Contextual Max Pooling for Human Action Recognition

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SUMMARY The bag-of-words model (BOW) has been extensively adopted by recent human action recognition methods. The pooling operation, which aggregates local descriptor encodings into a single representation, is a key determiner of the performance of the BOW-based methods. However, the spatio-temporal relationship among interest points has rarely been considered in the pooling step, which results in the imprecise representation of human actions. In this paper, we propose a novel pooling strategy named contextual max pooling (CMP) to overcome this limitation. We add a constraint term into the objective function under the framework of max pooling, which forces the weights of interest points to be consistent with their probabilities. In this way, CMP explicitly considers the spatio-temporal contextual relationships among interest points and inherits the positive properties of max pooling. Our method is verified on three challenging datasets (KTH, UCF Sports and UCF Films datasets), and the results demonstrate that our method achieves better results than the state-of-the-art methods in human action recognition.

key words: contextual max pooling, human action recognition, spatio-temporal relationship

1. Introduction

Recognizing human action has raised a great interest in computer vision and pattern recognition fields due to the requirements of real-world applications, such as video surveillance, human-computer interaction and video indexing. Recently, a lot of strategies have been proposed by researchers, such as 2-D shape matching [1], optical flow patterns [2], trajectory-based representation [3], spatio-temporal interest points [16] and attribute representation [4]. In particular, methods based on the spatio-temporal interest points with BOW model [5], [16] have shown promising performance. Since these approaches do not rely on preprocessing techniques, e.g. background modeling or body-part tracking, they are relatively robust to noise, background changes and illumination variation. The BOW-based methods follow a common workflow: they first extract local descriptors, and then encode these descriptors over some learned codebook or dictionary (coding step). Finally, the encodings are aggregated into a vector to represent the action video (pooling step). In this paper, we focus on the pooling step.

The common pooling methods used in human action recognition and image classification are sum pooling (or average pooling) and max pooling. Sum pooling lacks discrimination because it is strongly influenced by frequent descriptors whether they are beneficial to classification or not. The max pooling is only suitable for the coding strategies that rely on count statistics. Recently, some extensions to the sum pooling and max pooling have been proposed, one purpose of which is to produce better representations without losing too much information. To reduce the information loss, only close local descriptors should be pooled together in the geometric and descriptor domain [6]. Lin et al. [7] considered the latent image structure to learn the important pooling spatial regions for scene classification. Murray et al. [8] proposed a generalized version of max pooling which is applicable to variant coding strategies. However, none of the above pooling operations explicitly provide spatio-temporal relationships among interest points, which reflects both spatial relative layout of human body parts and temporal evolution of human poses.

In this paper, we propose a novel pooling strategy called contextual max pooling (CMP), which not only preserves the spatio-temporal relationships among interest points, but also inherits the positive properties of max pooling. A constraint, which assumes the weights of interest points to be consistent with their probabilities, is added into the objective function under the framework of max pooling. The probability of the local appearance descriptor in its location for an interest point is estimated by kernel density estimation (KDE) in the contextual domain.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the traditional max pooling and its extension. Section 3 presents our approach in detail. Section 4 shows the experimental results, demonstrating that our method outperforms the state-of-the-art methods on the KTH, UCF Sports and UCF Films datasets. Finally, in Sect. 5, we conclude the paper.

2. Traditional Max Pooling

Let \( X = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_N\} \) denote \( N \) local appearance descriptors of spatio-temporal interest points extracted from an action video, where \( x_i \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times 1} \) is the local appearance feature for the \( i \)-th spatio-temporal interest point. Let \( V = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_N\} \) be a set of encodings of \( X \), where \( v_i \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times 1} \) indicates the encoding of \( x_i \). After pooling operation, the en-
coding set $V$ is aggregated into a single vector $h$ to represent an action video. One property of the traditional max pooling is that the inner product between the max pooling representation $h^{\text{max}}$ and an interest point encoding $v_i$ is a constant value [8], i.e. $v_i^T h^{\text{max}} = 1$, when max pooling operation is embedded in the BOW model (hard voting). Here, $v_i$ is a binary vector with a single non-zero entry, and $h^{\text{max}}$ is a binary vector to represent an action video where a 1 is indicative of the presence of the codeword. Murray and Perronnin [8] extended max pooling to a generalized form which is directly applicable to various coding strategies

$$V^T h = \mathbb{1}_N$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

where $\mathbb{1}_N \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times 1}$ is a vector of all ones. For computational convenience, we turn Eq. (1) to a least square problem. Additionally, it is beneficial to add a regularization term to obtain a stable solution. Hence, Eq. (1) is reformulated as

$$h^* = \arg \min_h \| V^T h - \mathbb{1}_N \|^2 + \alpha \| h \|^2$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

where $\alpha$ is a balancing parameter. Introducing $h = Vw$ into Eq. (2) according to the representer theorem [9], it can be rewritten as

$$w^* = \arg \min_w \| V^T Vw - \mathbb{1}_N \|^2 + \alpha \| Vw \|^2$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

where $w \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times 1}$ is the weight vector, and $w = [w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_N]^T$ in which $w_i$ is the weight of $i$-th spatio-temporal interest point.

