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Real-Time Video Saliency Prediction Via 3D Residual Convolutional Neural Network

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I. INTRODUCTION

Saliency originates from the fact that the cone and rod photoreceptors are not uniformly distributed on the retina, such that more attention is allocated to the attractive regions [1]–[3]. Numerous applications such as action recognition [4], robotic navigation [5], video compression [6] and semantic segmentation [3] benefit from robust saliency prediction. In particular, a rapid and robust saliency model can be applied as a pre-processing tool to efficiently extract region-of-interest (ROI) and distinguish the areas which are less important. Recent years have witnessed a dramatic performance improvement on image saliency prediction, especially after the introduction of deep learning [7], [8]. Inspired by the successful practice of convolutional neural network (ConvNet) [9] in computer vision tasks, many researchers employed ConvNet as a generic feature extractor, which is able to extract more sophisticated and descriptive features compared to traditional hand-crafted features.

ConvNet-based models have also been successfully incorporated to automatically learn spatial feature to predict image saliency maps. For instance, the static saliency model in [7] was built on two typical ConvNet architectures including VGG [10] and ResNet [11]. Though the performance of static image saliency prediction approaches saturated to some extent [12], there is an increasing demand for video saliency prediction due to the numerous applications of the video big data. A video is generally composed of consecutive frames such that the static image model can be directly utilized in the video task. Since one key ingredient of videos is the temporal correlation, it is imperative to properly model the dynamical temporal properties in video saliency prediction. Currently, many methods have been developed to extract temporal related features to improve the performance of video saliency prediction [13]–[15]. In the pioneering work, Itti et al. [16] modeled the motion flow as the absolute difference of adjacent frames on both spatial and Gabor domains. Fang et al. [17] employed the optical flow between two consecutive frames for spatio-temporal feature extraction. However, estimating...
optical flow is time consuming, which becomes the bottleneck in the inference stage. On the other hand, most of the models use a frame-by-frame inference manner, which is also cumbersome in real application scenarios.

To address the above-mentioned issues, this paper proposes a low complexity end-to-end method for video saliency prediction via 3D residual convolutional neural network (3D-ResNet) structures, which is efficient for spatio-temporal feature representation learning. Instead of extracting the temporal information straightforwardly, our model takes the video clip as the input, making it possible to generate a volume of saliency maps in a single forward pass, which significantly improves the inference speed. Moreover, a skipping frame strategy is also introduced to further boost the computational efficiency. Compared with the popular two-stream network structure and optical flow based architecture used in [17]–[19] and [20], the proposed model incorporates the temporal representation into spatial feature extraction as an integrated process and directly produces spatio-temporal saliency results. As such, there are two advantages of the proposed scheme. First, the time-consuming optical flow or other motion feature extractors are avoided, which significantly reduces the computational complexity. Second, in contrast to previous approaches [18], [20], the proposed model extracts the spatio-temporal feature directly from a video clip, such that the saliency-relevant spatio-temporal feature representation can be learned in an end-to-end manner.

Furthermore, to facilitate the training and evaluation on the proposed model, an large-scale eye fixation datasets with 220 5-second videos composed of 29,850 frames is constructed. Experimental results show that our proposed model has significantly outperformed the state-of-art video saliency models over the existing datasets and the proposed dataset. In summary, the main contributions of this paper are as follows,

- We propose a new end-to-end video saliency prediction model base on 3D-ResNet for data-driven spatio-temporal feature representation. A multi-scale feature representation scheme and a frame skipping strategy are proposed in this model to improve the prediction accuracy and inference speed. The experimental results show that the average inference speed of our model is 60 ~ 107 fps, which is more than 3 ~ 7 times faster than the existing deep learning based saliency prediction models such as OM-LSTM [21].

- We create a new challenging eye fixation video dataset, termed as VideoSet-Gaze (VSG), for the further research and evaluation towards video saliency prediction. The VSG dataset contains static close shot, slow and rapid motion sports scene, movie scene and synthetic video, which is publicly available.\(^1\) Our proposed 3D-ResNet based video saliency model has been validated using this new dataset, showing competitive performance.

- We carry out analyses to investigate the influence of video content and temporal characteristics on video saliency prediction. These analyses provide useful insights to facilitate the future research of comprehensive models for video saliency prediction.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section II reviews the related works of video saliency detection models. The proposed 3D-ResNet based video saliency prediction is discussed in section III. Section IV introduces the proposed video eye fixation dataset VSG. Extensive experimental results are provided in Section V. Finally, Section VI concludes this paper.

