Florida International University - University of Miami TRECVID 2021 DSDI Track

Maria Presa-Reyes¹, Yudong Tao², Erik Coltey¹, Tianyi Wang¹, Rui Ma², Shu-Ching Chen¹, and Mei-Ling Shyu²

¹Knight Foundation School of Computing and Information Sciences Florida International University, Miami, FL 33199, USA ²Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering University of Miami, Coral Gables, FL 33146, USA mpres029@cs.fiu.edu, yxt128@miami.edu, ecolt003@cs.fiu.edu, wtian002@cs.fiu.edu, rxm1351@miami.edu, chens@cs.fiu.edu, shyu@miami.edu

Abstract

This paper presents the framework and results from the team "Florida International University-University of Miami (FIU-UM)" in the TRECVID 2021 Disaster Scene Description and Indexing (DSDI) task. This year our team submitted a total of seven runs in which four achieved the highest score among all participants, regardless of the training datasets utilized. The difference among the runs lies mainly on the method to fuse the feature scores summarized as follows.

LADI-based Submission Runs:

- run1: fully automated feature score fusion through differential evolution;
- run2: mean aggregation of the predicted scores from the best performing models in the ensemble;
- run3: fully automated feature score fusion with z-score normalization and averaged z-scores.

LADI + Others Submission Runs:

- run1: fully automated feature score fusion through differential evolution;
- run2: further enhancement of the feature score fusion by the removal of the less relevant feature scores as determined by the differential evolution;
- run3: fully automated feature score fusion with z-score normalization and averaged z-scores;
- run4: applied the team's best performing model used to rank videos in TRECVID2020-DSDI.

The following processing steps are included in our framework: (1) pre-processing imagery from the provided LADI (Low Altitude Disaster Imagery) dataset; (2) generating soft labels for imagery in the LADI dataset through the advanced fusion of the annotations obtained from both human and machine annotators; and (3) categorizing the frames in the LADI imagery by the pre-trained Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) models, each focused on a different aspect of the target features. We use a variety of training strategies to improve the performance of the CNN models, including using a Confident Learning approach to denoise the training set and fusing the information from multiple models pre-trained on the well-known public dataset benchmarks. The final score is produced by (1) determining which characteristics from multiple models are semantically relevant to the target features in DSDI and (2) searching for the optimum approach to combine the predicted feature scores from multiple pre-trained models using a Differential Evolution optimization technique. The test video clips are then ranked according to their final feature scores that determine their relevance to a certain target feature. The FIU-UM team took the first position in four of the submitted runs this year, regardless of the training dataset used. The submission details are as follows.

- Training type: LADI-based (L) and LADI + Others (O)
- Team ID: FIU-UM (Florida International University University of Miami)
- Year: 2021

I. INTRODUCTION

The TREC Video Retrieval Evaluation (TRECVID) [1] is a competition led by the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), which aims to accelerate the research and development in video-based content analysis and retrieval [2]. The introduction of the Disaster Scene Description and Indexing (DSDI) track this year allowed our team to leverage our comprehensive knowledge and previous work in disaster data management [3–8] and our past experiences competing in other TRECVID tracks [9–12]. Among a total of seven prioritized submitted runs with different relevancy sorting techniques, four of our run submissions ranked the top 4 among all the submissions, regardless of the training dataset used.

The DSDI track gives the participants the access to the LADI (Low Altitude Disaster Imagery) dataset [13] to train their models. LADI is composed of imagery collected by CAP (Civil Air Patrol) from a low-flying aircraft and hosted by the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA). The dataset emphasizes unique disaster-related features such as the damage labels and scene descriptors. Image variations, including lighting, orientation, perspective, and resolution, are a key component to the LADI dataset. Any technology or tool developed to support disaster response will need to handle these types of variations. Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) has proven to generalize well when the training images are with variations while also achieving impressive results in the image recognition task [14].

The LADI dataset employs a hierarchical labeling scheme of five coarse categories and then more specific annotations for each category. Each image also contains valuable metadata with information on the camera used to take the photo and

the aircraft's location and altitude. A subset of the LADI dataset, representing more than forty thousand images, were handannotated using the Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) service. Moreover, the LADI dataset also includes machine-generated labels from commercial and open-source image recognition tools to provide additional context. The multimedia data, such as the one that can be found in LADI and in contrast to conventional data that consists of just texts and numbers, is often unstructured and noisy. Conventional data analysis will not be able to handle this massive volume of complex data. Hence, more extensive and sophisticated solutions are necessary [15–17].

