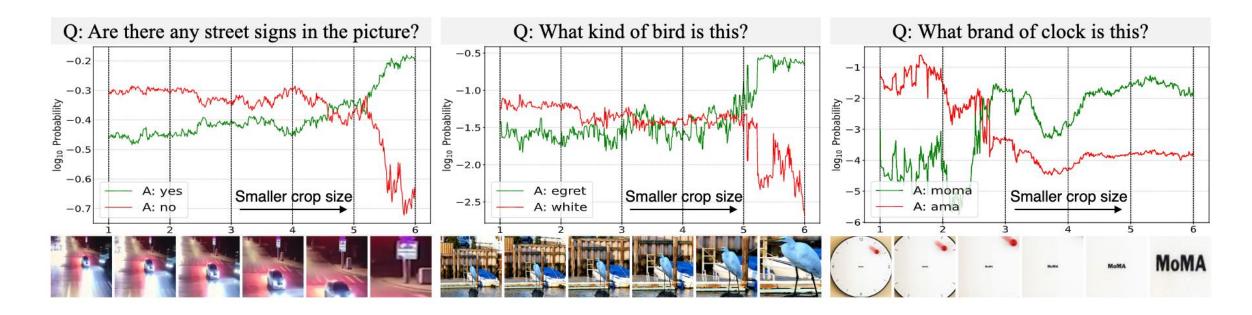
MLLMS KNOW WHERE TO LOOK: TRAINING-FREE PERCEPTION OF SMALL VISUAL DETAILS WITH MULTIMODAL LLMS

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Motivation

Given MLLMs' integration into many applications, it is important to understand the limitations of their visual perception.

- Model's performance is very sensitive to the size of the visual subject of the question.
- Model was not making a semantic error, rather it was unable to perceive sufficient details.
- Model knows where to look based on the question.



MLLMS' SENSITIVITY TO THE SIZE OF VISUAL CONCEPTS



```
question
what is the name of the company on the card?
answer
[ "blink", "intergrative nutrition", "blink",
"blink", "blink", "blink", "blink",
"blink", "blink"]

dataset_id
36269

bbox
[ 712, 255, 64, 43 ]
```

$$S = \frac{A_{bb}}{A_{total}}$$

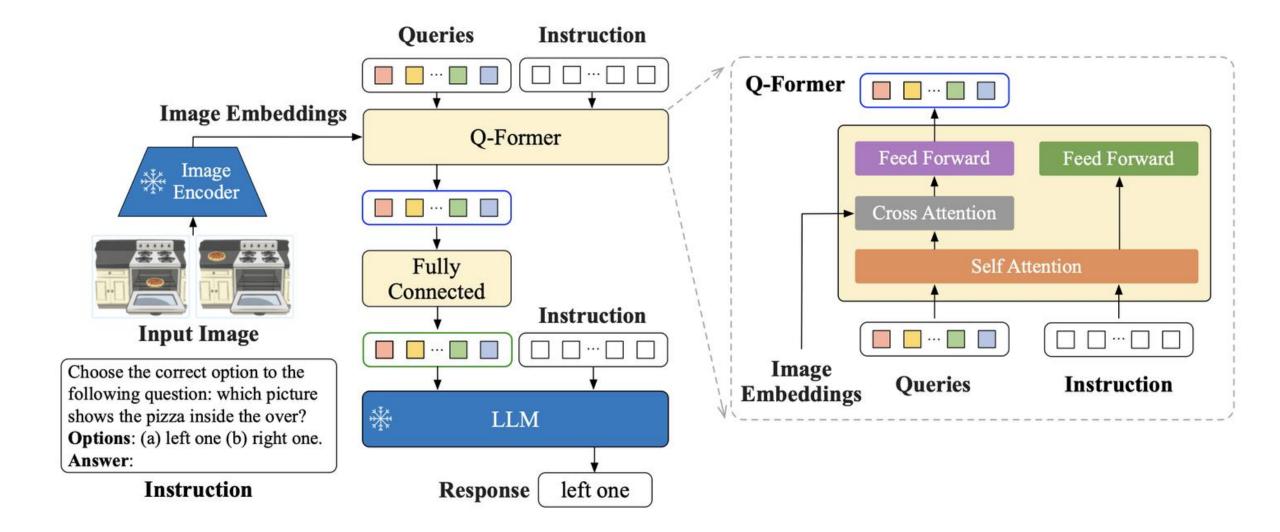
Small: S < 0.005

Medium: $0.005 \le S < 0.05$

Large: $S \ge 0.05$

MLLMS' SENSITIVITY TO THE SIZE OF VISUAL CONCEPTS

Model	Method	Answer Bbox Size (S)			
		small	medium	large	
BLIP-2 (FlanT5 _{XL})	no cropping	12.13	19.57	36.32	
	human-CROP	55.76	52.02	45.73	
InstructBLIP (Vicuna-7B)	no cropping	21.79	30.58	45.30	
	human-CROP	69.60	61.56	53.39	
LLaVA-1.5 (Vicuna-7B)	no cropping	39.38	47.74	50.65	
	human-CROP	69.95	65.36	56.96	
Qwen-VL (Qwen-7B)	no cropping	56.42	65.09	68.60	
	human-CROP	70.35	75.49	71.05	
GPT-40	no cropping	65.76	72.81	69.17	
	human-CROP	75.63	81.32	71.72	



DO MLLMS KNOW WHERE TO LOOK?

