K \ll T$
 189 keyframes that capture salient motion dynamics with minimal redundancy. Keyframes are iden-
 190 tified from local maxima (“peaks”) and minima (“valleys”), which indicate dramatic motion
 191 changes (Wolf, 1996; Kulhare et al., 2016). **We first include the initial frame and sample up to**
 192 **$\frac{T_K}{2} - 1$ peaks; if fewer peaks exist, all are used. For each pair of peaks, we select one valley to**
 193 **preserve motion completeness. The remaining keyframes are obtained by evenly sampling across frame**
 194 **bins. This design ensures robustness to sequences with smooth motion or weak audio cues.** Further
 195 details and examples are provided in Appendix A and D. We use the selected T_K keyframes to train
 196 the keyframe generator and the keyframe indices $\{t_i\}_{i=1}^{T_K}$ serve as additional input conditions.

200 3.2 AUDIO-CONDITIONED KEYFRAME GENERATION

201 We propose a novel keyframe generator network to generate T_K keyframes for a video sequence of
 202 length T from the input audio and first frame image. Unlike previous video generation models (Xing
 203 et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024b) that are trained on uniformly downsampled frames, the keyframe
 204 generator aims to generate sparse keyframes that captures crucial motions. To enable this, we pro-
 205 pose two key designs: (1) *Frame Index Conditioning* - we introduce keyframe index embedding
 206 that encodes each frame’s absolute position, which provides explicit temporal anchors and ensures
 207 coherence when generating non-uniformly distributed frames; (2) *Keyframe-aligned Feature Extrac-
 208 tion* - we extract image and audio features that are aligned with the corresponding keyframe time
 209 steps to serve as accurate conditions for keyframe generation. In the following, we first provide an
 210 overview of the keyframe generator and explain the input conditioning in details.

211 **Overview.** We leverage the image dynamic prior of pretrained text-to-video latent diffusion models,
 212 and inject the input audio, first frame, and keyframe indices as additional input conditions. The
 213 model architecture is shown in Fig. 3(b). We encode the selected keyframes into a latent code
 214 $\mathbf{z}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{T_k \times C \times H \times W}$ with a pretrained encoder \mathcal{E} , where H and W denotes the spatial dimensions,
 215 and C denotes the feature channels. The denoising U-Net learns to iteratively denoise the noisy
 216 latent code \mathbf{z}_t , and the input conditions are encoded and injected into each denoising U-Net block.
 217 The final keyframes are generated from the denoised latent code using the pretrained decoder \mathcal{D} .



218 **Figure 2: Motion score computation and prediction.** (a) We compute motion scores as the average
 219 of the optical flow of each frame and localize
 220 keyframe from the peaks and valleys. (b) Keyframe
 221 localizer is trained to predict motion scores from
 222 audio to identify keyframe locations.

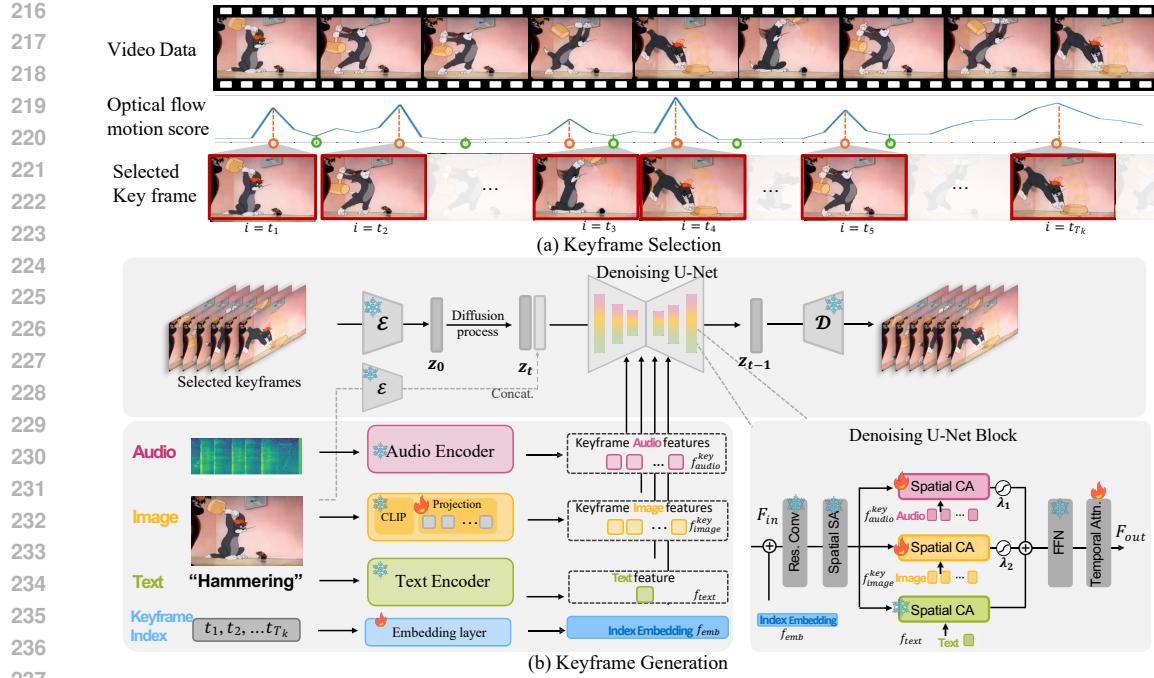


Figure 3: **Keyframe data selection and keyframe generator.** (a) We select keyframes based on the local maxima and minima of the motion score. (b) The keyframe generator is trained to generate these sparse keyframes conditioned on the audios, first frame image, text, and keyframe indices. These conditions are encoded and passed into the denoising U-Net. In each denoising U-Net block, the index embeddings are added with video features and passed into Residual convolutional block (**Res. Conv.**). The following layers contain a spatial self-attention (**SA**) and spatial cross attention (**CA**) on each three conditional features. The output of each CA is followed by a gating with learnable weights λ_1 and λ_2 . Please see details in Sec. 3.2.

