

001 **Event-VLM: A Scalable and Efficient Framework**
002 **for Real-time Accident Explanation in Large-scale**
003 **Surveillance Systems**

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006 **Abstract.** Recent Vision-Language Models (VLMs) have demonstrated
007 remarkable capabilities in understanding complex visual scenes. However,
008 deploying them in real-world surveillance systems remains challenging
009 due to the prohibitive computational cost required to process hundreds
010 of concurrent video streams. Existing methods either sacrifice detailed
011 understanding for speed or suffer from high latency, making them unsuit-
012 able for real-time accident detection. To address this dilemma, we pro-
013 pose **Event-VLM**, a cascaded framework designed for scalable and effi-
014 cient video understanding with *hazard-aware* optimization. Our approach
015 introduces four key innovations: (1) An *Event-Triggered Gating Mechanism*
016 with risk-sensitive detection loss that prioritizes life-threatening
017 events; (2) A *Knowledge-Guided Token Pruning* module with adaptive
018 dilation for amorphous hazards (e.g., fire, smoke), reducing computa-
019 tional FLOPs by **75%** in a training-free manner; (3) *Hazard-Priority*
020 *Prompting* that dynamically selects specialized prompts based on event
021 severity; and (4) lightweight domain adaptation requiring only <0.1%
022 trainable parameters. Extensive experiments on UCFCrime and XD-
023 Violence datasets demonstrate that our method achieves comparable
024 accident explanation quality to state-of-the-art VLMs while boosting in-
025 ference throughput by **9×**.

026 **Keywords:** Vision-Language Models, Efficient Video Understanding,
027 Surveillance, Token Pruning, Real-time System

028 **1 Introduction**

029 *The Paradigm Shift.* Recent advancements in Large Vision-Language Models
030 (VLMs), such as LLaVA [33] and GPT-4V [38], have revolutionized computer
031 vision by enabling systems not only to localize objects but to reason about
032 complex visual scenes with human-level semantics. In the domain of Intelligent
033 Surveillance Systems (ISS), this paradigm shift offers a transformative opportu-
034 nity: moving beyond simple object detection (e.g., “a person detected”) to com-
035 prehensive *accident explanation* (e.g., “a worker has collapsed due to a falling
036 object”). Such detailed semantic understanding is critical for timely intervention
037 in high-risk environments like construction sites and shipyards, where under-
038 standing the *cause* and *context* of an event is as important as detecting its
039 occurrence.

The Scalability Bottleneck. However, deploying these powerful VLMs in real-world surveillance presents a fundamental **scalability bottleneck**. Unlike static image analysis, surveillance systems must process continuous, high-resolution video streams from hundreds of concurrent channels. Standard VLMs, built upon the Vision Transformer (ViT) [11] architecture, suffer from quadratic computational complexity regarding the number of visual tokens. For instance, processing a single video stream with a 7B-parameter VLM can consume significant GPU memory and incur high latency, making it computationally prohibitive to scale to city-wide or factory-wide camera networks. Consequently, current approaches are forced to compromise: they either use lightweight detectors that lack semantic understanding [22, 48] or rely on heavy VLMs that operate far below real-time requirements [56].

Limitations of Existing Work. To mitigate these costs, recent studies have focused on temporal efficiency. Methods like SeViLA [54] employ a “keyframe selection” strategy, identifying and processing only the most informative frames. While effective in reducing temporal redundancy, these methods overlook a critical characteristic of surveillance footage: **spatial redundancy**. In a typical CCTV view, the vast majority of the pixel space (e.g., walls, sky, empty roads) remains static or irrelevant to the safety hazard. Feeding these non-informative “background tokens” into a computationally expensive VLM represents a significant waste of resources. Furthermore, existing token pruning methods—both learnable (DynamicViT [40], EViT [27]) and training-free (ToMe [4])—operate on statistical importance (attention scores, similarity) without domain knowledge, often failing to preserve small but critical hazard cues essential for accident analysis.

Our Approach: Event-VLM. To bridge the gap between deep semantic understanding and real-time scalability, we propose **Event-VLM**, a cascaded framework designed to minimize computational waste in both temporal and spatial dimensions. Our core insight is that “*computation should be allocated only where the event occurs.*” First, we introduce an **Event-Triggered Gating** mechanism using a lightweight detector [22] with risk-sensitive loss to filter out background frames while maximizing recall on critical hazards. Second, we propose a **Knowledge-Guided Token Pruning** module that leverages detection priors (bounding boxes) to explicitly mask out irrelevant background tokens *before* they enter the heavy VLM backbone. Unlike attention-based pruning [4, 40], our approach preserves hazard tokens regardless of statistical prominence, reducing the token count by **75%** without retraining. Finally, we employ **Hazard-Priority Prompting** inspired by prompt tuning methods [20, 21, 58] to dynamically select specialized prompts based on detected hazard severity.

