Recent Advances in Open Set Recognition: A Survey
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Abstract—In real-world recognition/classification tasks, limited by various objective factors, it is usually difficult to collect training samples to exhaust all classes when training a recognizer or classifier. A more realistic scenario is open set recognition (OSR), where incomplete knowledge of the world exists at training time, and unknown classes can be submitted to an algorithm during testing, requiring the classifiers not only to accurately classify the seen classes, but also to effectively deal with the unseen ones. This paper provides a comprehensive survey of existing open set recognition techniques covering various aspects ranging from related definitions, representations of models, datasets, experiment setup and evaluation metrics. Furthermore, we briefly analyze the relationships between OSR and its related tasks including zero-shot, one-shot (few-shot) recognition/learning techniques, classification with reject option, and so forth. Additionally, we also overview the open world recognition which can be seen as a natural extension of OSR. Importantly, we highlight the limitations of existing approaches and point out some promising subsequent research directions in this field.

Index Terms—Open set recognition/classification, open world recognition, zero-shot learning, one-shot learning.

I. INTRODUCTION

U
nder a common closed set (or static environment) assumption: the training and testing data are drawn from the same label space and the same distribution, the traditional recognition/classification algorithms have already achieved significant success in a variety of machine learning (ML) tasks. However, a more realistic scenario is usually open and non-stationary such as driverless, fault/medical diagnosis, etc., where unseen situations can emerge unexpectedly, which drastically weakens the robustness of these existing methods. To meet this challenge, several related research directions actually have been explored including lifelong learning [1], [2], transfer learning [3]–[5], domain adaptation [6], zero-shot [7]–[9], one-shot (few-shot) [10]–[15] recognition/learning and open set recognition/classification [17]–[19], and so forth.

Based on Donald Rumsfeld’s famous “There are known unknowns” statement [20], we further expand the basic recognition categories of classes asserted by [18], where we restate that recognition should consider four basic categories of classes as follows:

1) known known classes, i.e., the classes with distinctly labeled positive training samples (also serving as negative samples for other known known classes), and even have the corresponding semantic/attribute information;
2) known unknown classes, i.e., labeled negative samples, not necessarily grouped into meaningful classes;
3) unknown known classes [1], i.e., classes with no available samples in training, but available semantic/attribute information of them during training;
4) unknown unknown classes, i.e., classes without any information regarding them: not only unseen in training but also having no side-information such as the semantic/attribute information, etc., during training.

Traditional classification only considers known known classes, while including known unknown classes will result in models with an explicit “other class,” or a detector trained with unclassified negatives [18]. Unlike the traditional classification, zero-shot learning (ZSL) can identify unseen classes which have no available observations in training. However, the available semantic/attribute information shared among all classes including seen and unseen ones are needed [7]. The ZSL mainly focuses on the recognition of the unknown known classes defined above. Actually, such a setting is rather restrictive and impractical, since we usually know nothing about the testing samples which may come from known known classes or not [8]. Therefore, some researchers have begun to pay attention to the more generalized ZSL (G-ZSL) [21], where the testing samples come from both known known and unknown known classes. As a closely-related problem to ZSL, one-shot (few-shot) learning can be seen as natural extensions of zero-shot learning when limited number of samples of unseen classes during training are available [10]–[16]. Compared to zero-shot and one-shot (few-shot) learning, open set recognition (OSR) [17]–[19] probably faces more serious challenge due to the fact that only known known classes are available without any other side-information like attributes or one or few samples of unknown unknown classes.

Actually, Open set recognition [17] describes such a scenario where new classes (unknown unknown classes) unseen in training appear in testing, and requires the classifiers not only to accurately classify the known known classes, but also to effectively deal with the unknown unknown ones. Therefore, the classifiers need to have a corresponding reject option when a testing sample comes from some unknown unknown class. Fig. 1 gives a comparative demonstration of traditional

\* represents the expanded basic recognition class by ourselves.
classification and OSR problems. It should be noted that there have been already a variety of works in the literature regarding classification with reject option \(22\)–\(32\). Although related in some sense, this task should not be confused with open set recognition since it still works under the closed set assumption, while the corresponding classifier rejects to recognize an input sample due to its low confidence, avoiding classifying a sample of one class as a member of another one.

Additionally, the one-class classifier \(33\)–\(40\) usually used for anomaly detection seems suitable for OSR problem, in which the empirical distribution of training data is modeled such that it can be separated from the surrounding open space (the space far from known/training data) in all directions of the feature space \(41\). Popular approaches for one-class classification include one-class SVM \(33\) and support vector data description (SVDD) \(35\), \(42\), where one-class SVM separates the training samples from the origin of the feature space with a maximum margin, while SVDD encloses the training data with a hypersphere of minimum volume. However, treating multiple known known classes as a single one in the one-class setup obviously ignores the discriminative information between these known known classes, leading to poor classification performance \(19\), \(43\). Even if each known known class is modeled by an individual one-class classifier as proposed in \(24\), the classification performance is rather low \(43\). Therefore, it is necessary to rebuild effective classifiers specifically for OSR problem, especially for multiclass OSR problem.

As a summary, Table I lists the differences between open set recognition and its related tasks mentioned above. In fact, OSR has been studied under a number of frameworks, assumptions, and names \(44\)–\(49\). In a study on evaluation methods for face recognition, Phillips et al. \(44\) proposed a typical framework for open set identity recognition, while Li and Wechsler \(45\) again viewed open set face recognition from an evaluation perspective and proposed Open Set TCMM-kN (Transduction Confidence Machine-k Nearest Neighbors) method, which was suitable for multiclass authentication operational scenarios. In 2013, it is Scheirer et al. \(17\) that first formalized the open set recognition problem and proposed a preliminary solution—1-vs-Set machine, which incorporates an open space risk term in modeling to account for the space beyond the reasonable support of known known classes. Afterwards, open set recognition attracted widespread attention, and simultaneously, to our best knowledge, till now there has been no systematical summary on this topic. Therefore, we here mainly provide a comprehensive review regarding the open set recognition.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In the next three sections, we first give the basic notation and related definitions (Section II), then we categorize the existing OSR technologies from the modeling perspective, and for each category, we review different approaches, given in Table II in detail (Section III). Lastly, we overview the open world recognition (OWR) which can be seen as a natural extension of OSR in Section IV. Furthermore, Section V reports the commonly used datasets, experiment setup and evaluation metrics, while Section VI highlights the limitations of existing approaches and points out some promising research directions in this field. Finally, Section VII gives a conclusion.