## II. RELATED WORKS

### A. VIDEO SALIENCY PREDICTION

Many state-of-the-art static saliency models utilize top-down or bottom-up modeling schemes, which perform well in predicting saliency on images [22], [23], especially after the introducing of deep neural networks. However, dynamic saliency prediction for video is much more complicated. Since the rapidly moving object of a dynamic scene may extract human attention, the eye fixation areas will be significantly different [24] when a frame is displayed in a static or dynamic way. Thus, the key issue of video saliency detection task is to jointly model the spatio-temporal cues. According to the method of feature extraction, existing video saliency prediction methods can be classified into heuristic methods (or hand-crafted feature based methods) and learning based methods.

#### 1) HEURISTIC DYNAMIC METHOD

Inspired by the feature extraction theory, a typical video saliency detection model consists of feature extraction module and fusion module. The feature extraction module generates feature maps for saliency related cues. The fusion module combines the feature maps to obtain the final saliency map. In addition to utilizing the spatial features [25] for static saliency prediction, Itti \textit{et al.} extracted the temporal differences between frames for the dynamic task. By computing the difference between the luminance vector and the spatially-shifted Gabor pyramids of two adjacent frames, they yielded flicker pyramid and motion pyramid as temporal feature maps [16]. \textit{Nguyen \textit{et al.}} [24] used a spatial feature extraction scheme which is similar with Itti’s model. The main difference is that in Nguyen’s model, the optical flow fields were applied for dense temporal feature representation instead of flicker feature.

Inspired by the spectral residual method [26], \textit{Cui et al.} proposed a FFT based fast motion saliency detection method [27]. The Fourier transform was applied along video slices on both X-T and Y-T planes to separate the background and foreground objects. After inhibiting noisy candidate by utilizing a threshold, a voting operation was used to obtain the salient motion region. Instead of using traditional transform based method, \textit{Guo et al.} [28] applied the quaternion representation method to model the four

\(^1\)https://github.com/sunnycia/video_saliency_scripts
static saliency map generated by GBVS, Zhong et al. proposed a modified optical flow method to construct temporal saliency map. Rudoy et al. [20] proposed a candidate selection method for saliency prediction, which combines the static saliency model, human face detector and poselets detector to extract static candidates and semantic candidates. Then the most salient region is selected by learning the probability of transition between candidates of continuous frames.

In addition to investigating efficient temporal feature extraction schemes, efforts are also devoted to robust fusion strategy, which attempts to weigh the contributions of spatial and temporal saliency maps. Fang et al. proposed an uncertainty weighting based feature fusion scheme [17]. Karpathy et al. compared slow fusion, early fusion and late fusion methods when extracting spatio-temporal information from the original frames [30]. The cues from the compression domain can also play important roles in saliency prediction. Based on feature comparison, Fang et al. proposed a compression domain video saliency detection method in [31], where luminance, color and texture features are extracted by measuring the residual coefficients of coding unit from intra frame, and spatial saliency map is generated by comparing these features. The motion vector is used to finally generate a motion saliency map, which is combined with the spatial saliency map to fuse the final saliency map. Xu et al. [32] found there is consistency between compression domain based features and human fixation ground truth. As such, they utilized the HEVC codec as the spatio-temporal feature extractor and support vector machine is applied for further training.

2) DEEP LEARNING BASED DYNAMIC MODEL
Recently, deep learning based approaches [7], [8] have proven their success on saliency detection task benefiting from existing large-scale eye fixation datasets [33] and sophisticated algorithms. Vig et al. [34] firstly proposed a ConvNet-based feature extraction scheme for image saliency prediction. The end-to-end deep learning based image saliency prediction models as proposed in [7], [8] take one single image as input, and predicts the probability map as the saliency confidence. Huang et al. [8] proposed a model which takes both low and high-resolution images as input to learn multi-scale spatial features. In [7], deep spatial contextual LSTM based on ResNet [11] achieved the state-of-the-art performance.