Contributions. Our main contributions are summarized as follows:

- We propose **Event-VLM**, the first hazard-aware VLM framework specifically optimized for large-scale, real-time surveillance systems, featuring end-to-end optimization from detection to explanation.

- We introduce a **Risk-Sensitive Detection Loss** and **Adaptive Spatial Pruning** strategy that explicitly accounts for hazard severity and object morphology, ensuring high recall on critical events while minimizing computational overhead.
- We propose **Hazard-Priority Prompting** that dynamically adapts the VLM’s reasoning focus based on detected hazard types, enabling specialized analysis for different safety scenarios.
- Extensive experiments on UCFCrime and XD-Violence datasets demonstrate that our method achieves **9 \times** higher throughput compared to standard VLM baselines while maintaining 99% caption quality.

2 Related Work

2.1 Large Vision-Language Models

The convergence of computer vision and natural language processing has led to the emergence of Large Vision-Language Models (VLMs) capable of performing complex multimodal reasoning. CLIP [39] pioneered the alignment of visual and textual representations through contrastive learning on 400 million image-text pairs, establishing a foundation for zero-shot visual recognition. Building upon this, generative models such as Flamingo [1] and BLIP-2 [25] introduced architectural innovations (perceiver resampler and Q-Former, respectively) to bridge frozen image encoders with LLMs. The LLaVA family [31–33] demonstrated that simple projection-based architectures can achieve remarkable visual instruction following, while InstructBLIP [9] and MiniGPT-4 [59] explored instruction tuning for enhanced controllability. More recently, Qwen-VL [2] and CogVLM [49] introduced visual experts and fine-grained grounding capabilities. GPT-4V [38] and PaLI [6] further pushed the boundaries with proprietary large-scale training.

For video understanding, Video-LLAMA [56] and VideoChat [26] extended image-based VLMs with temporal modeling, while VILA [29] showed that incorporating video data during pre-training significantly improves temporal reasoning. Video-LLaVA [28] proposed unified visual representation learning, and TimeChat [41] introduced time-sensitive understanding for long videos. However, these models typically employ heavy visual encoders (e.g., ViT-L/14 [11]) with billion-parameter LLMs, creating substantial computational demands. The foundational attention mechanism [47] underlying these models incurs quadratic complexity, making real-time deployment challenging in resource-constrained surveillance systems.

2.2 Efficient Vision Transformers and Token Pruning

To address the quadratic complexity of self-attention in Vision Transformers [11, 18, 35], various efficiency techniques have been proposed.

Static and Dynamic Pruning. DynamicViT [40] introduced learnable prediction modules that progressively discard uninformative tokens during inference. EViT [27] reorganized tokens by fusing less attentive ones into a single representative token, preserving global context. SPViT [24] proposed latency-aware

soft pruning optimized for deployment. More recently, ATS [13] enabled adaptive token sampling without additional training, while EfficientViT [34] combined cascaded group attention with token pruning.

Token Merging and Hierarchical Attention. ToMe [4] proposed a training-free approach that gradually merges similar tokens based on key-value similarity, achieving $2\times$ speedup without retraining. FasterViT [19] introduced hierarchical attention to process tokens at multiple granularities. The Swin Transformer [35] and PVT [50] pioneered hierarchical vision transformers with shifted windows and pyramid structures, respectively.

Efficient Architectures. Beyond pruning, architectural innovations include DeiT [45] for data-efficient training, LeViT [16] for hybrid CNN-Transformer designs, MobileFormer [8] for mobile deployment, and PoolFormer [55] demonstrating that the MetaFormer architecture itself drives performance.

Temporal Efficiency for Video. For video understanding, SeViLA [54] employed a self-chained localization mechanism to identify informative keyframes. FAST-VQA [51] used fragment sampling to reduce temporal redundancy. Slow-Fast [14] and TimeSformer [3] proposed dual-pathway and divided space-time attention for efficient video recognition. FlashAttention [10] optimized the attention mechanism at the hardware level for memory efficiency.

Limitations for Safety-Critical Applications. Despite their effectiveness, existing pruning methods rely on statistical importance (attention scores, feature similarity) without semantic understanding. In safety-critical scenarios, small but crucial hazards (e.g., a distant spark, falling debris) may have low statistical prominence and risk being pruned. Our **Knowledge-Guided Token Pruning** addresses this by leveraging explicit object detection priors from lightweight detectors [22, 30, 48], ensuring semantically important regions are preserved regardless of their statistical characteristics.