### II. Basic Notation and Related Definition

Assume feature vector \(x \in \mathbb{R}^d\) describes the data point, \(y\) labeled by \(\mathbb{N}^+\) represents countably class, and there exists a probability measure \(P(x, y)\) over \((x, y) \subset \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{N}^+\). The fundamental multiclass recognition problem would be to find a recognition function \(f\) that minimizes the ideal risk \(R_I:\n\]

\[
\arg \min_f \left\{ R_I(f) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{N}} L(x, y, f(x))P(x, y) \right\},
\]

where \(L(x, y, f(x)) \geq 0\) denotes the loss function. However, the ideal risk function is often not available since the joint distribution \(P(x, y)\) is unknown. Therefore, traditional recognition/classification approaches minimize the empirical risk instead of the ideal risk \(R_I\) by using other knowledge, such as assuming that the label space is at least locally smooth and regularizing the empirical risk minimization \(50\)–\(52\).

Note that traditional recognition problem is usually performed under the closed set assumption. When the assumption...
switches to open environment/set scenario with the open space, other things should be added since intuitively there is some risk in labeling sample in the open space as any known known classes. This gives such an insight for OSR that we do know something else: we do know where known known classes exist, and we know that in open space we do not have a good basis for assigning labels for the unknown unknown classes [17].

As the joint distribution \( P(x, y) \) in (1) is usually unknown, Scheirer et al. [17] considered the open space risk as a weak assumption: all data points in open space, all labels (including known known and unknown unknown classes) are equally likely, and risk should be computed accordingly, based on the Principle of Indifference [53]. Therefore, after assuming the probability is proportional to relative Lebesgue measure [54], they considered the measure of the open space to the full space, and gave the definition of Open Space Risk \( R_O(f) \):

\[
R_O(f) = \frac{\int_{S_o} f(x)dx}{\int_{S_a} f(x)dx},
\]

where \( S_o \) represents the full space including open space and known space (the space occupied by known known classes), and \( f \) denotes the measurable recognition function, where \( f(x) = 1 \) indicates that class \( y \) of interest (known known classes) is recognized, otherwise \( f(x) = 0 \). The more we label samples in open space as the known known classes, the greater the open space risk is. Note that, Eq. (2) is just one theoretical possibility of the open space risk, which does not have a loss function, class conditional densities, or class priors. Other definitions [17] can also capture the notion of open space risk, and some may be more precise, which, however, would need more assumptions and complexity for the reason that the unknown unknown classes have unknown priors and unknown joint distributions.

Additionally, the authors in [17] also formally introduced the concept of openness for a particular problem or data universe.

**Definition 1.** (The openness defined in [17]) Let \( C_{TA}, C_{TR}, C_{TE} \) respectively represent the set of classes to be recognized, the set of classes used in training and the set of classes used during testing. Then the openness of the corresponding recognition task \( O \) is:

\[
O = 1 - \frac{2 \times |C_{TR}|}{|C_{TA}| + |C_{TE}|},
\]

where \( | \cdot | \) denotes the number of classes in the corresponding set.

Note that the authors in [17] do not explicitly give the relationships among \( C_{TA}, C_{TR}, C_{TE} \). Actually, in most existing works [18], [55]–[57], the relationship, \( C_{TA} = C_{TR} \subseteq C_{TE} \), holds by default. Besides, the authors in [58] specifically give the following relationship: \( C_{TA} \subseteq C_{TR} \subseteq C_{TE} \), which contains the former case. However, such a relationship is problematic for Definition 1. Consider the following simple case: \( C_{TA} \subseteq C_{TR} \subseteq C_{TE} \), and \( |C_{TA}| = 3, |C_{TR}| = 10, |C_{TE}| = 15 \). Then we will have \( O < 0 \), which is obviously unreasonable. In fact, the \( C_{TA} \) should be a subset of \( C_{TR} \), otherwise it would make no sense because one usually does not use the classifiers trained on \( C_{TR} \) to identify other classes which are not in \( C_{TR} \). Intuitively, the openness of a particular problem should only depend on the available known known class knowledge from \( C_{TR} \) and the unknown unknown class knowledge from \( C_{TE} \) rather than \( C_{TA}, C_{TR}, \) and \( C_{TE} \) their three. Therefore, in this paper, we redefine the concept of openness:

**Definition 2.** (The openness redefined in this paper) Let \( C_{TA}, C_{TR}, C_{TE} \) respectively denote as defined in Definition 1, and let \( C_{TA} \subseteq C_{TR} \subseteq C_{TE} \). Then the openness of the corresponding recognition task \( O^* \) is:

\[
O^* = 1 - \frac{2 \times |C_{TR}|}{|C_{TR}| + |C_{TE}|}.
\]
of testing classes can grow rapidly with openness approaching 100% for almost any unconstrained real world problem. With the concepts of open space risk and openness in mind, the definition of OSR problem can be given as follows:

**Definition 3.** (The Open Set Recognition Problem [17]) Let \( V \) be the training data, and let \( R_O, R_e \) respectively denote the open space risk and the empirical risk. Then the goal of open set recognition is to find a measurable recognition function \( f \in \mathcal{H} \), where \( f(x) > 0 \) implies correct recognition, and \( f \) is defined by minimizing the following Open Set Risk:

\[
\arg \min_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \{ R_O(f) + \lambda_r R_e(f(V)) \}
\]

where \( \lambda_r \) is a regularization constant.

The open set risk denoted in (5) balances the empirical risk and the open space risk over the space of allowable recognition functions. Although this initial definition mentioned above is more theoretical, it provides an important guidance for subsequent OSR modeling, leading to a series of OSR algorithms which will be detailed in the following section.

### III. A Categorization of OSR Techniques

Although Scheirer et al. [17] formalized the OSR problem, an important question is how to incorporate Eq. (2) to modeling. There is an ongoing debate between the use of generative and discriminative models in statistical learning [59], [60], with arguments for the value of each. However, as reported in [18], open set recognition introduces such a new issue, in which neither discriminative nor generative models can directly address the unknown unknown classes existing in open space unless some constraints are imposed. Thus, with some constraints, researchers have made the exploration in modeling of OSR respectively from the discriminative and generative perspective. Next, we mainly review the existing OSR models from these two perspectives.

According to the modeling forms, these models can be further categorized into five categories (Table II): Traditional ML-based, Deep Network-based, Adversarial Learning-based, EVT-based, and Dirichlet Process-based OSR models. For each category, we then review different approaches by focusing on their corresponding representative works. Additionally, several available software packages implementing those models are listed in Table V (Appendix A). Next, we first give a review from the discriminative model perspective, where almost all existing OSR algorithms are modeled from this perspective.

#### A. Traditional ML Methods-based OSR Models

As mentioned above, traditional machine learning methods (e.g., SVM, sparse representation, Nearest Neighbor, etc.) usually assume that the training and testing data are drawn from the same distribution. However, such an assumption usually does not hold any more in the OSR problem. To adapt these methods to the OSR scenario, many efforts have been made [17], [19], [55], [61], [70].