Frame Index Embedding. Off-the-shelf video diffusion models assume uniformly sampled frames and cannot directly handle sparsely distributed keyframes. To address this, we introduce a frame index embedding layer that encodes the absolute index of each keyframe $\{t_i\}_{i=1}^{T_K}$ within the original video sequence into frame index embedding $f_{emb} \in \mathbb{R}^{T_K \times C}$. f_{emb} is added with the latent video features \mathbf{z} before passing into the denoising U-Net blocks, ensuring explicit positional information is provided to the network for global temporal consistency and accurate cross-modal alignment.

Audio Feature Condition. We use a pretrained ImageBind audio encoder (Girdhar et al., 2023) to extract audio features for video synthesis. Given an input spectrogram $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{C_A \times T_A}$, the encoder splits it into overlapping patches of size (c_a, t_a) with a stride $\Delta t < t_a$ and encodes it into a sequence of feature embeddings $\{\mathbf{h}_i\}_{i=1}^N$ using Transformer layers. We decrease the patchify stride Δt of the pretrained encoder to obtain finer-grained temporal embeddings. We segment the extracted audio features into T time steps to match the full video length, resulting in $\mathbf{f}_{audio} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times C \times M}$, where M is the number of audio features in each time step. Using the keyframe indices $\{i_t\}_{t=1}^{T_K}$, we extract the corresponding T_K audio features from the full T -length sequence and obtain the keyframe-aligned audio features $\mathbf{f}_{audio}^{key} = \{\mathbf{f}_{audio}^{(i_t)}\}_{t=1}^{T_K}$. These keyframe-aligned audio features are fused with text and image conditions via cross-attention layers in the U-Net, ensuring accurate synchronization between generated keyframes and their associated audio cues.

Image Feature Condition. The first frame image \mathbf{I} is injected into the keyframe generation process via two pathways. First, we extract the image feature using a frozen CLIP image encoder (Radford et al., 2021). We project the image features into T frame-specific image conditions using a Q-Former Li et al. (2023a) projection layer, yielding $\mathbf{f}_{img} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times C \times H \times W}$. We then select the corresponding T_K features using keyframe indices $\{i_t\}_{t=1}^{T_K}$ to obtain keyframe-aligned image feature $\mathbf{f}_{img}^{key} \in \mathbb{R}^{T_K \times C \times H \times W}$. Second, we encode the image with the encoder \mathcal{E} , concatenate it with noisy

latent code z_t , and feed them to the denoising U-Net. This provides additional visual details from \mathbf{I} to guide the keyframe generation (Xing et al., 2024).

Text Feature Condition. Following prior work, we encode the text prompt of the video using a frozen CLIP text encoder ((Radford et al., 2021). The extracted text embedding \mathbf{f}_{text} is repeated for all T_K keyframe to provide consistent semantic guidance during the denoising process.

Feature Fusion. Each conditioning feature ($\mathbf{f}_{\text{audio}}^{\text{key}}$, $\mathbf{f}_{\text{img}}^{\text{key}}$, and \mathbf{f}_{text}) is processed separately through spatial cross-attention layers in the U-Net blocks. Given input latent features \mathbf{F}_{in} , we compute query projections $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{F}_{\text{in}} \mathbf{W}_Q$ and apply spatial attention to text, image, and audio features:

$$\mathbf{F}_{\text{out}} = \text{SA}(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{K}_{\text{text}}, \mathbf{V}_{\text{text}}) + \lambda_1 \cdot \text{SA}(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{K}_{\text{audio}}, \mathbf{V}_{\text{audio}}) + \lambda_2 \cdot \text{SA}(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{K}_{\text{img}}, \mathbf{V}_{\text{img}}). \quad (2)$$

where SA stands for spatial attention, \mathbf{K} and \mathbf{V} are the key and value projections for each modality, and λ_1 , λ_2 are learnable fusion weights. The fused features are then processed through a feedforward network (FFN) and temporal self-attention to ensure spatial and temporal consistency.

3.3 MOTION INTERPOLATION

After generating T_K keyframes, we use a *motion interpolator* to generate the missing frames to obtain the a full video sequence of length T . Interpolation has been widely used in uniform frame generation (Blattmann et al., 2023a; Xing et al., 2024), where a model predicts a fixed number of intermediate frames given the first and last frame. However, for keyframe-based generation, the positions of missing and available frames vary, introducing additional challenges. To address this, we adapt our *keyframe generator* diffusion model into a *motion interpolator* model that generates T_K frames at once using masked frame conditioning. The overall architecture remains mostly the same, with the primary difference in how image conditions are incorporated. Rather than conditioning solely on the first frame, the model utilizes the features of generated keyframes as conditions, thereby learning to synthesize the missing frames in between. This approach facilitates interpolation between non-uniformly distributed keyframes while maintaining temporal consistency. Details can be found in Appendix C. To generate a full video with T frames in a single pass, we incorporate FreeNoise (Qiu et al., 2023) to increase the number of output frames during inference. This allows the interpolation model to take all generated keyframes as conditioning inputs and predict all missing frames in one single step. Further details on the training and inference time of this model are provided in the Appendix G.

