HiTeA: Hierarchical Temporal-Aware Video-Language Pre-training Supplementary Material

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Contents

1. Additional Experimental Results

In this section, we provide more experimental results for completeness of our proposed method.

1.1. Transfer to Image-Text Downstream Tasks

Since images can be viewed as the single-frame videos, we evaluate the proposed method on image-text tasks including image-text retrieval and visual question answering.

Image-Text Retrieval We perform the Image-to-Text and Text-to-Image retrieval on COCO datasets, and the results are summarized in Table [1.](#page-0-3) We can observe that our method surpasses Singularity [\[19\]](#page-7-0) with same amount of pre-train data, especially 1% improvement on Recall@1 for Textto-Image retrieval task. Moreover, although some methods [\[7](#page-6-0)[,24\]](#page-7-1) leverage 4M dataset which contains the COCO dataset as a part of the pre-training dataset, **HiTeA** can still attain comparable results showing the good generalization ability.

	COCO (5K test)								
Method	#PT Data		TR			IR			
		R ₁	R ₅	R10	R1	R5	R10		
ViLT $[16]$	4M	61.5 86.3 92.7 42.7				72.9	83 1		
UNITER [7]	4M	65.7		88.6 93.8	52.9	799	88.0		
OSCAR [27]	4M	70 Q	91.1	95.5 54.0		80.8	88.5		
ALBEF [24]	4M	73 1		91.4 96.0 56.8		81.5	892		
BLIP [23]	14M			80.6 95.2 97.6	63.1	85.3	91.1		
ALIGN $[15]$	1.2B	77 Q	93.5	96.9	59.9	83.3	89.8		
Singularity [19]	5M	719	90.8	95.4 54.6		80.0	87.8		
HiTeA	5M	72.4	90.9	95.4	55.6	80.6	878		

Table 1: Comparison to existing methods on image-text retrieval on COCO dataset. We show results for both text retrieval (image-to-text retrieval, TR) and image retrieval (IR).

Visual Question Answering We also evaluate our method on visual question answering task. Table [2](#page-1-0) concludes the image question answering results on VQAv2 [\[12\]](#page-6-1) datasets. We observe that **HiTeA** demonstrates competitive performance on the VQA tasks. It is worthwhile noting that our method achieves the better performance compared to Singularity [\[19\]](#page-7-0) same pre-training datasets, which indicates the video-text pre-training would boost the performance of image-text downstream tasks. However, we still see a gap with state-of-the-art image-text pre-trained models since our method do not use the in-domain data (*e.g*. COCO) during pre-training, thus leading to the gap with SoTA performance. One future direction is to use more image-text data during video-text pre-training for better generalization.

1.2. Additional Ablation Studies

Impact of positive candidate words size K**.** We investigate the effect of choosing different positive words size K during cross-modal moment exploration. As depicted in Figure [1,](#page-1-1) it can be observed that with the increment of K , the performance on each dataset is increasing then start to decrease. In addition, there is a trade-off between the choice of K and performance with respected to different datasets,

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Figure 1: Variations in performance by changing the number of selected positive words K .

Method	#PT Data	test-dev	test-std
ClipBERT [20]	0.2M	69.08	69.43
ViLT $[16]$	4M	70.94	
VL-BART ^[8]	0.2M		71.30
LXMERT ^[36]	4M	72.42	72.54
UNITER [7]	4M	72.70	72.91
UNIMO [26]	4M	73.79	74.02
OSCAR [27]	4M	73.16	73.44
ALBEF [24]	4M	74.54	74.70
BLIP [23]	14M	77.54	77.62
Singularity [19]	5M	70.30	70.53
HiTeA	5M	74.06	74.28

Table 2: Comparison to existing methods on VQA.

and $K = 5$ gives relative good results among these datasets. It also suggests that the small K would give more deterministic results since the model would only select the word with the largest similarity, thus more focusing on the single action or object. Then, as number of positive words increased, more accurate words are selected to align with the shortview of video. However, the model no longer benefits from cross-modal moment exploration when K is large enough $(i.e., K = 11$ or $K = 13$) due to the increased noise in the selected candidate words.

