

# Video Captioning (to be reviewed)

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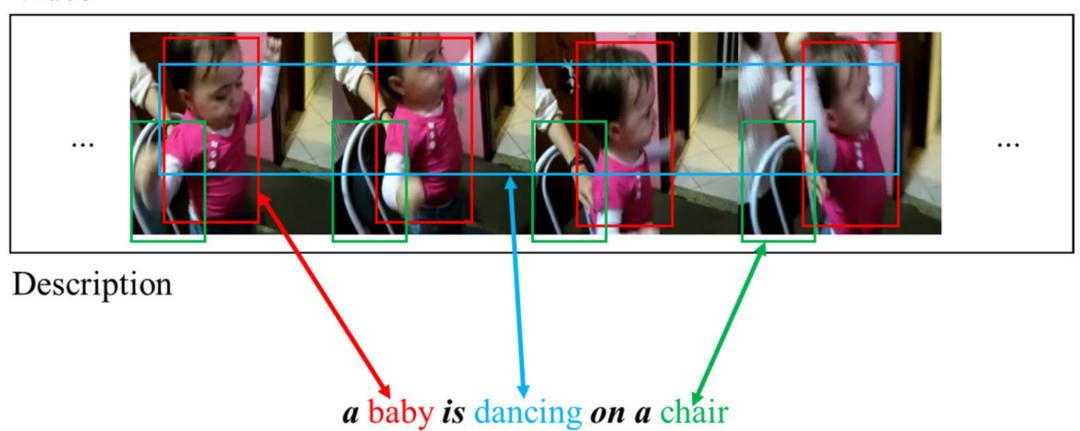
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### Video







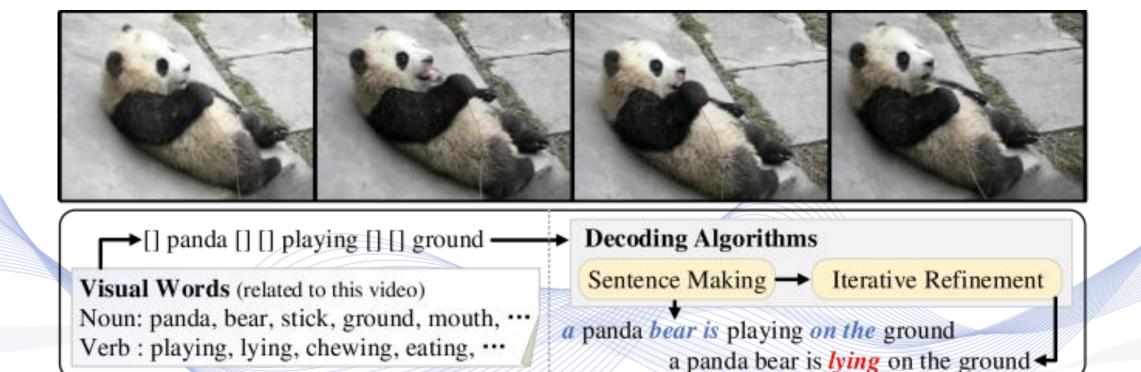


Video captioning, has been showing increasingly strong potential in computer vision.

The primary challenges of this research lie in two aspects: adequately extracting the information from the video sequences and generating grammar-correct sentences easy for the human to understand. [YANG2018]







(a) Visual Word Generation

(b) Caption Generation



Image from arxiv-vanity





The early research for generating video descriptions mainly focused on extracting useful information e.g., object, attribute, and preposition, from given video content.

The aim is to generate more precise words to describe the objects in the video.







Deep learning methodologies have increased great focus towards video processing because of their better performance and the high-speed computing capability.





### Caption:

A caption is the title of a magazine article, a descriptive title under a photograph, the words at bottom of a television or movie screen to translate the dialogue into another language or to provide the dialogue to the hard of hearing. A caption generally, may be a few words or several sentences. [HTT2020]





### Caption:

Captions for a Image are the little "headlines" over the "cutlines" (the words describing the photograph).[HTT2013]

Test Result: A train is parked on the tracks as a car



Image Caption (Image from https://xiangliu.ca/image-caption/)





The importance of captioning lies in its ability to make video more accessible in numerous ways.

It allows d/Deaf and hard of hearing individuals to watch videos, helps people to focus on and remember the information more easily, and lets people watch it in sound-sensitive environments. [LED2018]





Unlike image captioning, which aims to describe a static scene, video captioning is a more provocative sense that a series of coherent scenes need to be understood in order to create multiple sections of description together. [HTT2019]





Video captions are similar to a transcription, but are synced to a video's time codes, allowing the viewer to follow along with a video's words as they're being said. They 're also shown within the video player in a seamless and unobtrusive way. [HTT2019]





Video captioning is process of summarizing the content, event and action of the video into a short textual form which can be helpful in many research areas such as video guided machine translation, video sentiment analysis and providing aid to needy individual. [THO2020]





Video Captioning is one of the kind of **Static video summarization** and it generates a textual description for a given video content.

Video captioning problem arises naturally as the very next step where a sentence is generated to describe a video clip that captures its visual semantics.





It is a task of automatic captioning a video by understanding the action and event in the video which can help in the retrieval of the video efficiently through text. On addressing the task of video captioning effectively, the gap between computer vision and natural language can also be minimized. [ZAC2012]





Based on the approaches proposed for video captioning till now, they can be classified into **two categories** namely:

- The template-based language model and [ZAC2012]
- The sequence learning model. [YAN2016]





The **template-based** approaches use predefined templates for generating the captions by fitting the attributes identified in the video.

These kinds of approaches need the proper alignment between the words generated for the video and the predefined templates. [JIA2018]





In contrast to template-based approach, the **sequence learning** based approach learn the sequence of word

conditioned on previously generated word and visual

feature vector of the video.

This approach is commonly used in Machine Translation (MT) where the target language (T) is conditioned on the source language (S). [YAN2016]





Caption #1: A woman offers her dog some food.

Caption #2: A woman is eating and sharing food with her dog.

Caption #3: A woman is sharing a snack with a dog.



Caption: A person sits on a bed and puts a laptop into a bag.

The person stands up, puts the bag on one shoulder, and walks out of the room.





The video captioning is the quite challenging topic because of the complex and diverse nature of video content.

However, the understanding between video content and natural language sentence remains an open problem to create several methodology to better understand the video and generate the sentence automatically. [HUA2021]







Video Summarization + Video Captioning
Video to Text Summary (V2TS)



My friends and I walked through the park. My friends and I talked while having lunch. My friends and I waited in line for the ride. My friends and I browsed at the store. I watched the fireworks display.

(Image from FXPAL)





### Types

Types vary according to how the captions appear, how they are accessed, and what information is provided. These include closed captions, subtitles, and subtitles for the deaf and hard of hearing. [HTT2021]





- Types
  - Closed Captions

These are hidden on the 21st line of the vertical blanking interval (VBI) of a video signal and are made visible by a decoder at the time of viewing. They are usually white letters encased in a black box. [HTT2021]





**Closed Captions** 









- Types
  - Subtitles

Subtitles are usually white or yellow letters with a black rim or drop shadow. Some are always visible, like the "open captions" of DCMP videos. Others, like those on DVD and the Internet, are displayed utilizing the



**Subtitles** 







- Types
  - **Subtitles for the Deaf and Hard of Hearing (SDH)**

These are just like subtitles, but SDH includes information such as sound effects, speaker identification, other essential nonspeech features. These are presented as close to verbatim as possible. [HTT2021]





- Types
  - Subtitles for the Deaf and Hard of Hearing (SDH)

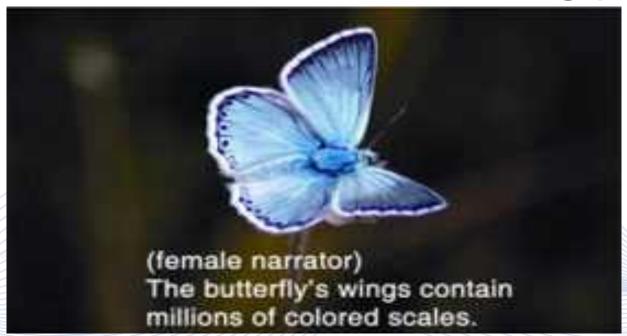
Foreign Film Subtitles, which are written for hearing viewers, usually do not indicate information other than dialogue, and often are edited. Some may translate

important onscreen printed information such as a street





Subtitles for the Deaf and Hard of Hearing (SDH)



Subtitles for the Deaf and Hard of Hearing. (Image from https://dcmp.org/learn/38-captioning-types-methods-and-styles)





#### **Methods**

Methods vary according to when the captions are created and displayed.