4 EXPERIMENTS

4.1 IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

Datasets. We train and evaluate our method on three datasets: *AVSync15* (Zhang et al., 2024b), *Greatest Hits* (Owens et al., 2016), and *Landscapes* (Lee et al., 2022). *AVSync15* is a subset of the VGG-Sound (Chen et al., 2020) dataset, consisting of fifteen classes of activities with highly synchronized audio and video captured in the wild. Some activities have more intense motions, such as hammer hitting and capgun shooting. *Greatest Hits* contains videos of humans hitting various objects with a drumstick, producing hitting sounds that are temporally aligned with the motions. *Landscapes* is a collection of natural environment videos with corresponding ambient sounds without synchronized video motion. We sample two-second audio-video pairs from these datasets for experiments. Videos were sampled at 24 fps with 48 frames, and resized to 320×512 . Audios were sampled at 16kHz and converted into 128-d spectrograms. We set $T_K = 12$ as the temporal length of keyframe generation and interpolations.

Training. We adopted the pre-trained DynamiCrafter (Xing et al., 2024) as the backbone video diffusion model and pre-trained ImageBind (Girdhar et al., 2023) as the audio encoder. All models were trained using Adam optimizer with a batch size of 64 and a learning rate of 1×10^{-5} .

Baselines. We follow (Zhang et al., 2024b) to compare our method with the simple *static* baseline where the input frame is repeated to form a video, as well as state-of-the-art video generation models with different input modalities: **(1) T+A** is the video generation model conditioned only on text and audio, such as TPoS (Jeong et al., 2023) and TempoToken (Yariv et al., 2024). **(2) I+T** includes many state-of-the-art video generation models, which are conditioned on images and text prompts. We compare with I2VD (Zhang et al., 2024b), VideoCrafter (Chen et al., 2023a) and DynamiCrafter (Xing et al., 2024). **(3) I+T+A** takes image, text and audio inputs for video generation, which includes CoDi (Tang et al., 2023), TPoS (Jeong et al., 2023), AADiff (Lee et al., 2023) and AVSyncD (Zhang et al., 2024b).

Table 1: Performance on the *AVSync15* and the *Greatest Hits* datasets. Best is marked in **bold**.

Input	Model	AVSync15						Greatest Hits					
		FID \downarrow	IA \uparrow	IT \uparrow	FVD \downarrow	AlignSync \uparrow	RelSync \uparrow	FID \downarrow	IA \uparrow	IT \uparrow	FVD \downarrow	AlignSync \uparrow	RelSync \uparrow
T+A	TPoS	13.5	23.38	24.83	2671.0	19.52	42.50	33.85	11.50	17.90	3327.90	21.48	44.90
	TempoToken	12.2	18.84	17.45	4466.4	19.74	44.05	25.90	4.88	9.28	3300.53	21.56	45.38
I+T	I2VD	12.1	-	30.35	398.2	21.80	43.92	9.10	-	13.42	425.0	22.05	44.58
	DynamiCrafter	11.7	-	30.02	400.7	21.76	43.68	12.40	-	13.73	337.71	22.82	45.85
I+T+A	CoDi	14.5	28.15	23.42	1522.6	19.54	41.51	21.78	12.01	14.11	1336.00	22.30	45.35
	TPoS	11.9	38.36	30.73	1227.8	19.67	39.62	28.43	9.36	13.19	1370.57	22.04	45.55
	AADiff	18.8	34.23	28.97	978.0	22.11	45.48	-	-	-	-	-	-
	AVSyncD	11.7	38.53	30.45	349.1	22.62	45.52	8.70	12.07	13.31	249.30	22.83	45.95
	KeyVID (Ours)	11.1	39.21	30.12	263.3	24.44	49.06	12.10	12.40	15.66	202.10	22.91	46.03
Static Groundtruth	-	39.76	30.39	1220.4	21.83	43.66	-	13.33	16.56	348.9	24.36	48.73	
	-	40.06	30.31	-	25.04	50.00	-	13.52	16.49	-	25.02	50.00	

Metrics. We use the Frechet Image Distance (**FID**) (Heusel et al., 2017) and Frechet Video Distance (**FVD**) (Unterthiner et al., 2018) to evaluate the visual quality of the individual frames and videos. We also compare the average image-text (**IT**) and image-audio (**IA**) semantic alignment scores of video frames using CLIP (Radford et al., 2021) and ImageBind (Girdhar et al., 2023). To measure audio-video synchronization, we evaluate the generated videos with **RelSync** and **AlignSync** proposed by Zhang et al. (2024b).

4.2 QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

Table 1 presents the quantitative evaluation results on the *AVSync15* and *Greatest Hits* datasets. Results on the *Landscape* dataset can be found in the Appendix ???. On the *AVSync15* dataset, KeyVID demonstrates superior performance across both audio-visual synchronization and visual quality metrics. It achieves the highest synchronization scores with AlignSync of 24.44 and RelSync of 49.06, substantially outperforming the previous state-of-the-art *AVSyncD* (22.62 and 45.52, respectively). These improvements highlight the effectiveness of our keyframe-aware strategy in capturing critical dynamic moments that align with audio events. In terms of visual quality, KeyVID also excels with an FID score of 11.00 and FVD score of 263.3, representing the best performance among all compared methods. Additionally, our approach achieves the highest image-audio semantic alignment score (IA: 39.21), demonstrating strong correspondence between generated visual content and audio input. The *Greatest Hits* dataset presents a particularly challenging scenario with distinct percussive audio events that require precise temporal alignment with visual motions. KeyVID achieves competitive performance across all evaluation metrics. Notably, KeyVID attains the best FVD score of 202.10, indicating superior visual quality in the generated videos. For audio-visual synchronization, KeyVID achieves AlignSync and RelSync scores of 22.91 and 46.03, respectively, outperforming most baseline methods while maintaining strong visual quality with competitive FID performance.