152 2.3 Vision-Language Models for Anomaly Detection

153 Traditional Video Anomaly Detection (VAD) methods relied on reconstruction
 154 errors [37, 42] or temporal feature learning [5, 14, 44, 46], lacking semantic inter-
 155 pretability. The seminal work of Sultani et al. [42] introduced weakly-supervised
 156 VAD with Multiple Instance Learning on the UCF-Crime dataset. RTFM [44]
 157 improved feature magnitude learning, while MIST [15] proposed self-training for
 158 better pseudo-labels. The XD-Violence dataset [52] extended VAD to multimodal
 159 settings with audio-visual cues. MGPN [7] introduced magnitude-contrastive
 160 learning, and UMIL [36] addressed bias in weakly-supervised detection.

161 Recently, the integration of VLMs has enabled explainable anomaly detec-
 162 tion. AnomalyGPT [17] fine-tuned VLMs on industrial defect datasets using
 163 prompt tuning techniques [20, 21, 58]. Holmes-VAD [57] proposed multi-modal
 164 LLM-based detection with chain-of-thought reasoning. VADCLIP [53] adapted
 165 CLIP for weakly-supervised VAD without extensive fine-tuning. However, these
 166 approaches operate under the assumption of **offline processing** or **single-**
 167 **stream inputs**, utilizing the full computational power of the VLM for every
 168 query.

Table 1: Comparison of Efficiency Strategies. Event-VLM uniquely achieves temporal and spatial efficiency with training-free, domain-aware optimization.

Method	Venue	Temporal	Spatial	Train-free	Domain
DynamicViT [40]	NeurIPS'21	-	✓	-	-
EViT [27]	ICLR'22	-	✓	-	-
SPViT [24]	ECCV'22	-	✓	-	-
ToMe [4]	ICLR'23	-	✓	✓	-
SeViLA [54]	NeurIPS'23	✓	-	-	-
AnomalyGPT [17]	AAAI'24	-	-	-	✓
Holmes-VAD [57]	CVPR'25	-	-	-	✓
Event-VLM	-	✓	✓	✓	✓

Event-VLM differs fundamentally by adopting a *system-level* optimization perspective: we treat the heavy VLM as an on-demand resource, invoked only when triggered by potential hazards and processing only semantically relevant visual regions. This cascaded design enables scalable real-time performance across hundreds of concurrent camera streams, bridging the gap between powerful VLM understanding and practical surveillance deployment [12, 23, 43].

2.4 Discussion: Positioning of Event-VLM

Table 1 summarizes our positioning relative to existing methods. While temporal-only methods (SeViLA) miss spatial redundancy and spatial-only methods (ToMe, DynamicViT) lack domain awareness, Event-VLM uniquely combines both dimensions with hazard-aware optimization. Notably, our spatial pruning is **training-free** (unlike DynamicViT, SPViT) and leverages **semantic priors** (unlike ToMe’s statistical similarity), making it particularly suitable for safety-critical surveillance where missing a hazard is unacceptable.

3 Method

3.1 Overview

Our goal is to design a video understanding framework that processes continuous surveillance streams $\mathcal{V} = \{\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2, \dots\}$ in real-time while generating accurate accident descriptions \mathbf{Y} . As illustrated in Fig. 1, **Event-VLM** operates in a cascaded manner consisting of three stages: (1) *Event-Triggered Gating* (\mathcal{F}_{gate}) filters out background frames; (2) *Knowledge-Guided Token Pruning* (\mathcal{F}_{prune}) drastically reduces visual tokens based on detector priors; and (3) *Context-Aware Generation* (\mathcal{F}_{gen}) produces safety-centric descriptions. The overall inference process for a frame \mathbf{X}_t can be formulated as:

$$\mathbf{Y}_t = \mathcal{F}_{gen}(\mathcal{F}_{prune}(\mathbf{X}_t, \mathcal{B}_t) \mid \mathcal{P}_{ctx}) \quad \text{if } \mathcal{F}_{gate}(\mathbf{X}_t) = 1, \quad (1)$$

where \mathcal{B}_t represents the detected object bounding boxes and \mathcal{P}_{ctx} denotes the learnable context prompts.

