# How Can Objects Help Video-Language Understanding?

# Supplementary Material

We elaborate on the implementation details of ObjectM-LLM in Appendix A. In Appendix B, we explore the design choices for the bounding box projector, the effectiveness of object bounding boxes compared to object labels, the modality fusion strategy, and bounding box sampling rate. In Appendix C, we conduct experiments on NExT-QA and IntentQA to show that spatial cues play a minor role on these two benchmarks. Appendix D demonstrates the quality of the detected object bounding boxes and investigates how it affects the performance of ObjectMLLM. Qualitative results of our method are presented in Appendix E. Finally, Appendix F summarizes a few unsuccessful attempts.

# A. Implementation Details

## A.1. Object detection and tracking

In the object detection and tracking process, the video keyframes are sampled at 1 FPS. SAM 2 tracking is performed at the original frame rate of each video. We use the pre-trained YOLO-World checkpoint YOLO-World-v2-L\_CLIP-Large\_800. The employed SAM 2 checkpoint is sam2.1\_hiera\_large.

All the benchmarks (or their source datasets) in our experiments provide either manually annotated or algorithm-detected object bounding boxes. To adapt YOLO-World to the benchmarks, we fine-tune it on the training set of each benchmark individually. Fine-tuning is performed with a learning rate of 2e-4, a weight decay of 0.05, and a batch size of 64. The number of training images, the number of training epochs, and the score thresholds used during inference are listed in Table A1.

#### A.2. Downsampling Rates of Bounding Boxes

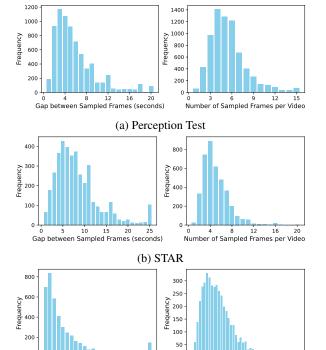
As described in Section 4.2, we uniformly and temporally downsample the bounding box sequences to reduce the total number of input tokens. As the videos in CLEVRER-MC [18, 44] are 5 seconds in length, we sample one frame every one second, resulting in 6 sampled frames per video. For other benchmarks, the videos have varying lengths and numbers of objects. Therefore, we assign a separate sampling rate for each video. Specifically, we use binary search to find the maximal sampling rate for each video such that the number of bounding box tokens after downsampling is less than 1,000. We show the distributions of the sampling rates and the resulting numbers of frames in Figure A1.

#### A.3. ObjectMLLM training

When fine-tuning LLaMA3-8B with LLaMA-Adapter [51], we use a batch size of 64. The learning rate is linearly

Benchmark	#training images	#epochs	score threshold
CLEVRER-MC	60 k	7	1e-3
Perception Test	46 k	50	0.35
STAR	106 k	20	0.2
NExT-QA & IntentQA	151 k	10	0.4

Table A1. Hyperparameters in YOLO-World fine-tuing and inference across different benchmarks.



#### (c) NExT-QA & IntentQA

18

20

Figure A1. Distributions of the bounding box sampling rates for Perception Test [29], STAR [41], NExT-QA [42], and IntentQA [15]. We show the gaps between the sampled frames and the numbers of the sampled frames. The last bin includes all elements greater than or equal to the corresponding x-coordinate value. IntentQA shares the same distribution as NExT-QA because it is sourced from NExT-QA.

warmed up to 0.0225 in the first 20% steps, after which cosine learning rate annealing is applied. The same learning rate is applied to the LLaMA-Adapter weights, bounding box embedding projector, and visual embedding projector.

When fine-tuning VideoLLaMA2 with LoRA [8], we use a LoRA rank of 128 and a batch size of 128. The learning rate is linearly warmed up to 2e-5 in the first 3% steps, after which cosine learning rate annealing is applied. The

Box adapter	Initialization	CLEVRER-MC	Perception Test	
Embedding Projector	Random	42.8	57.6	
Embedding Projector	Zero	64.9	60.1	

Table A2. Ablation on the initialization of the box embedding projector. The defulat random initialization in PyTorch is Kaiming uniform distribution. We find that zero-initialized linear layer as the box embedding projector always yields better performance than the default initialization.

same learning rate is applied to the LoRA weight and visual embedding projector. The pre-trained checkpoint used is VideoLLaMA2-7B-16F.