These include off-line and on-line. [HTT2021]





#### Methods

#### Off-line

Off-line captions are created and added after a video segment has been recorded and before it is aired or played. Examples of programs that utilize of captioning are prime-time TV programs, made-for-TV movies, and educational media. [HTT2021]





#### Methods

#### On-line

On-line captions are created and displayed at the time of program origination, and sometimes referred to as Real-time. Examples of programming that utilizes on-line captioning are sporting events, newscasts, and other events that do not allow time to prepare off-line captions. [HTT2021]





- **Styles** 
  - Roll-up

Roll-up captions are usually verbatim and synchronized. Captions follow double chevrons (which look like "greater than" symbols), and are used to indicate different speaker identifications. Each sentence "rolls up" to about three lines. The top line of the three disappears as a new bottom line is added, allowing the



- **Styles** 
  - Paint-on

Paint-on captions are very similar to roll-up captions. Individual words are "painted on" from left to right, not popped on with all captions at once, and usually are verbatim. [HTT2021]



# Video Captioning Approaches



The background of video captioning approaches can be divided into three phases:

 The classical video captioning approach phase involves the detection of entities of the video (such as object, actions and scenes) and then map them to a predefined templates.
 [LIU2019]



# Video Captioning Approaches



- The statistical methods phase, in which the video captioning problem is addressed by employing statistical methods.
- The last one is **deep learning** phase. In this phase, many state-of-the-art video captioning frameworks have been proposed and it is believed that this phase has a capability of solving the problem of automatic open domain video captioning. [LIU2019]





A good video captioning requires both local and global understanding, recognizing activities and reasoning dependencies between local activities and context.

Each subsection below focuses on one methodology of approaching video captioning problem, and discusses both the backbone and various variants of it as well as its advantages and

limitations, from classical ones to state-of-the-art ones. [JIA2018]



### **Template-based Captioning**

Following the success of image recognition and activity recognition, one naive approach is to synthesize the detected outputs into a sentence using a template to ensure grammatical correctness. [JIA2018]





### **Template-based Captioning**

Template-based language methods first split sentences into fragments (e.g. subject, verb and object) following specific rules of language grammar, and each fragment is associated with detected words (e.g. objects, actions and attributes ) from visual content. Then generated fragments are composed to a sentence

with predefined language template. [JIA2018]



### **Template-based Captioning**

As a result, the captioning quality highly depends on the templates of sentence and sentences are always generated with syntactical structure.

Although template-based language can generate complete sentences, generated descriptions are very rigid. [JIA2018]





### **Template-based Captioning**

Meanwhile, the evaluation is usually limited to narrow domain with a small vocabulary, such as TACoS dataset. For any sufficiently rich domain, the required complexity of rules and templates makes manual design of templates unfeasible or too expensive. [JIA2018]



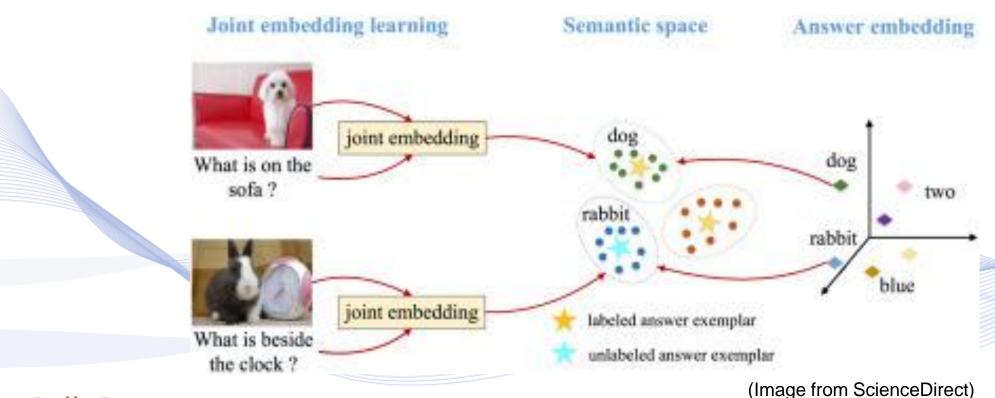


### **Joint Embedding**

Video captioning problem arises as a side product of video retrieval problem where a video is to be retrieved according to given text description. Since multi-model embedding is a common practice to solve video retrieval problem, some early works apply joint embedding approach to video and language for



### **Joint Embedding**







### **Joint Embedding**

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The framework of joint embedding consists of three components:

(1) a visual model to map video to representation vector, (2) a language model to map text caption to representation vector, (3) a projection of visual representation vector and language representation vector to the shared space, by minimizing distance

between the two projected vectors. [JIA2018]



**Joint Embedding** 

The idea is that the joint embedding space is semantically continuous and ensures semantically similar items, regardless of being video or description, are close to each other. During inference time, an input video is mapped to a point in the shared space corresponding to a semantically close sentence description which is further converted to text in the inverse process of the language





**Joint Embedding** 

There are many possible choices of visual model and language model as practiced in the literature, such as:

The **simplistic** form of language model could be taking bag of words or one-hot encoding as semantic representation. Based on the assumption that essential semantic meaning of a video can be captured by SVO (Subject, Verb, Object) triplets. [JIA2018]





**Joint Embedding** 

The **visual** model follows the progress of deep models in image domain.

In general, the approach of joint embedding is effective in the scenario of videos within narrow domain since the embedding space can generalizes such finite domain well, and richer model structures boost up performance. [JIA2018]





**Joint Embedding** 

However, it can easily fail when encountering videos with situations that haven't been seen before. Also since the embedding is of fixed length, it limits the amount of information that can be carried by video and text description. [JIA2018]





### **Encoder-Decoder**

Inspired by the progress in machine translation and image captioning, some other early works formulate video captioning problem partially as machine translation problem where a semantic representation is generated for a video and then is translated to natural language sentence. [JIA2018]





### **Encoder-Decoder**

The framework those works propose is an Encoder-Decoder structure that encodes video into semantic representation and then decodes into natural language. The benefit of translation is that now we can have an open world vocabulary if we feed machine translation model with large text corpus, which is not



### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Attention Mechanism

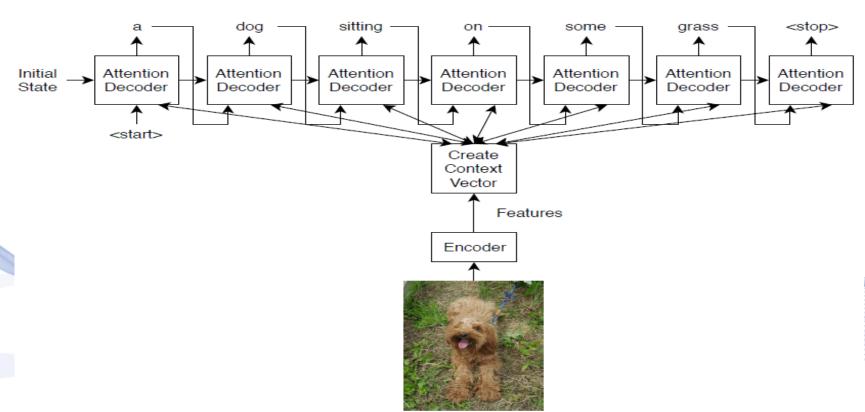
The attention mechanisms in deep neural networks are inspired by human's attention that sequentially focuses on the most relevant parts of the information over time to make predictions. [JIA2018]







### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms: Attention Mechanism**







### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Attention Mechanism

The recently proposed soft attention mechanism to balance exploitation of local temporal structure, which captures details of activities, and global temporal structure, which reflects long-term dependencies and ordering of activities. [JIA2018]





### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

### Attention Mechanism

The framework first uses 3D-CNN to generate temporal features vectors which capture local temporal structure (motion features). The decoder is an LSTM with soft attention mechanism, which takes in the dynamic weighted sum of the temporal feature vectors according

to attention weights generated at each time step. [JIA2018]



### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Attention Mechanism

Specifically, attention weights are generated for all the frames based on hidden state of previous time step (which presumably summarizes all the previously generated words) and the corresponding frame's temporal feature vector. [JIA2018]





### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Attention Mechanism

Soft attention mechanism enables the decoder to look at different temporal locations and relate activities occurring cross time span for global reasoning. It has become a common practice in future works. [JIA2018]





### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

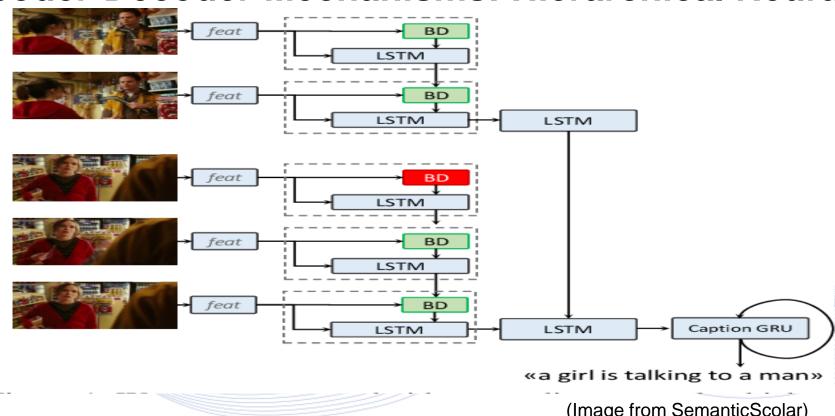
Hierarchical Neural Encoder

Another line of works focuses on refining neural encoder. Even though LSTM can deal with long video clips in principle, it has been reported that the favorable length of video clips to LSTM falls in the range of 30 to 80 frames. [JIA2018], [MOO2015]





**Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms: Hierarchical Neural Encoder** 



(Image from SemanticScolar)





### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Hierarchical Neural Encoder

Therefore, it's usually hard for plain LSTM to capture the large number of long-range dependencies in video. Aiming at learning the visual features with multiple temporal granularities, are used Hierarchical Recurrent Neural Encoder (HRNE). [JIA2018],





### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Hierarchical Neural Encoder

Hierarchical Recurrent Neural Encoder (HRNE), consists of a LSTM filter on subsequences of an input sequence to explore local temporal features within sub-sequences and then another layer of LSTM on top to summarize and learn temporal dependencies among subsequences. [JIA2018], [MOO2015]

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### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Hierarchical Neural Encoder

Such a hierarchical structure significantly reduces the length of input information follow but is still capable of exploiting temporal information over longer time. It has been noted that more LSTM layers could be added to HRNE to build multiple time-scale abstraction of the visual information. [JIA2018], [MOO2015]



### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Hierarchical Neural Encoder

The method achieves state-of-the-art performance on video captioning benchmarks at that time. However, it requires fixed

manual setting of the sub-sequence length, and thus it doesn't adapt to varying types of videos. [JIA2018], [MOO2015]





### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Paragraph Description

This line of works focuses on generating a long story-like caption. Some works first temporally segment the video with action localization or different levels of details, and then generate multiple captions for those segments and connect them with natural

language processing techniques. [JIA2018], [SHI2016], [QIU2014]





**Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms: Paragraph Description** 



### Sentences

- 1) A girl is eating donuts with a boy in a restaurant
- 2) A boy and girl sitting at a table with doughnuts.
- 3) Two kids sitting a coffee shop eating some frosted donuts
- 4) Two children sitting at a table eating donuts.
- 5) Two children eat doughnuts at a restaurant table.

### Paragraph

Two children are sitting at a table in a restaurant. The children are one little girl and one little boy. The little girl is eating a pink frosted donut with white icing lines on top of it. The girl has blonde hair and is wearing a green jacket with a black long sleeve shirt underneath. The little boy is wearing a black zip up jacket and is holding his finger to his lip but is not eating. A metal napkin dispenser is in between them at the table. The wall next to them is white brick. Two adults are on the other side of the short white brick wall. The room has white circular lights on the ceiling and a large window in the front of the restaurant. It is daylight outside.





### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Paragraph Description

The key framework proposed by "Video paragraph captioning using hierarchical recurrent neural networks" is hierarchical RNN (h-RNN) for describing a long video with a paragraph consisting of multiple sentences. This framework consists of two

generators:[JIA2018], [HUA2016]



### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

- Paragraph Description
- (1) a sentence generator which produces single short sentences that describe specific time intervals and video regions, and (2) a paragraph generator which takes the sentential embedding as input and uses another recurrent layer to output the paragraph state; such state is

then used to initialize the sentence generator. [JIA2018], [HUA2016]



### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Paragraph Description

In addition, both sentence and paragraph generators adopt recurrent layers for language modeling. It uses C3D features to model video motion and activities, and applies soft temporal attention to the feature pool before feeding into Hierarchical RNN.

pumber of sentences in the paragraph is 1. [JIA2018], [HUA2016]



### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Paragraph Description

The model is evaluated on TACoS-Multi Dataset which provides paragraph description to video clips and MSVD which provides parallel sentences to video clip and is used as a special case where the number of sentences in the paragraph is 1. [JIA2018],





### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Paragraph Description

Interestingly, the experiments show that the special case hRNN outperforms state-of-the-art single-sentence captioning methods on MSVD dataset at that time, which means the hierarchy helps not only inter-sentence dependencies but also intra-sentence

dependencies. [JIA2018], [HUA2016]



### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Paragraph Description

Meanwhile, h-RNN definitely outperforms baseline methods that have no hierarchy, i.e., with only the sentence generator, but not the paragraph generator. [JIA2018], [HUA2016]





### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Paragraph Description

The evaluation of paragraph generation has only been conducted on closed-domain dataset, and thus the conclusion is not necessarily applicable to general open domain dataset. This calls for large-scale open domain video dataset with paragraph

description annotations. [JIA2018], [HUA2016]



### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Dense Captioning

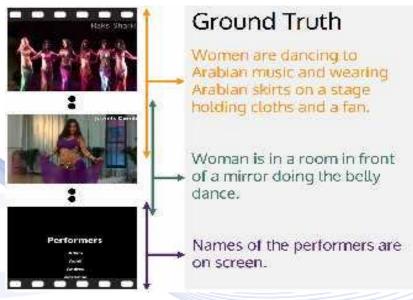
The dense captioning task generalizes object detection when the descriptions consist of a single word, and Image Captioning when one predicted region covers the full image. [JIA2018], [REN2017]





#### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

#### Dense Captioning



#### No Context

The women continue dancing around one another and end by holding a pose and looking away.

A woman is seen speaking to the camera white holding up a piece of paper.

The credits of the video are shown.

#### Full Context

A woman is seen performing a belly dancing routine in a large gymnasium while other people watch on.

She then shows how to do it with her hair down and begins talking to the camera.

The credits of the clip are shown.

(Image from https://cs.stanford.edu/people/ranjaykrishna/densevid/)





#### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

#### Dense Captioning

Dense-captioning events in a video involves detecting multiple events that occur in a video and describing each event using natural language. These events are temporally localized in the video with independent start and end times, resulting in some events that might

also occur concurrently and overlap in time. [JIA2018], [REN2017]



#### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

#### Dense Captioning

Such models would likely concentrate on an elderly man playing the piano in front of a crowd. While this caption provides us more details about who is playing the piano and mentions an audience, it fails to recognize and articulate all the other events in the video.





#### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Dense Captioning

For example, at some point in the video, a woman starts singing along with the pianist and then later another man starts dancing to the music. [JIA2018], [REN2017]





#### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

#### Dense Captioning

In order to identify all the events in a video and describe them in natural language, we introduce the task of dense-captioning events, which requires a model to generate a set of descriptions for multiple events occurring in the video and localize them in





#### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Dense Captioning

Dense-captioning events is analogous to dense-image-captioning; it describes videos and localize events in time whereas dense-image-captioning describes and localizes regions in space. [JIA2018], [REN2017]





#### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

#### Dense Captioning

However, we observe that dense-captioning events comes with its own set of challenges distinct from the image case. One observation is that events in videos can range across multiple time scales and can even overlap. [JIA2018], [REN2017]





#### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

#### Dense Captioning

While piano recitals might last for the entire duration of a long video, the applause takes place in a couple of seconds.

To capture all such events, we need to design ways of encoding short as well as long sequences of video frames to propose



#### **Encoder-Decoder Mechanisms:**

Dense Captioning

Past captioning works have circumvented this problem by encoding the entire video sequence by mean-pooling or by using a recurrent neural network (RNN). While this works well for short clips, encoding long video sequences that span minutes leads to vanishing gradients, preventing successful training. [JIA2018], [REN2017]



Video captioning result is evaluated based on correctness as natural language and relevance of semantics to its respective video.

The following are widely used evaluation metrics that

concern the aspects.





**SVO Accuracy** is used in early works to measure whether the generated SVO (Subject, Verb, Object) triplets cohere with ground truth.

The purpose of this evaluation metrics is to focus on matching of broad semantics and ignore visual and language details. [DON2014], [LIU2019]





The **SVO** (Subject, Object, Verb) tuples based methods are among the first successful methods used specifically for video description.

However, research efforts were made long before to describe visual content into natural language, albeit not explicitly for captioning or description. [DON2014],





Numerous method have been proposed for detecting objects, humans, actions, and events in videos. [DON2014], [LIU2019]

- Object Recognition
- Human and Activity Detection
- Integrated Approaches





#### **Object Recognition:**

Object recognition in SVO approaches was performed typically using conventional methods, including model-based shape matching through edge detection or color matching, HAAR features matching, context-based object recognition, Scale Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT), discriminatively trained part based models and Deformable Parts Model (DPM). [DON2014], [LIU2019]





#### **Human and Activity Detection:**

Human detection methods employed features such as Histograms of Oriented Gradient (HOG) followed by SVM. For activity detection, features like Spatiotemporal Interest Points such as Histogram of Oriented Optical Flow (HOOF), Bayesian Networks (BN), Dynamic Bayesian Networks (DBNs), Hidden Markov Models (HMM), state machines, and PNF Networks have been used by SVO approaches. [DON2014], [LIU2019]



#### **Integrated Approaches:**

Instead of detecting the description-relevant entities separately, Stochastic Attribute Image Grammar (SAIG) and Stochastic Context Free Grammars (SCFG), allow for compositional representation of visual entities present in a video, an image or a scene based on their spatial and functional relations. Using the visual grammar, the content of an image is first extracted as a



#### **Integrated Approaches:**

A parsing algorithm is then used to find the best scoring entities that describe the video.

In other words, not all entities present in a video are of equal relevance, which is a distinct feature of this class of methods compared to the aforementioned approaches.



**BLEU** is one of the most popular metrics in the eld of machine translation. The idea is measuring a numerical translation closeness between two sentences by computing geometric mean of n-gram match counts. As a result, it is sensitive to position mismatching of words.

Also, it may favor shorter sentences, which makes it hard

to adapt to complex contents. [PAR2017]







**BLEU** is calculated as,

$$logBLEU = \min(1 - \frac{l_r}{l_c}, 0 + \sum_{n=1}^{N} w_n \ logp_n$$





 $l_r/l_c$ : The ratio between the lengths of the corresponding reference corpus and the candidate description,

 $w_n$ : The positive weights,

 $p_n$ :The geometric average of the modified n-gram precisions.

The second term computes the actual match score,

The first term is a brevity penalty that penalizes descriptions that



are shorter than the reference description.



ROUGE is similar to BLEU score in the sense that they measure the n-gram overlapped sequences between the reference sentences and the generated ones. The difference is that ROUGE considers the n-gram occurrences in the total sum of the number of reference sentences while BLEU considers the occurrences in the sum of candidates. Since ROUGE metric relies highly on recall, it favors long sentences. [PAR2017]





ROUGE-N is computed as,

$$ROUGE - N = \frac{\sum_{S} \in R_{Sum} \sum_{g} \in s C_{m} (g_{n})}{\sum_{S} \in R_{Sum} \sum_{g} \in s C (g_{n})}$$

n: The n-gram length,

 $g_n$ , and  $C_m$  ( $g_n$ ): the highest number of n-grams that are present in candidate as well as ground truth summaries and  $R_{sum}$ : Reference





**CIDER** is a metric to evaluate a set of descriptive sentences for an image, which measures the consensus between candidate captioning and the reference sentences provided by human annotators. Therefor, it highly correlates with human judgments. It is different from others in the sense that it captures saliency and importance, accuracy, and grammatical correctness, importance, accuracy, and grammatical correctness. [PAR2017]







 $CIDEr_n$  score is computed as,

CINDER<sub>n</sub> 
$$(C_i, S_i) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{J} \frac{g^n(C_i).g^n(S_{ij})}{\|g^n(C_i)\|.\|g^n(S_{ij})\|}$$

 $g^n$ :A vector representing all n-grams with length n and

 $g^n(C_i)$ : The magnitude of  $g^n(C_i)$ .





Further, CIDEr uses higher order n-grams (higher the order, longer the sequence of words) to capture the grammatical properties and richer semantics of the text. For that matter, it combines the scores of different n-grams using the following

equation:

$$CINDER_n(C_i, S_i) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{n=1}^N w_n CINDER_n(C_i, S_i)$$

[PAR2017]





**METEOR** is computed based on the alignment between a given hypothesis sentence and a set of candidate reference. METEOR compares exact token matches, stemmed tokens, paraphrase matches, as well as semantically similar matches using WordNet synonyms. This semantic aspect of METEOR distinguishes it from others. METEOR is always better when the number of references is small. [PAR2017]





#### **METEOR** score is calculated as:

Initially, unigram based precision score P is calculated using  $P = \frac{m_{cr}}{m_{ct}}$  relationship.

 $m_{cr}$ : The number of unigrams co-occurring in both candidate, as well as reference sentences

 $m_{ct}$ : The total number of unigrams in the candidate sentences. Then unigram based recall score R is calculated using  $R = \frac{m_{cr}}{m_{rt}}$ .

[PAR2017]





 $m_{rt}$ : The number of unigrams co-occurring in both candidate as well as reference sentences.

However,  $m_{rt}$  is the number of unigrams in the reference sentences. Further, precision and recall scores are used to

compute the F-score using following equation:  $F_{mean} = \frac{10PR}{R+9P}$ 

[PAR2017]





The precision, recall and F-score measures account for unigram based congruity and do not cater for n-grams. The n-gram based similarities are used to calculate the penalty p for alignment between candidate and reference sentences. This penalty takes into account the nonadjacent mappings between the two sentences. [PAR2017]





The penalty is calculated by grouping the unigrams into minimum number of chunks. The chunk includes unigrams that are adjacent in candidate as well as reference sentences. If a generated sentence is an exact match to the reference sentence then there will be only one chunk. The penalty is computed as

$$p = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{N_c}{N_u} \right)^2, [PAR2017]$$





 $N_c$ : The number of chunks and  $N_u$  corresponds to the number of unigrams grouped together. The METEOR score for the sentence is then computed as:

$$M = F_{mean} (1 - p)$$

Corpus level score can be computed using the same equation by using aggregated values of all the arguments i.e. P, R and p. In case of multiple reference sentences, the maximum METEOR score of a generated and reference sentence is taken. [PAR2017]





**F-Score**, is a measure of a model's accuracy on a dataset. It is used to evaluate binary classification systems, which classify examples into 'positive' or 'negative'. It is a way of combining the precision and recall of the model, and it is defined as the harmonic mean of the model's precision and recall. It is commonly used for evaluating information retrieval systems, and also for many kinds of machine learning models.