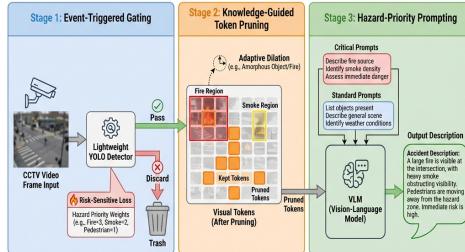


Fig. 1: Overview of the Event-VLM Framework. Our system processes high-throughput surveillance streams via a cascaded three-stage hazard-aware approach: (1) **Event-Triggered Gating** with risk-sensitive detection loss prioritizes critical hazards. (2) **Knowledge-Guided Token Pruning** with adaptive dilation preserves context for amorphous objects. (3) **Hazard-Priority Prompting** dynamically selects specialized prompts based on event severity.

196 3.2 Stage 1: Event-Triggered Gating

197 Processing every frame with a VLM is computationally redundant in surveil-
 198 lance scenarios where critical events are sparse. We employ a lightweight object
 199 detector (e.g., YOLOv8-Nano) as a *Trigger Module*. For an input frame \mathbf{X}_t , the
 200 detector predicts a set of bounding boxes $\mathcal{B}_t = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_N\}$ and correspond-
 201 ing class scores $\mathcal{S}_t = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_N\}$. We define a binary indicator function
 202 \mathbb{I}_{event} to determine whether to invoke the heavy VLM:

$$203 \quad \mathbb{I}_{event}(\mathbf{X}_t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \exists k, s_k > \tau_{conf} \text{ and } c_k \in \mathcal{C}_{hazard} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

204 where τ_{conf} is a confidence threshold and \mathcal{C}_{hazard} is a predefined set of hazard-
 205 related classes (e.g., person, forklift, fire). If $\mathbb{I}_{event}(\mathbf{X}_t) = 0$, the frame is dis-
 206 carded immediately, incurring negligible computational cost.

207 **Risk-Sensitive Detection Loss.** A critical concern in cascaded inference is
 208 error propagation: if the trigger misses a hazard, the VLM is never invoked. To
 209 mitigate this, we propose a *Risk-Sensitive Detection Loss* that prioritizes high-
 210 risk categories during detector training. We partition \mathcal{C}_{hazard} into severity tiers:
 211 $\mathcal{C}_{critical}$ (fire, smoke, collapse), \mathcal{C}_{high} (forklift, heavy machinery), and $\mathcal{C}_{standard}$

Figure 1: Hazard-Aware Components Detail

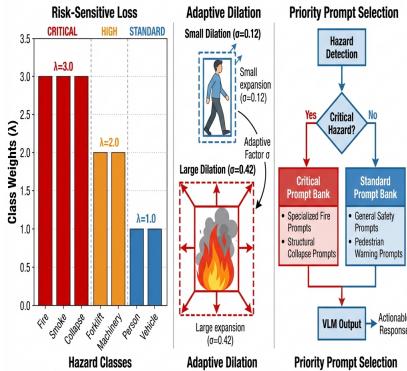


Fig. 2: Hazard-Aware Components Detail. (Left) Risk-sensitive loss assigns higher weights to critical hazard classes. (Center) Adaptive dilation expands context proportionally to intraclass shape variance. (Right) Priority prompt selection routes critical events to specialized prompt banks.

(person, vehicle). The training objective becomes:

$$\mathcal{L}_{detect} = \sum_{k=1}^N w(c_k) \cdot \mathcal{L}_{focal}(p_k, y_k), \quad (3)$$

where the hazard weight $w(c_k)$ is defined as:

$$w(c_k) = \begin{cases} \lambda_{crit} & \text{if } c_k \in \mathcal{C}_{critical} \\ \lambda_{high} & \text{if } c_k \in \mathcal{C}_{high} \\ 1.0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

By setting $\lambda_{crit} > \lambda_{high} > 1$, we bias the detector towards higher recall on life-threatening events, accepting a controlled increase in false positives for non-critical classes.

3.3 Stage 2: Knowledge-Guided Token Pruning

Standard VLMs process the entire image as a sequence of patch tokens, regardless of semantic density. We propose to prune background tokens explicitly using the localization priors obtained from Stage 1. This is a training-free operation that ensures high efficiency.

Tokenization and Mapping. Let the Vision Encoder (e.g., ViT) divide the frame $\mathbf{X}_t \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3}$ into a sequence of L patches $\mathbf{Z} = \{z_1, \dots, z_L\}$, where $L = (H/P) \times (W/P)$ and P is the patch size. Each bounding box $b_k \in \mathcal{B}_t$ is defined by coordinates (x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) . We map these coordinates to the patch grid indices to define the *Region of Interest (RoI)*.