### 3. Approach

In this section, we first present the proposed contextual max pooling. Then, we introduce how to compute the probability of a spatio-temporal interest point.

#### 3.1 Contextual Max Pooling

The traditional max pooling and its extension, however, neglect spatial and temporal relationships among interest points, which reflects both spatial relative layout of human body parts and temporal evolution of human poses. In this work, we explicitly consider spatio-temporal contextual information in the pooling step under the framework of max pooling, which is called contextual max pooling.

We use the joint probability density $p(x_i, s_i)$ to capture the spatial and temporal relationship among the interest points for each action video. Here $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times 1}$ is the $i$-th local appearance feature and $s_i$ is the $i$-th interest point location, i.e. $s_i = (a_i, b_i, t_i)$ where $a_i$, $b_i$ and $t_i$ are horizontal, vertical, and temporal coordinates respectively. $p(x_i, s_i)$ indicates the probability of $x_i$ occurring at location $s_i$ and the computational details will be shown in the next subsection. If the $p(x_i, s_i)$ is larger, then this interest point has a greater influence on the final representation. In other words, we prefer that the weight of interest point $w_i$ is consistent with the $p(x_i, s_i)$. With the above consideration, the constraint on the weights can be expressed as

$$\| w - q \|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (w_i - q_i)^2$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

where $q = [q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_N]^T$ is the $N$-dimensional vector and $q_i = p(x_i, s_i)$. Equation (4) is actually served as a penalty term (as shown below), which results in a high penalty if the weights of interest points are different from the probabilities at their location. In other words, it forces the weights to be consistent with their probabilities.

We add the constraint in Eq. (4) into Eq. (3) to obtain our CMP. The optimization problem can be expressed as

$$w^* = \arg \min_w \| V^T Vw - \mathbb{1}_N \|^2 + \alpha \| Vw \|^2 + \beta \| w - q \|^2$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

where $\beta \geq 0$ is a regularization parameter that controls the constraint on the weights of interest points. By adding the constraint on the weights, Eq. (5) not only inherits the positive properties of max pooling, but also explicitly considers the spatio-temporal relationship among interest points. It should be noticed that when $\beta = 0$, our model will degenerate into the generalized max pooling [8]. Furthermore, when $\beta = 0$ and the pooling operation is embedded in the BOW model (hard voting), our model will degenerate into the traditional max pooling [10]. Our CMP model has a closed-form solution

$$w = (K + \alpha E + \beta K^{-1}q)^{-1}(\beta K^{-1}q + \mathbb{1}_N)$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

where $K = V^T V$ is the $N \times N$ similarity kernel matrix and $E$ is the identity matrix of size $N \times N$ with ones on the main diagonal and zeros elsewhere. From Eq. (6), we can see that the weights of interest points for each action video are determined by their appearance and spatio-temporal contextual relationship which are considered by $K$ and $q$ respectively.

#### 3.2 Computing the Probability $p(x_i, s_i)$

Given a spatio-temporal point $(x_i, s_i)$, its surrounding spatio-temporal area is called contextual domain [11] which is a cube with a predefined side length shown as the cube in Fig. 1. Let $B = [b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_M]$ denote the codebook with $M$ clustering centers. The context for the codeword $b_i$ is defined as

$$U_i = \{(x', s')|x' \in b_i, s' \in \Omega(s_i)\}$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)

where $\Omega(s_i)$ is the contextual domain of interest point $(x_i, s_i)$. Equation (7) indicates that a spatio-temporal point $(x', s')$, whose local appearance feature is $x'$ and location is $s'$, belongs to $U_i$ when $x'$ is the nearest to the codeword $b_i$ and $s'$ is in the contextual domain.

We calculate $p(x_i, s_i)$ in its contextual domain:

$$p(x_i, s_i) \equiv p(b_i, s_i) = p(s_i|b_i) \cdot p(b_i)$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)

where $x_i$ is the nearest to the codeword $b_i$. The prior prob-
Fig. 1 The black cube is the contextual domain of the black cross interest point.

ability density \( p(b_i) \) can be estimated in the contextual domain \( U_i \), i.e., the percentage of codeword \( b_i \) in the contextual domain, and the \( p(s_i|b_i) \) can be computed by the kernel density estimation:

\[
p(s_i|b_i, U_i) \propto \sum_{s_k \in U_i} \Psi(s_i, s_k)
\]

(9)

where \( \Psi(s_i, s_k) \) is a 3D Gaussian kernel:

\[
\Psi(s_i, s_k) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{3/2}|\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2}(s_i - s_k)^T \Sigma^{-1} (s_i - s_k) \right\}
\]

(10)

where \( s_k \) is the point location in \( U_i \) and \( \Sigma \) is the covariance matrix. We assume that horizontal, vertical and temporal coordinates are independent. Thus

\[
\Sigma = diag(\sigma_u^2, \sigma_w^2, \sigma_t^2)
\]

(11)

where \( \sigma_u, \sigma_w, \) and \( \sigma_t \) are spatial and temporal scale parameters.