Delivering an efficient response requires a timely and accurate analysis of the impacts of a disaster. Data obtained using remote sensing technology, such as high-flying aircraft or drones, has proven to be critical in assessing the extent of damage in areas that have been inaccessible as a result of the disaster [18–22]. By leveraging the advanced technologies and machine learning methods such as deep learning [23, 24] during a disaster, it is possible to send a drone ahead of the search team to rapidly identify regions that are the most affected and should be prioritized. The automatic content-based analysis and classification of the features found in the recorded videos would provide the augmented curation and retrieval of the relevant information for situational awareness [25–27].

One of the major challenges encountered when working with LADI was handling a large and mostly unlabeled dataset with a limited number of samples that at best included some noisy labels. This posed a substantial challenge in developing an appropriate catastrophe scene description model. Furthermore, the crowd-sourced human annotations supplied for a section of the LADI training set are very imbalanced and untrustworthy, with some photos including mislabels on a regular basis. We further enhanced the LADI training labels with the help of open-source pre-trained models and datasets from multiple sources, allowing us to reach an exceptional performance.

Considering the mislabels that can be found in LADI's labeled subset, the soft-label assignment method aids in the solution of such a challenge. Soft labels offer information to the model about the relevance of each target feature. The model is trained to recognize the existence of a given feature inside an image and how significant that feature is, using the soft labels. Such approach has shown to be very effective in addressing the ranking issue. It also enables us to better combine the soft labels supplied by human annotators, the SoftMax weights provided by the pre-trained models, and the numerous commercial classifiers made accessible by the DSDI task coordinators.

In TRECVID2020-DSDI, our team adopted various training strategies, including (1) using the model pre-trained on ImageNet; (2) propagating the labels during training, following the sequence nature of the LADI dataset; and (3) retrieving more relevant data using an image crawler to enhance the training data [12, 28]. Imagery in LADI is taken following a sequence, much like a video [29]. Using the time and location metadata from the images, we generated that sequence and propagated the labels nearest to the image containing the highest ground truth soft-labels. If an image includes a particular feature, it is very likely that the image taken before or after also includes the said feature as well. For better flexibility, five separate CNN models were trained for the features belonging to each coarse category (i.e., damage, environment, infrastructure, vehicles, and water). This year, our team made further improvements to our established method by incorporating a more advanced approach to integrate the SoftMax weights predicted by other models.

For inference, the testing video images are divided into numerous picture frames, which are then fed into the featurescore models to predict the scores for the 32 characteristics. In the next step, the feature-score fusion and aggregation of the frame-level scores are applied in order to rank the video shot according to its relevance to enable the content-based retrieval system [30, 31].

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section II explains the proposed framework for the TRECVID 2021 DSDI task and the details of different strategies used in each run. Section III evaluates the performance of each submission and demonstrates the submission results. Section IV concludes the paper and suggests future directions for next year's submission.

II. THE PROPOSED FRAMEWORK

While working with LADI, one of the most challenging problems was dealing with a vast and largely unlabeled dataset that includes a limited subset of samples with noisy labels, which presents a significant obstacle in training an effective model for the disaster scene description. On the other hand, the crowd-sourced human annotations provided for a subset of the LADI training set are highly imbalanced and unreliable, with several images often containing mislabels. With the support of open-source pre-trained models and the datasets from various sources, we improved the LADI training labels, making it possible to obtain excellent results. Like last year's competition, each image in our training set is first assigned a value between 0 and 1 for a specific target feature, calculated from the crowd-sourced annotations. As shown in Figure 1, we utilize a CL (confidential learning) method to confidently train a model on samples with a high predicted probability for their training label, focusing on label quality rather than quantity. Our CL-based method is conducted by first employing five-fold cross-validation to generate out-of-sample predicted probabilities for the training set, resulting in soft labels that can be used to train a model with confidence. Soft labels provide the advantage of allowing a model to be trained on the reliance of each target feature, alleviating some of the problems associated with the highly imbalanced and noisy labels. The soft labeling technique also aligns well with the ranking problem that the DSDI track aims to solve, producing a continuous confidence measure.



Fig. 1: The proposed framework uses a confidential learning approach to denoise the LADI training data and differential evolution to fuse feature scores predicted by various models pre-trained on LADI and well-known public dataset benchmarks.

We further enhance the training set by integrating the soft labels with the softmax weights produced by the models pre-trained on well-known data benchmarks such as ImageNet and Places365. Moreover, this year we also used the scores generated by models pre-trained on more relevant datasets, including the Incidents Dataset and ImageNet-21K. A semantic similarity match connects the target features with the features predicted by these pre-trained models based on the semantic meaning of the feature. These features' names or textual definitions are encoded as high-dimensional vectors using a universal-sentence-encoder model based on the deep averaging network (DAN). The cosine distance between these vectors measures how similar two pieces of text are in meaning. The scores acquired from our models trained on the relevant target feature are then integrated with those identified from relevant pre-trained model target features. The best-weighted combination of these scores is then dynamically obtained through DE (differential evolution) implemented to optimize the ranking scores obtained from the previously released TRECVID2020-DSDI test set. DE is a population-based meta-heuristic search method that optimizes a problem by repeatedly developing a potential solution based on an evolutionary process. Such algorithms make little or no assumptions about the underlying optimization issue and may rapidly explore incredibly vast design spaces. The final score is generated from the optimum combination of multiple scores obtained from numerous models. It is then used to rank the test video clips according to their relevance to a target feature.