Temporal evaluation of loss terms. To further validate the temporal dependency for the proposed method, we adopt the shuffling test for models with different loss terms, as shown in Table [3.](#page-2-3) Table [3](#page-2-3) shows that our loss terms contribute more significantly when the dataset requires more temporal understanding. In concrete, \mathcal{L}_{CME} and $\mathcal{L}_{\text{MTRE}}$ consistently improve the performances of Original and Gap on more temporal relied datasets (*i.e*. SSv2-Template and SSv2-Label). For example, model with two loss terms largely surpasses the baseline model in the metric of Gap by achieving 4.4 and 0.5 improvement on SSv2-Template and SSv2-Label, respectively.

Generalization to other vision backbone. Here, we demonstrate the generalization ability of our proposed meth-

Figure 2: Variations in performance by adopting language during Multi-modal Temporal Relation Exploration (MTRE). We report the Mean Recall of Recall@1, Recall@5, and Recall@10.

ods by ablating that the proposed pre-training tasks on the plain backbone. Table [4](#page-2-4) shows that our proposed method is generalizable to different vision backbones. In details, we instantiate the video encoder with TimeSformer [\[3\]](#page-6-3) pretrained on ImageNet-21K [\[34\]](#page-7-9). It can be observed both CME and MTRE consistently improve the model performance across the video backbones considered showing the generalization of proposed hierarchical temporal-aware pretraining framework. It is worth noting that, TimeSformer generates long video tokens compared to that of Multi-scale ViT [\[28\]](#page-7-10), which brings extra memory cost for the multimodal encoder and decoder since the computation of selfattention is quadratic. This makes TimeSformer expensive to scale to more input frames with longer sequences. Besides, we provide the computation analysis of them. The FLOPs of TimeSformer is 98.0 GFlops while that of MViT is 55.7 GFlops, which demonstrates that MViT outperforms TimeSformer in terms of efficiency without compromising video frame representation. As a consequence, we choose MViT as our default backbone.

Influence of language for MTRE. We investigate the influence of language for multi-modal temporal relation explo-

	MSRVTT [42]			$SSv2$ -Template $[19]$			$SSV2$ -Label $[19]$		
Method	Original \uparrow	Shuffled \downarrow	Gap \uparrow	Original \uparrow	Shuffled L	Gap ↑	Original \uparrow	Shuffled \downarrow	Gap ↑
L_{base}	61.7	60.8	0.9	93.5	75.1	18.4	74.6	71.9	2.7
$\mathcal{L}_{base} + \mathcal{L}_{CME}$	63.7	62.9	0.8	94.4	72.6	21.8	74.8	71.8	3.0
$\mathcal{L}_{base} + \mathcal{L}_{MTRE}$	63.0	62.6	0.4	94.1	73.0	21.1	75.8	72.2	3.6
$\mathcal{L}_{base} + \mathcal{L}_{CME} + \mathcal{L}_{MTRE}$	64.2	63.3	0.9	95.2	72.4	22.8	76.7	73.5	3.2

Table 3: Evaluation of proposed methods for temporal dependency with temporal shuffling test. We evaluate the performance drop when shuffling the input during inference. "Original" and "Shuffled" denote the original and shuffled input videos, respectively, and "Gap" is the difference between the Original and Shuffled metric. The larger "Gap" indicates the dataset relies on temporal information, and the model utilizes more temporal information to solve the task.

Method			MSRVTT DiDeMo SSv2-Template
TimeSformer (\mathcal{L}_{base})	57.30	62.38	92.91
+ $\mathcal{L}_{\text{MTRE}}$	59.23	63.18	93.68
+ \mathcal{L}_{CME}	59.03	63.78	93.30
+ \mathcal{L}_{CME} + \mathcal{L}_{MTRE}	59.93	65.34	94.25

Table 4: Effectiveness of the proposed methods on different video backbone. We use TimeSformer [\[3\]](#page-6-3) pre-trained on ImageNet-21K [\[34\]](#page-7-9) to verify the generalization ability of our proposed method. For text-to-video retrieval, the Mean Recall of Recall@1, Recall@5, and Recall@10 is reported. For video question answering task, we report the Top-1 accuracy.

ration. Instead of utilizing the language signals, we directly adopt the video representation v_{cls} from the video encoder during the learning. The results are sketched in Figure [2.](#page-1-2) It can be observed that the model trained with multi-modal pairs attains better performance than the model without text. In concrete, it achieves 2.1% gains on SSv2-Template which mainly depends on the understanding of actions, which indicates that our method can better understanding the actions via multi-modal temporal relation exploration. Besides, we also notice that performance of the model trained with correct multi-modal pairs surpasses that of model trained by multi-modal pairs with same text, which indicates that improper video-text pair yields noisy multi-modal representation thus degrading the performance of the model.