### TABLE II

**DIFFERENT KINDS OF MODELS FOR OPEN SET RECOGNITION**

| Different types of OSR methods                  | papers                        |
|------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Discriminative model                           | [17], [19], [55], [61], [70] |
| Deep Network-based                             | [58], [71], [72]              |
| Adversarial Learning-based                     | [56], [78], [81]              |
| EVT-based                                       | [62], [63]                    |
| Generative model                               | [67]                          |

1) SVM-based: The Support Vector Machine (SVM) [84] has been successfully used in traditional classification/recognition task. However, when unknown unknown classes appear during testing, its classification performance will decrease significantly since it divides over-occupied space for known known classes under closed set assumption. As shown in Fig. 1(b), once the unknown unknown classes' samples fall into the space divided for some known known classes, these samples will never be correctly classified. To overcome this problem, many SVM-based OSR variants have been proposed.

Using the Definition 3, Scheirer et al. [17] proposed the 1-vs-Set machine, which incorporates an open space risk term in modeling to account for the space beyond the reasonable support of known known classes. Concretely, they added another hyperplane parallel to the separating hyperplane obtained by the SVM, in score space, leading to a slab in feature space. Furthermore, the open space risk for a linear kernel slab model is defined as follows:

\[
R_O = \frac{\delta_1 - \delta_A}{\delta^+} - \frac{\delta^-}{\delta_1 - \delta_A} + p_A \omega_A + p_{\Omega} \omega_{\Omega},
\]

where \( \delta_A \) and \( \delta_1 \) denote the marginal distances of the corresponding hyperplanes, and \( \delta^+ \) is the separation needed to account for all positive data. Additionally, user-specified parameters \( p_A \) and \( p_{\Omega} \) are given to weight the importance between the margin spaces \( \omega_A \) and \( \omega_{\Omega} \). In this case, a testing sample that appears between the two hyperplanes would be labeled as the appropriate class, while it is considered as non-target class or rejected, depending on which side of the slab it resides. Similar to the 1-vs-Set machine, Cevikalp [61], [62] added another constraint on the samples of positive/target class based on the traditional SVM, and proposed the Best Fitting Hyperplane Classifier (BFHC) model which also formed a slab in feature space. Additionally, the BFHC can be extended to nonlinear case by using kernel trick, and we refer reader to [62] for more details.

Although the slab models mentioned above decrease the region of the corresponding known known class for each binary SVM, the space occupied by each known known class remains unbounded, thus the open space risk still exists. To overcome this challenge, researchers further seek new ways to control the open space risk [18], [19], [63], [65].

Scheirer et al. [18] incorporated non-linear kernels into a solution that further limited open space risk by positively labeling only sets with finite measure, and they formulated a
compact abating probability (CAP) model, where probability of class membership abates as points move from known data to open space. Specifically, a novel technique called Weibull-calibrated SVM (W-SVM) was proposed, which combined the statistical extreme value theory (EVT) for score calibration with two separated SVMs. The first SVM is a one-class SVM CAP model used as a conditioner: if the one-class SVM predicts the posterior estimate \( P_0(y|x) \) of an input sample \( x \) is less than a threshold \( \delta_r \), the sample will be rejected outright. Otherwise, it will be passed to the second SVM, which is a binary SVM CAP model via a fitted Weibull cumulative distribution function, yielding the posterior estimate \( P_\eta(y|x) \) for the corresponding positive known known class as well as a reverse Weibull fitting, obtaining the posterior estimate \( P_\nu(y|x) \) for the corresponding negative known known classes. Defined an indicator variable: \( \tau_y = 1 \) if \( P_\Omega(y|x) > \delta_r \) and \( \tau_y = 0 \) otherwise, then the W-SVM model for OSR is defined as follows

\[
y^* = \arg \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P_\eta(y|x) \times P_\tau(y|x) \times \tau_y, \quad \text{subject to} \quad P_\eta(y^*|x) \times P_\tau(y^*|x) \geq \delta_R,\]

where \( \mathcal{Y} \) denotes all the known known classes, \( \delta_R \) is the threshold of the second SVM CAP model. Additionally, the thresholds \( \delta_r \) and \( \delta_R \) are set empirically, e.g., \( \delta_r \) is fixed to 0.001 as specified by the authors, while \( \delta_R \) is recommended to set according to the openness of the specific problem

\[
\delta_R = 0.5 \times \text{openness}. \tag{8}
\]

Besides, W-SVM was further used for open set intrusion recognition on the KDDCUP’99 dataset [85], while more works on intrusion detection in open set scenario can be found in [86]. Based on the intuition that one can reject the large set of unknown unknown classes even under an assumption of incomplete class knowledge if the positive data for any known known classes is accurately modeled without overfitting, Jain et al. [19] invoked the EVT to model the positive training samples at the decision boundary and proposed the \( P_\eta \)-SVM algorithm. Furthermore, the \( P_\eta \)-SVM also adopts the threshold-based classification scheme, in which the selection of corresponding threshold takes the same strategy in W-SVM.

Note that while both W-SVM and \( P_\eta \)-SVM effectively limit the open space risk by the threshold-based classification schemes, the selection of thresholds also gives some caveats. Specifically, first, they are assumed that all the known known classes have equal thresholds, which may be not reasonable since the distributions of classes in feature space are usually unknown. Second, the reject thresholds are recommended to set according to the problem openness [18]. However, the openness of the corresponding problem, is usually unknown as well.

To address these caveats, Scherreik et al. [63] introduced the probabilistic open set SVM (POS-SVM) classifier which could empirically determine unique reject threshold for each known known class under the Definition 3. Note that slightly different from the formula (5), POS-SVM chooses probabilistic representations respectively for open space risk \( R_0 \) and empirical risk \( R_e \) (details c.f. [64]). Moreover, the authors also adopted a new OSR evaluation metric called Youden’s index which combines the true negative rate and recall, and will be detailed in Section V. Recently, to adapt to sliding window visual object detection and open set recognition tasks, Cevikalp and Triggs [64, 65] used a family of quasi-linear “polyhedral conic” functions of [87] to define the acceptance regions for positive known known classes. This choice provides a convenient family of compact and convex region shapes for discriminating relatively well localized positive known known classes from broader negative ones including negative known known classes and unknown unknown classes.

2) Sparse Representation-based: In recent years, the sparse representation-based techniques have been widely used in computer vision and image processing fields [88–90]. In particular, sparse representation-based classifier (SRC) [91] has gained a lot of attractions, which identifies the correct class by seeking the sparsest representation of the testing sample in terms of the training. The SRC method and its variants are essentially still under a closed set assumption, so in order to adapt the SRC to an open environment, Zhang and Patel [55] presented the sparse representation-based open set recognition model, briefly called SROSR.

The SROSR models the tails of the matched and sum of non-matched reconstruction error distributions using EVT due to the fact that most of the discriminative information for OSR is hidden in the tail part of those two error distributions. Furthermore, this model consists of two main stages: the first stage is to reduce the OSR problem into hypothesis testing problems by modeling the tails of error distributions using EVT, while the second stage calculates the reconstruction errors for a testing sample, then fusing the confidence scores based on the two tail distributions to determine its identity.