Existing learning based dynamic models can be classified into optical-flow based methods and long-term-dependency-based methods. The optical-flow based methods explicitly employ the pre-computed short-term temporal information, mostly optical flow, as the compensation for CNN spatial feature. For example, Bak et al. utilized the two-stream convolution neural network [19] for video saliency prediction. One stream takes the original frames as the input to extract spatial feature and another stream takes the precomputed optical flow vector as the input for temporal feature extraction. Two different features are then simply concatenated for saliency pooling. The long-term-dependency-based methods mainly employed long short-term memory (LSTM) network to model the temporal dependency among frames. More recently, Jiang et al. [21] proposed an object-to-motion structure to model the transition of human eye fixations in the video, where the FlowNet [35] is employed as the backbone for extracting optical flow features.

Due to the limitation of model structure, existing video saliency models mainly take a few video frames as the input. Thus motion information and slow temporal changes may be ignored, which limited the performance. Besides, the frame by frame saliency inference is computationally inefficient, as every single frame in the video has to be fed into the model to obtain the final result. Based on these considerations, an efficient feature representation method which can model video saliency from both spatial and temporal perspectives with low complexity cost is highly desired. As such, feature representation methods in other video analytic tasks are also reviewed in the following subsection.

B. LEARNING BASED SPATIO-TEMPORAL FEATURE REPRESENTATION
Recently, efforts have been devoted to spatio-temporal feature representation learning in video processing and analytical tasks, such as video segmentation [36], video style transfer [37], video action classification [38] and temporal video localization [36]. Consecutive frames in videos are highly temporally correlated, and the temporal redundancy also appears in the deep feature maps [39]. To reduce the computational cost, Zhu et al. [39] proposed a deep feature flow framework which propagates the feature map of previous frames into subsequent inference frames. Ruder et al. [37] employed temporary consistency loss to preserve the consistency between adjacent frames and distant frames in video style transfer. Simonyan et al. [38] proposed a novel two-stream CNN architecture to extract spatial and temporal feature separately in two CNN branches for action recognition. To explore the fusion of temporal information by adjusting the structure of CNN, Karpathy et al. [30] tried four different models, including a baseline model with single-frame and three different methods to process frames in one forward pass for learning temporal information. However, these methods employ 2D convolution kernel, such that the temporal learning capability is constrained.

Due to the efficiency of 3D convolution neural networks (3D ConvNets) on spatio-temporal feature learning, Ji et al. [40] introduced the 3D convolution layer into their human action recognition network architecture, which can capture the motion information encoded in multiple adjacent frames. Tran et al. [41] proposed the C3D architecture, in which the 2D convolution and 2D pooling of VGG [10]
model were replaced by 3D convolution and 3D pooling, respectively. Carreira et al. [42] proposed a two-stream Inflated 3D ConvNet (I3D) which takes both RGB and optic flow volume as inputs. To reduce the computational cost and memory demand of very deep 3D CNN models, Qiu et al. [43] proposed the Pseudo-3D (P3D) residual networks with three different bottleneck block designing. Furthermore, Tran et al. [44] proposed the ResNet architecture based R(2+1)D model, which decomposed the 3D convolution into a 2D spatial convolution followed by 1D temporal convolution. Since additional non-linear rectification is involved in the (2+1)D operation, the feature representation capacity is significantly improved.

Compared to the optical flow based architecture, the 3D ConvNets based model processes multiple frames in a parallel manner, which significantly speeds up the inference process. To efficiently learn spatio-temporal feature representation from the video volume, our proposed video saliency prediction model will utilize the 3D-ResNet structure as the backbone for spatio-temporal feature extraction.

III. PROPOSED 3D-RESNET BASED VIDEO SALLIENCY PREDICTION MODEL

In this section, the concept of our proposed video saliency prediction model is discussed in details. Suppose the input video clip with L consecutive frames and the density ground truth are denoted as X and Y, respectively, the goal of our proposed model is to learn an end-to-end mapping from X to Y. As depicted in Fig. 1, the proposed model consists of 3D-ResNet based spatio-temporal feature extraction module and saliency prediction module. Details of each module are described as follows.

A. 3D-RESNET BASED SPATIO-TEMPORAL FEATURE EXTRACTION

The proposed 3D-ResNet based spatio-temporal feature extraction module consists of an input layer, a 3D convolution layer and four stacked 3D residual blocks. The input and output features for each layer are 4D tensors with shape $T \times W \times H \times C$, which represents the dimension of temporal, width, height and channel, respectively.