Impact of the number of frames for fine-tuning. To further explore the capabilities of our model, we conducted experiments varying the number of frames used in downstream tasks. As depicted in Figure [3,](#page-2-5) our findings illustrate a marked improvement in performance when utilizing 2 to 8 frames, indicating that the model benefits from greater temporal intricacy. However, once the number of frames surpasses a certain threshold, performance levels off, suggesting that sufficient temporal details do not enhance performance further.

Figure 3: Impact of frame numbers during downstream finetuning. For text-to-video retrieval, the performance is shown as avg recall, i.e., average of R@1,5,10. For VideoQA task, the accuracy is reported.

2. Discussion

2.1. Qualitative Analysis

We sample some videos and corresponding texts and compute similarities between words and videos in Figure [4.](#page-3-4) As we can see in the figure, our model can effectively capture the moments such as "spreading", "moving", and "preparing" etc. in the video, which is essential for understanding videos. Besides, we can notice that the video would also attend to the object that appeared in the video, showing the capability for modeling fine-grained moment information.

2.2. Connection to Other Fine-Grained Methods

Some efforts [\[18,](#page-7-11)[33,](#page-7-12)[44\]](#page-8-1) have been made to learn the finegrained correlation and alignment between two modalities by leveraging the token-wise similarities in vision-language

Figure 4: Examples of similarities between words and videos generated by our method. Our method captures the atomic actions in the videos as well as the object information with the help of cross-modal moment exploration.

pre-training. FILIP [\[44\]](#page-8-1) and TERAN [\[33\]](#page-7-12) aggregate the maximum token similarity scores and assign the optimal patch-word transport matrix. SCAN [\[18\]](#page-7-11) utilizes the similarity scores to attend each tokens for soft fine-grained alignment. These approaches are originally tailored for imagetext pre-training, which aims to locate the fine-grained static object. However, different from image-text pre-training, video-text pre-training needs to understand the correlation between words and moments, which not only contains static objects but also consists of atomic actions. Our proposed cross-modal moment exploration leverages the short-view of video to reflect the moment information and discover the relationship between short-view videos and words, which results in fine-grained moment representations for videolanguage pre-training.

Besides, some other efforts $[5, 39, 43]$ $[5, 39, 43]$ $[5, 39, 43]$ $[5, 39, 43]$ $[5, 39, 43]$ are proposed to model the fine-grained text information by leveraging the whole video. For example, HGR [\[5\]](#page-6-4) constructs the text semantic graph for hierarchical alignment, while T2VLAD [\[39\]](#page-8-2) and TACo [\[43\]](#page-8-3) weight the importance of words in the text through multiple video experts with VLAD and IDF of words respectively. However, all of these methods are aim to filter useful text tokens for the whole video without considering detailed temporal information in the video. Our cross-modal exploration task captures **both fine-grained text and temporal information** for modeling atomic actions and moments, which the contribution of CME task lies in the **temporal aspect** and is crucial for understanding the temporal details revealed in untrimmed videos for video-language pre-training.

2.3. Limitations and Boarder Impact

Despite the effectiveness of the proposed method on various downstream tasks, our method still has some limitations that would make for promising directions for future work. (1) Currently, we only pre-train our model on 5M data with

Method	# of Parameter
ClipBERT [20]	137M
Frozen $[2]$	232M
BridgeFormer [11]	152M
All-in-one $[38]$	110M
VIOLET _[10]	198M
ALPRO [22]	231M
Singularity [19]	209M
LAVENDER [10]	198M
HiTeA	297M

Table 5: Comparison to other models in the number of parameters.

the base-size encoders, and the scalability of the model is not explored which deserves more in-depth investigation in the future. (2) Our method shares similar risks like other pre-training methods that the pre-training data might consist bias and unsafe content which requires further analysis before the deployment.

3. Implementation Details

3.1. Number of Parameters

We include some of previous models with their parameter counts (which were reported in the original paper or calculated by follow-up work), and we compare them with **HiTeA** in Table [5.](#page-3-5) Compared with other models, our model is of comparable model size and requires less pair of video-text pre-training data to achieve better performance in terms of both video-language understanding and generation.