4.3 ABLATION STUDY

Keyframe vs. Uniform Sampling. To validate the effectiveness of keyframe-aware generation, we compare KeyVID with a uniform sampling baseline, **KeyVID-Uniform**, where KeyVID-Uniform generates 12 uniform frames instead of keyframes before motion interpolation. As shown in Table 2, KeyVID consistently outperforms KeyVID-Uniform across all metrics, with larger improvements in audio-visual synchronization scores AlignSync and RelSync, while maintaining competitive visual quality metrics. In addition, KeyVID achieves greater improvement in high-intensity motion scenarios as shown in Fig. 5. These results confirm our hypothesis that strategically selecting keyframes based on audio and motion cues leads to superior audio-visual synchronization.

Frame Conditioning. We further analyze the contribution of two components in our frame conditioning mechanism in Table 2. Removing the frame index embedding leads to degraded audio-visual synchronization, with AlignSync and RelSync scores decreasing by 2.1% and 2.4%, respectively. This demonstrates that frame index embedding provides crucial temporal information that helps the model understand the sequential ordering of keyframes during generation.

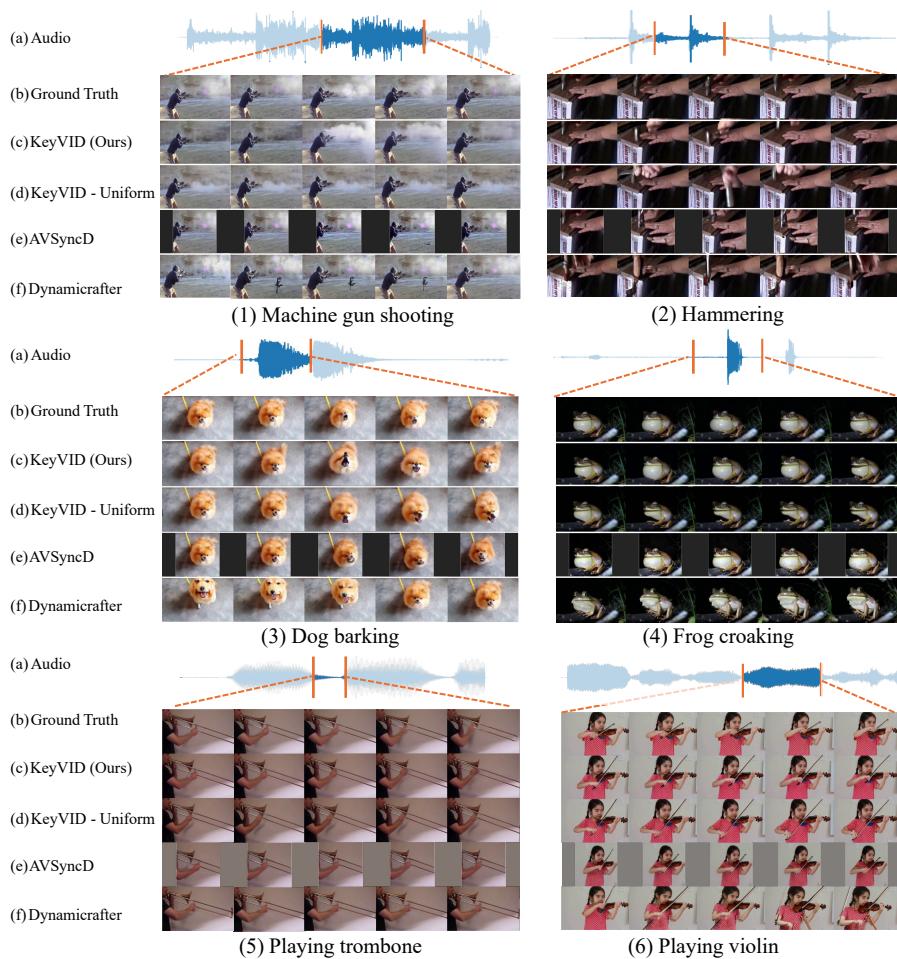
Table 2: Ablation study results on AVSync15.

Setting	FID \downarrow	FVD \downarrow	AlignSync \uparrow	RelSync \uparrow
KeyVID	11.1	263.3	24.44	49.06
KeyVID-Uniform	11.0	273.4	23.53	47.23
	(-0.9%)	(+3.8%)	(-3.7%)	(-3.7%)
w/o <i>Frame Index</i>	11.0	258.9	23.93	47.90
	(-0.9%)	(-1.7%)	(-2.1%)	(-2.4%)
w/o <i>First Frame</i>	11.7	265.5	24.02	48.49
	(+5.4%)	(+0.8%)	(-1.7%)	(-1.2%)

378
 379
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 381
 382
 Removing the first-frame condition from the motion interpolator results in significant performance
 degradation, particularly in visual quality metrics. The FID increases by 5.4% and FVD increases
 by 0.80%, indicating that the first frame serves as an essential reference for maintaining visual con-
 sistency during interpolation. The combination of both components achieves optimal performance,
 confirming the importance of our complete frame conditioning design.

383 4.4 VISUALIZATION

384 Fig. 4 presents qualitative comparisons between KeyVID and baseline approaches on different type
 385 of motions. Our keyframe-aware approach more accurately captures motion peaks that align with
 386 audio events, such as the exact moment of impact in hammering or the smoke in gun shooting. Com-
 387 pared to the uniform frame sampling variant KeyVID-Uniform, KeyVID better preserves temporal
 388 coherence by focusing on key moments of motion. In sequences like dog barking and frog croak-
 389 ing, KeyVID ensures that mouth movements align precisely with sound peaks, whereas KeyVID-
 390 Uniform and AVSyncD introduce temporal misalignment or missing frames. **For subtle motions,**
 391 **such as playing the trombone or violin, our model still produces smooth and stable movements,**
 392 **even during sustained notes or brief pauses in the audio, where motion cues are weak and baselines**
 393 **tend to jitter or freeze.** Additional video visualizations for intensive, moderate, and subtle motions
 394 are provided in the supplementary material.