The first 3D convolution layer aims to extract low-level features directly from the input video clip. Each 3D residual block consists of four 3D convolution layers. As suggested in [10], stacked smaller kernels may lead to better performance compared to the setting with larger kernels. Thus, the kernels in these convolution layers are all set as $3 \times 3 \times 3$. Each 3D residual block contains a batch normalization layer [45] and scale layer to accelerate the convergence of training. The input video clip is not down-sampled in the first 3D convolution layer and the first 3D residual block in the temporal dimension, such that the temporal information in the early phase of the network can be preserved. Detailed parameters of each convolution blocks are summarized in Table 1.

B. MULTI-SCALE FEATURE REPRESENTATION BASED SALIENCY PREDICTION

After extracting saliency-related spatio-temporal feature tensor from the input video clip, the saliency prediction module will be executed for inferring the final saliency clip via multiple 3D deconvolution layers. However, the performance could be limited if only the output of the last 3D residual block is utilized, since the local saliency cues across spatial or temporal dimension may get lost due to the scaling operation.

According the studies in cognitive research [46], human visual system obeys the coarse to fine strategy across spatial scales when detecting salient regions. Traditional hand-crafted features based models usually employed the image pyramids for obtaining multi-scale feature representation, which processed the raw input image for multiple times. However, it is not suitable for real application scenarios due to the increasing of computational complexity in the inference stage. For our proposed 3D-ResNet based feature extraction
TABLE 1. Detailed parameter setting of the proposed architecture.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>layer name</th>
<th>parameter</th>
<th>output size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>input</td>
<td></td>
<td>$L \times 112 \times 112 \times 3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3D-Conv1</td>
<td>$3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 64$</td>
<td>$L \times 56 \times 56 \times 64$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3D-Res2</td>
<td>$3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 64$</td>
<td>$L \times 56 \times 56 \times 64$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3D-Res3</td>
<td>$3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 128$</td>
<td>$L \times 28 \times 28 \times 128$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3D-Res4</td>
<td>$3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 256$</td>
<td>$L \times 14 \times 14 \times 256$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3D-Res5</td>
<td>$3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 512$</td>
<td>$L \times 7 \times 7 \times 512$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3D-De-Res4</td>
<td>$4 \times 4 \times 4 \times 256$</td>
<td>$L \times 28 \times 28 \times 256$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3D-De-Res5</td>
<td>$8 \times 8 \times 8 \times 512$</td>
<td>$L \times 28 \times 28 \times 512$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concat</td>
<td></td>
<td>$L \times 28 \times 28 \times 896$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3D-Conv6</td>
<td>$7 \times 3 \times 3 \times 512$</td>
<td>$L \times 28 \times 28 \times 512$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3D-DeConv7</td>
<td>$4 \times 4 \times 4 \times 1$</td>
<td>$L \times 56 \times 56 \times 32$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3D-DeConv8</td>
<td>$4 \times 4 \times 4 \times 11$</td>
<td>$L \times 112 \times 112 \times 1$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this paper, the training of our proposed whole framework is in an end-to-end manner, where the density eye fixation map is used as ground truth. The value of output volume of saliency map is between 0 and 1. During the training stage, the parameters of the network are updated via minimizing a loss function. In essence, the optimization of deep learning based saliency prediction is a pixel-wise regression problem, where the squared $\ell_2$ norm of error is chosen as the default loss function. As shown in Fig. 2, the structure information of predicted saliency map is not well preserved, since the $\ell_2$ norm penalizes large errors but is more tolerant to small errors and easily gets stuck in a local minimum [49].

\[ \text{Prediction by } \ell_2 \text{ loss} \]
\[ \text{Ground-truth} \]

\[ \text{Frame} \]

\[ \text{Prediction by } \ell_1 \text{ loss} \]

**FIGURE 2.** Comparisons of the prediction maps based on the $\ell_1$ loss and $\ell_2$ loss.

Instead of using the $\ell_2$ norm, the $\ell_1$ norm is employed as loss function, which is defined as

\[ \mathcal{L}^{\ell_1}(P) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{p \in P} |S(p) - Y(p)|, \]  

(1)

where $p$ is the index of the pixel and $P$ is the 5D tensor with size $B \times L \times W \times H \times C$; $S(p)$ and $Y(p)$ are the values of pixels in the predicted saliency clips and ground truth, respectively; and $B$ is the batch size. During the training stage, all the learnable parameters are updated according to the back-propagated derivative of each pixel $p$, which is provided as follows.

\[ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}^{\ell_1}(P)}{\partial p} = \text{sign}(S(p) - Y(p)). \]  

(2)

Compared to the $\ell_2$ norm, the $\ell_1$ norm does not over-penalize large errors and can reach better minimum. As shown in Fig. 2, $\ell_1$ norm based prediction result is visually closer to the ground truth.