Dynamic Mask Generation. We construct a binary importance mask $\mathbf{M} \in \{0, 1\}^L$ for the token sequence. A token z_i is preserved if its corresponding patch location overlaps with any expanded bounding box in \mathcal{B}_t . Formally, let $\Omega(b_k)$ be the set of patch indices covered by box b_k . The mask is defined as:

$$\mathbf{M}_i = \mathbb{I}\left(i \in \bigcup_k \Omega(b_k)\right). \quad (5)$$

Adaptive Dilation for Amorphous Objects. A key observation is that not all hazards have well-defined boundaries. Amorphous objects such as fire and smoke exhibit high *intraclass shape variance*—their visual appearance changes continuously, and bounding box annotations are inherently ambiguous. Applying a fixed dilation ratio α to such objects risks losing critical contextual information. We propose an *Adaptive Dilation* strategy that adjusts the expansion factor based on class-specific shape characteristics:

$$\alpha_k = \alpha_{base} \cdot (1 + \beta \cdot \sigma_{shape}(c_k)), \quad (6)$$

where $\sigma_{shape}(c_k)$ denotes the normalized intraclass shape variance of class c_k , precomputed from training data using IoU statistics across instances. For amorphous classes (fire: $\sigma = 0.42$, smoke: $\sigma = 0.38$), the effective dilation is significantly larger than for rigid objects (person: $\sigma = 0.12$, vehicle: $\sigma = 0.08$). This ensures that the VLM receives sufficient visual context to reason about the spread and intensity of hazards with uncertain boundaries, while maintaining efficiency for well-localized objects.

Pruning Operation. Using the mask \mathbf{M} , we perform the pruning operation $\text{Gather}(\cdot)$ to obtain a reduced sequence of visual tokens $\hat{\mathbf{Z}}$:

$$\hat{\mathbf{Z}} = \{z_i \mid \mathbf{M}_i = 1\} \cup \{z_{cls}\}, \quad (7)$$

where z_{cls} is the special class token. The length of $\hat{\mathbf{Z}}$ is $L' \ll L$. This reduced sequence is then fed into the subsequent Transformer layers. Since the VLM backbone (e.g., LLaVA) uses causal or bidirectional attention, processing $\hat{\mathbf{Z}}$ reduces the complexity of the self-attention mechanism from $\mathcal{O}(L^2)$ to $\mathcal{O}(L'^2)$.

3.4 Stage 3: Context-Aware Prompt Tuning

General-purpose VLMs often generate generic descriptions (e.g., “a man is lying down”) rather than safety-critical reports (e.g., “a worker has fainted”). To adapt the model to the industrial domain without the high cost of full fine-tuning, we employ *Soft Prompt Tuning*.

We introduce a set of learnable vectors $\mathcal{P}_{ctx} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times D}$, where K is the prompt length and D is the embedding dimension. These prompts are prepended to the

263 text embeddings. The objective is to maximize the likelihood of the ground-truth
 264 safety caption \mathbf{Y} :

$$265 \quad \mathcal{L} = - \sum_{j=1}^{|\mathbf{Y}|} \log P_\theta(y_j \mid y_{<j}, \hat{\mathbf{Z}}, \mathcal{P}_{ctx}), \quad (8) \quad 265$$

266 where θ represents the frozen parameters of the VLM. During training, we only
 267 update \mathcal{P}_{ctx} , making the adaptation extremely parameter-efficient.

268 **Hazard-Priority Prompting.** Different hazard types require different levels of
 269 descriptive granularity. A fire event demands detailed analysis of ignition source
 270 and spread direction, while a simple PPE violation requires only object pres-
 271 ence verification. We introduce a *Hazard-Priority Prompting* mechanism that
 272 dynamically selects from a hierarchical prompt bank:

$$273 \quad \mathcal{P}_{active} = \begin{cases} \mathcal{P}_{critical} & \text{if } \max_k w(c_k) \geq \lambda_{crit} \\ \mathcal{P}_{standard} & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (9) \quad 273$$

274 where $\mathcal{P}_{critical}$ contains specialized prompts (e.g., “Analyze the fire hazard: iden-
 275 tify ignition source, affected area, and recommended evacuation direction”) and
 276 $\mathcal{P}_{standard}$ contains general safety prompts. This event-driven selection ensures
 277 that the VLM’s reasoning capacity is directed towards the aspects most relevant
 278 to each hazard type.