The limitation in perceiving small visual concepts:

- (1) they are hard to locate in the larger image
- (2) their small details are hard to perceive correctly

How to quantify?

Attention Map

Answer-to-token attention: $A_{st}(x,q) \in \mathbb{R}^{L imes H imes 1 imes T}$ $\hat{A}_{st}(x,q) = rac{1}{H} \sum_{h=1}^H A_{st}(x,q)$

q': Write a general description of the image.

Token-to-image attention: $A_{ti} \in \mathbb{R}^{L_c imes H_c imes T imes N^2}$ $\hat{A}_{ti}(x) = rac{1}{H_c} \sum_{h=1}^{H_c} A_{ti}(x)$

 $A_{rel}(x,q) = \frac{A_{si}(x,q)}{A_{si}(x,q')}$

Answer-to-image attention: $A_{si}(x,q) \in \mathbb{R}^{L imes L_c imes 1 imes N^2}$

DO MLLMS KNOW WHERE TO LOOK?

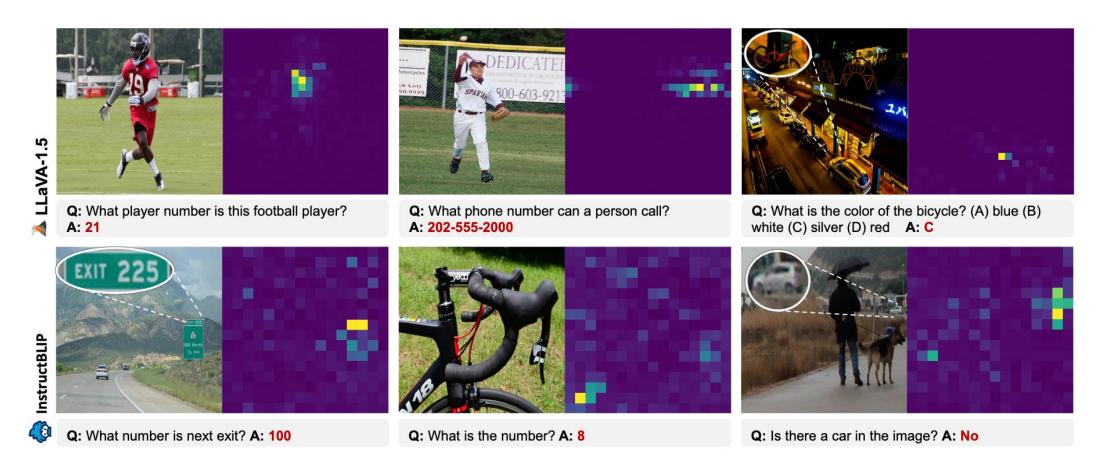
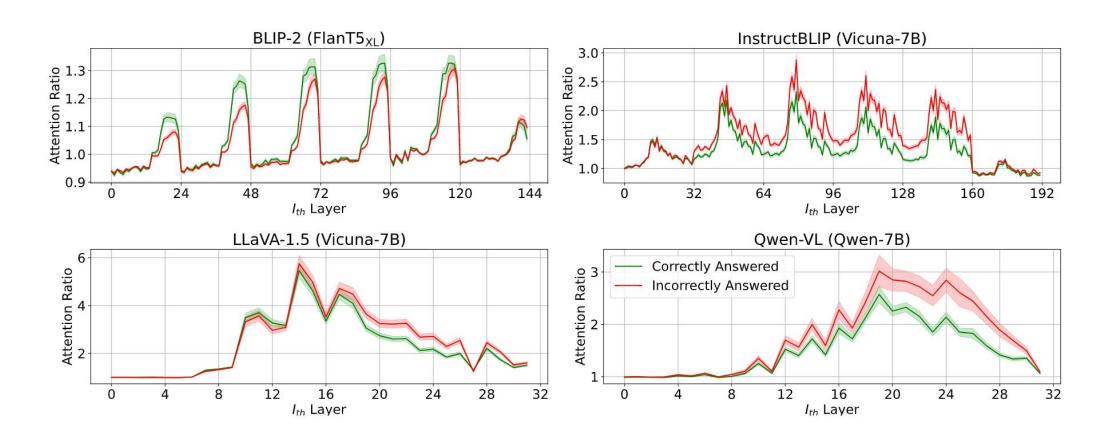


Figure 2: Examples of MLLMs knowing where to look despite answering incorrectly. The right panel in each example displays relative attention to the image (defined in Sec. 4) of one layer in the MLLM.