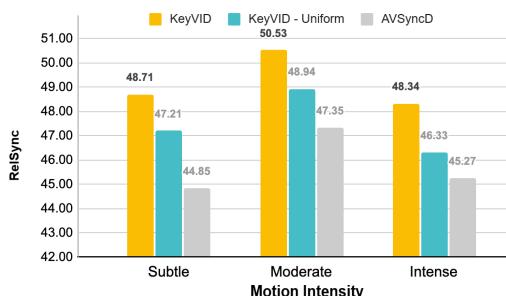


426
 427 **Figure 4: Qualitative comparison of KeyVID and baseline methods.** We crop key motions on the
 428 audio waveform in (a) and the corresponding ground truth video in (b) as references and compare the
 429 generated video clips between models from (c) to (f). KeyVID with keyframe awareness (c) shows
 430 better alignment with motion peaks in audio signals—for example, the hammer striking, gunshots
 431 producing smoke, or facial movements when dogs bark or frogs croak. **For subtle motion scenarios**
such as playing the trombone or violin, our model is also able to produce smooth, stable motion
during the brief pauses or sustained notes.

432

4.5 EFFECTS OF MOTION INTENSITY

434 To analyze how KeyVID performs across different motion types, we categorize the 15 classes in the
 435 AVSync15 dataset into three intensity levels based on their average motion scores: *Subtle*, *Moderate*,
 436 and *Intense*, with five classes each. The *Intense* level includes highly dynamic motions such
 437 as hammering and dog barking, while the *Subtle* level consists of activities with slow movement,
 438 such as playing the violin or trumpet. Fig. 5 compares RelSync scores across these motion intensi-
 439 ties for KeyVID, KeyVID-Uniform, and AVSyncD. KeyVID shows increasing improvements over
 440 KeyVID-Uniform as motion intensity rises, with RelSync gains of 1.50, 1.59, and 2.01 for *Sub-*
 441 *tle*, *Moderate*, and *Intense* motions, respectively. This demonstrates the effectiveness of keyframes
 442 in capturing audio rapid motion transitions Compared to AVSyncD, KeyVID consistently achieves
 443 superior synchronization with RelSync gains of 3.86, 3.18, and 3.07 across all intensity levels.
 444



444 **Figure 5: RelSync scores across motion intensity levels.** KeyVID improves audio synchronization
 445 score on all motion intensity.
 446

447

4.6 USER STUDY

448 We conducted a user study with twelve participants to assess the quality of generated videos. Each
 449 participant was shown twenty randomly selected video samples, where each sample contained re-
 450 sults from four models presented in a random order with the same inputs. They were asked to choose
 451 which video exhibited better audio-visual synchronization, visual quality, and temporal consistency.
 452 We aggregated all $12 \times 20 = 240$ votes for each metric and computed the percentage of votes each
 453 model received, as shown in Tab. 3. Further details on the user study can be found in Appendix F.
 454

455

4.7 OPEN-DOMAIN AUDIO-SYNCHRONIZED VISUAL ANIMATION

456 We show KeyVID’s ability to animate open-domain
 457 inputs beyond its training distribution. As illus-
 458 trated in Fig. 6, we use the first frame from a Sora-
 459 generated video clip, where a hammer is held in the
 460 air before striking down. We control the visual ani-
 461 mation through two distinct hammering audio clips:
 462 the first contains metallic strike sounds, while the
 463 second captures impacts on a wooden surface. Our
 464 model not only successfully generates videos that
 465 match the temporal pattern of strikes, but also adapts
 466 the motion based on the material properties inferred
 467 from the audio: the first video shows hammering on
 468 metal nails, while the second shows hammering on
 469 a wooden table. These results demonstrate the gen-
 470 eralization capability of KeyVID to open-domain in-
 471 puts and its ability to accurately follow the audio se-
 472 mantics for visual animation.
 473

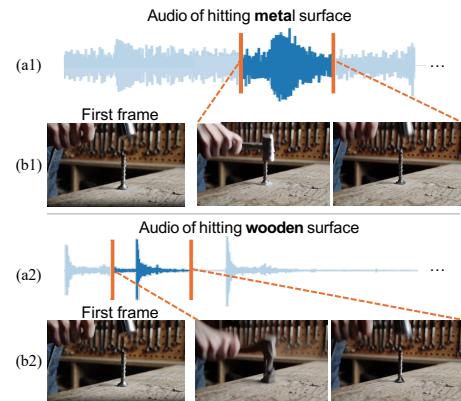
474

5 CONCLUSION

475 In this paper, we introduced a keyframe-aware audio-synchronized visual animation model which
 476 enhances video generation quality and audio alignment, particularly for highly dynamic motions.
 477

478 **Table 3: User study results.** Participants voted
 479 for the best method based on audio synchroniza-
 480 tion (AS), visual quality (VQ), and tem-
 481 poral consistency (TC). The numbers represent
 482 the percentage of votes each model received for
 483 each metric.
 484

Models	AS	VQ	TC
KeyVID	66.25%	65.00%	65.00%
KeyVID-Uniform	17.92%	22.08%	21.67%
AVSyncD	11.67%	7.08%	7.92%
DynamicalCrafter	4.17%	5.83%	5.42%



485 **Figure 6: Open-domain video generation.** Given the same first frame and different au-
 486 dio inputs (a1) and (a2), KeyVID synthesizes
 487 videos that align with the audio’s semantic
 488 meaning and motion pattern in (b1) and (b2).
 489

486 Our approach first localizes keyframes from audio and generates corresponding frames using a diffu-
 487 sion model. Then we synthesize intermediate frames to obtain smooth high-frame-rate videos while
 488 maintaining memory efficiency. Experimental results demonstrate superior performance across mul-
 489 tiple datasets, especially in scenarios with intensive motion. Compared to previous methods, our
 490 model significantly improves audio-visual synchronization and visual quality.