A. Machine Annotators

LADI provides machine-generated labels for each image from some well-known open-source models and commercially available pre-trained models. These machine annotations generate each feature's label in the form of a numerical score indicating the relative confidence in the presence of the said feature. Our team further includes other machine-generated annotations from open source pre-trained models only for the LADI + Others (O) type of submissions.

1) Inception-ResNet-V2 Pre-trained on ImageNet: ImageNet [14] is a well-known large-scale picture dataset including concepts from a variety of fields, including animal, instrumentation, scene, and activity, all of which occur in some of the queries. ImageNet has 1.2 million photos in total, divided into 1000 classifications. This dataset contains a large number of real-world items, and the classification accuracy of those models trained on it has outperformed human performance using

contemporary deep neural networks. To obtain the prediction scores for concepts in each keyframe from the final dense layer, we employ a Inception-ResNet-V2 [32] model pre-trained on the ImageNet dataset.

2) ResNet50 Pre-trained on Places365: Scene detection is included as one of the machine annotators and essential in improving the framework's performance. Among all the public scene detection datasets, Places365 incorporates 365 scene categories used to train the model [33]. A ResNet50 model trained on Places365 is applied to detect the location and environment in the LADI imagery. In the Places365 dataset, 1.8 million training images are provided, and each class includes at most 5000 images. This model provided many helpful concepts that enhanced the training set in terms of including images containing features under the categories for the environment, infrastructure, and water.

3) Google Cloud Vision: LADI provides machine-generated annotations from the commercially available pre-trained models marketed by Google Cloud Vision (GCV) [34]. GCV offers a number of products, of which LADI provides the scores for (1) the GCV *label detection* service and (2) the GCV *web entity detection*. The GCV API offers powerful pre-trained machine learning models to rapidly assign labels to images and quickly classify them into millions of predefined categories. The *web entity detection* detects web references to an image and returns a list of recommended tags.

4) YOLOv4 Pre-trained on COCO: Other than the previously described ResNet50 and GCV models, our team also applied the inference from the YOLOv4 model pre-trained on the COCO dataset [35]. YOLO (You Only Look Once) is a real-time object detection deep learning architecture proposed by Redmon *et al.* in 2015 [36]. YOLO trains on full images and directly optimizes the detection performance while treating the detection mechanism as a regression problem. YOLO is fast compared to other detection networks. Microsoft COCO (Common Objects in Context) is a large-scale object detection, segmentation, and captioning dataset. Moreover, the annotations provided by the YOLOv4 model trained on COCO include relevant features such as car and truck and have proven to be crucial in enhancing the model developed for the vehicle category.

5) VIT-B/16 Pre-trained on ImageNet21K: Alexey Dosovitskiy proposed the Vision Transformer (ViT) model [37] as a competitive alternative to CNNs. ViT is recently extensively employed in various image identification applications. The vision transformer model employs multi-head self-attention without the need for image-specific biases. The model divides the pictures into a series of positional embedding patches, which the transformer encoder processes. It does so in order to comprehend the image's local and global characteristics. Moreover, the ViT has shown to achieve a greater accuracy rate with less training time on a big dataset than a regular CNN model. As part of our machine annotators, ViT-B/16 pre-trained on ImageNet21K plays a key part in our developed framework, specially in detecting the smaller objects, such as the Utility-line, Car, Boat, and Truck.

6) ResNet50 Pre-trained on Incidents Dataset: The large-scale Incidents Dataset includes 446,684 scene-centric classpositive photos (annotated by humans) relating to natural catastrophes, forms of damage such as events that may need human attention or aid. The 43 categories covered by the Incidents Dataset are referred to as occurrences. A total of 49 distinct places were used to provide variations in the images. The dataset also includes 697,464 class-negative pictures, which were utilized for training the final model to reduce false-positive predictions.