DO MLLMS KNOW WHERE TO LOOK?

Attention Ratio: the ratio of the total (sum) relative attention inside the answer ground-truth bounding box to its average across all bounding boxes of the same size.



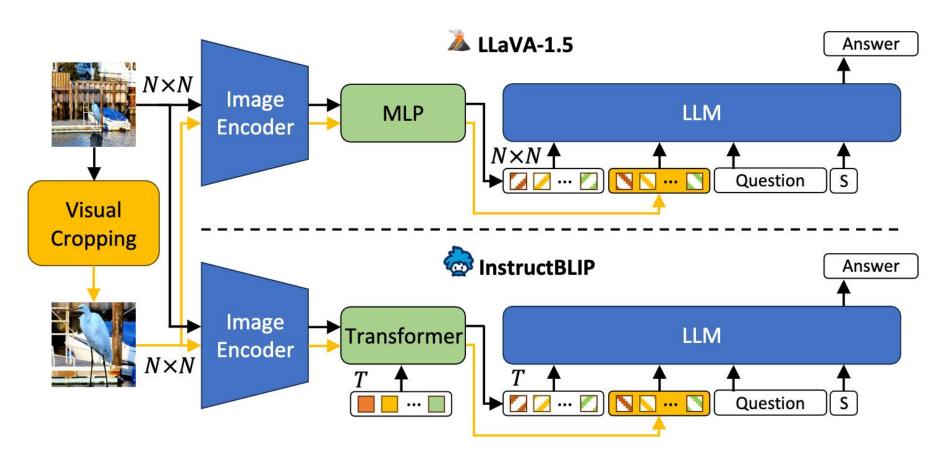


Figure 4: Illustration of the proposed visual cropping approach applied to two MLLMs.

Relative Attention ViCrop (rel-att). In this method, we directly compute the relative attention $A_{rel}(x,q)$ defined in Sec. 4 for each image-question pair (x,q). We then select a target layer (in LLM and connector) based on a small held-out set of samples in TextVQA and use its relative attention as the importance map for visual cropping (discussed below). We ablate on the choice of layer in Sec. 6.

Gradient-Weighted Attention ViCrop (grad-att). The relative attention runs an additional generic instruction through the MLLM to normalize the answer-to-image attention and emphasize semantically relevant attention. As an alternative that does not require a second forward pass, we consider using the gradients to normalize attention, because the gradient of the model's decision with respect to an attention score shows how sensitive the decision is to changes in that attention, hence how semantically relevant the attention is for answering the question. To get a differentiable representation of the model's decision, we consider the logarithm of the maximum output probability at the starting answer token, $v = \log \operatorname{softmax}(z(x,q))_{t^*} \in \mathbb{R}$, where $z \in \mathbb{R}^D$ is the output logit of the LLM at the starting answer position, D the vocabulary size, and $t^* = \arg \max_t z_t$. Then, following our notation in Sec. 4, we can compute the gradient-weighted versions of answer-to-token attention $\tilde{A}_{st}(x,q) =$ $A_{st}(x,q) \odot \sigma(\nabla_{A_{st}}v(x,q))$ and token-to-image attention $\tilde{A}_{ti}(x,q) = A_{ti}(x) \odot \sigma(\nabla_{A_{ti}}v(x,q)),$ where \odot is element-wise product and $\sigma(w) = \max(0, w)$. We remove negative gradients because they correspond to tokens that if attended to will reduce the model certainty, hence often distracting locations Selvaraju et al. (2017). Finally, we compute the gradient-weighted answer-to-image attention as the following tensor product $\tilde{A}_{si}(x,q) = \tilde{A}_{st}(x,q) \otimes \tilde{A}_{ti}(x,q) \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times L_c \times 1 \times N^2}$. We will select the same target layer identified in rel-att from $A_{si}(x,q)$ as the importance map for visual cropping.

Input Gradient ViCrop (pure-grad). In this method, we seek to find the relevant regions on the image directly using the gradient of the MLLM's decision with respect to the input image. Compared to the previous attention-based methods, pure-grad is more versatile because it does not rely on the Transformer-based architecture. Specifically, for each image-question pair (x,q), we will compute $G(x,q) = \|\nabla_x v(x,q)\|_2$, where v(x,q) is the logarithm of the maximum output probability of the LLM at the starting answer token (as defined in grad-att above), and the L2-norm is taken over the image channel dimension. However, gradients sometimes show high values in entirely constant-color regions (e.g., blue skies). Given that these non-edge regions do not contain any visual details, we will explicitly diminish them in G. To that end, we first apply a 3×3 -size Gaussian high-pass filter to the image, followed by a median filter of the same size to reduce salt-and-pepper noise. The resulting filtered image is then thresholded at its spatial median value to become a binary mask and is element-wise multiplied by G. Finally, the edge-emphasized G is spatially average-pooled into the $N \times N$ patches of the MLLM to become an importance map for visual cropping.