As reported in [55], although the SROSR outperformed many competitive OSR algorithms, it also contains some limitations. For example, in the face recognition task, the SROSR would fail in such cases that the dataset contained extreme variations in pose, illumination or resolution, where the self expressiveness property required by the SRC do no longer hold. Besides, for good recognition performance, the training set is required to be extensive enough to span the conditions that might occur in testing set. Note that while only the SROSR is currently proposed based on sparse representation, it can still be an interesting topic for future work to develop the sparse representation-based OSR algorithms.

3) Distance-based: Similar to other traditional ML methods mentioned above, the distance-based classifiers are usually no longer valid under the open set scenario. To meet this challenge, Bendale and Boult [66] established a Nearest Non-Outlier (NNO) algorithm for open set recognition by extending upon the Nearest Class Mean (NCM) classifier [92, 93]. The NNO carries out classification based on the distance between the testing sample and the means of known known classes. Furthermore, it detects outliers for bounding the open space risk, and rejects an input sample when all classifiers reject it. What needs to emphasize is that this algorithm can dynamically add new classes based on manually labeled data. Additionally, the authors also introduced the concept of open world recognition which will be detailed in Section IV.
Besides, based on the traditional Nearest Neighbor classifier, Júnior et al. [67] introduced an open set version of the Nearest Neighbor classifier (OSNN) to deal with OSR problem. Different from those works which directly use a threshold on the similarity score for the most similar class, the OSNN applies a threshold on the ratio of similarity scores to the two most similar classes instead, which is called Nearest Neighbor Distance Ratio (NNDR) technique. Specifically, if it first finds the nearest neighbor $t$ and $u$ of the testing sample $s$, where $t$ and $u$ come from different classes, then the ratio

$$\text{Ratio} = \frac{d(s,t)}{d(s,u)},$$

where $d(x, x')$ denotes the Euclidean distance between sample $x$ and $x'$ in feature space. If the ratio is less than or equal to the pre-set threshold, $s$ will be classified as the same label of $t$. Otherwise, it is considered as the unknown unknown class.

Note that OSNN is inherently multiclass, meaning that its efficiency will not be affected as the number of available classes for training increases, while it can create a bounded open space, thus gracefully protecting the classes of interest and rejecting unknown unknown classes. Moreover, the NNDR technique can be applied effortlessly to other classifiers based on the similarity score, e.g., the Optimum-Path Forest (OPF) classifier [94]. In addition, other metrics could also be used, and even the feature space considered could be a transformed one, as suggested by the authors. Complementarily, one limitation of OSNN is that just selecting two reference samples coming from different classes for comparison makes the OSNN vulnerable to outliers [57].

4) Other Traditional ML Methods-based: Using center-based similarity (CBS) space learning, Fei and Liu [68] proposed a novel solution for text classification under OSR scenario, while Vareto et al. [69] explored the open set face recognition and proposed HPLS and HFCN algorithms by combining hashing functions, partial least squares (PLS) and fully connected networks (FCN). Neira et al. [70] adopted the integrated idea, where different classifiers and features are combined to solve the OSR problem. We refer the reader to [68]–[70] for more details. As most traditional machine learning methods for classification are under closed set assumption, it is appealing to adapt them to the open and non-stationary environment.

B. Deep Neural Network-based OSR Models

Deep Neural Networks (DNNs) have gained significant benefits for various tasks such as visual recognition, Natural language processing, text classification, etc. However, they usually follow a typical SoftMax cross-entropy classification loss, which inevitably incurs the normalization problem, making the DNNs inherently have the closed set nature. As a consequence, DNNs often make wrong predictions, and even do so too confidently, when processing the samples of unknown unknown classes. Furthermore, the works in [71], [86] have indicated that the DNNs easily suffer from vulnerability to ‘fooling’ and ‘rubbish’ images which are visually far from the desired class but produce high confidence scores. To address these problems, researchers have made many efforts [58], [71]–[77], [97].

Replacing the SoftMax layer in the DNNs with an OpenMax layer, Bendale and Boult [71] proposed the OpenMax model as a first solution towards open set Deep Networks. Specifically, a deep neural network is first trained with the normal SoftMax layer by minimizing the cross entropy loss. Adopting the concept of Nearest Class Mean [92], [93], each class is then represented as a mean activation vector (MAV) with the mean of the activation vectors (only for the correctly classified training samples) in the penultimate layer of that network. Next, the training samples’ distances from their corresponding class MAVs are calculated and used to fit the separate Weibull distribution for each class. Further, the activation vector’s values are redistributed according to the Weibull distribution, and then used to compute a pseudo-activation for unknown unknown classes. Finally, the class probabilities of known known and (pseudo) unknown unknown classes are computed by using SoftMax again on these new redistributed activation vectors.

Notably, the OpenMax effectively addressed the challenge of the recognition for fooling/rubbish and unrelated open set images. However, as discussed in [71], the OpenMax fails to recognize the adversarial images which are visually indistinguishable from training samples but are designed to make deep networks produce high confidence but incorrect answers [96], [98]. Actually, the authors in [72] have indicated that the OpenMax is susceptible to the adversarial generation techniques directly working on deep representations. Therefore, the adversarial samples are still a serious challenge for open set recognition. Furthermore, using the distance from MAV, the cross entropy loss function in OpenMax does not directly incentivize projecting class samples around the MAV. In addition to that, the distance function used in testing is not used in training, possibly resulting in inaccurate measurement in that space [73]. To address this limitation, Hassan and Chan [73] learned a neural network based representation for open set recognition, which is similar in spirit to the Fisher Discriminant, where samples from the same class are closed to each other while the ones from different classes are further apart, leading to larger space among known known classes for unknown unknown classes’ samples to occupy.

Besides, Prakhya et al. [74] followed the technical line of OpenMax to explore the open set text classification, while Shu et al. [75] replaced the SoftMax layer with a 1-vs-rest final layer of sigmoids and presented Deep Open classifier (DOC) model, in which the DOC tightens the decision boundaries of sigmoid functions with Gaussian fitting to further reduce the open space risk. Additionally, based on an elaborate distance-like computation provided by a weightless neural network, Cardoso et al. [76] proposed the tWiSARD algorithm for open set recognition, which is similar in spirit to the Fisher Discriminant, where samples from the same class are closed to each other while the ones from different classes are further apart, leading to larger space among known known classes for unknown unknown classes’ samples to occupy.
C. Adversarial Learning-based OSR Models

Currently, the adversarial learning (AL) \[99\] as a novel technology has gained the striking successes, which employs a generative model and a discriminative model, where the generative model learns to generate samples that can fool the discriminative model as non-generated samples. Due to the properties of AL, some researchers also attempt to account for open space with the unknown unknown classes generated by the AL technique \[78\]–\[81\].