B. Human Annotators

A subset of images from the LADI training set were annotated using Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) [38]. The crowdsourced human labels provided for a subset of more than 40k LADI imagery were highly imbalanced with several images containing often incorrect labels. Such a problem was overcome through a soft label assignment approach. Each Human Intelligence Task (HIT) on the MTurk platform, according to the LADI creators, asks the human worker whether any of the labels in each of the coarse categories are correct. Each HIT only asks about one category at a time. As a result, each HIT is given to three individuals in order to establish an agreement on label quality. If more validation was necessary, the HIT was outsourced to two more employees, bringing the total to five workers per category and picture. Each image is assigned a value from 0 to 1 for a specific target feature, using the number of votes from each worker as a weight for the score. The more workers that assign a feature for a certain image, the higher the confidence in the image containing the correct feature.

C. Confident Learning

The crowd-sourced annotations are used to give a value between 0 and 1 to each picture in our training set for a certain target feature. We use a CL technique to train a model with confidence on samples with a high predicted probability for their training labels, concentrating on label quality rather than quantity. Our CL-based technique begins with five-fold cross-validation to provide out-of-sample predicted probabilities for the training set, yielding soft labels that can be used to confidently train a model. Soft labels have the benefit of enabling a model to be trained on the dependency of each target feature, which eliminates some of the issues that come with extremely imbalanced and noisy labels. The soft labeling approach also correlates nicely with the DSDI track's goal of providing a continuous confidence measure, which performs favorably to resolve the ranking issue.

D. Feature Score Model Setup and Training

Our feature score model trained on the LADI's confident labels generated by the CL-based technique, and is based on the EfficientNet-B5 architecture [39]. Following the transfer learning approach [40], we fine-tune the weights of the entire network that has been pre-trained on ImageNet [14]. The last classification-head of the network is replaced by a dense layer implementing the sigmoid activation function for multi-class classification of soft-labels. During training, the binary crossentropy function calculates the model loss and updates the weights of the model accordingly. Adam solver is employed to optimize our model with a starting learning rate ($\eta = 1e - 4$). The chosen learning rate is small enough to update the transferred weights slowly when fine-tuning the pre-trained model—achieving a more optimal set of final weights [41]. During training, the learning rate will drop to 10% of its current learning rate if there are no improvements to the validation loss value for a total of 10 consecutive training epochs.

E. Feature Fusion

1) Target Feature Match: A semantic match of the feature's name (or definition) in both LADI and the pre-trained model's feature list is formed before the actual fusion of the scores. Semantic similarity uses Natural Language Processing (NLP) methods like word embedding to detect how similar two pieces of text are by their meaning. Text describing the target feature is encoded into high-dimensional vectors using the Universal Sentence Encoder, which may be used for text classification, semantic similarity, clustering, and other natural language applications. The Universal Sentence Encoder [42] has been pre-trained and is freely accessible on Tensorflow-hub. The encoder used in this work is based on the Deep Averaging Network (DAN), which averages the input embeddings for words and bi-grams before passing them through a feedforward deep neural network (DNN) to effectively construct the sentence embeddings. Moreover, this encoder uses unsupervised training data from various online sources, including Wikipedia, web news, web question-and-answer sites, and discussion forums. We then compute the cosine similarity of the two sentence embeddings to find a match given a certain cosine distance thresholds.

2) Optimizing the Weights of the Pre-trained Models Using Differential Evolution: The weighted sum approach merges all model's predictions into a single scalar that can serve as a score to rank the video clip according to a target feature. The problem emerges while assigning the weighting coefficients since the answer is heavily dependent on the weighting factors selected [43]. This strategy of optimizing a problem by constantly constructing a possible solution based on an evolutionary process is known as DE. The DE procedure starts by creating a population of real-valued decision vectors, sometimes known as genomes or chromosomes, at random. These are the potential solutions to the multidimensional optimization issue. The method inserts mutations into the population at each iteration to develop new candidate solutions. In contrast to traditional optimization algorithms, such algorithms make little or no assumptions about the underlying optimization problem and are capable of swiftly exploring very large design spaces [44]. In order to rank the test video clips based on their relevance to a target feature, the final score is calculated by identifying the best possible combination of many scores received from a variety of models, and it is then utilized to calculate the final score.

F. Submitted Runs

1) LADI-based: A total of three runs were submitted to the TRECVID 2021 DSDI task following the LADI (L) training type. Only the LADI dataset that has been provided will be utilized in the development of our system.

- run1: fully automated feature score fusion through differential evolution;
- run2: mean aggregation of the predicted scores from the best performing models in the ensemble;
- run3: fully automated feature score fusion with z-score normalization and averaged z-scores.

2) LADI + Others: A total of four runs were submitted to the TRECVID 2021 DSDI task following the LADI + Others (O) training type. The difference among all the submitted runs is the computation of the final score, namely, the feature score fusion from multiple models before the shot-level score aggregation.