**F-score**, also called the **F1-score**. Common adjusted F-scores are the F0.5-score and the F2-score, as well as the standard F1-score. The formula for the standard F1-score is the harmonic mean of the precision and recall. A perfect model has an F-score of 1. A perfect model has an F-score of 1. The Mathematical definition of the F-score is: [HTT2019]





$$F1 = \frac{2}{\frac{1}{recall}X\frac{1}{precition}} = 2\frac{precision\ X\ recall}{precision + recall}$$

$$precision = \frac{t_p}{t_p + f_p}$$
,  $recall = \frac{t_p}{t_p + f_n}$  so

$$F1 = \frac{t_p}{t_p + \frac{1}{2} (f_p + f_n)}$$





where **precision** is the fraction of true positive examples among the examples that the model classified as positive (in other words, the number of true positives divided by the number of false positives plus true positives), recall, also known as sensitivity, is the fraction of examples classified as number positive positive, the total among examples[HTT2019]





(in other words, the number of true positives divided by the number of true positives plus false negatives)

 $t_p$ : the number of true positives classified by the model,

 $f_p$ : the number of false positives classified by the model, and

 $f_n$ : the number of false negatives classified by the model.

[HTT2019]



#### Video Captioning: Future Directions



Video captioning problem is not yet solved, as the best performance so far is still far from human-level captioning.

Here, are listed several possible future directions, according to discussions in the literature and progress in related fields:





**TACoS** Dataset, contains videos of different activities in the cooking domain in an indoor environment. Each video is annotated with both fine-grained activity labels with temporal locations and descriptions with temporal locations by multiple Amazon Mechanical Turkers. It has a total of 18,227 video-sentence pairs on 7,206 unique time intervals. [WET2013]





**TACoS** 



The person rinses the carrot.

Tacos dataset (Image from https://cove.thecvf.com/datasets/422)





**TACoS-Multi** dataset is an extension to the dataset with paragraph description per temporal segment, but the limitation is still the same that the setting is closed-domain and too simple for learning. [WET2013]







Detailed: A man took a cutting board and knife from the drawer. He took out an orange from the refrigerator. Then, he took a knife from the drawer. He juiced one half of the orange. Next, he opened the refrigerator. He cut the orange with the knife. The man threw away the skin. He got a glass from the cabinet. Then, he poured the juice into the glass. Finally, he placed the orange in the sink.

Short: A man juiced the orange. Next, he cut the orange in half. Finally, he poured the juice into a glass.

One sentence: A man juiced the orange.





Microsoft Video Description Corpus (MSVD), referred as YouTube Dataset in early works. It is a collection of YouTube clips collected on Mechanical Turk by requesting workers to pick short clips depicting a single activity. Each clip lasts between 10 seconds to 25 seconds. It has 1,970 videos clips in total and covers a wide range of topics such as sports, animals and music. [CHE2011]







#### Sentences:

- · A man lights a match book on fire.
- · A man playing with fire sticks.
- · A man lights matches and yells.

Microsoft Video Description Corpus (MSVD) (Image from https://paperswithcode.com/dataset/msvd)





Montreal Video Annotation Dataset (M-VAD) is a large-scale movie description dataset from the DVD descriptive video service (DVS) narrations. DVS are audio tracks describing the visual elements of a movie, produced to help visually impaired people. The dataset has 49k video clips extracted from 92 DVD movies.









Caption: SOMEONE<a href="SOMEONE<Howard">Caption: SOMEONE<a href="Someone Common Someone Common Someone Common Com



Caption: SOMEONE Darcy and SOMEONE Jane step away from SOMEONE Thor to join SOMEONE Erik.

Montreal Video Annotation Dataset (M-VAD) dataset (Images from https://github.com/aimagelab/mvad-names-dataset)





MPII Movie Description Corpus (MPII-MD). It contains around 37,000 movie clips from 55 audio descriptions (ADs) available movies and about 31,000 movie clips of 49 Hollywood movies. Each video clip is equipped with one sentence from movie scripts and one sentence from DVD descriptive video service (DVS). [TAN2015]







AD: Abby gets in the basket.

Script: After a moment a frazzled Abby pops up in his place.



Mike leans over and sees how high they are.

Mike looks down to see – they are now fifteen feet above the ground.



Abby clasps her hands around his face and kisses him passionately. For the first time in her life, she stops thinking and grabs Mike and kisses the hell out of him,

MPII Movie Description Corpus (MPII-MD) dataset (Image from https://www.mpi inf.mpg.de/departments/computer-vision-and-machine-learning/research/vision-and-language/mpii-movie-description-dataset)





MSRVideo-to-Text (MSR-VTT). It is by far the largest video captioning dataset in terms of the number of sentences and the size of the vocabulary. It contains 10k video clips crawled from a video search engine from 20 representative categories of video search, including news, sports etc. The duration of each clip is between 10 and 30 seconds, while the total duration is 41.2 hours. [YAO2016]







- A black and white horse runs around.
- 2. A horse galloping through an open field.
- A horse is running around in green lush grass.
- 4. There is a horse running on the grassland.
- A horse is riding in the grass.



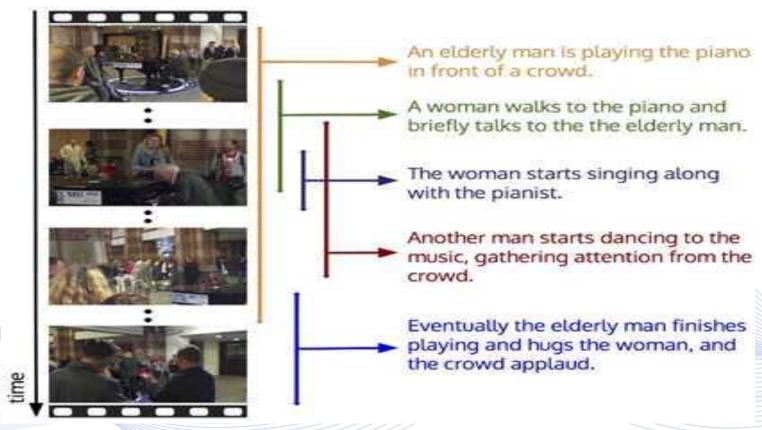
MSR Video-to-Text (MSR-VTT) dataset. (Image from https://paperswithcode.com/dataset/msr-vtt)



ActivityNet Captions is a recently released largescale benchmark dataset specific for dense-captioning events. It contains 20k videos amounting to 849 video hours. The videos are collected from video search engine, covering a wide range of categories. On average, each video contains 3.65 temporally localized sentences, resulting in a total of 100k sentences. [REN2017]







ActivityNet Captions dataset (Image from https://cs.stanford.edu/people/ranjaykrishna/densevid/)





**SumMe** dataset of 25 personal videos obtained from the YouTube covering holidays, events and sports. They are raw or minimally edited user videos, i.e., they have a high compressibility compared to already edited videos. The length of the videos ranges from about 1 to 6 minutes. The videos are unedited or minimally edited. The dataset provides 15-18 reference summaries for each video.







Sample of videos in the SumMe dataset (Image by ResearchGate)





**TVSum** (Title-based Video Summarization), is an unsupervised video summarization framework that uses the video title to find visually important shots.

TVSum contains 50 YouTube videos, each of which has a title and a category label as metadata and their shot level importance scores annotated via crowdsourcing.





TVSum50 Benchmark Dataset (contd.)



- changing Vehicle Tire (VT)
- getting Vehicle Unstuck(VU)
- Grooming an Animal (GA)
- Making Sandwich (MS),
- ParKour (PK)
- PaRade (PR)
- Flash Mob gathering (FM)
- Bee-Keeping (BK)
- Attempting Bike Tricks (BT)
- 10. Dog Show (DS).



TVSum50 dataset contains 50 videos collected 10 categories

Sample of videos in the TVSum dataset (Image by ResearchGate)



Hollywood [SCH2008] and Hollywood2 [LAPT2005], are more recent data sets, that attempt to provide a more challenging problem and consist of actions "in the wild" consisting of video clips taken from a variety of Hollywood feature films. These datasets presented a new level of complexity to the recognition community, arising from the natural within-class variation of unconstrained data.