3.2. Model Architecture

As sketched in Figure [5,](#page-4-2) our model consists two unimodal encoders for text and video respectively, a multi-

Figure 5: Architecture of the proposed **HiTeA** and other pre-training objectives.

modal encoder for video-text interaction, and a text decoder for generation. In concrete, given an arbitrary view of video $V \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times H \times W}$ is encoder into a sequence of embeddings: $\{v_{\text{cls}}, v_1, \dots, v_M\} \in \mathbb{R}^{(M+1) \times D}$, where M is the number of flattened patches for video V , and v_{cls} is the embedding of the visual [CLS] token and used to provide global representation of the video. The text encoder transforms the text into a sequence of embeddings: $\{w_{\text{cls}}, w_1, \cdots, w_N\} \in \mathbb{R}^{(N+1) \times D}$, where N is the number of words in the text. To efficiently encode multi-modal information while preserving unimodal information, we fuse the video and text features from uni-modal encoders following $[21]$. The output of the multi-modal encoder $\{\boldsymbol{v}_{\rm cls}, \boldsymbol{v}_1, \cdots, \boldsymbol{v}_M, \boldsymbol{w}_{\rm cls}, \boldsymbol{w}_1, \cdots, \boldsymbol{w}_N\} \in \mathbb{R}^{(M+N+2) \times D}$ is fed into a transformer decoder for sequence to sequence generation, which equips **HiTeA** with the capabilities of both multi-modal understanding and generation.

3.3. Pre-training Objectives

During pre-training, we also perform four pre-training tasks including Video-Text Contrastive Learning $(\mathcal{L}_{\text{VTC}})$, Video-Text Matching (\mathcal{L}_{VTM}) , Masked Language Modeling (\mathcal{L}_{MLM}) , and Prefix Language Modeling ($\mathcal{L}_{PrefixLM}$). The VTC task first is applied to align the unimodal representation of video and text. And the multi-modal representation can be learned by VTM and MLM tasks. Upon on the video-language representations obtained from multi-modal encoder, the decoder is trained by PrefixLM loss with text completion task.

Video-Text Contrast (VTC) Following [\[22,](#page-7-14) [38\]](#page-7-13), we align the unimodal encoders via this task. Specially, the softmaxnormalized video-to-text and text-to-video similarities are computed, and we employ memory queues in MoCo [\[6\]](#page-6-8) to increase the number of negative samples during learning.

Formally, the video-text contrastive loss is calculated as:

$$
\mathcal{L}_{v2t} = -\frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^{B} \log \frac{\exp(s(\mathcal{V}_i, \mathcal{T}_i))}{\sum_{j=1}^{B} \exp(s(\mathcal{V}_i, \mathcal{T}_j))}, \quad (1)
$$

$$
\mathcal{L}_{t2v} = -\frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^{B} \log \frac{\exp(s(\mathcal{V}_i, \mathcal{T}_i))}{\sum_{j=1}^{B} \exp(s(\mathcal{V}_j, \mathcal{T}_i))},
$$

$$
\mathcal{L}_{VTC} = \frac{1}{2} (\mathcal{L}_{v2t} + \mathcal{L}_{t2v}),
$$

where V_i and T_j are the projected representations of v_{cls} and w_{cls} for *i*-th video-text pair in the batch.

Video-Text Matching (VTM) This task aims to predict whether a video and a text is paired or not based on the multi-modal representation. As suggested in [\[22,](#page-7-14) [24\]](#page-7-1), hard negative video-text pairs are selected based on the similarity of video and text during contrastive learning. Formally, the video-text matching loss is calculated as:

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\text{VTM}} = -\mathbb{E}_{(\mathcal{W}, \mathcal{V})} \log p(y|\mathcal{W}, \mathcal{V}), \tag{2}
$$

where W denotes the word tokens, and V denotes the video features of long-view video.

Masked Language Modeling (MLM) The setup of this pre-training task is same as that used in BERT [\[9\]](#page-6-9), where 15% of tokens in the text are randomly masked, and the model needs to predict the masked tokens based on the multi-modal representation. Formally, the masked language modeling loss is calculated as:

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\text{MLM}} = -\mathbb{E}_{(\mathcal{W}, \mathcal{V})} \log p(w_i | \mathcal{W}_{\backslash i}, \mathcal{V}), \tag{3}
$$

where w_i denotes the masked word token.