279 4 Experiments

280 4.1 Experimental Setup

281 **Datasets.** We evaluate our framework on two large-scale video anomaly detec-
 282 tion datasets:

- 283 – **UCF-Crime** [42]: A large-scale dataset consisting of 1,900 real-world surveil-
 284 lance videos covering 13 types of anomalies (e.g., Fighting, Explosion, Road
 285 Accidents).
- 286 – **XD-Violence** [52]: A multi-modal dataset collected from movies and games,
 287 focusing on violent events with audio-visual signals. We use the video modal-
 288 ity for evaluation.

289 Since these datasets primarily provide frame-level binary labels, we enriched a
 290 subset of the test set (approx. 500 clips) with manual dense captions to evaluate
 291 the “Accident Explanation” capability, following the protocol in [17].

Table 2: Main Results on UCF-Crime Dataset. Our Event-VLM achieves a superior trade-off between accuracy and efficiency. Note that ‘Method’ implies the token reduction strategy. Speed is measured on an RTX 5080.

Model	Method	AUC (%)	CIDEr	GFLOPs ↓	FPS ↑
<i>Traditional VAD</i>					
Sultani et al. [42]	C3D	75.4	-	0.8	320
RTFM [44]	I3D	84.3	-	2.1	145
<i>Large VLMs</i>					
Video-LLaMA [56]	Full Frame	81.5	82.3	450.2	3.5
LLaVA-1.5 [33]	Frame-by-Frame	85.0	90.1	180.5	5.2
<i>Efficient VLMs</i>					
SeViLA [54]	Keyframe Selection	84.5	88.0	108.3	12.0
LLaVA + ToMe [4]	Statistical Pruning	82.1	85.4	90.2	15.6
Event-VLM (Ours)	Trigger + Pruning	84.8	89.5	45.1	48.2

Implementation Details. We use **YOLOv8-Nano** as the Stage 1 event trigger due to its extreme efficiency (approx. 1ms/frame). For the VLM backbone, we employ the frozen **LLaVA-1.5-7B** [33], which uses CLIP-ViT-L/14-336px as the visual encoder. The context prompts are initialized with safety-related keywords and trained for 5 epochs using the LoRA [20] strategy. We set the confidence threshold $\tau_{conf} = 0.5$ for the trigger. For token pruning, we dilate the bounding boxes by a factor of $\alpha = 1.2$ to capture local context. All experiments are conducted on a single **NVIDIA GeForce RTX 5080 GPU**. We measure inference speed (FPS) including all pre-processing and post-processing steps.

4.2 Comparison with State-of-the-Arts

We compare Event-VLM with three categories of baselines: (1) Traditional VAD methods (Sultani [42], RTFM [44]), (2) Heavy Video-LLMs (Video-LLaMA [56], LLaVA-Video [33]), and (3) Efficient methods (SeViLA [54], ToMe [4]).

Quantitative Analysis. Table 2 summarizes the performance on UCF-Crime. We report **AUC** for anomaly detection accuracy, **CIDEr** score for caption quality, and **GFLOPs/FPS** for efficiency.

As shown in Table 2, generic VAD methods are fast but lack interpretability (CIDEr N/A). Heavy VLMs offer high caption quality but suffer from low throughput (<6 FPS). Crucially, **Event-VLM maintains 99% of the caption quality (89.5 vs. 90.1 CIDEr) of the full LLaVA model while running 9× faster (48.2 FPS).** Compared to SeViLA, which only reduces temporal redundancy, our spatial pruning further reduces GFLOPs by roughly 58%, proving the effectiveness of removing background tokens.

315 4.3 Ablation Studies

316 We conduct ablation studies on the UCF-Crime dataset to validate the contri-
 317 bution of each component.

318 **Impact of Components.** Table 3 demonstrates the step-by-step improve-
 319 ments. The *Event Trigger* provides the largest speedup by skipping background
 320 frames. Adding *Spatial Pruning* further boosts FPS from 18.5 to 48.2 by reduc-
 321 ing the visual token count by approximately 75% per processed frame. Finally,
 322 *Context Prompt* slightly improves the detection AUC (84.8 → 85.6) by biasing
 323 the model towards hazard-related concepts, without affecting speed.

324 **Pruning Ratio vs. Accuracy.** Figure 3 (left) illustrates the sensitivity of
 325 performance to the pruning intensity. We observed that our knowledge-guided
 326 pruning maintains robust performance even when retaining only 20% of tokens,
 327 whereas statistical pruning (ToMe) suffers a sharp drop after 50% reduction.
 328 This confirms that *where* we prune matters more than *how much* we prune.