In both settings, the model is trained for 1 epoch on CLEVRER, 5 epochs on NExT-QA and STAR, 10 epochs on Perception Test and IntentQA, and 50 epochs on BABEL-QA. The vision encoder is kept frozen in all experiments.

#### **B.** Ablation Studies

#### **B.1. Embedding projector**

We show that the language-based box adapter is always more performant than the embedding projector in Section 4.3. However, it is possible that the poor performance of the embedding projector is due to its design. In this section, we explore a few design choices of the embedding projector, including initialization, number of layers, and number of resulting tokens. We find that the embedding projector is inferior to the language-based representation across all design choices.

Projector initialization. When training a projector between a novel modality and the LLM backbone, previous works (e.g. LLaVA [22] and Vamos [36]) use the default initialization for linear layers (the Kaiming uniform distribution in PyTorch). However, we find that the default random initialization significantly impedes the training of the bounding box embedding projector. As shown in Table A2, we find that initializing the linear layer weights to zero can facilitate the learning of embedding projector. We hypothesize that the default initialization would project the bounding boxes outside the LLM word embedding space, confusing the LLM backbone at the beginning of training. In contrast, a zero-initialized linear layer can map every bounding box to a zero vector, which is extremely close to the special tokens in the LLM vocabulary. This can prevent the bounding boxes from corrupting LLM behavior.

**Number of projector layers.** Instead of a single linear layer, we explore using a multilayer perceptron (MLP) as the bounding box projector. In this experiment, we set the number of hidden units in each layer to match the dimension of word embeddings of the LLM (4,096 for LLaMA3-8B). We use GeLU as the activation function. As Table A3 suggests, increasing the number of MLP layers yields only

Box adapter	#Layers	CLEVRER-MC	Perception Test
	1	64.9	60.1
Embedding Projector	2	65.0	59.7
	3	65.0	60.2
Language-based Representation	-	77.6	63.5

Table A3. Ablation on the number of layers of the box embedding projector. Enlarging the number of MLP layers does not bring significant improvement. And they are outperformed by the language-based representation box adapter.

Box adapter	#Tokens per box	CLEVRER-MC
Embedding Projector	1 9	64.9 63.4
Language-based Representation	9	77.6

Table A4. Ablation on the number of resulting tokens in the embedding projector method. Increasing the number of tokens to be the same as that in the language-based representation method degrades the performance.

marginal performance gains for the embedding projector method. More importantly, it is still dominated by the language-based representation approach.

Number of resulting tokens. While the embedding projector maps each bounding box into only one token, the language-based representation uses nine tokens to describe one bounding box (four numbers, three spaces, and two square brackets). One might argue that the expressiveness of the bounding box embedding projector is limited by the number of tokens. To address this concern, we experiment with bounding box projectors that map each bounding box into nine tokens rather than one token. The results are in Table A4. We find that increasing the number of resulting tokens per bounding box cannot improve the performance of the embedding projector method.

#### B.2. Are object labels sufficient on their own?

As shown in Figure 3, object labels (i.e., object names) are also provided when we format the bounding boxes. If the object labels are hidden, the bounding boxes themselves convey much less information because the object associated with each box is unknown. Object labels can provide important information to the model; for example, color recognition in Figure 7 is improved, which is definitely not inferable from unannotated bounding boxes alone. We raise the question: are object labels sufficient on their own, or does the model still derive benefits from bounding box information?