Bounding Box Selection for Visual Cropping. To convert the importance map (from each of the methods described above) to a bounding box, we use sliding windows of different sizes inspired by object detection literature Redmon et al. (2016). Specifically, for each MLLM, we define a set of windows with sizes equal to a multiple of the input image resolution of the MLLM. The multiples are in $\{1, 1.2, ... 2\}$. We slide each window over the image with a stride of 1 and find its best position where the sum of the importance map inside the window is maximized. After selecting the best position per window, we choose the window whose internal sum has the largest difference from the average internal sum of its adjacent positions. This latter step is a heuristic to avoid choosing too small or too large windows (notice that in both cases, moving the window slightly left/right or up/down will not change its internal sum significantly). The chosen window is then cropped from the image, resized to the input image resolution of the MLLM, and provided to the MLLM in addition to the image-question pair.

High-Resolution Visual Cropping. In one of the benchmarks we consider in this work, V^* Wu and Xie (2023), the images are of very high resolution (always more than 1K) and consequently, the resized input image provided to the MLLM might completely lose the visual concept of interest for a question. To mitigate this, on this benchmark, we employ a two-stage strategy. In the first stage, we divide images into non-overlapping blocks of smaller than 1024×1024 with an aspect ratio close to 1, compute the importance map separately for each block according to the ViCrop methods, and then re-attach the blocks back together. In the second stage, we find the bounding box for visual cropping on this re-attached importance map exactly as described before and provide the original image-question pair with the resized cropped image to the MLLM.



Figure 5: Examples of rel-att helping MLLMs correct their mistakes (cyan-colored bounding box shows cropped region by rel-att; zoom-in insets are displayed for better readability).

Table 2: Accuracy of the proposed ViCrop methods on visual question answering benchmarks.

Model		Sma	aller Visu	ial Conce	Larger Visual Concepts			
		TextVQA [†]	V*	POPE	DocVQA	AOKVQA	GQA	VQAv2
LLaVA-1.5	no cropping	47.80	42.41	85.27	15.97	59.01	60.48	75.57
	rel-att	55.17	62.30	87.25	19.63	60.66	60.97	76.51
	grad-att	56.06	57.07	87.03	19.84	59.94	60.98	76.06
	pure-grad	51.67	46.07	86.06	17.70	59.92	60.54	75.94
InstructBLIP	no cropping	33.48	35.60	84.89	9.20	60.06	49.41	76.25
	rel-att	45.44	42.41	86.64	9.95	61.28	49.75	76.84
	grad-att	45.71	37.70	86.99	10.81	61.77	50.33	76.08
	pure-grad	42.23	37.17	86.84	8.99	61.60	50.08	76.71

Table 3: Ablation study on the choice of layer and the use of high-resolution visual cropping.

Model		Cho	ice of Laye	er	High-Resolution ViCrop			
		Selective	Average	Δ	w/ High-Res	w/o High-Res	Δ	
LLaVA-1.5	no cropping rel-att grad-att pure-grad	47.80 55.17 56.06 51.67	55.45 56.26	- +0.28 +0.20	42.41 62.30 57.07 46.07	42.41 47.64 49.74 45.03	- -14.66 -7.33 -1.04	
InstructBLIP	<pre>no cropping rel-att grad-att pure-grad</pre>	33.48 45.44 45.71 42.23	- 44.40 44.98 -	-1.04 -0.73	35.60 42.41 37.70 37.17	35.60 38.74 42.41 42.41	-3.67 +4.71 +5.24	

	Model	Original	SAM	YOLO	CLIP	rel-att	grad-att	pure-grad
Accuracy (TextVQA)	LLaVA-1.5 InstructBLIP	47.80 33.48	49.42 39.23	48.84 36.49	48.55 39.61	55.17 45.44	56.06 45.71	51.67 42.23
CPU Time	LLaVA-1.5 InstructBLIP	2.26 0.66	91.53	0.97	5.46	14.43 4.35	11.33 3.78	29.86 7.04
GPU Time	LLaVA-1.5 InstructBLIP	0.17 0.06	3.33	0.35	1.07	1.16 0.28	0.89 0.29	2.36 0.60

Limitations

- 1. Questions concerning relations and counting are particularly difficult for ViCrop methods to help answer.
- 2. ViCrop can only focus on one region in the image.
- 3. Time overhead and the addition of visual tokens.