Sample of videos in the Hollywood2 dataset (Image by Researchgate)





Hollywood3D and Hollywood3D2 are a new natural action data set. They are build on the spirit of the existing Hollywood data sets but includes 3D information. This 3D information gives additional visual cue's which can be used to help simplify the within-class variation of actions. Lighting variations are generally not expressed in depth data, and actor appearance differences are eliminated. [HAD2013]







Sample of videos in the Hollywood3D dataset (Image by ResearchGate)



#### Video Captioning: Future Directions



- Dense captioning
- Attention mechanism
- Audio that accompanies visual frames
- Some works on learning with web image search
- Discovering objects, actions and their interactions
- The temporal structure of video is intrinsically layered





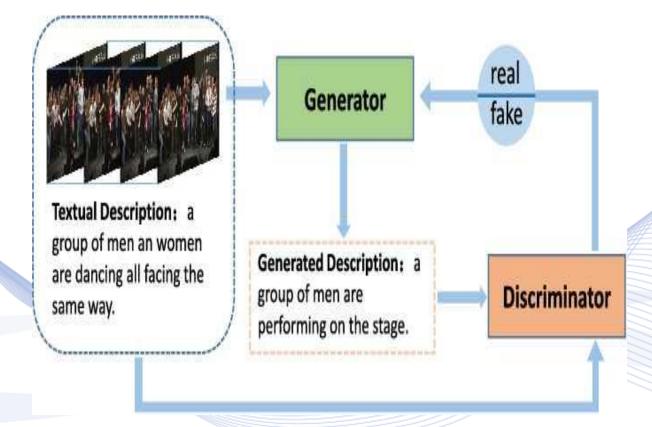
Specifically, in this model it has been adopted a standard generative adversarial network (GAN) architecture, characterized by an interplay of two competing processes: a "generator" that generates textual sentences given the visual content of a video and a "discriminator" that controls the accuracy of the generated sentences.





In an Adversarial LST model, the discriminator acts as an "adversary" toward the generator, and with its controlling mechanism, it helps the generator to become more accurate. For the generator module, we take an existing video captioning concept using LSTM network.







An illustration of the modular structure of the proposed video captioning by interplay of the generator G that generates text sentences and the discriminator (adversary) that verifies the sentences. The optimization goal is that G deceives D, by generating sentences that are not distinguishable from reference sentences.



For the discriminator, it has been propose a novel realization specifically tuned for the video captioning problem and taking both the sentences and video features as input. This expansion of the LSTM concept enabled the video captioning process to improve the accuracy and diversity of generated captions and their robustness to increasing video length. [ZHO2018]



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Applying a GAN to the context of video captioning is, however, not straightforward. A GAN is designed for real-valued, but continuous data and may have difficulty handling sequences of discrete words or tokens. The reason lies in that the gradient of the loss from the discriminator based on the output of the generator is used to move the generator to slightly change the way the sentences are generated. [ZHO2018]



However, if the output of the generator consists of discrete tokens, the slight change guidance by the discriminator may not work because there may be no token in the used dictionary to signal the desired level of change towards the generator. In order to overcome this problem, it has been proposed an embedding layer which can transform the discrete outputs into a consecutive

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Besides that, since the outputs of the generative model are a sequence, ordinary discriminative model, consisted of several fully connected layers, has a poor ability for classifying the sequence-sentence. For solving this problem, it has been new realization of the discriminative model. proposed a Specifically, it has been replaced the fully connected layer, with a novel convolutional structure. [ZHO2018]



This discriminative model consists of convolutional layer, maxpooling layer and fully connected layer. The convolutional layer will produce local features and retain the local coherence around each word of the sequence-sentence. After max-pooling layer, the most important information of the sentence will be effectively extracted. [ZHO2018]





Those information are denoted by a fixed length of vector. Additionally, it has been also introduced a multimodal input for the discriminative model. It has been sent not only the sentence to the discriminative module but also the video feature generated from the first LSTM layer (Encoder) of generative module. The novel methods for incorporating the original inputs with the video feature helped to generate more relevant descriptions about the input video. [ZHO2018]





Although the LSTM scheme has proved promising performance for handling the temporal nature of video data in the temporal process, the LSTM scheme critical deficiency is shown to accumulate the grammatical errors exponentially and may result in decreasing association among the generated words with the increasing video length. Based on the problem, it is considered if there is a structure that can discriminate whether the generated descriptions are

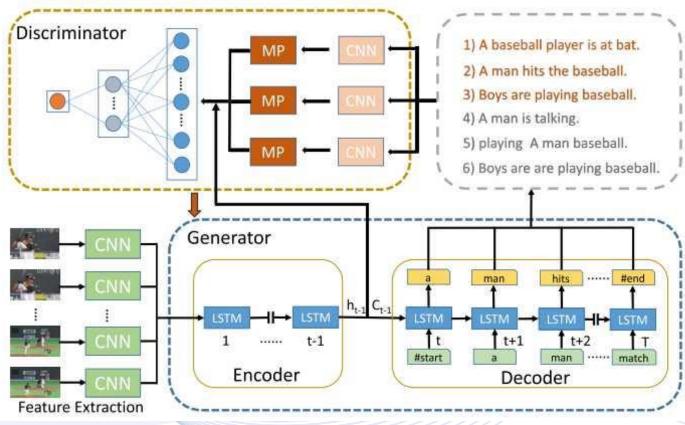


Inspired by the generative adversarial network firstly for generating an image, it has been proposed the model LSTM-GAN incorporating a joint LSTMs with adversarial learning. This model consists of a generative model and discriminative model. The generative model is used for encoding the video clips and generates sentences, while the discriminative model is trying to distinguish whether the input sentences are from reference sentence or generated sentences. [ZHO2018]



# Video Captioning by Adversarial LSTM example





(Image from SemanticScholar).

LSTM-GAN incorporating joint LSTMs with adversarial learning. The model consists of generative model discriminative model. and generative model tries to generate a sentence for the video as accurately as possible, but the discriminative model tries to distinguish whether the input sentences is from reference sentence or generated sentences. The orange input sentences for discriminative model represent the reference sentences, otherwise badly constructed sentences or uncorrelated sentences generated by generative model. MP in the figure denotes the max-pooling. [ZHO2018]





If the **problem** is:

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Given a video V that includes a sequence of n sample frames where  $V = \{v_1, v_2, ..., v_n\}$  with associated caption S where S = $\{w_1, w_2, ..., w_m\}$  consisting of m words. Let  $v_i \in R^{D_v}$  and  $w_i \in R^{D_v}$  $R^{D_w}$  denote the D-dimensional visual presentations of the i-th frame in video V and  $D_w$ -dimensional textual features of the j-th word in sentence S, respectively. [ZHO2018]



In our work, our goal is to maximize the conditional probability of an output sequence  $S = \{w_1, w_2, ..., w_m\}$  given an input sequence  $S = \{v_1, ..., v_m\}$ . The conditional probabilities over the sentences can be defined as follows:

$$p(s|v) = p(w_1, ..., w_m|v_1, ..., v_n)$$
 [ZHO2018]





This problem is similar to the problem of machine translation in natural language processing, where a sequence of words serves as input into a generative model that outputs a sequence of words as the translation result. What is different from aforementioned is that, it has been replace the textual input by the video frames and look forward to a sequence of caption as output. What is more, it is not only expected to get the relevant description of the input videos but also to make the sentences

yjjpatural and reasonable for people to understand. [ZHO2018]



### The **Proposed Solution** is:

The model consists of a generative model G and discriminative model D. The generative model G, defines the policy that generates a sequence of the relevant description given a short video.