To answer this question, we train a model with object labels provided but bounding boxes hidden. In Table A6, we find that the model consistently performs better when the

Video	Caption	Box	CLEVRER-MC	Perception Test	STAR	NExT-QA	IntentQA
<b>√</b>			40.3	59.6	59.7	70.7	68.2
	$\checkmark$		47.8	62.4	60.1	76.6	75.7
		$\checkmark$	77.6	63.5	59.1	63.7	66.2
	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	75.5(75.8)	65.7(64.1)	64.4(63.7)	76.6(77.2)	75.6(75.4)
$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	75.4(29.5)	63.9(33.8)	62.9(62.8)	76.2(75.8)	75.0(73.4)

Table A5. Ablation on modality fusion strategy. Blue ones are the results of jointly training on all the modalities at once, while the others are trained in a modality-by-modality manner. The modality-by-modality fusion strategy can outperform the jointly training in most cases. And the joint training is sometimes unstable when the video inputs are involved.

Input	CLEVRER-MC	Perception Test	STAR
Obj. label	59.8	60.0	58.8
Obj. label + box	77.6	63.5	59.1

Table A6. Ablation on the bounding boxes versus object labels. The model indeed utilizes the boxes other than the object labels.

			Max Seq. Len.   600	800	1000	1200
FPS   0.25	0.5 1	2	Avg. FPS   0.13	0.20	0.26	0.31
Accuracy   74.0	73.9 77.0	5 78.0	Accuracy   62.7	63.0	63.5	63.7
(a) CLE	(a) CLEVRER-MC		(b) Perce	otion [	Гest	

Table A7. Ablation on bounding box temporal sampling rate. Higher sampling rate usually leads to higher accuracy.

object boxes are also provided, indicating that the model makes effective use of object bounding boxes. However, the differences are more notable on CLEVRER-MC and Perception Test than on STAR, indicating the improvement made by observing bounding boxes on STAR is mainly attributed to the revealed object labels. This is reasonable because the questions in STAR are annotated based off the scene graphs. It also highlights that emphasizing the question-related objects instead of describing the scene at a high level through video frame captions helps more on video question answering.

### **B.3.** Modality fusion strategy

Section 3.4 mentions that we fuse the modalities (captions, bounding boxes, and videos) in a modality-by-modality approach instead of joint training at once. In Table A5, we compare the two fusion strategies. We find that the modality-by-modality method outperforms joint training in the majority of cases. In addition, the joint training approach is sometimes unstable. It leads to extremely low performance on CLEVRER-MC and Perception Test when using all three input modalities. Lastly, we find that both fusion methods are ineffective at leveraging the visual embeddings. We therefore urge the development of new multimodal fusion strategies that can make visual inputs valuable.



VA-1.5 caption:

A group of three people standing in a kitchen, engaged in a conversation. They are positioned close to each other, with one person on the left, another in the center, and the third person on the right. They appear to be enjoying their time together, possibly discussing a shared interest or event. the kitchen is equipped with a refrigerator on the left side and on oven on the hight side. There are two bottles visible in the secen, one placed near the center and the other towards the right side. A cup can be seen on the left side of the image, possibly belonging to one of the individuals in the group.

GPT-40 spatial-free caption:
The frame captures a casual indoor gathering with three individuals engaged in conversation. The scene conveys a relaxed, social atmosphere with a sense of interaction and possibly friendly discussion. The setting suggests a domestic environment, likely a kitchen, providing a warm and informal backdrop to the interaction.

Figure A2. LLaVA-1.5 caption vs. GPT-4o spatial-free caption.

Caption	Box	NExT-QA	IntentQA
LLaVA-1.5		76.6	75.7
LLaVA-1.5	$\checkmark$	76.6	75.6
GPT-40 Spatial-free		76.1	73.6
GPT-40 Spatial-free	$\checkmark$	76.3	75.6

Table A8. Performance with spatial-free GPT-40 captions.

#### **B.4.** Temporal sampling rate of bounding boxes

We conduct an ablation study on the bounding box sampling rate on CLEVRER-MC and Perception Test in Table A7. On CLEVRER-MC, all the videos have the same duration. Therefore, we directly adjust the bounding box sampling rate from 0.25 FPS to 2 FPS. On Perception Test, we vary the maximum box token length mentioned in Section 4.2 and report the corresponding average frame rates. As the results show, a higher sampling rate generally yields higher accuracy, indicating a trade-off between performance and efficiency.