Prefix Language Modeling (PrefixLM) This pretext task requires model to complete the truncated texts based on given videos and prefix sequence of truncated texts [\[21,](#page-7-15)[23\]](#page-7-4). The model can be trained by maximizing the likelihood of the truncated text in an auto-regressive manner. Formally, the prefix language modeling loss is calculated as:

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\text{PrefixLM}} = -\mathbb{E}_{(\mathcal{W}, \mathcal{V})} \left[\sum_{l=L_p}^{L} \log p(w_l | \mathcal{W}_{[L_p, l)}, \mathcal{W}_{\le L_p}, \mathcal{V}) \right], \tag{4}
$$

where L denotes the total number of words in the text, and L_p is the length of a prefix sequence of tokens which is randomly selected.

3.4. Downstream Task Implementation Details

We evaluate **HiTeA** on various downstream videolanguage tasks, including Text-to-Video Retrieval, Openended VideoQA, Multiple Choice VideoQA, and Video Captioning. The fine-tuning procedures are described as follows:

Dataset	Optimizer	Learning Rate	Weight Decay	LR Schedule	Batch Size \times # GPUs	Epochs
MSRVTT-Ret [42]	AdamW	$2e-5$	0.02	Cosine Decay	24×8	10
DiDeMo[1]	AdamW	$1e-5$	0.02	Cosine Decay	24×8	20
LSMDC $[35]$	AdamW	$2e-5$	0.02	Cosine Decay	24×8	10
Activity Caption [17]	AdamW	$2e-5$	0.02	Cosine Decay	24×8	20
$SSv2$ -Template [19]	AdamW	$5e-5$	0.02	Cosine Decay	24×8	20
$SSV2$ -Label $[19]$	AdamW	$2e-5$	0.02	Cosine Decay	24×8	20
MSRVTT-QA [41]	AdamW	$2e-5$	0.02	Cosine Decay	16×8	8
$MSVD-QA [41]$	AdamW	$2e-5$	0.02	Cosine Decay	16×8	8
TGIF-FrameQA [14]	AdamW	$2e-5$	0.02	Cosine Decay	16×8	8
$LSMDC-FIB [32]$	AdamW	$2e-5$	0.02	Cosine Decay	16×8	8
ActivityNet-QA [46]	AdamW	$2e-5$	0.02	Cosine Decay	16×8	8
TGIF-Action [14]	AdamW	$3e-5$	0.02	Cosine Decay	16×8	56
TGIF-Transition [14]	AdamW	$3e-5$	0.02	Cosine Decay	16×8	30
LSMDC-MC $[37]$	AdamW	$2e-5$	0.02	Cosine Decay	16×8	10
$NExT-QA [40]$	AdamW	$2e-5$	0.02	Cosine Decay	16×8	10
MSRVTT-Caption [42]	AdamW	$2e-5$	0.02	Cosine Decay	24×8	10
MSVD-Caption [4]	AdamW	$2e-5$	0.02	Cosine Decay	24×8	10

Table 6: End-to-end fine-tuning configurations for video-language downstream tasks.

- For retrieval tasks, we jointly optimize the VTC loss and VTM loss for video-text alignment during finetuning. During inference, we first select top-k candidates by computing the dot-product similarity between the video and text features, and then reranking the selected candidates based on their VTM scores. k is set to 128 by default.
- For open-ended VideoQA, we first generate video features and text features with two unimodal encoders, and then fuse them with multi-modal encoder. The output of multi-modal features are fed to text decoder for answer generation. We use the language modeling loss to optimize the model. During inference, the answer would be generated by the text decoder.
- For multiple choice VideoQA, we treat the problem as the text-to-video retrieval task where the correct answer should have the highest matching probability. During training, we compute the VTM scores for each candidate answer and video, then optimize the model with cross entropy loss. During the inference, the answer with highest VTM score is the prediction answer.
- For Video Captioning, we use the video features from video encoder and directly feed it into text decoder for caption generation. The language modeling loss is utilized for model optimization.

For all above video-language downstream tasks, we resize video frames to 224×224 . During fine-tuning, following [\[19,](#page-7-0)[22\]](#page-7-14), we randomly sample 12 frames for text-to-video retrieval, 16 frames for video question answering and video captions, and we perform temporal downsampling with factor 2 for video before feeding into the network. Here, we sample video frames from the whole video instead of treating videos into different views. During inference, we adopt uniform sampling for video frames. We use RandomCrop with minimum ratio 0.5 and Horizontal Flip with 0.5 probability for data augmentation. The hyperparameters that we used for fine-tuning on downstream tasks are summarized in Table [6.](#page-5-1) For the video caption task, we use a prefix prompt "A video of" to improve the quality of generated captions.

