Multi-modal learning from video data has seen increased attention recently as it allows training of semantically meaningful embeddings without human annotation, enabling tasks like zero-shot retrieval and action localization. In this work, we present a multi-modal, modality agnostic fusion transformer that learns to exchange information between multiple modalities, such as video, audio, and text, and integrate them into a fused representation in a joined multi-modal embedding space. We propose to train the system with a combinatorial loss on everything at once — any combination of input modalities, such as single modalities as well as pairs of modalities, explicitly leaving out any add-ons such as position or modality encoding. At test time, the resulting model can process and fuse any number of input modalities. Moreover, the implicit properties of the transformer allow to process inputs of different lengths. To evaluate the proposed approach, we train the model on the large scale HowTo100M dataset and evaluate the resulting embedding space on four challenging benchmark datasets obtaining state-of-the-art results in zero-shot video retrieval and zero-shot video action localization. Our code for this work is also available.1

1. Introduction

Humans capture their world in various ways, combining different sensory input modalities such as vision, sound, touch, and more, to make sense of their environment. Video data approximates this type of input by combining visual and audio information as two coherent and complementary signals that can be further enhanced with a text description. Recent research has therefore started to explore how the information of those different modalities can be leveraged to learn meaningful representations from this kind of content. Such systems can be used for representation learning, for example, to learn multi-modal embedding spaces on video data [1,2], where the input of one modality such as text, can be matched to one or more other modalities such as video and audio, enabling tasks such as nearest-neighbor based zero-shot classification or video retrieval [20,37,44]. Our work in this paper focuses on the later problem, namely the learning of meaningful multi-modal embedding spaces. Current approaches in this area usually learn encodings for different modalities by projecting inputs to a common space and applying contrastive loss to bring embeddings from co-occurred modalities together. Such approaches can be based on classical neural network elements to learn those encodings [4,12,35,37,44], i.e. convolutional neural networks backbones and non-linear projections [37], multiple instance learning [35], or clustering [12]. More recently transformer based methods have also been proposed [1,10,20,32]. To generate the final embedding space, they use multiple independent single-modality self-attention transformer blocks [10,21,32], or a single transformer model for all modalities [20], or a single modality-agnostic transformer [1]. In the last approach, modalities are still processed independently and one-by-one forwarded to achieve a single-modality embedding. But so far, none of these transformers allow for adaption to any given number of input modalities.

1https://github.com/ninatu/everything_at_once
modalities. Although modality-agnostic transformers that handle multiple input modalities such as PerceiverIO [26] have been proposed, they have been constructed for learning a latent space that can cover multiple tasks in different domains. Compared to our work, the latent space in such cases mainly serves the purpose of compressing multiple inputs and tasks in one model.

In this work, we propose an approach that leverages self-attention for multi-modal learning which jointly processes any number of modalities and allows modalities to attend to each other. A high level overview our architecture is shown in Figure 1. Input tokens from one or more modalities are passed through a fusion transformer that attends features relevant for a combined input, followed by a projection to a joint multi-modal embedding space. We design and train the fusion transformer to cover three aspects of multi-modal video learning: first, it should allow modalities to attend to each other and learn multi-modal correlations; second, it should be modality-agnostic and handle any possible modality input combination; and third, as different modalities and samples can vary in length, it should be able to process input of any length. To enable the fusion transformer to address all those tasks, we follow the idea of a universal self-attention in the transformer block and share key, query, and value weights to all tokens, agnostic of their input modality. In this way, self-attentions learns which input tokens to attend from single modalities as well as from any combination of modalities in a general way.

To train the model, we propose a combinatorial loss function which considers contrastive loss between all possible and available input combinations. For example, in the case of vision, text, and audio, the loss is based on each modality embedding alone as well as based on pairwise vision-text, audio-text, and text-audio combinations as shown in Figure 1. The resulting model is thus able to fuse any number of input modalities at test time. Compared to other universal self-attention methods, we omit any meta information encoding such as position or modality embedding. This further allows us to process any input of different lengths, as we are no longer bound to a maximum input size defined at training time. Note that while we refer to this transformer as a fusion transformer, we are not proposing a new transformer architecture, but rather refer to it as a transformer that is trained in a way that enables fusion without any need for changes to the self-attention mechanism. As a result, the final modal can be used for any type of input, single modalities or combinations of multiple ones, as well as for any input length.