- run1: fully automated feature score fusion through differential evolution;
- **run2**: further enhancement of the feature score fusion by the removal of the less relevant feature scores as determined by the differential evolution;
- run3: fully automated feature score fusion with z-score normalization and averaged z-scores;
- run4: applied the team's best performing model used to rank videos in TRECVID2020-DSDI.

III. RESULTS

A. Evaluation

Our proposed framework processes all the video shots in the test dataset and ranks them based on the predicted relevance to each feature of interest [31]. For each of the given features, the top-1000 relevant video shots' IDs were submitted to be evaluated by the competition coordinators. The test dataset for the DSDI track contains 2,802 video shots, and each shot is about maximum 60 seconds. The videos were compiled from operational footage from previous natural catastrophe events,



Fig. 2: Comparison of MAP scores among FIU-UM runs (red) with all the other submitted runs in DSDI.



Fig. 3: The boxplot distribution for the precision score of a feature is compared across all submissions to TRECVID2021-DSDI, regardless of the training dataset utilized. The boxplot's interquartile range is 25th to 75th percentiles. The red dot denotes our best run's (O_FIU_UM_1) position among all entries. The yellow diamond indicates our last year's solution (O_FIU_UM_4). The blue square implements our proposed solution trained solely on the LADI dataset (L_FIU_UM_1).

with this year's concentration on showing the destruction caused by an earthquake tragedy. All the videos are evaluated by the assessors at NIST and annotated whether they are related to each feature of interest [45]. The Mean Average Precision (MAP) metric is computed to evaluate and compare the performance of different approaches.

B. Performance

The MAP scores of the runs based on our proposed framework and all other submitted runs are shown in Figure 2. Four of our submitted runs which utilized the data from LADI along with other datasets for its development achieved the best results. Their MAP scores are 0.359 (run1), 0.331 (run2), 0.339 (run3), and 0.298 (run4), which ranked 1st, 3rd, 2nd, and 4th, among all the submitted runs, regardless of the training dataset used. Our top submission makes use of the fully automated feature score fusion technique implemented using DE. Our proposed methods perform well and require very little training, effectively leveraging and transferring the knowledge from the methods that have already been previously proposed. It's interesting to

TABLE I: Qualitative results comparing the first 10 video clips retrieved for 6 features using three of our submitted solutions, namely, L_FIU_UM_1 (top-row), O_FIU_UM_4 (middle-row), and O_FIU_UM_1 (last-row).

↓ Landslide х \downarrow Rubble X х ./ х $\downarrow \textbf{Road}$ х X х Х X х ↓ Shrubs х X X \checkmark X X X х ~ х $\stackrel{}{\leftarrow} \mathbf{Car}$ х х ↓ Utility-line √ ~ ~ ~ √ ~ √ ~ ~

Retrieval Top-10 Video Clips

note how our last year's trained solution (i.e., O_FIU_UM_4) [12] achieved one of the top scores. This year, we were able to improve on our methodologies previously developed and demonstrated in last year's submission, with a strong emphasis on improving the fusion of multiple pre-trained models.

Figure 3 summarizes the mean average precision (MAP) per target feature. The x-axis of the figure shows the DSDI target feature name, while the y-axis presents the average precision measure of each target feature. The distribution of the feature-level performance across all competition entries, regardless of the training style, is illustrated using a boxplot whose interquartile range is at the 25th and 75th percentiles. Within the distribution of the boxplot, the placement of three of our runs are depicted. The location of our best run among all participants, regardless of the training dataset used, is shown by the red dot. Our best solution using our method from last year's TRECVID2020-DSDI is demonstrated by the yellow diamond. Finally, the blue square represents our proposed methods trained solely on the LADI dataset. These feature-level metrics indicate that our top submission performs the best in various target features such as rubble, rock, snow/ice, bridge, building, river, and road. Also, the best average precision scores for features like damage (misc), dirt, grass, sand, and lake are achieved by the other runs submitted by us. Several aspects of our proposed methodologies have contributed to these good results.

The enhanced fusion between human and machine annotations allows us to apply a weighted average ensemble where each model's contribution to a prediction must be weighted proportionately to the performance achieved on the validation dataset. In our example, the test set released in TRECVID2020-DSDI serves as validation. We integrate various pre-trained models' predicted labels to the relevant target feature using the proposed semantic sentence match. For example, the performance on features like rock and building benefit considerably from the relevant classes 'rock arch' and 'office building,' predicted by the model trained on the Places365 dataset. Another example is the performance gain achieved by applying the ViT-B/16 model pre-trained on ImageNet21K, which includes several useful concepts such as 'powerline' to aid in the detection of utility-lines. Our approaches are fully-automated and considerably reduce the need to train sophisticated models from scratch on massive annotation datasets, saving a significant amount of time and resources while achieving great results. Further processing and curation of the data labels will guarantee better improvements.