491 **Acknowledgement.** Although our method does not rely on simple amplitude-based cues, the
 492 keyframe localizer inevitably learns data-driven statistical correspondences between audio signals
 493 and motion change patterns, since it is supervised using optical flow derived motion scores.

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APPENDIX

704
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756 A DETAILS OF KEYFRAME LOCALIZER
757

758 In the Sec. 3.1 of the main paper, we introduce that we need to know the position of the key frame at
759 the beginning of inference by predicting optical motion scores. Here is the detailed structure of this
760 network. The network processes raw audio by converting it into a spectrogram $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{C_A \times T_A}$, where
761 C_A denotes the number of frequency channels and T_A represents the temporal length. The original
762 ImageBind preprocessing pipeline applies a CNN with a kernel stride of (10, 10) to patchify the
763 input spectrogram, producing feature embeddings that are then processed by a transformer-based
764 encoder $f_{\text{audio}} \in \mathbb{R}^{B \times T \times C}$. However, this results in T (e.g., T=19) being misaligned with the
765 temporal resolution of the dense motion curve sequence (e.g., 48).

766 To address this, we modify the CNN stride to (10, 4), increasing the temporal resolution of extracted
767 features (e.g., increase to 46). The transformer encoder then processes the updated feature sequence:
768

$$769 \quad \mathbf{F}_{\text{audio}} = f_{\text{audio}}(\mathbf{A}), \quad \mathbf{F}_{\text{audio}} \in \mathbb{R}^{B \times T' \times C}, \quad (3)$$

770 where $T' > T$ reflects the increased temporal resolution. Since the transformer relies on positional
771 embeddings, we interpolate the pretrained positional embeddings to match the new sequence length
772 T'_A and keep them frozen during training.
773

774 The extracted features are passed through fully connected layers to predict a sequence of confidence
775 scores $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{R}^{B \times T'}$, where each s_t represents the likelihood of a keyframe occurring at time step t :
776

$$777 \quad \mathbf{s} = \sigma(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{F}_{\text{audio}} + \mathbf{b}), \quad (4)$$

778 where $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times 1}$ and $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{T'_A}$ are learnable parameters, and $\sigma(\cdot)$ is the sigmoid activation
779 function. The model is trained using an L1 loss:
780

$$782 \quad \mathcal{L} = \|\mathbf{s} - \hat{\mathbf{s}}\|_1, \quad (5)$$

784 where $\hat{\mathbf{s}}$ represents the ground-truth keyframe labels derived from optical flow analysis.
785

786 B DETAILS OF KEYFRAME SELECTION
787788 B.1 DETECT PEAK AND VALLEY
789

790 To identify the local maxima (*peaks*) and minima (*valleys*) from a one-dimensional motion score
791 $\{M(t)\}_{t=1}^T$, we perform the following steps:
792

1. **Smoothing:** Convolve the raw score $M(t)$ with a short averaging filter with a window size 5, producing a smoothed label $\tilde{M}(t)$. This helps reduce noise and minor fluctuations.
2. **Peak Detection:** Finds all local maxima by simple comparison of neighboring values for $\tilde{M}(t)$. We force a minimum distance of 5 frames between any two detected peaks and require a prominence (height relative to its surroundings) of at least 0.1. This returns the indices of the local maxima.
3. **Valley Detection:** Repeat the same peak-finding procedure on the negative of the smoothed signal.

802 B.2 SAMPLE KEYFRAMES
803

804 In the main text, we discuss the process of selecting $T_K \ll T$ keyframes based on the motion
805 score $M(t)$ for each frame. Specifically, we first pick the initial frame, then select up to $\frac{T_K}{2} - 1$
806 peaks among all detected ones (or all peaks if fewer are found). Next, we include a valley between
807 each consecutive pair of selected peaks. Finally, we sample any remaining frames by an evenly
808 distributed (proportional) strategy, which approximates uniform downsampling if few peaks and
809 valleys are present. This approach ensures that smooth motion or weak audio signals, producing
limited peaks and valleys, do not degrade the consistency of training for video diffusion models.