# C. Spatial Information Ablation on NExT-QA and IntentQA

In our experiments in Table 1 and Table 3, incorporating object bounding boxes as additional information does not improve model performance on NExT-QA and IntentQA. While these benchmarks focus on causal reasoning about events, the spatial information may not play a crucial role to answer the questions. In this section, we further verify through experiments the limited usefulness of spatial information in these two benchmarks.

As Figure A2 shows, the video frame captions generated by LLaVA-1.5 include some spatial cues in the image. To eliminate the influence of spatial cues, we feed each video frame to GPT-40 and ask it to generate a caption that does

Box	CLEVRER-MC	Perception Test	STAR	NExT-QA	IntentQA
Model-tracked	77.6	63.5	59.1	63.7	66.2
Annotation	74.9	66.8	78.9	65.5	65.3

Table A9. Model performance with object bounding boxes tracked by computer vision models or with those annotated by the benchmarks. Bounding box annotations in CLEVRER-MC, NExT-QA, and IntentQA are also algorithm-detected. Boxes in Perception Test and STAR are manually annotated. The experiments are in the box-only setting.

not involve any spatial information. Specifically, we use the following prompt:

<image> Faithfully describe the content of the above image, avoid mentioning specific objects and try your best to provide a scene-level, holistic summary. No mention of any spatial information.

Figure A2 shows an example of such spatial-free captions. With the spatial-free captions, we repeat our experiments on NExT-QA and IntentQA, using ObjectMLLM with LLaMA3 as the backbone. The results are in Table A8. We find that removing the spatial cues only results in a 0.5% drop in accuracy on NExT-QA and a 2.1% drop on IntentQA. This indicates that the questions in these two datasets are still highly answerable even without spatial information. More importantly, incorporating object bounding boxes in addition to spatial-free captions can recover the performance, especially on IntentQA. This again demonstrates our method's effectiveness in conveying spatial information to MLLMs.

#### D. Quality of the Tracked Bounding Boxes

In this section, we assess the quality of the extracted object bounding boxes and whether it hinders the performance of our model. Because the evaluation benchmarks themselves provide object bounding box annotations (either human-annotated or algorithm-detected), we can compare the boxes obtained by our workflow with them.

Figure A4 visualizes the tracked and annotated bounding boxes across different benchmarks. All the examples are from the validation/test set of the benchmarks. We find that the detection and tracking quality on synthetic videos (CLEVRER-MC) is highly accurate. On the realistic videos (Perception Test, STAR, NExT-QA, and IntentQA), our employed tracking method can capture the main objects although some noise is present.

In Table A9, we evaluate our model with the bounding box annotations as inputs. When the annotations serve as inputs, the model is trained again with the annotated boxes before evaluation to mitigate train-test domain shift. While the performance with model-tracked bounding boxes is 2%-3% worse than that with annotations on Perception Test and NExT-QA, it is even better than the annotations on CLEVRER-MC and IntentQA. This is reasonable because

the bounding box annotations provided in the CLEVRER and IntentQA benchmarks are also algorithm-detected and potentially noisier than ours. In contrast, Perception Test and STAR both provide human-annotated object bounding boxes. However, the performance gap on STAR is significantly larger than on Perception Test. We notice that the questions in STAR are generated by functional programs based on annotated object relation graphs. Because only objects of interest are annotated in STAR, using object annotations as input provides a strong prior that may bias the answers. As the tracking quality on STAR (Figure A4(c)) is fairly accurate, we hypothesize that the large performance gap is caused by the choices of objects of interest rather than the tracking precision. How we can filter the objects of interest from a video remains an open and valuable research challenge.

## E. Qualitative Results

We show a qualitative result on CLEVRER-MC in Figure A5. The model can determine whether an object is moving based on its bounding boxes, which is an essential capability in this benchmark.