3.5. Datasets Description

In this section, we describe all of the downstream videolanguage datasets used during evaluation. The details of the datasets are represented below:

Text-to-Video Retrieval. We evaluate **HiTeA** on 6 popular text-to-video retrieval datasets including MSRVTT [\[42\]](#page-8-0), DiDeMo [\[1\]](#page-6-10), LSMDC [\[35\]](#page-7-16), ActivityNet Caption [\[17\]](#page-7-17), SSv2 Template [\[19\]](#page-7-0), and SSv2 Label [\[19\]](#page-7-0). Details of these datasets: **MSRVTT** [\[42\]](#page-8-0) contains 10K YouTube sourced videos with 200K text descriptions. Following [\[13,](#page-7-21) [25,](#page-7-22) [30\]](#page-7-23), we train the video on 9K videos and evaluate on the rest 1K video. **DiDeMo** [\[1\]](#page-6-10) contains of 10K videos from Flickr and 4 descriptions for each video. Following [\[22,](#page-7-14) [25,](#page-7-22) [31\]](#page-7-24), we concatenate all of the given descriptions from the same video as a paragraph, and evaluate the paragraph-to-video retrieval performance. The number of video in training set is 8K, leaving 1K for validation set and 1K for test set. **LSMDC** [\[35\]](#page-7-16) consists of 118K video clips from 202 movies, and each clip is accompanied with a caption from video scripts. It has $101K$ video clips for training and 1K clips for testing. We use the standard splits from [\[35\]](#page-7-16). **Activi-**

tyNet Caption [\[17\]](#page-7-17) is built on 20K YouTube videos with 100K captions. We use the train split with 10K videos for training, and report the performance on the val1 split with 4.9K videos. **SSv2-Template** and **SSv2-Label** [\[19\]](#page-7-0) contain 169K videos for training and 2K videos for testing. The text queries in SSv2-Template are templates without object information (*e.g*. "Throwing [something] in the air and catching it"). By contrast, SSv2-Label contains annotated text queries with specific object information (*e.g*. "Throwing keys in the air and catching it"). Therefore, SSv2-Template mainly focuses on temporal understanding of actions, while SSv2-Label needs a more comprehensive understanding of both appearance and temporal dynamic.

Multiple-choice Video QA. Five datasets are evaluated for multiple-choice video question answering tasks. **TGIF-Action** and **TGIF-Transition** [\[14\]](#page-7-18) are adopted to evaluate model's capability to recognize the repeated actions and state transitions in short GIFs. Each video and question is equipped with 5 candidate answers. We concatenate the question and answer as the text and use the highest similarity among the video and candidate texts. TGIF-Action contains 18K GIFs for training and 2K for testing. TGIF-Transitions has 47K GIF-question pairs for training and 6K for testing. **MSRVTT-MC** [\[45\]](#page-8-7) and **LSMDC-MC** [\[37\]](#page-7-20) are originally retrieval task, but reformulated as the multiple choice video QA task. It requires the model to find the optimal caption that describes the video out of 5 candidate texts. **NExT-QA** [\[40\]](#page-8-6) is explicitly designed for temporal and causal understanding. Questions in the dataset are categorized into three types: Descriptive, Temporal, and Causal. Each question in the dataset are paired with 5 candidate answers. Therefore, this dataset is able to evaluate model's ability in video question answering in different aspects.

Open-ended Video QA. For open-ended video QA, we evaluate the model on five datasets. **MSRVTT-QA** is composed of 243K open-ended questions over 10K videos, while **MSVD-QA** [\[41\]](#page-8-4) consists 2K videos with 47K questions. **TGIF-Frames**[\[14\]](#page-7-18) collects the answerable with just a single frame in the video, and is divided into training set with 35K questions and test set with 14K questions.. For LSMDC-FiB [\[32\]](#page-7-19), the model needs to predict a correct word for the blank with a given video and a sentence with blank. It contains 297K sentences for training and 30K sentences for testing. **ActivityNet-QA** [\[46\]](#page-8-5) .

Video Captioning. We use MSRVTT [\[42\]](#page-8-0) and MSVD [\[4\]](#page-6-11) for video captioning evaluation. As described before, **MSRVTT** is composed of 10K videos with 20 captions per video, and **MSVD** contains 2K videos with around 40 captions per video. We follow the standard splits from [\[25,](#page-7-22)[29\]](#page-7-25). During inference, we generate the caption with beam search until the model outputs a [SEP] that indicates the end of sentence or when it reaches the maximum generation step 40.

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