Table I qualitatively summarizes the top 10 video clips retrieved for six of our best performing target features. This qualitative visual is meant to help compare the performance among our proposed methods trained on LADI only; our previously submitted method from last year trained on LADI + Others; and our proposed improvements trained on LADI + Others. Our proposed method is demonstrated to work best when the prediction from multiple models is available. Our technique works well in retrieving suitable clips for target features like car and/or road, even if their visual attributes are widely diverse. Furthermore, by applying the transformer techniques such as ViT, the proposed approach is able to recognize smaller items in a picture, such as the utility-line target feature.

IV. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this notebook paper, the framework and results of the FIU-UM team in the TRECVID 2021 DSDI task are presented. This year, we used a Confident Learning (CL) strategy to build a model that could handle the noisy labels in the training set. We also combined the results of models trained on more relevant datasets like the Incidents Dataset and ImageNet-21K. The final score is determined by (1) evaluating which features from multiple models are semantically relevant to the DSDI target features and (2) using a method known as DE to find the optimum approach to combine the matching predicted scores from these models. The test video clips are then ranked according to their relevance to a particular feature in the final score.

As part of our future work, we will enhance the proposed framework by developing one single model that supports the hierarchical labeling style of the LADI dataset. Moreover, we will explore ways to also consider the sequence information of the images to further improve the model performance. The LADI test set is a collection of short video clips taken from a UAV, as opposed to the training set, which is mainly made up of still pictures collected from an aircraft. In 2021, DSDI released the new test set of the videos containing the location data in the form of Keyhole Markup Language (KMZ). The KMZ files provide the location data for the test videos illustrated in Figure 4 (b). These files include the following:

- 1) Path area for the video;
- 2) Start location (Latitude, Longitude);
- 3) End location (Latitude, Longitude).

The new metadata available from LADI's 2021 test set gives us the opportunity to exploit the spatial knowledge about the video, retrieve further information in regards to the area captured, and improve the accuracy of the model at test time. In total, there are 2,801 short video clips with the average duration of 8 seconds, each segmented from the original 29 videos (total duration of about 6.5 hr). As described in the aforementioned list, each video can be represented as a path covering a spatial region with only the information of where the video begins and ends.

V. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

For Shu-Ching Chen, this research is partially supported by NSF CNS-1952089 and CNS-2125165.



(b) LADI Testing Spatial Area

Fig. 4: A comparison between the spatial area captured from training set and testing set in the LADI dataset.

REFERENCES

- [1] G. Awad, A. A. Butt, K. Curtis, J. Fiscus, A. Godil, Y. Lee, A. Delgado, J. Zhang, E. Godard, B. Chocot, L. Diduch, J. Liu, Y. Graham, G. J. F. Jones, and G. Quénot, "Evaluating multiple video understanding and retrieval tasks at trecvid 2021," in *Proceedings of TRECVID 2021*. NIST, USA, 2021.
- [2] S.-C. Chen, R. L. Kashyap, and A. Ghafoor, Semantic models for multimedia database searching and browsing. Springer Science & Business Media, 2006, vol. 21.
- [3] S. Pouyanfar, Y. Tao, H. Tian, S.-C. Chen, and M.-L. Shyu, "Multimodal deep learning based on multiple correspondence analysis for disaster management," *World Wide Web*, vol. 22, no. 5, pp. 1893–1911, 2019.
- [4] H. Tian, H. C. Zheng, and S.-C. Chen, "Sequential deep learning for disaster-related video classification," in *IEEE Conference on Multimedia Information Processing and Retrieval*. IEEE, 2018, pp. 106–111.
- [5] M. E. P. Reyes, S. Pouyanfar, H. C. Zheng, H.-Y. Ha, and S.-C. Chen, "Multimedia data management for disaster situation awareness," in *International Symposium on Sensor Networks, Systems and Security*. Springer, 2017, pp. 137–146.
- [6] L. Zheng, C. Shen, L. Tang, T. Li, S. Luis, S.-C. Chen, and V. Hristidis, "Using data mining techniques to address critical information exchange needs in disaster affected public-private networks," in ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining, 2010, pp. 125–134.
- [7] L. Zheng, C. Shen, L. Tang, T. Li, S. Luis, and S.-C. Chen, "Applying data mining techniques to address disaster information management challenges on mobile devices," in ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining, 2011, pp. 283–291.
- [8] T. Li, N. Xie, C. Zeng, W. Zhou, L. Zheng, Y. Jiang, Y. Yang, H.-Y. Ha, W. Xue, Y. Huang et al., "Data-driven techniques

in disaster information management," ACM Computing Surveys, vol. 50, no. 1, pp. 1-45, 2017.