In Figures A6 to A9, we show qualitative results from Perception Test. In these examples, model can determine the motion of cameras, stability of objection configurations, and the number of objects taken out from bags. These questions are not answerable for the caption-only model.

In Figures A10 and A11, we show failure cases of our caption-and-box model. From the captions and object bounding boxes, the model cannot reliably infer the object states and appearances. Therefore, it fails to provide correct answers. However, visual embeddings, in principle, should capture these visual characteristics. We highlight the importance of devising MLLMs that can efficiently and effectively utilize distributed visual representations.

We also examine the failure cases on NExT-QA and IntentQA, where we found that our model struggles with questions involving human actions. For example, in Figure A12, the model with bounding box inputs is aware that there are a person and a dog in the video. However, the person's action cannot be determined from the bounding boxes. In contrast, as captions provide explicit descriptions of actions, the model with caption input is better at answering these questions, contributing to the performance gap in Table 1 compared to the box-only model.

Box adapter	Perception Test
Language-based Representation	63.5
Embedding Projector	60.1
Visual Prompting	59.7

Table A10. Performance of integrating bounding boxes using visual prompting. It is significantly less performant than the language-based representation and embedding projector.

Box	Visual embedding	Perception Test Acc.
<b>√</b>	Х	63.5
$\checkmark$	Frame-level	62.7
$\checkmark$	Object-level	63.3

Table A11. Ablation on different visual embedding levels. Object-level visual embedding works better than the frame-level embedding but still cannot bring additional improvement when symbolic boxes are used.

# F. Unsuccessful Attempts

#### F.1. Integrating boxes via visual prompting

Beyond integrating object-centric information via structural bounding box coordinates, we explore incorporating box information through visual prompting. Inspired by prior work [33], we overlay bounding boxes directly onto video frames and extract visual embeddings from these annotated frames. Within the same video, objects are distinguished by unique colors, and the color assigned to each object remains consistent across frames to maintain temporal coherence. Figure A3 demonstrates an example of the annotated frames from Perception Test. As shown in Table A10, integrating bounding boxes using visual prompting performs worse than the embedding projector and language-based representation on Perception Test.

#### F.2. Integrating object-level visual embeddings

Intuitively, fine-grained object appearances like texture cannot be accurately described by video frame captions and bounding boxes. But, in principle, they can be captured by distributed visual representations like CLIP [30] embeddings. However, Table 1 illustrates that integrating frame-level visual embeddings upon captions and bounding boxes does not bring additional benefits to the performance.

Initially, we hypothesize that frame-level visual embeddings are too high-level to capture object details. To investigate this problem, we experiment with an object-level visual representation to replace the frame-level embedding. Specifically, we crop the objects from the video frames and extract their CLIP embeddings as object embeddings. Then, based on the language-based representation, we append each object embedding after its bounding box of the corresponding timestamp using the template below, where each <code>⟨|obj\_emb|⟩</code> indicates an object embedding.

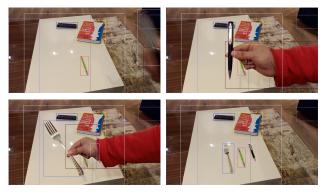


Figure A3. Examples of integrating bounding boxes via visual prompting from Perception Test.

(Object 0) bag – frame 0 [8 0 54 93]  $\langle |obj\_emb| \rangle$  frame 90 [4 0 52 94]  $\langle |obj\_emb| \rangle$  ......

The results are in Table A11. The object-level visual embedding outperforms the frame-level embedding but still falls short of the box-only model. This experiment again highlights the difficulty of integrating distributed embedding into MLLMs in a data-efficient manner, which would be a challenging but valuable research topic.