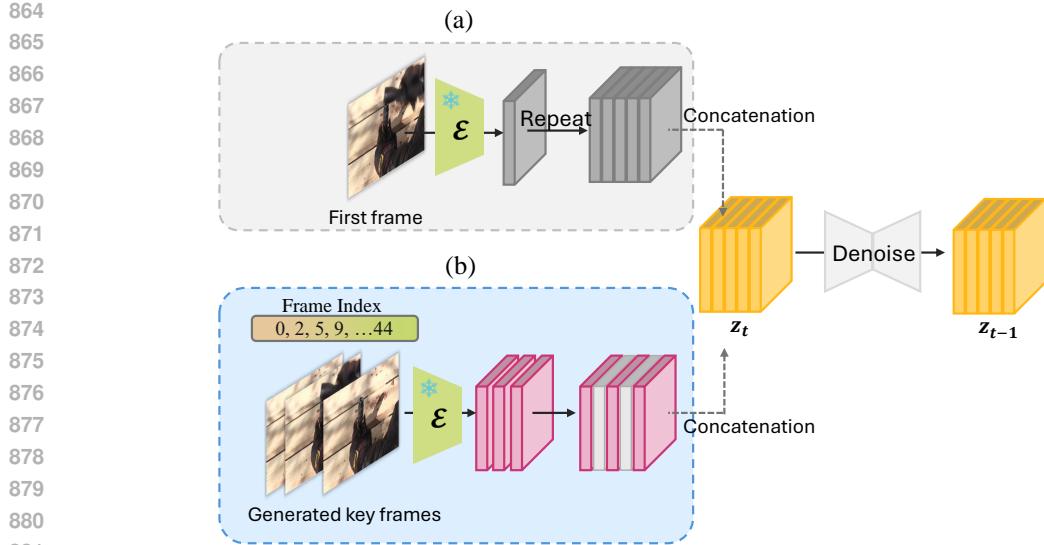


Figure 7: The frame interpolation model shares the same structure as the original keyframe generation model but uses different image features for concatenation. (a) For keyframe generation (Sec. 3.2), the first-frame features are repeated to match the length of the latent vector; (b) For frame interpolation, the condition features from keyframes are padded with zero tensors between keyframe locations to align with the frame length.

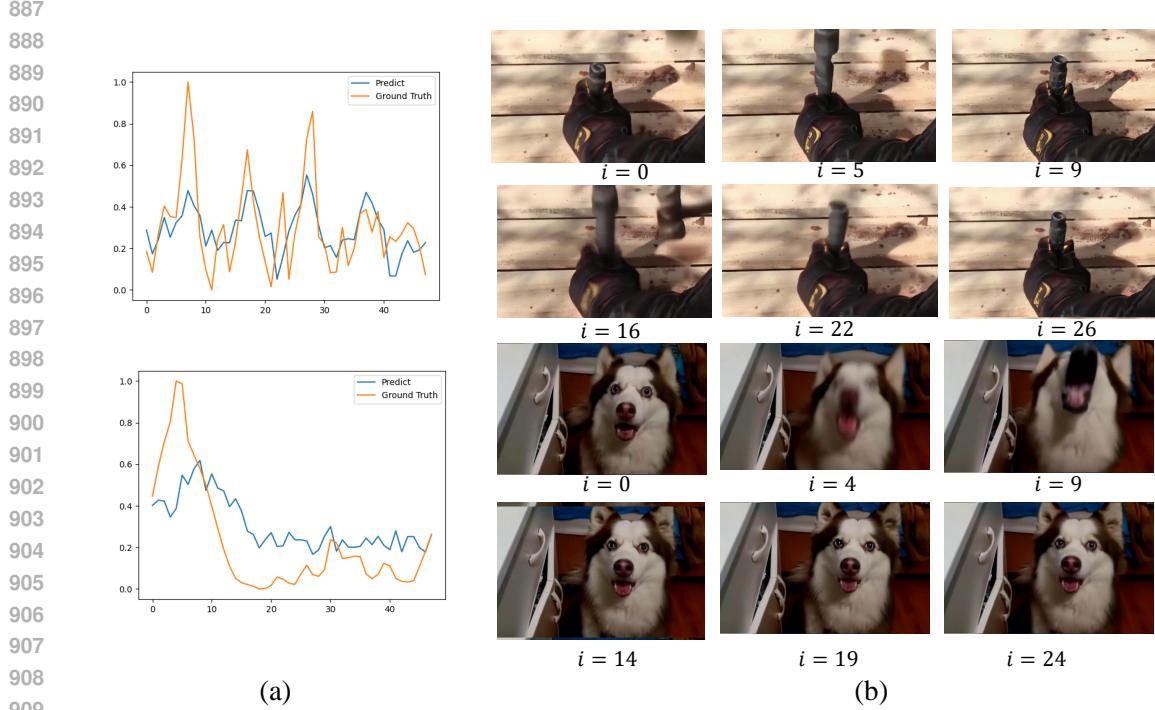


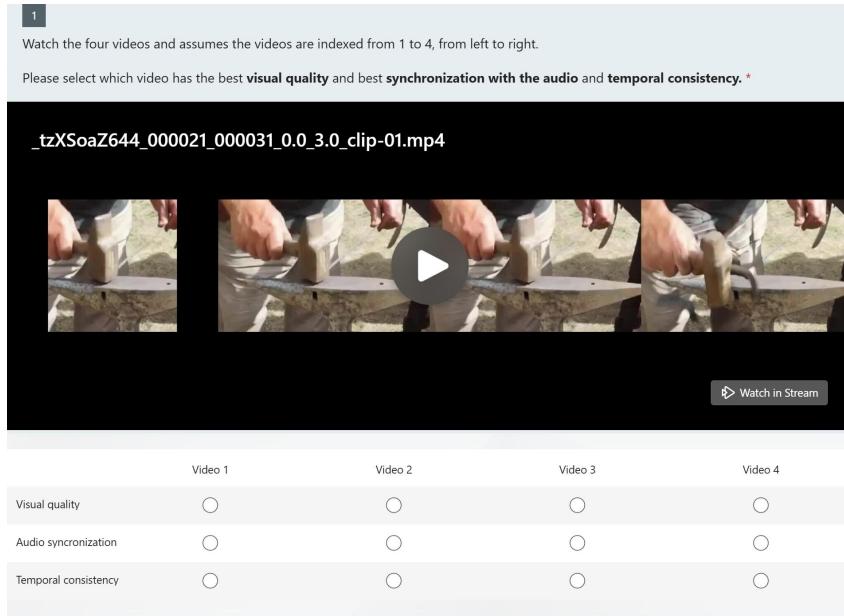
Figure 8: Visualization of (a) Predicted motion score from audio with the ground truth calculate from video data; and (b) the generated video keyframe by diffusion network described in Sec. 3.2 before interpolations.