We evaluate the proposed approach by training the model on the HowTo100M dataset [37] and testing its zero-shot text-to-video retrieval and step action localization on four downstream datasets, namely YouCook2 [55], MSR-VTT [52], CrossTask [58] and Mining YouTube [29]. Our results show that the proposed combination of a fusion transformer together with a combinatorial loss function improves performance and leads to new state-of-the-art results. We summarize the contributions of the paper as follows:

- We propose a multi-modal fusion transformer that processes input of any combination of modalities and any length and attends relevant features with respect to cross-modal information.
- We propose a combinatorial contrastive loss that considers all possible combinations of input modalities at training time.
- We show that using such a multi-modal fusion transformer as an intermediate processing step can significantly improve performance for multi-modal embedding space learning.

2. Related Work

Multi-modal learning. The idea of learning from more than one modality can be seen as an integral part of machine learning research, comprising areas such as vision-language learning [42, 54], vision-audio learning [5–7, 13, 23, 47, 50], zero-shot learning [25, 34], cross-modal generation [33, 43, 56], as well as multi-modal multi-task learning [27]. Video naturally combines multiple modalities, while at the same time allowing to learn from large-scale data that would not be annotatable in a reasonable time. In this context, Miech et al. [37] proposed the HowTo100M dataset of narrated videos and presented a system showing the potential of multi-modal learning for learning a video-text embedding space via contrastive loss. The dataset contains YouTube instructional videos that come with audio and respective subtitles as a textual description obtained by Automatic Speech Recognition (ASR). As this data can be considered more noisy than curated vision-text datasets, Amrani et al. [4] proposed a noise estimation for multi-modal data via multi-modal density estimation. Miech et al. [35] proposed MIL-NCE, combining the idea of noise-contrastive estimation with a multiple instance learning formulation. Alwassel et al. [3] used the audio and video information only and proposed to leverage unsupervised clustering as a supervisory signal across modalities. While those works [3, 4, 35, 37] only use two modalities to train their models, others have focused on the problem of learning from vision, audio, and text at once [2, 8, 12, 19, 44]. As perhaps one of the first, Aytar et al. [8] proposed an architecture trained on image-text and image-audio pairs that allows to connect text and audio modalities. Later Alayrac et al. [2] followed the idea of different embedding spaces for different modality combinations and proposed Multi-Modal Versatile Networks. A shared embedding space was proposed by Rouditchenko et al. [44] mapping all three modalities in one joint space. This idea
has recently been extended by additional clustering and reconstruction loss by Chen et al. [12].

**Multi-modal learning with transformers.** Architectures based on self-attention and transformers have been explored to learn from multi-modal video data. Cheng et al. [15] proposed a co-attention module to learn correspondences between audio and video samples. Luo et al. [31] pick up on that idea but proposed, similar to Uniter [14] for vision-language tasks, a joint cross-modal encoding for video-text pairs. Compared to that, Bain et al. [10] focused on the problem of how to attend to temporal as well as spatial information in the video backbone. They therefore processed both modalities, video and text, in two separate transformer backbones and only added a linear mapping layer on top of the backbones. In this context, recently, Nagrani et al. [39] proposed a multi-modal bottleneck transformer for effective audio-visual fusion trained in the supervised setting. A transformer-based approach that actually uses all three modalities, and can therefore be considered closest to our proposed work, has been proposed by Akbari et al. [1]. Here, a single backbone transformer is applied to any of the modalities separately, but with shared attention. For training, the model follows the idea of [2] and computes the matching of video-audio first, followed by video-text matching. It thus fuses those modalities in a pairwise way, which can be compared to a subset of our proposed loss function. Other approaches also leverage temporal aspects in context of multi-modal transformer learning. Gabeur et al. [20] used a combination of expert and temporal embeddings to train a multi-modal transformer while Wang et al. [49] proposed a local-global temporal alignment based on multi-modal experts to guide the training. The idea of simply using a pretrained vision-language transformer model has also been explored by Lou et al. [32], using the pretrained CLIP model [42] as a backbone with a transformer-based similarity encoder on top of a vision and text backbone and achieving good results on tasks such as video retrieval. As most transformer-based method use various and sometimes not-publicly available datasets for backbone pretraining or have a need for resources that make it hard to repeat experiments, it is difficult to directly compare performance across different architectures and pretraining set. We therefore decided to follow the setup used in majority of works here and rely on pre-extracted features that are then processed by the proposed architecture to allow a direct comparison with previous works.

3. Method

Our goal is to learn a projection function of single modalities or a set of modalities into a joint embedding space in a way that semantically similar inputs would be close to each other, e.g. the projection of the text description of a video scene should be close to the projection of the video-audio representation of this scene. In the following, we consider three modalities, video, audio, and text (corresponding ASR caption or linguistic narration); but the proposed method can be extended to more modalities.