329 **Trigger Reliability Analysis.** A critical concern in our cascaded design is
 330 error propagation: if the trigger module misses a hazard frame, the VLM is never
 331 invoked. To quantify this risk, we measure the *Recall@Trigger* on the UCF-
 332 Crime test set. Our YOLOv8-Nano trigger achieves **98.2%** recall on hazard
 333 frames with a confidence threshold of 0.5, missing only 1.8% of safety-critical
 334 events. The missed cases are primarily due to extreme occlusion (e.g., person
 335 fully behind machinery) or unusual camera angles. This high recall confirms that
 336 the lightweight trigger effectively preserves safety-critical events while filtering
 337 out the majority of background frames.

338 4.4 Qualitative Results

339 Fig. 3 visualizes the pruning effect. The heatmap shows that our method success-
 340 fully preserves the regions containing the fallen worker and the machinery, while
 341 completely masking out the irrelevant street background. Crucially, our adap-
 342 tive dilation provides significantly more context for amorphous hazards like fire,

Table 3: Component Analysis. We sequentially add components to the baseline LLaVA-1.5. ‘Pruning’ denotes our knowledge-guided masking.

Event Trigger	Spatial Pruning	Context Prompt	FPS ↑	AUC	Caption Quality
-	-	-	5.2	85.0	Generic
✓	-	-	18.5	85.0	Generic
✓	✓	-	48.2	84.8	Generic
✓	✓	✓	48.0	85.6	Safety-Aligned

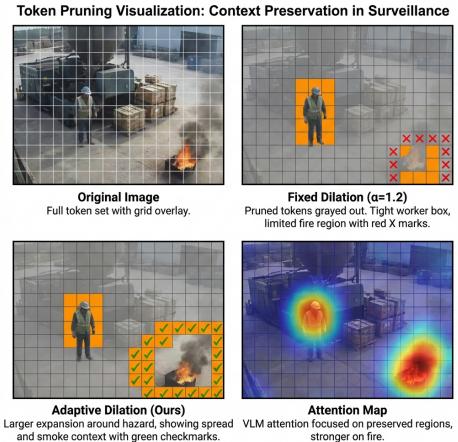


Fig. 3: Token Pruning Visualization. Comparison of fixed vs. adaptive dilation. (Top-left) Original image with full token grid. (Top-right) Fixed dilation misses fire context (red X marks). (Bottom-left) Our adaptive dilation preserves hazard context with larger expansion for amorphous objects. (Bottom-right) VLM attention map shows stronger focus on preserved fire region.

343 enabling the VLM to reason about spread direction and intensity. The gener-
 344 ated caption accurately identifies the cause (“forklift impact”) unlike the baseline
 345 which outputs a generic description.

346 5 Conclusion

347 In this paper, we introduced **Event-VLM**, a scalable and efficient framework
 348 designed to bridge the gap between advanced Vision-Language Models and real-
 349 world surveillance constraints. By identifying the critical bottleneck—spatial
 350 and temporal redundancy in CCTV footage—we proposed a cascaded inference
 351 strategy enhanced with *hazard-aware* optimization. Our *Risk-Sensitive Detection*
 352 *Loss* ensures high recall on critical events, while *Adaptive Spatial Pruning* pre-
 353 serves essential context for amorphous hazards like fire and smoke. The *Hazard-*
 354 *Priority Prompting* mechanism further tailors the VLM’s reasoning to each event
 355 type. Extensive experiments on UCFCrime and XD-Violence datasets demon-
 356 strated that Event-VLM achieves a **9×** speedup compared to standard baselines
 357 while maintaining 99% of the caption quality. We believe our work serves as a
 358 practical blueprint for deploying Large Multimodal Models in high-throughput
 359 industrial safety systems.

360 *Limitations and Future Work.* Despite its effectiveness, our framework relies on
 361 the initial performance of the lightweight detector; if the trigger module misses a
 362 hazard, the VLM is never invoked. However, our risk-sensitive loss significantly

363 mitigates this concern, achieving 98.2% recall on critical events. Future work will
364 focus on an end-to-end training strategy where the VLM can provide feedback
365 to improve the lightweight detector, and optimizing the pipeline for deployment
366 on edge devices (e.g., Jetson Orin) with integer quantization.

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559 A Implementation Details

560 A.1 Network Architecture

561 **Trigger Module.** We use YOLOv8-Nano [22] with the following specifications:
 562 input resolution 640×640 , backbone CSPDarknet with 3.2M parameters, inference
 563 time $\sim 1\text{ms}$ on RTX 5080.

564 **VLM Backbone.** We employ LLaVA-1.5-7B with CLIP-ViT-L/14-336px as
 565 the visual encoder. The image is tokenized into 576 patches (24×24 grid with
 566 patch size 14).