**D. FLEXIBLE INFERENCE STAGE**

During the inference phase, the frames in the video are first decoded and arranged into video clips through a slide window with size $L$ and stride $O$. Due to the memory limitation, all the frames in the video clip are resized with spatial resolution $112 \times 112$. At the beginning, the first $L$ frames ($F_1, \ldots, F_L$)
are arranged into a 4D tensor and fed into the proposed model, which outputs a volume of saliency map denoted as \((S_1, \ldots, S_L)\). Only the first \(O\) saliency maps will be saved. Subsequently, the model will process the next \(L\) frames \((F_{O+1}, \ldots, F_{O+L})\). This process will be executed recurrently until all frames have been processed. For real applications, we can adjust the parameter \(O\) to make a balance between prediction accuracy and inference speed. The influence of stride \(O\) on the model performance will be discussed in Section V.

IV. VIDEO-SET GAZE DATASET

For deep learning based saliency detection framework, large-scale eye fixation databases with diverse video content are fundamental requirements for learning meaningful and representative features. Currently, there are some limitations on the existing datasets. For example, the videos stimuli contained in some datasets are with low-resolution and corrupted by compression artifacts, which may influence the distributions of human gazing. The number of shots in a video clip is also an important factor. If there exist too many shots, the subjects may have to constantly adjust their eyes to the new content and switch their fixation area. In view of these limitations, we have constructed a new challenge dataset termed as the Video-SET Gaze (VGS) dataset, which includes 220 dynamic scenes. For each video clip, the corresponding eye fixation data from subjects are also included in the dataset.

A. EXPERIMENT SETTING

1) STIMULI

The raw video clips used for eye fixation data collection are from VideoSet [50], which is a large-scale just noticeable difference (JND) based compression video quality dataset. The VideoSet contains 220 raw source videos clips with diverse visual contents, such as slow motion scenes, rapid motion scenes, scenes with and without a salient object. The duration of each video clip is 5-seconds. The frame rate of video clips are 24 or 30 fps. In this paper, we only use the uncompressed original videos clips in VideoSet. All videos clips are in spatial resolution of 1920 × 1080. Fig. 3 shows some thumbnails images of VideoSet for illustration.

2) EXPERIMENT APPARATUS

The eye tracker used to collect human eye gaze data is Tobii X-120 with sampling rate of 120 Hz. For each frame of a 30 fps video, the eye tracker can capture around four gazing positions from human eyes. The eye tracker is mounted on a 1920 × 1080 monitor during the experiment.

3) SUBJECTS

37 volunteers are invited to participate in the experiment, aged between 18 and 24. Glasses-wear subjects are required to clean the lens to guarantee the accuracy of gaze data. All of them have no saliency detection or relevant research
background. They are naïve to the underlying purposes of the experiment and required to watch the video sequences freely.

4) EXPERIMENT PROCEDURE
The 220 short video sequences are randomized and divided into four groups, and each group contains 55 video clips. Once a video clip is displayed, a 3-second blank-background scenes will be displayed on screen for resting. After the beginning of each group, the volunteers are required to adjust their seat or pose for eye position calibration. Among groups, there is a 3-minute interval for resting. The total time for a volunteer watching videos is around forty minutes, including the resting and calibration. The raw gazing data are collected simultaneously when the videos were playing.

B. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSES
The eye tracker records the raw gazing points of the subjects when watching images or video frames on the screen. Compared to the image fixation data, fewer gaze data will be collected for every single frame in a video. The fixation area of each frame in video display mode is relatively smaller compared to the area for static display mode, especially when the video clip has only one salient object. The preprocessing procedure of raw gazing data is discussed as follows.

1) RAW GAZE DATA PREPROCESSING
The behaviors of eye movement can be roughly classified into fixation and saccade. The fixation phase refers to the fact that both of eyes will focus on the region of interest (ROI). The saccade characterizes the movement of eyes from one ROI to another. Based on the investigation in [56], the raw gaze point can be classified into fixation point and saccade point by measuring the angular velocity of the current gaze point. If the velocity of a point is larger than a preset threshold, this point will be classified into saccade point and removed from the point sequence. As such, ground truth fixation map is generated based on the raw fixation points. The fixation map is a two-dimension binary mask recording the gazing position, consisting of the fixated point represented with 1 and the non-fixated point represented with 0.