3.1. Problem Statement

Given a set of text-video-audio triplets \( \{(t_i, v_i, a_i)\}_{i=1}^{N} \in (T \times V \times A)^N \) of \( N \) video clips obtained from the data distribution, we are learning a projection \( f(\cdot, \cdot, \cdot) \) that can take up to three inputs: text \( t \), video \( v \), and audio \( a \) and produce \( d \)-dimensional embedding representation of the input. For the simplicity of the notation, we will omit missing modalities, so that \( f(t, v) \) will stand for projection \( T \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d \) and represent the joint embedding of text \( t \) and video \( v \). Our goal is to maximize the dot-product similarities between semantically related inputs \( f(t), f(v), f(a), f(t, a), f(t, v) \), \( f(v, a) \) (such as when \( t, v \), and \( a \) are from the same video clip) and minimize otherwise.

3.2. Model Architecture

3.2.1 Token Creation

As illustrated in Figure 2, our architecture starts from features extracted from modality-specific backbones. We transform sets of extracted feature vectors into token space by learnable modality-specific projections and modality-specific normalization layers [9]. As a result, for the \( (t_i, v_i, a_i) \) input triplet, we obtain three sets of tokens: \([\tau_{i1}, ..., \tau_{ik}]\) from text \( t_i \), \([\nu_{i1}, ..., \nu_{im}]\) from video \( v_i \), \([\alpha_{i1}, ..., \alpha_{in}]\) from audio \( a_i \). As the number of tokens may vary, e.g. depending on the length of the video clip, we normalize the length of inputs per batch to allow batch processing by padding and using attention masks [48]. Practically, for comparability, we follow the protocol of [37, 44] and train the model on fixed-length video clips. Technically, the model can handle clips of variable length, also with respect to different modalities, at training and at test time if needed.

3.2.2 No Positional Embeddings

Unlike other transformer-based methods [1, 10, 14, 30, 46], we omit adding any positional or type embedding information to the tokens. The reason for this is three-fold. With respect to type embedding, it can be assumed that tokens already encode this information based on the fact that they are generated by different backbones, and hence each come with their own “fingerprints.” Positional information has been shown to be beneficial in the context of consistently structured data such as sentences. But in the case of multi-modal video learning, clips are sampled randomly from a larger video sequence at training time, usually without considering shot boundaries or speech pauses. We therefore do not expect a consistent temporal pattern in the sense that a clip always starts at the beginning of an action. Thus leaving
out positional embedding might prevent adding noise during training. At inference time, avoiding the positional embedding allows us to process sequences longer than used in the training.

### 3.2.3 Multi-modal Fusion Transformer

As our goal is to learn the representations of any number and combination of input modalities, we want the projection $f$ to learn how to fuse information from multiple modalities to enhance the joint embedding representation. For this purpose, we propose a multi-modal, modality agnostic transformer, where the keys, queries, and values of the input tokens and all further transformations are computed independently from the modality. To create our multi-modal fusion transformer, we adopt regular transformer blocks [48]. Each transformer block consists of a multihead self-attention and a multilayer perceptron (MLP) with two LayerNorm (LN) transformers before them along with two residual connections, as illustrated in Figure 2. Note that the difference compared to other methods is not in the architecture itself, but in the way it is trained and the fact that the resulting fusion can actually be learned by a vanilla transformer block, if it is specifically trained for this task. Fusion transformer thus refers to the way a transformer block can be used rather than to a new architecture.

Figure 2. Schematic visualization the proposed method. While tokens from different modalities are processed in all possible combinations, we exemplarily consider the video-audio pair marked with green rectangles here. The input tokens are forwarded together through the fusion transformer layer and attended by the respective weights, which are based on the combinations of keys and queries of input tokens in various modalities. The resulting outputs of multiple heads are then concatenated and projected to the final token space, which is then used to project each modality separately into the joint embedding space. During training, we apply the model six times to obtain six embeddings corresponding to text, video, audio, text-video, text-audio, and video-audio modalities to compute the combinatorial loss.

We train the system with a combinatorial input. Namely, we apply it to joint sets of input tokens from all possible combinations of modalities: singles - $t$, $v$, $a$ and pairs - $(t,v)$, $(v,a)$, $(t,a)$, allowing tokens from one modality to attend to tokens of other modalities. In this way, we can obtain a fused representation from multiple modalities: the combination $(t,v)$ will result in a fused representation of text and video modalities denoted as $tv$, resp. for $va$ - video and audio, and $ta$ - text and audio. Note that e.g. in case of four modalities, we would consider all combinations up to a triplet $(t,v,a)$ during training. As more modalities would be added, the number of combinations would grow to the point where it might be infeasible to consider all configurations. In this case random modality dropout could be used during training as done in AVSlowFast [50] or Perceiver [26].