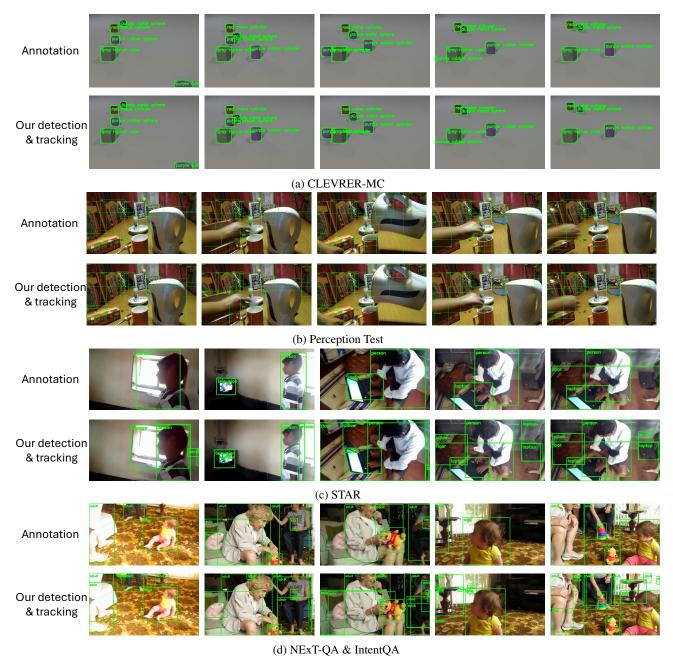


Figure A4. Visualization of the object bounding boxes across different benchmarks. IntentQA shares the same video source as NExT-QA. Our tracked bounding boxes are nearly perfect on CLEVRER-MC, while they are also fairly accurate on realistic videos.

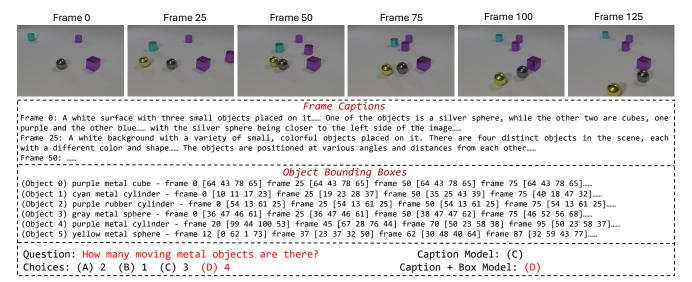
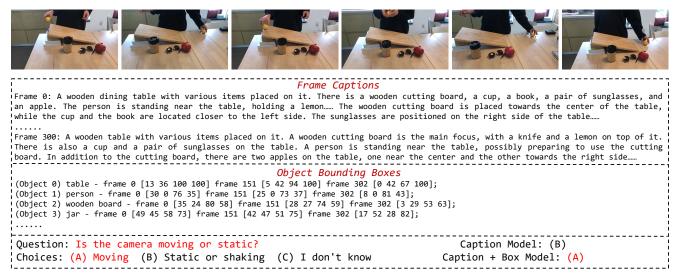


Figure A5. Qualitative example on CLEVRER-MC. The model can determine whether an object is moving based on its bounding boxes.



Frame 225

Frame 300

Frame 375

Frame 150

Frame 0

Frame 75

Figure A6. Qualitative example on Perception Test. The caption+box model can determine the motion of the camera from the changing object bounding boxes.

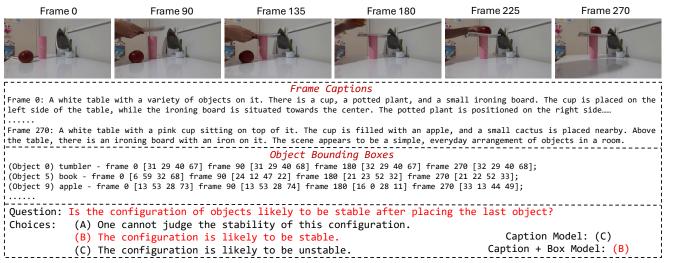


Figure A7. Qualitative example on Perception Test. The caption+box model can predict the stability of the object configuration because it is aware of the object locations.