4. Experimental Results

We verify our CMP method on several benchmark datasets: KTH dataset [12], UCF Sports dataset [13], and UCF Films dataset [13]. We compare our algorithm with relevant baselines and other excellent algorithms on human action recognition. There are three algorithms as our relevant baselines: sum pooling (SP), max pooling (MP) and generalized max pooling (GMP) [8]. In our experiments, we adopt the Harris 3-D corner [14] to detect interest points from action videos. For each interest point, the histogram of oriented gradients (HOG) and histogram of optical flow (HOF) are used as local appearance descriptors. Then, we encode the local appearance descriptors by utilizing LLC [15]. Finally, we use pooling operation to aggregate the encodings and represent an action video as a feature vector. We set the side length of contextual domain to 35 and the number of codebook to 4000 using k-means clustering algorithm.

The KTH dataset is a widely used action dataset which contains six human action categories. They are performed by 25 subjects under four different scenarios, resulting in a total of 599 video clips. We adopt the leave-one-out cross validation strategy, specifically 24 videos of actors as training and the rest one as test videos. The choices of \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) in Eq. (5) have an impact on the final performance. Table 1 shows the average accuracy values under different \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \), from which we can see that when \( \alpha = 20 \) and \( \beta = 30 \) results are the best. The paper mainly reports the results on the KTH dataset, and our experiments have shown that the conclusions can be generalized to the UCF Sports dataset and the UCF Films dataset as well.

The average accuracy values on the KTH dataset are shown in Table 2, and the confusion table of recognition results on the KTH dataset is shown in Fig. 2. With the optimal parameters, our CMP method achieves the best accuracy value of 97.6% on the KTH dataset. Furthermore, the following four points can be drawn through analyzing the experimental results. First, comparing CMP approach with GMP approach, we can see that the former is 3.8% higher than the latter one on the accuracy. It shows that the spatio-temporal relationship explicitly considered by our

| Table 1 | The action recognition accuracy values (%) under different \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) in the KTH dataset. |
|---------|-----------------------------------------------|
| \( \beta \) | \( \alpha = 10 \) | \( \alpha = 20 \) | \( \alpha = 30 \) | \( \alpha = 40 \) |
| 20      | 94.6 | 94.8 | 94.2 | 93.6 |
| 30      | 96.2 | 97.6 | 96.8 | 95.3 |
| 40      | 95.1 | 94.4 | 93.6 | 91.9 |
| 50      | 94.5 | 94.7 | 93.2 | 92.1 |

| Table 2 | The comparison of our method with the state-of-the-art methods and the baseline methods on the KTH and UCF Sports datasets. |
|---------|---------------------------------------------------------------|
|         | KTH (%) | UCF (%) |
| Kovashka et al. [16] | 94.5 | 87.3 |
| Le et al. [17] | 93.9 | 86.5 |
| Wang et al. [18] | 94.2 | 88.2 |
| Jiang et al. [19] | 95.8 | 88.0 |
| Wang et al. [20] | 93.3 | - |
| Wu et al. [21] | 97.0 | 90.7 |
| SP | 91.2 | 85.3 |
| MP | 92.4 | 87.3 |
| GMP | 93.8 | 88.0 |
| CMP | 97.6 | 92.0 |

Fig. 2 Confusion table of our method on the KTH database.
CMP approach can improve the performance. Second, the CMP, GMP and MP methods outperform the SP method. It demonstrates that max pooling and its extensions can capture the discriminative information when aggregating the encodings. Third, our CMP gains 6.4% accuracy rate over SP. It is because our CMP not only inherits the positive properties of max pooling but also preserves spatio-temporal relationships among the interest points. Finally, from the confusion table, we can see that leg-related actions (Running and Jogging) are prone to be misclassified. We think the possible reason may be that they always exhibit similar context and appearance.

The UCF Sports dataset contains 150 sports videos of ten action categories. This dataset represents a natural pool of actions featured in a wide range of scenes and viewpoints, so the videos exhibit great intra-class variation. We take the leave-one-out cross validation, namely cycling each sample as a test video one at a time. The performances of different methods are shown in Table 2 and the confusion table of recognition results on the UCF Sports dataset is shown in Fig.3. We can see that our CMP method outperforms the other three baselines and other state-of-the-art methods, reaching 91.9% on the UCF Sports dataset. We draw the similar conclusions with that on the KTH datasets, and the experimental results clearly demonstrate the superiority of our method over previous methods in human action recognition.

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