E MORE QUALITATIVE RESULTS OF VIDEO GENERATION

As the generation result need to be watch with audio for the best experience, we have put more visualization result into the supplementary as mp4 files.

918 F DETAILS OF USER STUDY
919

920 As described in the main paper (Sec. 4.6), we conduct a user study to evaluate the performance
921 of four video generation models in terms of audio synchronization, visual quality, and temporal
922 frame consistency. We invite 12 participants and design an online survey to collect responses. In
923 the survey, we randomly select 20 video instances and present the generation results from four mod-
924 els—KeyVID, KeyVID-Uniform, AVSyncD, and Dynamicrafter—in a row for comparison, with the
925 order randomly shuffled. The videos generated by KeyVID, KeyVID-Uniform, and AVSyncD use
926 the same audio, image, and text conditions, whereas Dynamicrafter generates videos using only text
927 and image conditions. For each instance, participants are asked to select the best video based on
928 three evaluation metrics. This results in a total of $20 \times 12 = 240$ votes for each metric across all
929 models. Sample survey questions are illustrated in Fig. 9.

950 Figure 9: Sample survey question used in the user study.
951952 G EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS
953

954 For the experiments of KeyVID on the three datasets *AVSyncD*, *Landscape*, and *TheGreatestHit*,
955 we train at a resolution of 320×512 , following Dynamicrafter Xing et al. (2024). During inference,
956 we use DDIM sampling with 90 steps. The temporal length of both the keyframe generation and
957 interpolation models is 12. Since our interpolation module adopts the FreeNoise Qiu et al. (2023)
958 technique, we are able to generate the final 48 frames in a single run. To accommodate this temporal
959 length, we set the window size to 12 and the stride to 6.
960

961 H MULTIMODAL CLASSIFIER FREE GUIDANCE
962

963 Similar to Xing et al. (2024), we introduce three guidance scales s_{img} , s_{txt} , and s_{aud} to extend video
964 generation with additional audio control. These scales allow balancing the influence of different
965 conditioning modalities in video generation. The modified noise estimation function is defined as:
966

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{\epsilon}_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{c}_{\text{img}}, \mathbf{c}_{\text{txt}}, \mathbf{c}_{\text{aud}}) &= \epsilon_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}_t, \emptyset, \emptyset, \emptyset) \\
 &+ s_{\text{img}}(\epsilon_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{c}_{\text{img}}, \emptyset, \emptyset) - \epsilon_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}_t, \emptyset, \emptyset, \emptyset)) \\
 &+ s_{\text{txt}}(\epsilon_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{c}_{\text{img}}, \mathbf{c}_{\text{txt}}, \emptyset) - \epsilon_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{c}_{\text{img}}, \emptyset, \emptyset))
 \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

$$+s_{\text{aud}}(\epsilon_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{c}_{\text{img}}, \mathbf{c}_{\text{txt}}, \mathbf{c}_{\text{aud}}) - \epsilon_{\theta}(\mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{c}_{\text{img}}, \mathbf{c}_{\text{txt}}, \emptyset)).$$

Here, \mathbf{c}_{img} , \mathbf{c}_{txt} , and \mathbf{c}_{aud} represent image, text, and audio conditioning, respectively. The newly introduced audio guidance scale s_{aud} enables the model to integrate temporal audio cues, ensuring synchronized motion generation in audio-reactive video synthesis. By adjusting these guidance parameters, we can control the relative impact of each modality in the final video output.

In our experiments, we set the audio guidance scale to 7.5 and the image guidance scale to 2.0 for both the keyframe generation and frame interpolation networks. Since audio guidance is introduced as a new feature, we further compare results across different audio guidance scales ranging from 4.0 to 11.0, as shown in Tab. 4. While higher audio guidance values yield better audio synchronization scores (RelSync and AlignSync), we ultimately select the configuration that provides the best visual quality (FVD and FID) while still achieving competitive audio synchronization performance.

Table 4: Performance metrics for different guidance values.

s_{aud}	FID ↓	FVD ↓	AlignSync ↑	RelSync ↑
4.0	11.4	270.5	48.18	24.14
7.5	11.0	262.3	48.33	24.08
9.0	11.1	277.2	48.55	24.16
11.0	11.1	278.6	48.66	24.22

I DETAILS OF MOTION INTENSITY

To analyze motion intensity in AVSyncD, we cluster 15 classes based on their average motion scores across all instances (motion score result in Tab. reftab:motion). The classes are grouped into three motion intensity levels:

- **Subtle**: playing trumpet, playing violin, playing cello, playing trombone, toilet flushing.
- **Moderate**: lions roaring, cap gun shooting, frog croaking, chicken crowing, baby crying.
- **Intensive**: striking bowling, dog barking, hammering, sharpening knife, machine gun.

This classification provides insights into motion intensity distribution within AVSyncD, aiding in evaluating synchronization across different motion levels.

Subtle Motion					
Classes	playing trumpet	toilet flushing	playing cello	playing violin	playing trombone
Motion Score	2.79	4.13	5.32	5.56	6.24
Moderate Motion					
Classes	cap gun shooting	chicken crowing	lions roaring	frog croaking	baby crying
Motion Score	8.47	8.54	9.16	9.24	10.45
Intensive Motion					
Classes	machine gun	sharpen knife	striking bowling	dog barking	hammering
Motion Score	13.16	16.74	17.16	20.32	32.70

Table 5: Motion categories with classes and motion scores.

J LLM USAGE

We used large language models (LLMs) to assist in the preparation of this paper. Their role was limited to language editing such as proofreading and rephrasing. All ideas, experiments, and analyses were conceived and conducted by the authors.