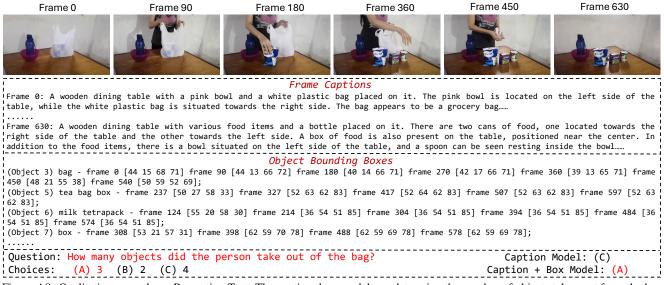


Figure A8. Qualitative example on Perception Test. The caption+box model can determine the number of objects taken out from the bag with the aid of object bounding boxes.

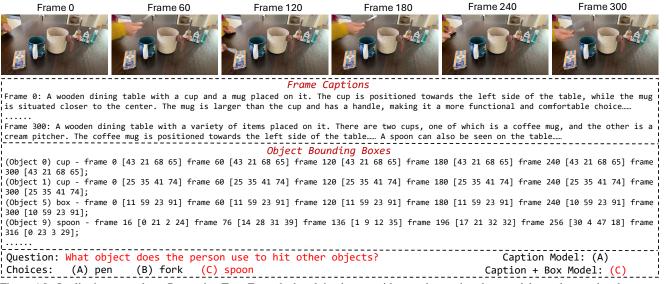


Figure A9. Qualitative example on Perception Test. From the boudning box cooridnates, the caption+box model can observe that the spoon is moved to hit the other objects.

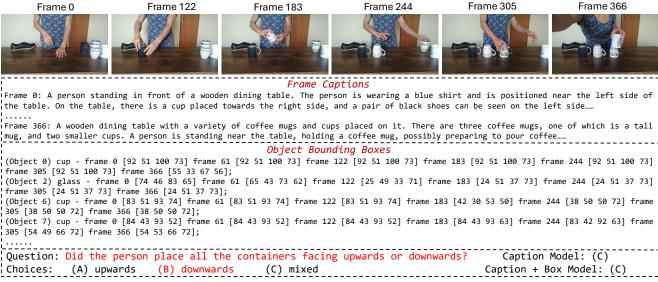


Figure A10. Failure case on Perception Test. The model cannot see the state of the mugs from either the captions or the bounding boxes. So it does not whether the mugs are upwards or downwards.

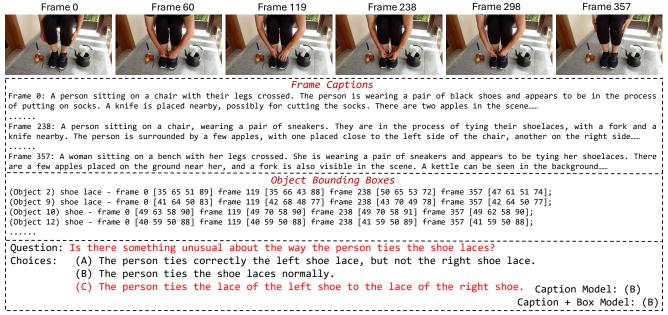


Figure A11. Failure case on Perception Test. Both the captions and the bounding boxes cannot tell if the shoe laces are tied normally. This suggests that our model has difficulty in recognizing the appearance of the objects.

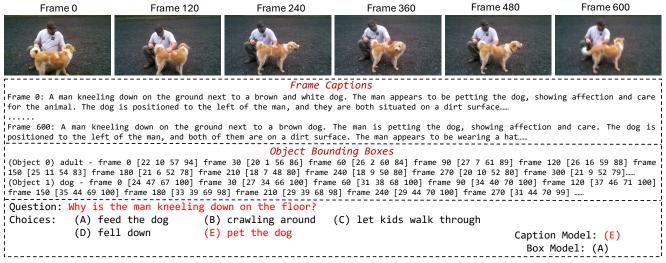


Figure A12. Failure case on NExT-QA. Although the detection and tracking algorithm can tell that there are an adult and a dog in the video, their actions cannot be inferred from the object bounding boxes. The captioning model can capture the person's action so that the model with captions as inputs correctly answers this question.