2) GROUND TRUTH DENSITY MAP GENERATION
The fixation map composed of discrete values is difficult for video saliency model training [24]. Thus, the ground-truth density map is generated from the fixation map. The density map is set to be the continuous ground truth for training in the end-to-end model because the distribution of density is similar to a 2D probability distribution, and each value of a pixel represent a saliency confidence value. Due to the micro-tremble of the eye and the limitation of the eye tracker, the fixation point changes within a small range. When generating the density map using Gaussian filtering, the size of the Gaussian kernel is chosen based on the average shaking range of the human eyes.

For each frame, we apply the Gaussian filtering around the gaze location of each participant. Since Gaussian distribution models the nonuniform distribution of the photoreceptors on the retina (i.e., the eccentricity of the fovea), the size of the Gaussian kernel is set to be 1 degree of visual angle. In our experiment setting, 1-degree visual angle is equivalent to 32 pixels on the 24-inch 1920 \times 1080 monitor.

During the gaze data processing, we also have some interesting observations as follows:

- The distribution of eye fixation points is highly influenced by the high level spatial semantic features such as human face or the temporal information such as rapid motion. For example, the attention of human can be attracted by the moving shuffle-board, as shown in Fig. 3.
- Human eyes use a short time to switch their attention from the center of the screen to the specific saliency objects. The average human reaction time in video free viewing condition is about 0.3s (e.g. 9 frames for a 30 fps video clip). In other words, the minimum temporal length of input video volume for 3D ConvNet should be larger than 9.

V. EXPERIMENT RESULTS
A. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP
1) EYE FIXATION VIDEO DATASETS
For performance evaluation, the experiments are conducted on the most representative video eye-tracking databases, including DIEM [51], HOLLYWOOD2 [52], SAVAM [53], LEDOV [21] and DHF1K [54] and our proposed VSG dataset. The details of each dataset are summarized as follows.

DIEM [51] includes 84 different resolution videos at 30 fps. The duration of each video clip is from 27 to 217 seconds. As such, there are 240,452 frames in total. The scenes are from publicly accessible videos including advertisement, game trailer, movie trailer etc. Most of these videos have frequent cinematic cuts. The free-viewing fixations of around 50 subjects were recorded for each video.

HOLLYWOOD-2 (denoted as HW) [52] is originally an video dataset for action recognition task. The dataset contains 1707 video sequences with 12 action classes, all of which are selected from Hollywood movies. This dataset comprises 48K frames in total. 16 subjects took participation in the data collection.

SAVAM [53] comprises 41 high definition 1080p stereo videos. Fifty subjects aging from 18-56 participated in the data collection experiment. The subjects were asked to freely view the videos. During the experiment, we only use the left eye videos and data for model performance comparison.

LEDOV [21] is an large-scale video saliency dataset published in 2018. It comprises 538 videos and 179,336 frames in total. The videos were selected from different publicly available sources with diverse spatial resolutions and frame rates. 32 subjects aging from 20 to 56 participate in the data collection experiment.
TABLE 2. Descriptions of the existing video saliency datasets.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dataset</th>
<th>Number of Samples</th>
<th>Total frames</th>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Spatial Resolution</th>
<th>Frame Rate</th>
<th>Shots per video</th>
<th>Sample rate (Hz)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DIEM [51]</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>240,452</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>672×544~1280×720</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hollywood-2 [52]</td>
<td>1707</td>
<td>487,556</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>480×320~720×576</td>
<td>24~30</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAVAM [53]</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>18,360</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1920×1080</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8.95</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEDOV [21]</td>
<td>538</td>
<td>179,336</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>640×480~3240×2160</td>
<td>15~60</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DHF1K [54]</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>582,605</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>640×360</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VSG</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>29,850</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>1920×1080</td>
<td>24~30</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

DHF1K [54] consists of one thousand well-selected high-quality dynamic videos with human fixation ground truth. This dataset totally contains around 600K frames and per-frame fixation annotations from 17 observers.

More detailed information regarding total frames, total subjects, video resolution, frame rate, average shot of the above-mentioned databases are summarized in Table 2.