Using a conditional generative adversarial network (GAN) to synthesize mixtures of known known classes, Ge et al. \[78\] proposed the Generative OpenMax (G-OpenMax) algorithm, which can provide explicit probability estimation over the generated unknown unknown classes, enabling the classifier to locate the decision margin according to the knowledge of both known known and generated unknown unknown classes. Obviously, such unknown unknown classes in their setting are limited in a subspace of the original known known class space. Moreover, although the G-OpenMax effectively detects unknown unknown classes in monochrome digit datasets, it actually has no significant performance improvement on natural images \[78\]. Different from G-OpenMax, Neal et al. \[79\] introduced a novel dataset augmentation technique, called counterfactual image generation, which adopts an encoder-decoder GAN architecture to generate the synthetic open set samples which are close to known known classes, yet do not belong to any known known classes. They further reformulated the OSR problem as classification with one additional class containing those newly generated samples. In a similar spirit to \[79\], Yu et al. \[80\] proposed the adversarial sample generation (ASG) framework for the OSR problem with the overall idea is that the OSR problem will be easily solved by standard supervised learning, if one can generate the samples of new classes and put them into the training set. Furthermore, ASG framework can be applied to various learning models besides neural networks, while it can not only generate unknown unknown class data but also generate known known class data if necessary. Besides, Yang et al. \[56\] borrowed the generator in a typical GAN networks to produce synthetic samples that are highly similar to the target samples as the automatic negative set, while the discriminator is redesigned to output multiple classes together with an unknown unknown class. Then they explored the open-set human activity recognition based on micro-Doppler signatures. Recently, Zheng et al. \[81\] began to focus on the adversarial samples targeting at open set recognition systems.

Note that the main challenge for open set recognition is the incomplete class knowledge existing in training, leading to the open space risk when classifiers encounter unknown unknown classes during testing. Fortunately, the adversarial learning technique can account for open space to some extent by adversarially generating the unknown unknown class data according to the known known class knowledge, which undoubtedly provides another way to tackle the challenging multiclass OSR problem.

D. EVT-based OSR Models

As a powerful tool to increase the classification performance, the statistical Extreme Value Theory (EVT) has recently achieved great success due to the fact that EVT can effectively model the tails of the distribution of distances between training observations using the asymptotic theory \[100\]. For example, the well-known RANSAC algorithm is improved by using the EVT \[101\]. Actually, many methods have been proposed to tackle the OSR problem by using EVT \[18\], \[19\], \[55\]. However, these are post hoc approaches which do not directly apply EVT during training. To change this situation, researchers have made the following exploration \[82\], \[83\].

Taking the distributional information of training observations into account at the training time, Rudd et al. \[82\] proposed the Extreme Value Machine (EVM) which can approximate the distribution of the margin distance of each sample point in each class using EVT. According to the density function of this distribution obtained, the probability of a new point \(x'\) associated with class \(C_i\), i.e., \(\hat{P}(C_i|x')\), can then be obtained, thus resulting in the final decision function

\[
y^* = \begin{cases} \arg \max_{l \in \{1, \ldots, M\}} \hat{P}(C_l|x') & \text{if} \hat{P}(C_l|x') \geq \delta \\ "unknown" & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}
\]

where the \(M\) denotes the number of the classes in training, and \(\delta\) represents the probability threshold which defines the boundary between the set of known known classes and unsupported open space.

Derived from EVT, the EVM has a well-grounded interpretation and can perform nonlinear kernel-free variable bandwidth incremental learning, which is further utilized to explore the open set face recognition \[102\] and the intrusion detection \[103\]. Besides, it also has some limitations as reported in \[83\], in which an obvious one is that the use of geometry of known known classes is risky when the geometries of known known and unknown unknown classes differ. To address these limitations, Vignotto and Engkelke \[82\] presented the GPD and GEV classifiers relying on approximations from the EVT, which are further developed the EVT-based OSR technique. Note that, while EVT helps us effectively model the extremas, regrettably, it provides no principled means of selecting the number of samples for EVT fitting \[82\].

Remark: As mentioned above, almost all existing OSR methods adopt the threshold-based classification scheme, where recognizers in decision either reject or categorize the input samples to some known known class using empirically-set threshold. Thus the threshold plays a key role. However, the selection for it usually depends on the knowledge of known known classes, inevitably incurring risks due to lacking available information from unknown unknown classes \[57\]. This indicates the threshold-based OSR methods still face serious challenges.

In the following part, we will review the OSR techniques from the generative model perspective, which can be seen as another line to research the open set recognition, where only few works currently focus on this perspective.
E. Dirichlet Process-based OSR Models

Dirichlet process (DP) \([104\text{--}108]\) considered as a distribution over distributions is a stochastic process, which has been widely applied in clustering and density estimation problems as a nonparametric prior defined over the number of mixture components. Furthermore, this model does not overly depend on training samples and can achieve adaptive change as the data changes, making it naturally adapt to the open set recognition scenario. In fact, researchers have begun the related research.

With the aim to extend existing OSR methods for new class discovery while considering correlations among the testing samples, Geng and Chen \([57]\) introduced a collective/batch decision for open set recognition, which can address both batch and individual samples. As an initial solution, they adapted the hierarchical Dirichlet process (HDP) with slight modification to the OSR scenario, and proposed the collective decision-based OSR (CD-OSR) framework. The CD-OSR first performs a co-clustering process to obtain the appropriate parameters in the training phase. In testing phase, it models each known class data as a group of CD-OSR using a Gaussian mixture model (GMM) with an unknown number of components/subclass, while the whole testing set as one collective/batch is treated in the same way, then co-clustering all the groups under the CD-OSR framework. Thus one can obtain one or more subclasses representing the corresponding class after co-clustering. For a testing sample, it would be labeled as the appropriate known class or unknown class after co-clustering. For a testing sample, it would be labeled as the appropriate known class or unknown class after co-clustering.

Unlike the threshold-based OSR methods, CD-OSR does not need to define the threshold and can provide explicit modeling for the unknown unknown classes appearing in testing, naturally resulting in a new class discovery function. Note that the new class discovered in CD-OSR inherently has only one subclass due to the fact that the true labels of unknown unknown classes are unknown, making it impossible to further aggregate the newly generated subclasses. Furthermore, adopting the collective/batch decision strategy also considers correlations among the testing samples obviously ignored by other existing methods. As reported by the authors, the CD-OSR is just as a conceptual proof for open set recognition (OWR), where a recognition system should perform four tasks: detecting unknown unknown classes, choosing which samples to label for addition to the model, labelling those samples, and updating the classifier. Specifically, the authors give the following definition:

**Definition 4.** (Open World Recognition \([66]\)) Let \(K_T \in \mathbb{N}^+\) be the set of labels of known known classes at time \(T\), and let the zero label (0) be reserved for (temporarily) labeling data as unknown. Thus \(\mathbb{N}\) includes known known and unknown unknown class labels. Based on the Definition 3, a solution to open world recognition is a tuple \([F, \varphi, \nu, \mathcal{L}, I]\) with:

1. A multi-class open set recognition function \(F(x) : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{N}\) using a vector function \(\varphi(x)\) of \(i\) per-class measurable recognition functions \(f_i(x)\), also using a novelty detector \(\nu(\varphi) : \mathbb{R}_i \rightarrow [0, 1]\). We require the per-class recognition functions \(f_i(x) \in \mathcal{H} : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\) for \(i \in K_T\) to be open set functions that manage open space risk as Eq. (2). The novelty detector \(\nu(\varphi) : \mathbb{R}_i \rightarrow [0, 1]\) determines if results from vector of recognition functions is from an unknown unknown class.