Since we want the fusion transformer to be modality agnostic, in each training iteration, we apply it six times to obtain six representations for each sample $i$: $t_i$, $v_i$, $a_i$, $t_i v_i$, $v_i a_i$, $t_i a_i$. To obtain each representation, we create a joint list of tokens, e.g. for $v_i a_i$: $[v_i 1, ..., v_i m, a_i 1, ..., a_i n]$. We apply the transformer to this input and obtain output tokens as e.g. $[\hat{v}_i^{va}, ..., \hat{v}_i^{va}, \hat{a}_i^{va}, ..., \hat{a}_i^{va}]$ for $v_i a_i$ (with superscript $va$ denoting that tokens were attended to both $v$ and $a$ modalities), where each token was attended with information from another tokens. Note that, unlike the ViT model [18], we do not prepend a learnable [cls] token, which usually serves as a joint representation of all tokens. In our ablation studies we show that this is beneficial for the model (Sec. 4.4).

### 3.2.4 Projection to Shared Embedding Space

With the resulting output tokens, we create the final embeddings for each modality. For each training sample, we get six output sets of tokens and thus embeddings. As an example, we consider the case of creating the representation for $v_i a_i$. We divide output tokens $[\hat{v}_i^{va}, ..., \hat{v}_i^{va}, \hat{a}_i^{va}, ..., \hat{a}_i^{va}]$ into groups based on modality: $[\hat{v}_i^{va}, ..., \hat{v}_i^{va}]$ and $[\hat{a}_i^{va}, ..., \hat{a}_i^{va}]$ and then average them: $\bar{\hat{v}}^{va}_i = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \hat{v}^{va}_{ij}$, $\bar{\hat{a}}^{va}_i = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \hat{a}^{va}_{ij}$.
\[ \sum_{j=1}^{n} \hat{g}_i^{ja} \]. As a result, we obtain a vector representation for each modality included in this computation. But since modalities, even when enhanced with other modalities, are still very different, we project them into the shared embedding space by the learnable modality-specific projections \( g_t, g_v, \) or \( g_a \) for projections for \( t, v, a \) respectively, normalize them, and then combine into a final embedding vector:

\[
 f(v_i, a_i) = \text{norm}(g_v(\hat{v}_i^{a})) + \text{norm}(g_a(\hat{a}_i^{v}))).
\]  

(1)

The normalization (“norm”) is used to align the magnitude of vectors. When computing dot product similarity, we take into account only the angle between vectors.

### 3.3. Combinatorial Loss

Contrastive loss can be used to learn representations such that semantically similar inputs are mapped close to each other. Unlike other methods [1,2,12,44] that learn how to bring modalities together by training with three pairwise single-modality contrastive losses, \( L_{t,v} \) between \((t, v)\), \( L_{t,a} \) between \((t, a)\), and \( L_{v,a} \) between \((v, a)\), we force tokens to exchange information between modalities while enabling additional contrastive losses: \( L_{t,v,a} \) between \((t, v, a)\), \( L_{t,v,a} \) between \((v, t, a)\), and \( L_{a,t,v} \) between \((a, t, v)\), and introduce our combinatorial loss:

\[
 L = \lambda_{t,v} L_{t,v} + \lambda_{v,a} L_{v,a} + \lambda_{t,a} L_{t,a} + \\
 + \lambda_{t,v,a} L_{t,v,a} + \lambda_{v,t,a} L_{v,t,a} + \lambda_{a,t,v} L_{a,t,v},
\]  

(2)

where \( \lambda_{m,ja} \) denotes a weighting coefficient of \((m, j, a)\).

Our combinatorial loss considers all possible and available modality combinations and can be generalized to any set of modalities \( M = \{m_1, ..., m_N\} \) as follows:

\[
 L = \sum_{X,Y \in \mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{M} \setminus X \setminus \emptyset} \lambda_{XY} L_{XY},
\]  

(3)

where \( L_{XY} \) is a contrastive loss between the fused representations of subsets \( X \) and \( Y \), \( \lambda_{XY} \) is a weighting coefficient.