The discriminative model D is a binary classifier that takes a sequence of sentences  $\{s,y\}$  as input and outputs a label  $D(S) \in [0,1]$  indicating whether the sentence is natural, reasonable and grammatical correct. [ZHO2018]





The designed architecture is:[ZHO2018]

### 1. Objective Function:

In order to achieve faster convergence of the objective, we firstly pre-training the generative model G and the discriminative model D, respectively. For G, similar to sequence to-sequence models, our goal is to estimate the conditional probability p(S|V) where  $V = \{v_1, v_2, ..., v_t\}$  is an input sequence consisting of a sample of frames and  $S = \{w_1, w_2, ..., w_t\}$  is the

ijeogresponding output sequence as a descriptive texture for the input video.

### Video Captioning by Adversarial LSTM example The designed architecture is:[ZHO2018]



### 1. Objective Function:

t: The length of the video

 $t_1$ : the input sentence.

As sequence-to-sequence models, we conclude the follow objective function:

$$p(s|v) = p(w_1, ..., w_m|v_1, ..., v_n) = \prod_{t=1}^{t_1} p(w_i|V, w_1, ..., w_i - 1).$$
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The designed architecture is:[ZHO2018]

### 1. Objective Function:

For D, our primary purpose is to train a classifier which can be used for sentence encoding and mapping the input sentence to an output  $D(S) \in [0,1]$  representing the probability of S is from the ground truth-captions, rather than from adversarial generator.

The objective function of *D* for pre-training can be formalized into a cross-entropy loss as follow:







The designed architecture is:

### 1. Objective Function:

$$L_D(Y, D(S)) = -\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} [(Y_i) log(D(S_i)) + (Y_i) log(1 - D(S_i))]$$

m: The number of examples in a batch,

 $Y_iD(S_i)$ : The real label and predicted value of discriminator respectively. [ZHO2018]





The **designed architecture** is:

#### 2. Generative Model:

We use a joint recurrent neural networks, also called encoder-decoder LSTM similar to sequence-to-sequence models, as the generative model. The encoder architecture is used to encode the video features into a fixed dimension vector. While the decoder architecture decodes the vector into natural sentences. [ZHO2018]





The **designed architecture** is:

### 2. Generative Model:

To begin with, we adopt VGG16 the sequence frames as the CNN architecture to map  $V = \{v_1, v_2, ..., v_t\}$  into a feature matrix  $W_v \in R^{D_d X D_t} = \{wd_1, ..., w_{Dt}\}$ .  $D_d$  and  $D_t$  denote the dimensions of a feature vector and the number of frames, respectively. The encoder LSTM net, maps the input embedding presentations namely features matrix, into a sequence of hidden states  $h_1, h_2, ..., h_t$ . [ZHO2018]





The **designed architecture** is:

#### 2. Generative Model:

 $h_t$ : The last status, as the presentations of the whole video, generated from "encoder", will be sent to the decoder LSTM which is referred to as "decoder".

We adopt a soft-argmax function:

$$W_t - 1 = \varepsilon_{we}(softmax(Vh_{t-1} \odot L), W_e)$$
 [ZHO2018]





The **designed architecture** is:

#### 2. Generative Model:

 $W_e \in \mathbb{R}^{ZXC}$ : A word embedding matrix (to be learned) and transforms the one-hot encoding of words to a dense lower dimensional embedding,

C: The dimension of the embedded word and

Z: The size of vocabulary in our training data.

V: The set of parameters and encodes the  $h_{t-1}$  to a vector.  $W_{t-1}$ : The generated word of LSTM at  $t^{th}$  step. [ZHO2018]



The designed architecture is:[ZHO2018]

#### 2. Generative Model:

L is a big enough integer which would make the vector of Softmax  $(Vh_{t-1}\odot L)$  closes to a one-hot form. Each value of it is constrained to be either approximately 0 or 1 which can help the

 $W_{t-1}$  more close to  $W_e[t-1]$  (suppose the value (t-1) position is the largest of  $Vh_{t-1}$ ) and also help the word embedding to be more smooth and speed up the loss function to convergence.  $\varepsilon$  denotes a function that maps the decoder output space to a word space.





The **designed architecture** is:

#### 3. Discriminative Model:

In the discriminator D, our primary purpose is to maximize the probability of assigning the correct label to both training sentences and generated sentences from G. The discriminator consists of a convolution layer and a max-pooling operation, which can capture the most useful local features produced by the convolutional layers, over



The **designed architecture** is:

#### 3. Discriminative Model:

The input sentences to our discriminator contain both the ground-truth sentences as the true label and generated sentences generated by our generator as the false label. For convenience, we fix the length of input sentences by adopting the length of longest sentence in a minibatch (padded 0 when necessary). [ZHO2018]







The **designed architecture** is:

### 3. Discriminative Model:

A sentence of length T is represented as a matrix  $X_d \in R^{CXT} =$  $\{x_{d_1}, \dots, x_{d_T}\}$  by concatenating the word embeddings as columns, where T is the length of sentence and C is the dimension of a word. Then a kernel  $W_c \in \mathbb{R}^{CXl}$  applies a convolution operation to a window size of T words to produce a feature map as one of the representations of the input sentence. [ZHO2018]





The **designed architecture** is:

### 3. Discriminative Model:

This process could be formulated as follow:

$$Out = f(X * W_c + b) \in R^{T-l+1}$$

 $f(X * W_c)$ : A nonlinear activation function (for example RELU),

 $b \in \mathbb{R}^{T-l+1}$ : The bias vector and \* represents the convolution





The **designed architecture** is:

### 3. Discriminative Model:

To verify the impressive performance of our video captioning by adversarial training approach, we can evaluate and compare our experimental results on four large public datasets, including MSVD, MSR-VTT, M-VAD and MPII-MD. [ZHO2018]





Deep learning has achieved great successes in solving specific artificial intelligence problems recently. Substantial progresses are made on Computer Vision (CV) and Natural Language Processing (NLP). As a connection between the two worlds of vision and language, video captioning is the task of producing a naturallanguage utterance (usually a sentence) that describes the visual content of a video. el task is naturally decomposed into two sub-





One is to encode a video via a thorough understanding and learn visual representation. The other is caption generation, which decodes the learned representation into a sequential sentence, word by word. [YAO2019]





Visual perception and language expression are two key capabilities of human intelligence, and video captioning is a perfect example towards learning from human to bridge vision and language.

The goal of video captioning is to automatically describe the visual content of a video with natural language. [YAO2019]





Practical applications of automatic caption generation include leveraging descriptions for video indexing or retrieval, and helping those with visual impairments by transforming visual signals into information that can be communicated via text-tospeech technology. Video captioning has already received intensive research attention before the prevalence of deep





At the early stage, video captioning approaches first detect visual concepts in a video with hand-crafted features and then generate the sentence based on pre-defined templates. Such methods highly depend on the templates and the generated sentences are always with fixed syntactical structures, not to mention that the of hand-crafted features is also bounded for video



Instead, current deep learning based video captioning often performs sequence to sequence learning in an encoder-decoder paradigm. In between, an encoder equipped with powerful deep neural networks is exploited to learn video representation. A decoder of sentence generation is utilized to translate the learned representation into a sentence with more flexible structures.





The learning of video representation is the basis of video understanding, and in general involves both feature extraction and aggregation. The ultimate goal is to extract features from multiple modalities, and then aggregate them spatially and temporally to produce a compact representation. [YAO2019]





The recent advances in 2D and 3D Convolutional Neural Networks have successfully improved the state-of-the-art of representation learning from visual, audio and motion information. Nevertheless, feature aggregation particularly for video captioning remains an open challenge. Several techniques from different perspectives, e.g., spatially, temporally and modality-wise, have been studied for exploring feature aggregation in video captioning.





The decoder of sentence generation shares the same learning objectives and evaluation metrics with the sequence generation tasks in NLP field such as text summarization and machine translation. As such, challenges, e.g., exposure bias and objective mismatch, also exist for the decoder in video captioning due to the recursive nature. [YAO2019]





Though there are some methods proposed in NLP area, to solve the issues, the complexity of video content and relatively small captioning corpus make it difficult if directly applying these solutions to video captioning. Furthermore, considering videos in real life are usually long, how to recapitulate all the video content that are worthy of mention is still a valid question.