2. A labeling process \(\mathcal{L}(x) : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^+\) applied to novel unknown data \(U_T\) from time \(T\), yielding labeled data \(D_T = \{(y_j, x_j)\}\) where \(y_j = \mathcal{L}(x_j), \forall x_j \in U_T\). Assume the labeling finds \(m\) new classes, then the set of known known classes becomes \(K_{T+1} = K_T \cup \{i+1, \ldots, i+m\}\).

3. An incremental learning function \(I_T(\varphi; D_T) : \mathcal{H}^i \rightarrow \mathcal{H}^{i+m}\) to scalably learn and add new measurable functions \(f_{i+1}(x)\ldots f_{i+m}(x)\), each of which manages open space risk, to the vector \(\varphi\) of measurable recognition functions.

Besides, we refer the reader to \([66]\) for more details. Ideally, all of these steps should be automated. However, the authors in \([66]\) only presumed supervised learning with labels obtained by human labeling at present, and proposed the NNO algorithm which has been discussed in subsection III-A.

The single-sample decision strategy for OSR is also worth further exploring since it not only takes the correlations among the testing samples into account but also provides a possibility for new class discovery, whereas single-sample decision strategy\(^2\) adopted by other existing OSR methods can not do such a work since it can not directly tell whether the single rejected sample is an outlier or from new class.

**IV. BEYOND OPEN SET RECOGNITION**

It is worth noting that the existing open set recognition was defined for a static notion of set, whilst only a reject option is adopted for the unknown unknown classes. However, that is not enough for a real-world OSR system which should neither be limited to the static set nor just rest on a reject decision but should go further, especially when the datasets are dynamic with new classes being continuously detected. Following this idea, Bendale and Boult \([65]\) expanded the existing open set recognition (Definition 3) to the open world recognition (OWR), where a recognition system should perform four tasks: detecting unknown unknown classes, choosing which samples to label for addition to the model, labelling those samples, and updating the classifier. Specifically, the authors give the following definition:

**Definition 4.** (Open World Recognition \([66]\)) Let \(K_T \in \mathbb{N}^+\) be the set of labels of known known classes at time \(T\), and let the zero label (0) be reserved for (temporarily) labeling data as unknown. Thus \(\mathbb{N}\) includes known known and unknown unknown class labels. Based on the Definition 3, a solution to open world recognition is a tuple \([F, \varphi, \nu, \mathcal{L}, I]\) with:

1. A multi-class open set recognition function \(F(x) : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{N}\) using a vector function \(\varphi(x)\) of \(i\) per-class measurable recognition functions \(f_i(x)\), also using a novelty detector \(\nu(\varphi) : \mathbb{R}_i \rightarrow [0, 1]\). We require the per-class recognition functions \(f_i(x) \in \mathcal{H} : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\) for \(i \in K_T\) to be open set functions that manage open space risk as Eq. (2). The novelty detector \(\nu(\varphi) : \mathbb{R}_i \rightarrow [0, 1]\) determines if results from vector of recognition functions is from an unknown unknown class.

2. A labeling process \(\mathcal{L}(x) : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^+\) applied to novel unknown data \(U_T\) from time \(T\), yielding labeled data \(D_T = \{(y_j, x_j)\}\) where \(y_j = \mathcal{L}(x_j), \forall x_j \in U_T\). Assume the labeling finds \(m\) new classes, then the set of known known classes becomes \(K_{T+1} = K_T \cup \{i+1, \ldots, i+m\}\).

3. An incremental learning function \(I_T(\varphi; D_T) : \mathcal{H}^i \rightarrow \mathcal{H}^{i+m}\) to scalably learn and add new measurable functions \(f_{i+1}(x)\ldots f_{i+m}(x)\), each of which manages open space risk, to the vector \(\varphi\) of measurable recognition functions.

Besides, we refer the reader to \([66]\) for more details. Ideally, all of these steps should be automated. However, the authors in \([66]\) only presumed supervised learning with labels obtained by human labeling at present, and proposed the NNO algorithm which has been discussed in subsection III-A.
Afterward, some researchers continued to follow up this research route. Rosa et al. [109] argued that to properly capture the intrinsic dynamic of OWR, it is necessary to append the following aspects: (a) the incremental learning of the underlying metric, (b) the incremental estimate of confidence thresholds for the unknown unknown classes, and (c) the use of local learning to precisely describe the space of classes. Towards those goals, they extended three existing metric learning methods using online metric learning. Furthermore, Doan and Kalita [110] presented the Nearest Centroid Class (NCC) model, which is similar to the online NNO [109] but differs with two main aspects. First, they adopted a specific solution to address the initial issue of incrementally adding new classes. Second, they optimized the nearest neighbor search for determining the nearest local balls. Moreover, Lonij et al. [111] tackled the OWR problem from the complementary direction of assigning semantic meaning to open-world images. To handle the open-set action recognition task, Shu et al. [112] proposed the Open Deep Network (ODN) which detects new classes by applying a multiclass triplet thresholding method, and then dynamically reconstructs the classification layer by adding predictors for new classes continually. In fact, the EVM discussed in subsection III-D also adapt to the OWR scenario due to the nature of incremental learning [82]. Recently, Xu et al. [97] proposed a meta-learning method to learn to accept new classes (unknown unknown classes) without training under the open-world recognition framework.

Remark: As a natural extension of OSR, the OWR faces more serious challenges which require it not only to have the ability to handle the OSR task, but also to have minimal downtime, even to continuously learn, which seems to have the flavor of lifelong learning to some extent. Besides, although some progress regarding the OWR has been made, there is still a long way to go.

V. Datasets and Evaluation Metrics

A. Datasets and Experiment Setup

1) Datasets: Table III summarizes the datasets commonly used in open set recognition, and these datasets are available on https://dx.doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.1097614 and https://www.csie.ntu.edu.tw/~cjlin/libsvmtools/datasets/multi-class.html). As the OSR is essentially a multi-class classification problem, therefore, any benchmark datasets for multi-class classification task can be used for the OSR experiments. For example, the image datasets commonly used in computer vision such as ILSVRC 2012 dataset [71], YaleB dataset, UIUC attribute dataset [55], and so forth.