To compute the contrastive losses for all combinations, we use Noise Contrastive Estimation [40] with temperature \( \tau \) and batch size \( B \):

\[
 \text{NCE}(x, y) = -\log \left( \frac{\exp(x^T y / \tau)}{\sum_{i=1}^{B} \exp(x_i^T y_i / \tau)} \right).
\]  

(4)

By combining both aspects, the processing of all possible modality combinations and the training of the system with the proposed combinatorial loss, we obtain a multi-modal fusion transformer that learns how to attend tokens from one modality to the tokens from all other modalities.

### 4. Experimental Evaluation

#### 4.1. Experimental Setup

If not stated otherwise, we use the following experimental setup in all our experiments and ablation studies.

#### 4.2. Datasets, Tasks, and Metrics

**Backbones.** To ensure comparability, we follow the setup of previous works [4,12,37,44] which is as follows: as visual backbone, we use a combination of ResNet-152 [24], pretrained on Imagenet [16] and compute one 2D-feature (2048-dimensional vector) per second, as well as ResNeXt-101 [22] pretrained on Kinetics [11] to get 1.5 3D-feature (2048 dim.) per second. We temporally upsample 2D-features with nearest neighbors to have the same number of features as 3D-features and concatenate them to obtain 4096-dimensional vectors. As a text backbone, GoogleNews pre-trained Word2vec model [38] is used with 300-dimensional embedding per word. These backbones are fixed and not fine-tuned during training. Following [12,44], we use a trainable CNN with residual layers as an audio backbone and adapt the last two residual blocks to extract 1.5 4096-dimensional features per second (see Supplementary Material).

**Data Sampling.** We use a batch of 224 videos and randomly sample ten 8-second clips per video. If the sampled clip contains narration (95% of all clips), we use ASR time stamps to select clip borders. To disentangle the very high text-audio correlation in HowTo100M, and to avoid text being learned just as an audio narration, we shift the audio clip randomly by 4 seconds with respect to the video and text boundaries.

**Projections.** Following [12,37,44], we use a gated linear projection [36] to project features into common token space, as well as to project resulting tokens into shared embedding space. We set the dimension of the common token space to 4096 and of the shared embedding space to 6144.

**Transformer architecture.** As a multi-modal fusion transformer, we use one transformer block with a hidden size of 4096, 64 heads, and an MLP size of 4096.

**Loss computation.** We use a temperature of 0.05 in NCE and normalize vectors prior to computing dot products. Since not every video clip has all three modalities, we computed NCE only over non-empty embeddings. Following [2], we set a larger weight for a text-visual loss in Equation 2, since it was beneficial for training on HowTo100M: \( \lambda_{t,v} = \lambda_{v,a} = \lambda_{v,a} = \lambda_{t,a} = 1 \), \( \lambda_{t,v,a} = \lambda_{t,v,a} = 0.1 \).

**Optimization.** We train all models for 15 epochs using an Adam optimizer [28] with a learning rate of 5e-5 and exponential decay of 0.9.

### 4.3. Datasets, Tasks, and Metrics

**Pretraining Dataset.** We train our model on the HowTo100M dataset [37], which contains over 1 million instructional videos with automatically generated text narrations. The text narrations can be assumed to be noisy and to not always describe the video scene [37].

**Zero-shot Text-to-video Retrieval.** We use MSR-VTT [52] and YouCook2 [55] datasets to evaluate the zero-shot text-to-video retrieval capability of our model. The YouCook2 dataset contains instructional cooking videos from YouTube with human-annotated clips (\( \sim 2 - 200 \) seconds). For eval-
Table 1. Zero-shot text-to-video retrieval results on YouCook2/MSR-VTT. In “Retrieval” column: \( v + a \) stands for averaging video and audio representations, \( \text{va} \) - our joint video-audio embedding where modalities attend to each other during embedding computation, \( t \) and \( v \) are single-modality embeddings. S3D is the S3D pretrained by MIL-NCE [35]. We include CLIP4CLIP and FrozenInTheTime for completeness, but do directly compare because of different pre-training setups. Train Mod.=Training Modalities, BB= Backbone, CC=Conceptual Captions [45], WV=WedVid-2M [10].