- [9] Y. Yan, S. Pouyanfar, Y. Tao, H. Tian, M. Reyes, M. Shyu, S. Chen, W. Chen, T. Chen, and J. Chen, "FIU-UM at TRECVID 2017: Rectified linear score normalization and weighted integration for ad-hoc video search," in *TRECVID*. NIST, USA, 2017.
- [10] S. Pouyanfar, Y. Tao, H. Tian, M. E. P. Reyes, Y. Tu, Y. Yan, T. Wang, Y. Li, S. Sadiq, M.-L. Shyu, S.-C. Chen, W. Chen, T. Chen, and J. Chen, "Florida International University-University of Miami TRECVID 2018," in *TRECVID*. NIST, USA, 2018.
- [11] Y. Tao, T. Wang, D. Machado, R. Garcia, Y. Tu, M. P. Reyes, Y. Chen, H. Tian, M.-L. Shyu, and S.-C. Chen, "Florida International University-University of Miami TRECVID 2019," in *TRECVID*. NIST, USA, 2019.
- [12] M. Presa-Reyes, Y. Tao, S.-C. Chen, and M.-L. Shyu, "Florida international university-university of miami TRECVID 2020 DSDI track," in *TRECVID*. NIST, USA, 2020.
- [13] J. Liu, D. Strohschein, S. Samsi, and A. Weinert, "Large scale organization and inference of an imagery dataset for public safety," in *IEEE High Performance Extreme Computing Conference*, Sep. 2019, pp. 1–6.
- [14] A. Krizhevsky, I. Sutskever, and G. E. Hinton, "Imagenet classification with deep convolutional neural networks," *Communications of the ACM*, vol. 60, no. 6, pp. 84–90, 2017.
- [15] S. Pouyanfar, Y. Yang, S. Chen, M. Shyu, and S. S. Iyengar, "Multimedia big data analytics: A survey," ACM Computing Surveys, vol. 51, no. 1, pp. 10:1–10:34, 2018.
- [16] Y. Yan, M. Chen, M.-L. Shyu, and S.-C. Chen, "Deep learning for imbalanced multimedia data classification," in *IEEE International Symposium on Multimedia*, 2015, pp. 483–488.
- [17] S. Pouyanfar, Y. Tao, A. Mohan, H. Tian, A. S. Kaseb, K. Gauen, R. Dailey, S. Aghajanzadeh, Y.-H. Lu, S.-C. Chen et al., "Dynamic sampling in convolutional neural networks for imbalanced data classification," in 2018 IEEE conference on multimedia information processing and retrieval (MIPR). IEEE, 2018, pp. 112–117.
- [18] J. Yan, K. Zhang, C. Zhang, S.-C. Chen, and G. Narasimhan, "Automatic construction of 3-D building model from airborne lidar data through 2-d snake algorithm," *IEEE Transactions on Geoscience and Remote Sensing*, vol. 53, no. 1, pp. 3–14, 2014.
- [19] K. Zhang, J. Yan, and S.-C. Chen, "Automatic construction of building footprints from airborne LIDAR data," *IEEE Transactions on Geoscience and Remote Sensing*, vol. 44, no. 9, pp. 2523–2533, 2006.
- [20] K. Zhang, S.-C. Chen, P. Singh, K. Saleem, and N. Zhao, "A 3D visualization system for hurricane storm-surge flooding," *IEEE Computer Graphics and Applications*, vol. 26, no. 1, pp. 18–25, 2006.
- [21] K. Zhang, S.-C. Chen, D. Whitman, M.-L. Shyu, J. Yan, and C. Zhang, "A progressive morphological filter for removing nonground measurements from airborne lidar data," *IEEE Transactions on Geoscience and Remote Sensing*, vol. 41, no. 4, pp. 872–882, 2003.
- [22] M. Presa-Reyes and S.-C. Chen, "Assessing building damage by learning the deep feature correspondence of before and after aerial images," in *IEEE Conference on Multimedia Information Processing and Retrieval*. IEEE, 2020, pp. 43–48.
- [23] Y. Yan, M. Chen, M.-L. Shyu, and S.-C. Chen, "Deep learning for imbalanced multimedia data classification," in *IEEE International Symposium on Multimedia*. IEEE, 2015, pp. 483–488.
- [24] S. Pouyanfar, S. Sadiq, Y. Yan, H. Tian, Y. Tao, M. E. P. Reyes, M. Shyu, S. Chen, and S. S. Iyengar, "A survey on deep learning: Algorithms, techniques, and applications," ACM Computing Surveys, vol. 51, no. 5, pp. 92:1–92:36, 2019.
- [25] S.-C. Chen, S. Sista, M.-L. Shyu, and R. L. Kashyap, "Augmented transition networks as video browsing models for multimedia databases and multimedia information systems," in *IEEE International Conference on Tools with Artificial Intelligence*, 1999, pp. 175–182.
- [26] S.-C. Chen, M.-L. Shyu, M. Chen, and C. Zhang, "A decision tree-based multimodal data mining framework for soccer goal detection," in 2004 IEEE International Conference on Multimedia and Expo, vol. 1. IEEE, 2004, pp. 265–268.
- [27] N. Rishe, J. Yuan, R. Athauda, S.-C. Chen, X. Lu, X. Ma, A. Vaschillo, A. Shaposhnikov, and D. Vasilevsky, "Semanticaccess: Semantic interface for querying databases," in *International Conference on Very Large Data Bases*, September 2000, pp. 591–594.
- [28] M. Presa-Reyes, Y. Tao, S.-C. Chen, and M.-L. Shyu, "Deep Learning with Weak Supervision for Disaster Scene