2) Experiment Setup: In open set recognition, most existing experiments are carried out on a variety of recastes multi-class benchmark datasets. Specifically, taking the Usps dataset as an example, when it is used for OSR problem, one can randomly choose S distinct labels as the known known classes, and vary openness by adding a subset of the remaining labels.

B. Evaluation Metrics for Open Set Recognition

Here, we summarize the commonly used evaluation metrics for open set recognition, where the critical factor is that the evaluation metrics need to take the identification of unknown unknown classes into account. Let TP, TN, FP, and FN respectively denote the true positive, true negative, false positive, and false negative for known known classes, while TU and FU respectively denote the correct and false reject for unknown unknown classes. Then we can obtain the following evaluation metrics.

1) Accuracy for OSR: As a common choice for evaluating the performance of decision classifiers under closed set assumption, Accuracy is usually defined as follows

\[
\text{Accuracy} = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}.
\]

A trivial extension of Accuracy to the OSR scenario could be that a correct response should be either the correct classification (correctly classifying the positives or negatives) or correct reject if the testing sample comes from an unknown unknown class. Therefore, the Accuracy for OSR (Accuracy\(_O\)) can be redefined as

\[
\text{Accuracy}\(_O\) = \frac{(TP + TN) + TU}{(TP + TN + FP + FN) + (TU + FU)}.
\] (11)

However, as Accuracy\(_O\) denotes the sum of the performance of the correct classification for known known classes and the rejection for unknown unknown classes, it actually cannot objectively evaluate the OSR models. Consider the following scenario: when the reject performance plays the leading role, and the testing set contains large number of samples of unknown unknown classes while only a few samples for the known known classes, the Accuracy\(_O\) then can still achieve a high value, even though the fact is that the recognizer’s classification performance is really low, and vice versa. Therefore, the Accuracy\(_O\) usually used as a supplement for the evaluation of OSR methods. Besides, the authors in [67] also gave a new accuracy metric for OSR called normalized accuracy (NA), which considers both the accuracy on known known class samples (AKS) and the accuracy on unknown unknown class samples (AUS):

\[
\text{NA} = \lambda_r \text{AKS} + (1 - \lambda_r) \text{AUS},
\] (12)

where

\[
\text{AKS} = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}, \quad \text{AUS} = \frac{TU}{TU + FU}.
\]
and $\lambda_r, 0 < \lambda_r < 1$, is a regularization constant.

2) F-measure for OSR: The F-measure, widely applied in information retrieval and machine learning, is defined as a harmonic mean of Precision and Recall

$$\text{F-measure} = 2 \frac{\text{Precision \cdot Recall}}{\text{Precision + Recall}}$$

where

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}, \quad \text{Recall} = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

When the F-measure is used for the OSR scenario, it should be noted that one could not consider all the unknown unknown classes appearing in testing as one additional simple class, and obtain the F-measure value in the same way as the multiclass closed set scenario. Because once performing such an operation, the correct classification for all the unknown unknown classes samples would be considered as true positive classifications. However, such true positive classification make no sense, since we have no representative samples of unknown unknown classes to train the corresponding classifiers.

Instead, the computations of Precision and Recall in it are only for available known known classes. Additionally, the work [67] has indicated that although the computations of Precision and Recall are only for available known known classes, the $FN$ and $FP$ also consider the false unknown unknown classes and false known known classes by taking into account the false negative and the false positive, and we refer the reader to [67] for more details. Note that the Precision contains the macro-Precision and micro-Precision while Recall includes the macro-Recall and micro-Recall, which leads to the corresponding macro-F-measure and micro-F-measure. Nevertheless, whether it is macro-F-measure or micro-F-measure, the higher their values, the better the performance of the corresponding OSR model.

3) Youden's index for OSR: As the F-measure is invariant to changes in $TN$ [113], an important factor in OSR performance, Scherreik and Rigling [63] turned to Youden’s index $J$ defined as follows

$$J = \text{Recall} + S - 1,$$

where $S = TN/(TN + FP)$ represents the true negative rate [114]. Youden’s index can express an algorithm’s ability to avoid failure [115], and it is bounded in $[-1, 1]$, where higher value indicates an algorithm more resistant to failure. Furthermore, the classifier is noninformative when $J = 0$, whereas it tends to provide more incorrect than correct information when $J < 0$.

Besides, some researchers also adopted the AUC to evaluate the performance of OSR models [83]. Currently, F-measure is the most commonly used evaluation metric. In fact, as the OSR problem faces a new scenario, the new evaluation methods are also worth further exploring.

VI. FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

In this section, we briefly analyze and discuss the limitations of the existing OSR models, while some promising research directions in this field are also pointed out and detailed in the following aspects.

A. About Modeling

First, as discussed above, while almost all existing OSR methods are modeled from the discriminative model perspective, only few works focus on the modeling from the generative perspective. Therefore, modeling from the later perspective has a wide space for further exploration. Second, the main challenge for OSR is that the traditional classifiers under closed set scenario may over-occupy space for known known classes, thus once the unknown unknown classes’ samples fall into the space divided for some known known classes, they will never be correctly classified. From this viewpoint, the following two modeling perspective will be promising research directions.

1) Modeling known known classes: Intuitively, we can effectively identify the target classes even under an assumption of incomplete class knowledge, if the target classes can be accurately modeled without overfitting. Therefore, the clustering and classification learning can be unified to achieve the best of both worlds: the clustering learning can help the target classes obtain tighter distribution areas (i.e., limited space), while the classification learning provides better discriminativeness for the target classes. Note that there actually have been some works fused the clustering and classification functions into a unified learning framework [116], [117]. Unfortunately, these works are still under a closed set assumption, thus, some serious efforts need to be done to adapt them to the OSR scenario or to specifically design this type of classifier for the OSR scenario.

2) Modeling unknown unknown classes: Under the open set assumption, modeling the unknown unknown classes is impossible as we only have the available knowledge of known known classes. However, properly relaxing some restrictions will make it possible, where one way is to generate the unknown unknown class data by the adversarial learning technique to account for open space to some extent like [78–81], in which the key is how to generate the valid unknown unknown class data. Besides, while in theory the open space should be infinitely large, it seems to be enough for us to just pay attention to the unknown unknown classes appearing in testing instead of all of them in practice. From this perspective, one can take the testing data as unlabeled data into account when training a model, which seems to have the flavor of the transductive learning. Note that the transductive learning is currently under a closed set assumption. Thus remoulding transductive learning technique to adapt it to the OSR scenario will be a promising direction in the future work. Additionally, due to the data adaptive nature of Dirichlet process, like the CD-OSR, the Dirichlet process-based OSR methods are also worth for further exploration.