| Method            | Train. Mod. | Retrieval | Pre-train. Dataset | Visual BB | Trainable BB | YouCook2 | MSR-VTT |
|-------------------|-------------|-----------|--------------------|-----------|--------------|----------|---------|
|                   | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M | Res3D+R-CNN | t \( v \ a \) | R@1 | R@5 | R@10 | MedR | R@1 | R@5 | R@10 | MedR |
| ActBERT [57]      | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M | R-CNN | 9.6 | 26.7 | 38.0 | 19 | 8.6 | 23.4 | 33.1 | 36 |
| Support Set [31]  | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M | R152+R22+1D-34 | ✓ | - | - | - | 8.7 | 23.0 | 31.1 | 31 |
| HT100M [37]       | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M | R152+R101 | 6.1 | 17.3 | 24.8 | 46 | 7.5 | 21.2 | 29.6 | 38 |
| NoiseEstim. [4]   | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M | R152+R101 | - | - | - | - | 8.4 | 22.0 | 30.4 | 36 |
| Ours              | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M | R152+R101 | 11.2 | 26.5 | 39.7 | 19 | 9.6 | 26.1 | 36.1 | 23 |
| HT100M            | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M | R152+R101 | ✓ | 10.7 | 27.9 | 38.9 | 19 | 10.3 | 24.6 | 35.3 | 25 |
| MTM [20]          | t \( \rightarrow va \) | t \( \rightarrow va \) | HT100M | 7 experts | ✓ | - | - | - | - | 14.4 | - | 66 |
| AVLNNet [44]      | t \( \rightarrow v + a \) | t \( \rightarrow v + a \) | HT100M | R152+R101 | ✓ | 19.9 | 36.1 | 44.3 | 16 | 8.3 | 19.2 | 27.4 | 47 |
| MCN [12]          | t \( \rightarrow v + a \) | t \( \rightarrow v + a \) | HT100M | R152+R101 | ✓ | 18.1 | 35.5 | 45.2 | - | 10.5 | 25.2 | 33.8 | - |
| Ours              | t \( \rightarrow v + a \) | t \( \rightarrow v + a \) | HT100M | R152+R101 | ✓ | 20.0 | 40.7 | 51.3 | 10 | 8.9 | 23.8 | 31.8 | 30 |
| Models with a stronger visual backbone: |
| MVV [2]           | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M+AudioSet | TSM-50x2 | ✓ | 11.7 | 33.4 | 45.4 | 13 | 9.3 | 23.0 | 31.1 | 38 |
| VATT [12]         | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M+AudioSet | Transformer | ✓ | ✓ | - | - | - | 45.5 | 13 | - | - | 29.7 | 49 |
| MIL-NCE [35]      | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M | S3D | ✓ | 15.1 | 38.0 | 51.2 | 10 | 9.9 | 24.0 | 32.4 | 29.5 |
| Ours              | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M | S3D | ✓ | 19.8 | 42.9 | 55.1 | 8 | 9.9 | 24.0 | 32.6 | 28 |
| Ours              | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M | S3D | ✓ | 24.6 | 48.3 | 60.4 | 6 | 9.3 | 22.9 | 31.2 | 35 |
| FrozenInTheTime   | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M+AudioSet | Transformer | ✓ | ✓ | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| FrozenInTheTime   | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M+AudioSet | CLIP | ✓ | ✓ | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| CLIP4Clip [4]     | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M | CC+VV+COCO | ✓ | ✓ | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |

Table 2. Text-to-video retrieval on YouCook2/MSR-VTT in the fine-tune setting. In “Retrieval” column: \( v + a \) stands for averaging video and audio representations, \( \text{va} \) - our joint video-audio embedding where modalities attend to each other during embedding computation, \( t \) and \( v \) are single-modality embeddings. Train Mod.=Training Modalities, BB=Backbone, CC=Conceptual Captions [45], WV=WedVid-2M [10].

| Method            | Train. Mod. | Retrieval | Pre-train. Dataset | Visual BB | Trainable BB | YouCook2 | MSR-VTT |
|-------------------|-------------|-----------|--------------------|-----------|--------------|----------|---------|
|                   | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M | Res3D+R-CNN | t \( v \ a \) | R@1 | R@5 | R@10 | MedR | R@1 | R@5 | R@10 | MedR |
| ActBERT [57]      | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M | R-CNN | 8.2 | 24.5 | 35.3 | 24 | 14.9 | 40.2 | 52.8 | 9 |
| HT100M [37]       | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M | R152+R101 | 13.7 | 35.3 | 48.4 | 12 | 21.0 | 49.3 | 60.1 | 5 |
| NoiseEstim. [4]   | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M | R152+R101 | ✓ | 12.7 | 33.9 | 45.8 | 13 | 20.4 | 47.7 | 59.3 | 6 |
| Ours              | t \( \rightarrow v \) | t \( \rightarrow v \) | HT100M | R152+R101 | ✓ | 30.2 | 55.5 | 66.5 | 4 | 22.5 | 50.5 | 64.1 | 5 |
| AVLNNet [44]      | t \( \rightarrow v + a \) | t \( \rightarrow v + a \) | HT100M | R152+R101 | ✓ | 28.2 | 53.0 | 63.7 | 5 | - | - | - | - |
| MCN [12]          | t \( \rightarrow v + a \) | t \( \rightarrow v + a \) | HT100M | R152+R101 | ✓ | 32.1 | 59.1 | 70.9 | 3 | 23.7 | 52.1 | 63.7 | 4 |