2) TRAINING/INFERENCE PROTOCOLS

In our experiment, the LEDOV [21] database is used for training. More specifically, all the 538 training videos are segmented into overlapped clips with $T$ consecutive frames. The length of overlap is $\frac{L}{7}$. For data augmentation, horizontal flip operation is employed on the video clips. When applying horizontal flipping, the same operation is performed on corresponding ground truth. Then, the spatial resolution of video clips are resized into 128 × 128, with zero-mean and unit-variance normalization. For ground truth generation, the similar operations are implemented on the sequences of density eye fixation map. In our experiment, we set the length of the video clip as $L = 16$. The proposed model is evaluated on six datasets, including DIEM [51], SAVAM [53], Hollywood-2 [52], DHF1K [54] and the proposed VSG dataset, with in total 2649 video sequences containing more than 900K frames.

3) IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

In the training phase, the network parameters of the proposed feature extraction module are initialized based on the pre-trained model for video action recognition task [44]. This benefits our network from the perspective of richer and generic features learned on the Sports-1M dataset [30]. The Ada-delta gradient descent algorithm [57] is employed to minimize the $L_1$ loss between the cube of density eye fixation map and predicted saliency maps. The parameters such as batch size, momentum and weight decay are set as 2, 0.95 and 0.0005, respectively. The adaptively learning rate adjusting policy in Caffe platform [58] is enabled, which can
be formulated as

$$R_i = (1 + \alpha i)^{-\gamma} R_0$$

where $R_0$ is the initial learning rate and fixed as $10^{-6}$. $i$ is the index of iteration. We set $\alpha = 10^{-4}$ and $\gamma = 0.75$ in the experiment. All the training process is completed with a single NVIDIA Titan Xp GPU card. The network was trained over 200K iterations. Detailed information about the training will be provided in our project website.

B. PERFORMANCE COMPARISONS WITH THE STATE-OF-THE-ART METHODS

To demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed model, we compare the performance with seven competitive saliency detection models, including static models such as Spectral Residual (denoted as SR) [26], GBVS [29] and SALICON [8], as well as dynamic models, including Surprise [55], PQFT [28], Uncertainty Weight (denoted as UW) [17] and OM-LSTM [21]. All the source codes are public available. In particular, SALICON and OM-LSTM are deep learning models. Following the instruction of the source codes provided by authors, these two models are trained on the LEDOV dataset for fair comparison. The settings of the training stage such as data processing and model parameters are set as default.

1) PERFORMANCE COMPARISONS

Three evaluation metrics are employed to measure the performance of saliency detection models on various datasets, including the linear correlation coefficient (CC) [59], the similarity (SIM) and an area under curve variant from Judd et al. (denoted as AUC) [60]. For each dataset, the performance is measured upon all the frames. The results are summarized in Table 3, from which it is obvious that the learning based dynamic model outperforms the static model and traditional dynamic model. Specifically, the best performance of non-learning model is UW, which achieves 0.3481, 0.2673 and 0.8489 on CC, SIM and AUC metric respectively on VSG dataset. Comparatively, our proposed model obtain 0.4013, 0.3143 and 0.8707 over these three metrics, which outperforms UW model on VSG dataset. Overall, the performance of proposed model is significantly higher than other methods across various metrics on most of the datasets. For example, on DHF1K dataset, the AUC value of proposed model is 0.8610, which is significantly better than that of the OM-LSTM model (0.8412). Based on the qualitative results provided in Fig. 4, the proposed model can achieve good visualization results on the VSG dataset. Besides, the proposed model is able to detect the fast moving object even if the size of object is relatively small in the frame, as shown in Fig. 5. This qualitative result demonstrates the motion tracking ability of the proposed architecture.

On the other hand, referring to Fig. 6, the proposed model is excellent with the scene with salient content like foreground human, but failed with some outdoor scenes. This may ascribe to the training dataset, since the model is trained to fit the attribute of training dataset. The training dataset LEDOV [21] selected videos only with salient objects, such that the model may fail for these landscape scenarios. Another reason is that there is no salient object in these failed cases, which also make it harder to predict where human tend to watch. We find that human tend to focus on the center of these scenes, but in our proposed model, we didn’t add the center prior to the final prediction. Therefore, one practical solution to improve
the predict accuracy for these failed scenes is adding a center prior weighting to the final prediction.