B. About Rejecting

Till now, most existing OSR algorithms mainly care about effectively rejecting unknown unknown classes, yet only a few works [66], [77] focus on the subsequent processing of reject samples, and these works usually adopt a post hoc strategy [57]. Therefore, expanding existing open set recognition with a function of new class knowledge discovery will be an
interesting research topic. Moreover, to our best knowledge, the interpretability of reject option seems to have not been discussed, in which a reject option may correspond to a low confidence target class, an outlier, or a new class, which is also an interesting future research direction. Besides, some related works in other research community can be found in [118]–[122].

C. About the Decision

As discussed in subsection III-E, almost all existing OSR techniques are designed specially for recognizing individual samples, even these samples are collectively coming in batch like image-set recognition [123]. Actually, such a decision does not consider correlations among the testing samples. Therefore, the collective decision [57] seems to be a better alternative since it can not only take the correlations among the testing samples into account but also make it possible to discover new classes at the same time. We thus expect a future direction on extending the existing OSR methods by adopting the collective decision instead of the single-sample decision strategy.

D. Open Set + 'sth'

As open set scenario is a more practical assumption for the real-world classification/recognition tasks, it can naturally be combined with various fields involving classification/recognition such as semi-supervised learning, domain adaptation, active learning, multi-task learning, multi-label learning, multi-view learning, and so forth. For example, [124]–[126] recently introduced this scenario into domain adaptation, while [127] explored the open set classification in active learning field. Therefore, many interesting works are worth looking forward to.

E. Generalized Open Set Recognition

The OSR assumes that only the knowledge of known known classes is available in training, meaning that we can also utilize a variety of side-information regarding the known known classes. Nevertheless most existing OSR methods actually just use the information of samples at feature level, leaving out other side-information such as semantic/attribute information, knowledge graph, universum etc., which is also important for improving the performance of these existing algorithms. Therefore, we give the following two promising research directions.

1) Appending semantic/attribute information: In fact, a lot of semantic/attribute information is shared between the known known and the unknown unknown classes. Therefore, we can fully utilize this kind of information to 'cognize' the unknown unknown classes, or at least to provide a rough semantic/attribute description for the corresponding unknown unknown classes instead of simply rejecting them. Note that this setup is different from the one in ZSL (or G-ZSL) which assumes that the semantic/attribute information of both the known known and unknown known classes are known in training. Furthermore, Table IV shows the difference between this and the generalized zero-shot recognition. Besides, some related works can be found in [111], [122], [128], [129]. In addition, there also some conceptually similar topics have been studied in other research community such as open-vocabulary object retrieval [130], [131], open-world person re-identification [132] or searching targets [133], open vocabulary scene parsing [134].

2) Using other available side-information: The main reason for open space risk is that the traditional classifers trained under closed set scenario usually divide over-occupied space for known known classes, thus inevitably resulting in misclassifications once the unknown unknown class samples fall into the space divided for some known known class. From this perspective, the open space risk will be reduced as the space divided for those known known classes decreases by using other side-information like universum [135], [136] to shrink their regions as much as possible. Taking the digital identification as an example, assume the training set including the classes of interest ‘1’, ‘3’, ‘6’; the testing set including classes ‘1’, ‘3’, ‘6’, ‘8’, ‘9’. If we also have the data of universum classes ‘2’, ‘4’, ‘5’, or English letters, and so forth, then we can use the training and universum class data in modeling to extend the existing OSR models, further reducing the open space risk. We therefore foresee a more generalized setting will be adopted by the future open set recognition.

F. Relative Open Set Recognition

While the open set scenario is ubiquitous, there are also some real-world scenarios that are not completely open in practice. Recognition/classification in such scenarios can be called relative open set recognition. Taking the medical diagnosis as an example, the whole sample space actually can be divided into two subspace respectively for sick and not sick samples, and at such a level of detecting whether the sample is
sick or not, it is indeed a closed set problem. However, when we need to further identify the types of the diseases, this will naturally become a complete OSR problem since new disease unseen in training may appear in testing. Note that no relevant work currently explores this novel mixed scenario jointly.

G. Knowledge Integration for Open Set Recognition

In fact, the incomplete knowledge of the world is universal, especially for the single individuals: something you know does not mean I also know. For example, the terrestrial species (sub-knowledge set) obviously are the open set for the classifiers trained on marine species. As the saying goes, "two heads are better than one", thus how to integrate the classifiers trained on each sub-knowledge set to further reduce the open space risk will be an interesting yet challenging topic in the future work, especially for such a situation: we can only obtain the classifiers trained on corresponding sub-knowledge sets, yet these sub-knowledge sets are not available due to the privacy protection of data. This seems to have the flavor of domain adaptation having multiple source domains and one target domain (mS1T) \cite{137}–\cite{140} to some extent.

VII. Conclusion

As discussed above, in real-world recognition/classification, it is usually impossible to model everything \cite{141}, thus the OSR scenario is ubiquitous. On the other hand, although many related algorithms have been proposed for OSR, it still faces serious challenges. In addition, till now there has been no systematic summary on this topic. Therefore, in this paper, we give a comprehensive review of existing OSR techniques, covering various aspects ranging from related definitions, representations of models, datasets, experiment setup and evaluation metrics. Note that for the sake of convenience, the categorization of existing OSR techniques in this paper is just one of the possible ways, while other ways can also effectively categorize them, and some may be more appropriate but beyond our focus here.

Furthermore, in order to avoid the reader confusing the tasks similar to OSR, we also briefly analyze the relationships between OSR and its related tasks including zero-shot, one-shot (few-shot) recognition/learning techniques, classification with reject option, and so forth. Beyond this, as a natural extension of OSR, the open world recognition is reviewed as well. More importantly, we analyze and discuss the limitations of these existing approaches, and point out some promising subsequent research directions in this field. Finally, we expect that the reader can benefit from this paper.

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APPENDIX A

SOFTWARE PACKAGES

We present a table (Table V) of several available software packages implementing those models presented in the main text.

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TABLE V
SOFTWARE PACKAGES

| Model     | Language | Author                  | Link                                      |
|-----------|----------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------------|
| 1-vs-Set  | C/C++    | Jain et al.             | https://github.com/jain2/libsvm-openset   |
| BFHC      | Matlab   | Civikalp et al.         | http://mlcv.oulu.foi.to/softwares.html    |
| SROSR     | Matlab   | Zhang et al.            | https://github.com/hoanghsprinter/SROSR   |
| NNO       | Matlab   | Bendale et al.          | http://vast.uccs.edu/OpenWorld            |
| HPLS, HFCN| Python   | Vareto et al.           | https://github.com/rafaelvareto/HPLS-HFCN-openset |
| OpenMax   | Python   | Bendale et al.          |                                           |
| DOC       | Python   | Shu et al.              | https://github.com/alexander-rakhlin/CNN-for-Sentence-Classification-in-Keras             |
| EVM       | Python   | Rudd et al.             | https://github.com/EMRResearch/ExtremeValueMachine                                    |

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