Text-to-video Retrieval after Fine-tuning. We additionally evaluate the retrieval performance of the models fine-tuned on downstream tasks. Following [44], we used 9,586 training clips to fine-tune the model on the YouCook2 dataset, and 6,783 training clips that contain the audio (out of 7,000 proposed by [37]) to fine-tune model on the MSR-VTT.

Zero-shot Step Action Localization. We further evaluate our model on zero-shot step action localization tasks on two datasets: CrossTask [58] and Mining YouTube [29]. The CrossTask dataset consists of 2.7k instructional videos over 18 different tasks. The Mining YouTube dataset provides 250 testing cooking video equipped with an ordered list of action steps. To perform step localization, we use a sliding window and compute the similarity between the current video segment and all step names of the task. Following the inference procedure in [58], we obtain the final labeling by running dynamic programming to find the best labeling with respect to the given order of steps based on similarities. We report average recall over all tasks as defined in [58]. For both datasets, we use a 3-second sliding window with 1-second step and predict the action for the central time-stamp using a fused \( \text{va} \) representation.

4.3. Comparison with State-of-the-art

Zero-shot Text-to-video Retrieval. First, we assess the performance of the learned multi-modal representation in context of zero-shot text-to-video retrieval task on YouCook2.
and MSR-VTT datasets as shown in Table 1. In case of the YouCook2 dataset, our method achieves state-of-the-art results over all baselines, including methods with trainable visual and text backbones or a stronger visual backbone as well as methods that do not train the visual backbone. Particularly, our approach improves the AVLnet [44] and MCN [12] baselines that use the same visual, text, and audio backbone and also train with three modalities by increasing R@10 from 45.2% to 51.3%. For MSR-VTT however, it shows that a fusion of video and audio modalities is not so beneficial and best performance is reached when considering only text to video retrieval and leaving out audio information. We attribute this behaviour to the domain shift between HowTo100M and MSR-VTT datasets as audio of the HowTo100M dataset mainly contains speech and text as a transcription of speech, while in MSR-VTT, audio can be much less related to the textual description. This assumption is supported by the fact that best-performing methods on MSR-VTT do not use HowTo100M for training at all, such as FrozenInTime [10] or CLIP4CLIP [32]. Notably, we can further strengthen our model on YouCook2 by leveraging a stronger backbone such as S3D [51], pre-trained on HowTo100M by MIL-NCE [35], reaching R@10 over 60%. Again, these results show that this better adaptation to HowTo100M does not necessarily translate to better results on MSR-VTT. In the supplement we additionally include experiments with a stronger CLIP [42] backbone.

Text-to-video Retrieval after Fine-tuning. We further evaluated the retrieval performance after fine-tuning on downstream tasks in Table 2. Note that, since several experimental splits were proposed for the MSVT-VTT dataset, we report only baselines that used the same training split as us for a fair comparison. Results demonstrate that the proposed method clearly outperforms prior works on both datasets. Moreover, after finetuning on the MSR-VTT, the model greatly improves performance by utilizing an audio channel.

Zero-shot Step Action Localization. We further evaluate our methods on zero-shot step action localization on the CrossTask and the MiningYouTube (MYT) datasets in Table 3. As video representations we again use the fused video and audio modalities. These results show that the proposed approach clearly outperforms the directly comparable MCN approach on both datasets, as well as a fully supervised baseline CrossTask [58], HT100M [37] and MIL-NCE [35] with a trainable I3D visual backbone [35]. Moreover, with a stronger S3D backbone our model also gains improvement over MIL-NCE and is comparable to UniVL (with a trainable backbone) and ActBERT (with additional region-based features from Faster-R-CNN).