2) COMPUTATIONAL COMPLEXITY

For practical application, computation load is significantly important, since the video saliency prediction is a fundamental part of video analysis system. The computation load in terms of inference speed for all the models are summarized in Table 3. The inference speed of proposed model with default setting is 60 fps, which around four times faster than that of the OM-LSTM model. Different from the optical flow based models, the proposed model can process consecutive frames in parallel, which significantly reduces the computational cost.

C. ABLATION STUDY

Benefitting from the architecture design, the proposed model is able to use a skip frame inference method to further improve the inference speed. We use eight frames overlapping between the previous and current inference clips by default. To explore the contribution of overlapping frames to the final prediction accuracy, we designed another experiment which change the processing stride during the inference phrase. As shown in Table 4, the inference speed of the proposed model is highly dependent on the setting of stride parameter of the sliding window, whereas performance loss can be ignored. With the longest inference stride (16 frames), the Proposed model can achieve a inference speed of 107 frames per second, nearly double its speed of default setting (60 fps). The result indicates that although the relationship of the inference clip sequence is not explicitly considered in our design, the effect of the dependency of the clips cannot be ignored. The reason could be attributed to the human attention mechanism which relies more on short time dependency instead of long-time memory.

To further improve the inference speed, a simplified version of the original architecture (denoted as Proposed-S) is proposed. Compared with the origianl

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dataset</th>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>Stride</th>
<th>Stride</th>
<th>Stride</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LEDOV [21]</td>
<td>CC</td>
<td>0.4291</td>
<td>0.4262</td>
<td>0.4234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SIM</td>
<td>0.3668</td>
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<td>0.3637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AUC</td>
<td>0.8379</td>
<td>0.8365</td>
<td>0.8354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIEM [51]</td>
<td>CC</td>
<td>0.1471</td>
<td>0.1456</td>
<td>0.1460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SIM</td>
<td>0.2119</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AUC</td>
<td>0.7077</td>
<td>0.7082</td>
<td>0.7071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HW [52]</td>
<td>CC</td>
<td>0.4703</td>
<td>0.4674</td>
<td>0.4639</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SIM</td>
<td>0.3648</td>
<td>0.3644</td>
<td>0.3617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AUC</td>
<td>0.8737</td>
<td>0.8730</td>
<td>0.8716</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAVAM [53]</td>
<td>CC</td>
<td>0.4291</td>
<td>0.4262</td>
<td>0.4234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SIM</td>
<td>0.3668</td>
<td>0.3656</td>
<td>0.3637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AUC</td>
<td>0.8379</td>
<td>0.8365</td>
<td>0.8354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DHI [54]</td>
<td>CC</td>
<td>0.3564</td>
<td>0.3555</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SIM</td>
<td>0.2538</td>
<td>0.2545</td>
<td>0.2526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AUC</td>
<td>0.8610</td>
<td>0.8606</td>
<td>0.8597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VSG</td>
<td>CC</td>
<td>0.4013</td>
<td>0.4027</td>
<td>0.4034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SIM</td>
<td>0.3143</td>
<td>0.3159</td>
<td>0.3152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AUC</td>
<td>0.8707</td>
<td>0.8713</td>
<td>0.8714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inference speed (FPS)</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>107</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
proposed version, Proposed-S doesn’t apply a feature pyramid concatenation operation. As shown in Fig. 1, the trimmed version removes the feature pyramid module in the original version. The direct result is lesser parameter is needed in Proposed-S. As it shows in the last line of Table 3, the Proposed method has more than 200 million parameters, whereas the Proposed-S shrink the number to about 50 million without great loss of accuracy performance. Based on the results in Table 3, the inference speed of Proposed-S is able to achieve two times faster than the original version, with the processing speed of 125 fps. Without dramatical loss of accuracy, it is possible for this model to perform a real-time video analysis task.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper designed an end-to-end low complexity 3D-ResNet architecture for video saliency prediction. The proposed framework captures saliency-relevant spatiotemporal features in an integrated manner, such that the video saliency can be feasibly inferred. Moreover, a large-scale eye fixation dataset is built to better reflect the video saliency performance. With high inference speed, the experimental results show that proposed architecture is competitive with state-of-the-art video saliency model and image saliency model, and superior saliency prediction performance in terms of both accuracy and computational speed is achieved.

REFERENCES