Description in Low-Altitude Imagery," *IEEE Transactions on Geoscience and Remote Sensing*, accepted for publication, 2021.

- [29] S.-C. Chen, M.-L. Shyu, C. Zhang, and R. L. Kashyap, "Video scene change detection method using unsupervised segmentation and object tracking." in *IEEE International Conference on Multimedia & Expo*, 2001.
- [30] T. Meng and M.-L. Shyu, "Leveraging concept association network for multimedia rare concept mining and retrieval," in IEEE International Conference on Multimedia and Expo, July 2012, pp. 860–865.
- [31] M.-L. Shyu, S.-C. Chen, M. Chen, and C. Zhang, "A unified framework for image database clustering and content-based retrieval," in ACM International Workshop on Multimedia Databases, 2004, pp. 19–27.
- [32] C. Szegedy, S. Ioffe, V. Vanhoucke, and A. A. Alemi, "Inception-v4, inception-resnet and the impact of residual connections on learning," in *the 31th AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, 2017, pp. 4278–4284.
- [33] B. Zhou, A. Lapedriza, A. Khosla, A. Oliva, and A. Torralba, "Places: A 10 million image database for scene recognition," *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, vol. 40, no. 6, pp. 1452–1464, 2017.
- [34] D. Mulfari, A. Celesti, M. Fazio, M. Villari, and A. Puliafito, "Using google cloud vision in assistive technology scenarios," in *IEEE Symposium on Computers and Communication*. IEEE, 2016, pp. 214–219.
- [35] T.-Y. Lin, M. Maire, S. Belongie, J. Hays, P. Perona, D. Ramanan, P. Dollár, and C. L. Zitnick, "Microsoft COCO: Common objects in context," in *European Conference on Computer Vision*. Springer, 2014, pp. 740–755.
- [36] J. Redmon, S. Divvala, R. Girshick, and A. Farhadi, "You only look once: Unified, real-time object detection," in *IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, 2016, pp. 779–788.
- [37] A. Dosovitskiy, L. Beyer, A. Kolesnikov, D. Weissenborn, X. Zhai, T. Unterthiner, M. Dehghani, M. Minderer, G. Heigold, S. Gelly *et al.*, "An image is worth 16x16 words: Transformers for image recognition at scale," *arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.11929*, 2020.
- [38] A. M. Turk, "Amazon mechanical turk," Retrieved August, vol. 17, 2012.
- [39] M. Tan and Q. Le, "Efficientnet: Rethinking model scaling for convolutional neural networks," in *International Conference on Machine Learning*. PMLR, 2019, pp. 6105–6114.
- [40] Y. LeCun, Y. Bengio, and G. Hinton, "Deep learning," Nature, vol. 521, no. 7553, pp. 436-444, 2015.
- [41] I. Goodfellow, Y. Bengio, A. Courville, and Y. Bengio, Deep learning. MIT press Cambridge, 2016, vol. 1, no. 2.
- [42] D. Cer, Y. Yang, S.-y. Kong, N. Hua, N. Limtiaco, R. S. John, N. Constant, M. Guajardo-Céspedes, S. Yuan, C. Tar *et al.*, "Universal sentence encoder," *arXiv preprint arXiv:1803.11175*, 2018.
- [43] Q. Zhu, L. Lin, M.-L. Shyu, and S.-C. Chen, "Effective supervised discretization for classification based on correlation maximization," in *IEEE International Conference on Information Reuse and Integration*, 2011, pp. 390–395.
- [44] K. V. Price, "Differential evolution," in Handbook of optimization. Springer, 2013, pp. 187–214.
- [45] A. F. Smeaton, P. Over, and W. Kraaij, "Evaluation campaigns and TRECVid," in ACM International Workshop on Multimedia Information Retrieval. ACM Press, 2006, pp. 321–330.