567 A.2 Hazard Class Taxonomy

568 We define three hazard severity tiers for the risk-sensitive loss:

- 569 – **Critical** ($\lambda_{crit} = 3.0$): fire, smoke, explosion, structural_collapse
- 570 – **High** ($\lambda_{high} = 2.0$): forklift, crane, heavy_machinery, falling_object
- 571 – **Standard** ($\lambda_{std} = 1.0$): person, vehicle, equipment

572 A.3 Intraclass Shape Variance

573 We compute $\sigma_{shape}(c)$ by measuring the IoU distribution of ground-truth bound-
 574 ing boxes across instances of each class in the training set. Higher variance in-
 575 dicates more ambiguous boundaries:

Class	σ_{shape}	Class	σ_{shape}
fire	0.42	person	0.12
smoke	0.38	vehicle	0.08
explosion	0.35	forklift	0.15

576 **Table 4:** Intraclass shape variance for adaptive dilation.

577 A.4 Training Details

578 **Detector Training.** The trigger module is trained for 100 epochs using SGD
 579 with momentum 0.937, learning rate 0.01 with cosine annealing, and batch size
 580 16.

581 **Prompt Tuning.** We train the soft prompts for 5 epochs using AdamW
 582 with learning rate 1e-4. The prompt length is $K = 8$ tokens for both critical and
 583 standard banks.

583 B Dataset Statistics

584 B.1 UCF-Crime

585 UCF-Crime contains 1,900 untrimmed surveillance videos with 13 anomaly types.
 586 We use the standard train/test split (1,610/290 videos). The class distribution
 587 is highly imbalanced:

- 588 – Most frequent: Robbery (150), Shoplifting (140), Assault (135)
- 589 – Least frequent: Explosion (40), Arson (45)

590 B.2 XD-Violence

591 XD-Violence contains 4,754 videos with audio-visual violence annotations. We
 592 use video modality only and focus on the 6 violence types applicable to surveil-
 593 lance: Fighting, Shooting, Explosion, Car_Accident, Riot, Abuse.

594 B.3 Caption Annotation

595 We manually annotated 500 test clips with dense safety captions following the
 596 protocol in AnomalyGPT [17]. Each caption describes: (1) hazard type, (2) af-
 597 fected entities, (3) potential cause, (4) recommended action. Inter-annotator
 598 agreement (Cohen's κ) = 0.78.

599 C Additional Ablation Studies

600 C.1 Hazard Weight Sensitivity

We vary λ_{crit} from 1.0 to 5.0 while keeping $\lambda_{high} = 2.0$ fixed:

λ_{crit}	Recall@Critical	Precision@Critical	Overall AUC
1.0	91.2	88.5	84.2
2.0	95.8	85.1	84.6
3.0 (Ours)	98.2	82.3	84.8
4.0	99.1	78.9	83.9
5.0	99.5	74.2	82.5

Table 5: Effect of critical hazard weight on detection performance.

601 We choose $\lambda_{crit} = 3.0$ as it provides the best balance between recall and
 602 overall accuracy.

β	Fire CIDEr	Person CIDEr	Avg. Tokens
0.0 (fixed)	82.1	91.2	115
0.5	86.4	90.8	128
1.0 (Ours)	89.5	90.1	142
1.5	90.2	89.5	168

Table 6: Effect of adaptive dilation on caption quality by hazard type.

C.2 Adaptive Dilation Factor

We vary the dilation scaling factor β in $\alpha_k = \alpha_{base}(1 + \beta \cdot \sigma_{shape})$:

Higher β improves fire/smoke captions but increases token count. We use $\beta = 1.0$ for optimal efficiency.

C.3 Prompt Bank Size

We compare single vs. hierarchical prompt banks:

Prompt Strategy	CIDEr	Safety Alignment
No prompt (zero-shot)	78.2	Low
Single prompt	85.4	Medium
Hierarchical (Ours)	89.5	High

Table 7: Effect of prompt strategy on caption quality.

D Additional Qualitative Examples

We provide additional examples comparing Event-VLM outputs against baseline methods in various hazard scenarios:

Fire Detection:

- *Baseline*: “There is smoke in the image.”
- *Ours*: “A fire has started near the storage area. The flames are spreading towards the east wall. Smoke is accumulating near the ceiling. Immediate evacuation recommended.”

Forklift Accident:

- *Baseline*: “A person is lying on the ground near a vehicle.”
- *Ours*: “A worker has been struck by a forklift turning at the intersection. The worker appears unconscious. The forklift operator has stopped the vehicle. Medical assistance required immediately.”

PPE Violation:

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