4.4. Ablation Studies

Impact of fusion components. We first address the question of how the proposed components: transformer layer, transformer fusion, and combinatorial loss, impact the overall performance of our system. To this end, in Table 4 we considered the following architectures: 1) no transformers: our architecture without transformer and with three pairwise contrastive losses; 2) single modality transformer: using three separate modality-specific transformer layers to learn three projection functions; 3) fusion transformer: using the proposed modality agnostic transformer but trained with three pairwise contrastive losses without fused modality components; 4) fusion transformer + comb. loss: using the proposed modality agnostic transformer with combinatorial input, trained with combinatorial loss to obtain the proposed method. Schematic visualization of these four setups is included in the supplement. We further consider two ways to forward two modalities, first by forwarding them separately and summing up both outputs, while va for forwarding both modalities together allowing them to attend to each other.

Table 3. Zero-shot action localization performance on CrossTask/MiningYouTube (MYT). S3D stands for independently extracting video and audio embeddings and summing up both outputs, while va for forwarding both modalities together allowing them to attend to each other.

| Configuration | Retrieval | YouCook2 R@5 | MSR-VTT R@5 |
|---------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|
| 1) no transformers | t → v + a | 32.7 | 24.1 |
| 2) single mod. transformer per mod. | t → v + a | 39.9 | 25.3 |
| 3) fusion transformer | t → v + a | 39.5 | 23.8 |
| 4) fusion transformer | t → v | 36.6 | 22.6 |
| 5) fusion transf. + comb. loss | t → v + a | 38.2 | 23.3 |
| 6) fusion transf. + comb. loss (ours) | t → v | 40.7 | 23.8 |

Table 4. Evaluation of the contribution of the proposed fusion transformer and the combinatorial loss. In “Retrieval” column: v + a stands for independently extracting video and audio embeddings and summing up both outputs, while va for forwarding both modalities together allowing them to attend to each other.

| Method | Tr. Mod. | Tr. BB | Visual Backbone | Recall↑ |
|--------|----------|--------|-----------------|---------|
| CrossTask [58] | tv | R152 + I3D | 31.6 | 15.0 |
| HT100M [37] | tv | R152 + RX101 | 33.6 | 15.0 |
| MIL-NCE [35] | tv | ✓ | I3D | 36.4 | 19.4 |
| MCN [12] | tv | ✓ | R152 + RX101 | 35.1 | 18.1 |
| Ours | tv | ✓ | R152 + RX101 | 39.3 | 19.4 |

Table 5. Models with a stronger visual backbone.
Token Aggregation and Projection. We further evaluate the impact of separate processing of output tokens compared to aggregating information in the \([\text{cls}]\) token. To this end, we compare our model architecture to a setup with a shared final projection, as well as a setup with an additional \([\text{cls}]\) input token (similarly to BERT [17]). In the last scenario, we use the output \([\text{cls}]\) of the multi-modal fusion transformer as an aggregated representation of input tokens and apply the final shared projection to map it into the shared embedding space. At shown in Table 5, our modality-specific projections with no \([\text{cls}]\) token benefit over others options on both datasets.

Positional Embedding and Testing on Longer Clips. Finally, we address the question how the option of having random length inputs impacts the overall performance of the model at test time. We consider four different scenarios for testing on longer clips as shown in Table 6: 1) uniform sampling - after obtaining initial local features from backbones, features are uniformly sampled to fit the maximum number of tokens; 2) max-pooling - local features are merged via adaptive max-pooling; 3) averaging over clips comprises slicing a longer clip into train-time-length clips and averaging obtained representations; 4) video at once considers processing all features at once as proposed. We further compare the first three settings in a scenario with positional embedding to no positional embedding. As positional embedding on both datasets. Looking at results of different processing strategies, we find that our model benefits from leveraging local temporal dependencies in data via slicing a video clip into shorter clips or video at once compared to max-pooling, uniform sampling. Moreover, utilizing all input data at video at once further significantly boosts performance.

Attention Analysis. Finally, we qualitatively analyze the fusion capability of our multi-modal transformer. In Figure 3 we show the average attention for query-key pairs of tokens from different modalities. We observe that some heads have a strong attention for single-modality fusion, mostly for \(t\) and \(v\) modalities, and in between, some heads are responsible for cross-modal attention.

5. Limitations and Conclusion

In this work, we propose a multi-modal, modality agnostic fusion transformer approach that learns to exchange information between multiple modalities, such as video, audio, and text, and to integrate them into a joined multi-modal representation. We show that training the system with a combinatorial loss on any possible combinations of modalities allows the fusion transformer to learn a strong multi-modal embedding space leaving out any add-ons such as position encoding. A clear limitation of the system becomes evident when looking at the performance difference on two downstream datasets, YouCook2 and MSR-VTT, showing that a strong attention for single-modality fusion, mostly for \(t\) and \(v\) modalities, and in between, some heads are responsible for cross-modal attention.

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