#### Problem Formulation:

Given an input video  $V = \{f_1, ..., f_N\}$  (N: the length of frame sequence), the target of video captioning is to generate a sentence (i.e., word sequence)  $Y = \{y_1, ..., y_T\}$  to describe the

video's content. Thus, video captioning task is often tackled as a problem of sequence-to-sequence learning. [YAO2019]





### Problem Formulation:

Most video captioning frameworks are designed as an *encoder-decoder* structure, where the encoder learns condensed video representation from multi-modal features and the decoder produces sentence word-by-word depending on the learned representation from encoder. [YAO2019]





#### Problem Formulation:

To model the video content, we firstly extract features from multiple modalities:

 $F = \{F_V, F_M, F_A, F_S\}$  where  $F_V, F_M, F_A, and F_S$  denote visual, motion, audio and semantic features respectively. [YAO2019]





### Problem Formulation:

To model the video content, we firstly extract features from multiple modalities:

$$F = f_{feat}(V)$$

where  $f_{feat}(V)$  is an ensemble of feature extraction functions (usually pre-trained deep neural networks) for multiple modalities of





### Problem Formulation:

The features F may be further aggregated into a more condensed representation, and the process of feature aggregation is conducted depending on some changing state:

$$F_t = f_{aggr}(F, s_t)$$

Where  $f_{aggr}$  is the feature aggregation function,  $s_t$  is an optional





#### Problem Formulation:

(e.g. the model's state when generating the t-th word) and  $F_t$  is the aggregated feature.  $f_{feat}$  and  $f_{aggr}$  constitute the encoder. The language model (or decoder) then takes  $F_t$  (and optionally and  $F_t = s_t$ ) and predicts the distribution of the word  $y_t$ :[YAO2019]





### Problem Formulation:

$$p_t = f_{lang}(F_t, s_t)$$

 $f_{lang}$ : The updating function in LSTM [Hochreiter and

Schmidhuber, 1997] or its variants.

The final prediction of Y is obtained based on the distributions

$$\{p_1, ..., p_T\}$$
. [YAO2019]





### Video Representation:

The process to obtain video representation can be divided into two major steps:

**Feature Extraction and Feature Aggregation**. These methods are also applicable to other video understanding tasks. [YAO2019]





#### Multimodal Feature Extraction:

A good set of features is the foundation of a performant video captioning method. Deep learning has been successfully applied to multiple modalities where sufficient amount of data is available, and the learned representations have nice transferability so that they can be directly leveraged by other tasks. [YAO2019]





- Multimodal Feature Extraction:
  - Visual

Visual appearance is the most important feature for understanding video contents. State of-the-art convolutional neural networks (CNNs) have surpassed human performance in

recognizing images. [YAO2019]





- Multimodal Feature Extraction:
  - Visual

Activation vectors from higher layers of a trained CNN can capture global visual appearance of its input image, and is now used as the default feature for video captioning. Popular choices of CNN are VGG Net, ResNet and Inception Networks[YAO2019]





- Multimodal Feature Extraction:
  - Visual

Motion feature is crucial for capturing the action sand temporal interactions in video, which complements the static visual appearance. [YAO2019]





- Multimodal Feature Extraction:
  - Visual

3D CNN such as C3D learns spatiotemporal feature by processing a consecutive sequence of video frames with 3-dimensional convolutions, and can selectively attend to both motion and appearance. Thus, the higher-layer activation vectors of 3D CNNare

commonly leveraged as motion feature for video captioning[YAO2019]



- Multimodal Feature Extraction:
  - Audio

Audio feature is helpful for distinguishing events such as "person talking to the phone" and "person listening to the phone playing music". MFCCs (Mel Frequency Cepstral Coefficients) is a widely adopted audio feature, and video captioning works. [YAO2019]





- Multimodal Feature Extraction:
  - Semantic

Semantic feature refers to a wide category of features that explicitly capture semantic contents in videos. MMVD shows that the video-level category information can boost video captioning. Simply incorporating category information into the encoder can yield better



- Multimodal Feature Extraction:
  - Semantic

MMTGM further predicts latent topics from multimodal features (except semantic feature), then integrates the predicted topics into the designed topic-aware decoder. LSTM-TSA adopts the weakly-supervised attribute detection method to detect frame- and video



- Multimodal Feature Extraction:
  - Semantic

Next a transfer unit is utilized to dynamically incorporate attribute information into LSTMbased decoder. In this sense, semantic features of any granularity can improve video captioning, which is because they provide the decoder (language model) with more prior

knowledge about the video content. [YAO2019]



- Feature Aggregation:
  - Temporal Attention

Next a transfer unit is utilized to dynamically incorporate attribute information into LSTMbased decoder. In this sense, semantic features of any granularity can improve video captioning, which is because they provide the decoder (language model) with more prior

knowledge about the video content. [YAO2019]



- Feature Aggregation:
  - Temporal Attention

The simplest way to aggregate a feature sequence, is using a LSTM/GRU to encode the sequence and take the final encoding state as the aggregated feature for decoding. However, treating video features as a that sequence is not effective,





- Feature Aggregation:
  - **Temporal Attention**
- (1) the length of gradient ow to the earliest frame is as long as the
- sequence, which leads to gradient vanishing; (2) each feature in the sequence contributes the same to the decoder, which makes the model also pay attention to background noises.
- Temporal attention (also known as dynamic attention) [YAO2019] 192



- Feature Aggregation:
  - Temporal Attention

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Temporal attention (also known as dynamic attention) is a mechanism which learns to dynamically assign weights to each feature in the sequence such that the decoder can pay more attention to relevant features when generating certain words.



- Feature Aggregation:
  - Temporal Attention

Temporal attention (also known as dynamic attention) is a mechanism which learns to dynamically assign weights to each feature in the sequence such that the decoder can pay more attention to relevant features when generating certain words.





- Feature Aggregation:
  - Temporal Attention

Thus the computation of attention weights involves both visual feature sequence and the decoder state. Another effect is that the decoder and each feature is directly connected by a weighted path, which shortens the length of gradient ow and leads to more



- Feature Aggregation:
  - Temporal Attention

hLSTMat is an improved temporal attention mechanism which makes the decoder depend less on visual features when generating non-visual words, but instead rely on language model's state. [YAO2019]





- Feature Aggregation:
  - Spatial Attention

Different regions of the video frames also contribute differently to the final word prediction, e.g. objects are clearly more important than background. Spatial attention methods aim to learn spatial attention maps, which indicate the importance of different regions.





- Feature Aggregation:
  - Spatial Attention

Dynamic attention can also be applied spatially if regions are treated sequentially. Thus, MAM-RNN adopts two-level spatial and temporal dynamic attention for video captioning. When computing spatial attention weights for a certain frame, MAMRNN additionally incorporates the attention weights from previous frame. In this way, the spatial attention



- Feature Aggregation:
  - Multimodal Feature Fusion

Using multimodal features is ubiquitous in video captioning methods, in contrast, multimodal feature fusion strategy is rarely explored. MMVD simply concatenates features from multiple modalities as the input to decoder. It is obvious that the importance of each modality is different for various types of videos. [YAO2019]





#### **Caption Generation**

Given the generated word probabilities at each time step  $\{p_1, \dots, p_T\}$  and ground truth caption  $\hat{Y} = \{\hat{y}_1, \dots, \hat{y}_T\}$  the most common learning objective for captioning is to maximize the loglikelihood

of all the ground truth words:  $max_{\theta} = \sum_{t=0}^{T} p_{t}(\hat{y}_{T})$ , where  $\theta$  is all the learnable parameters of the captioning model. [YAO2019]





#### **Caption Generation**

This objective is widely adopted for sequence generation tasks such as machine translation and captioning. However, there are two major problems with it. First, there is a discrepancy between this objective function and the automatic evaluation metrics such as BLEU. [YAO2019]





#### **Caption Generation**

This is often referred to as objective mismatch. And there is also a gap between these metrics and human judgment. Second, this objective alone maybe insufficient to train a good language model since video captioning datasets have a much smaller corpus compared to pure NLP datasets. [YAO2019]





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#### Q & A

Thank you very much for your attention!

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