VideoLSTM convolves, attends and flows for action recognition

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ABSTRACT

We present VideoLSTM for end-to-end sequence learning of actions in video. Rather than adapting the video to the peculiarities of established recurrent or convolutional architectures, we adapt the architecture to fit the requirements of the video medium. Starting from the soft-Attention LSTM, VideoLSTM makes three novel contributions. First, video has a spatial layout. To exploit the spatial correlation we hardwire convolutions in the soft-Attention LSTM architecture. Second, motion not only informs us about the action content, but also guides better the attention towards the relevant spatio-temporal locations. We introduce motion-based attention. And finally, we demonstrate how the attention from VideoLSTM can be exploited for action localization by relying on the action class label and temporal attention smoothing. Experiments on UCF101, HMDB51 and THUMOS13 reveal the benefit of the video-specific adaptations of VideoLSTM in isolation as well as when integrated in a combined architecture. It compares favorably against other LSTM architectures for action classification and especially action localization.

1. Introduction

This paper strives to classify video actions like shaving, biking and punch in an end-to-end fashion. This challenging task is commonly addressed by learning a video’s spatial appearance and motion flow with the aid of deep convolutional neural networks, before temporal pooling, e.g., Simonyan and Zisserman (2014), Feichtenhofer et al. (2016b) and Wang et al. (2016). Different from these modern architectures, which all learn a global video representation without considering local spatial structures over time, we prefer to embed the spatio-temporal nature of the action into our representation learning, with the added benefit that we obtain the action’s location for free.

We draw inspiration from saliency, a classical topic in computer vision (Itti et al., 1998) that was recently shown to emerge from recurrent neural network architectures as well, e.g., Xu et al. (2015). The first to use such visual attention for action recognition in video is the work by Sharma et al. (2015; 2016). They extend the soft-Attention model of Xu et al. (2015), intended for image captioning, to action recognition in video. First, the appearance of individual video frames is encoded as a feature map tensor derived from the last convolutional layer of a GoogLeNet (Szegedy et al., 2015). Then, the model propagates the vectorized tensor through an LSTM (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997) and predicts the attention at the next frame in addition to the action label. Their model is very effective for action classification, despite the fact that it leverages image appearance only, while completely ignoring the motion inside a video. We propose a new LSTM architecture that integrates attention, appearance and motion of a video to arrive at better action classification and localization.

The standard LSTM (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997) treats all incoming data as a vector, even though it is well known that an image has a spatial correlation that is better preserved by convolutions than inner products (LeCun et al., 1998). Moreover, convolutional neural networks ensure better shift, scale and distortion invariance by leveraging local receptive fields, shared weights, and pooling, especially when they are very deep (He et al., 2015; Simonyan and Zisserman, 2015; Szegedy et al., 2015). Shi et al. (2015) introduced convolutional structures, rather than vectors, in both the input-to-state and state-to-state transitions of a standard LSTM for radar map forecasting. Ballas et al. (2016) stack multiple convolutional recurrent units in a deep hierarchical architecture. Their model achieves better performance than a single-layered recurrent neural network. In modeling videos, however, convolutions with a deep architecture alone do not suffice and attention must also be considered, as we will show in the experiments. Hence, to reckon the spatio-temporal nature of the video when using an LSTM, we must hardwire the LSTM network with convolutions and spatio-temporal attentions.

In this work we advocate and experimentally verify that in order to model videos accurately with LSTMs, we must adapt the LSTM architecture to fit the video medium, not vice versa. Such a model must address the video properties, i.e. appearance, motion and attention,
simultaneously and not in isolation. In fact, our experiments reveal that modeling a subset only of the properties brings little, if any, improvement, while a joint treatment results in consistent gains. We propose VideoLSTM, a recurrent neural network architecture intended for action classification and localization. VideoLSTM makes three contributions. First, VideoLSTM recognizes that video frames have a spatial layout. Hence the video frame encoding as well as the attention should be spatial too. We introduce convolutions to exploit the spatial correlation in images and adapt the soft-attention model to ensure the spatial structures are also preserved over time. Second, VideoLSTM incorporates motion-based attention, as motion not only informs us about the action content, but also better guides the attention towards relevant spatio-temporal locations. And finally, we demonstrate how the attention from VideoLSTM can be used for action localization by relying on just the action class label. We summarize our architecture in Fig. 1, and provide a synopsis of related work next.

2. Related work

The literature on action recognition in video is vast and too broad for us to cover here completely. We reckon and value the impact of traditional video representations, e.g., Wang and Schmid (2013), Jain et al. (2013), Sadanand and Corso (2012), Peng et al. (2016; 2014), Fernando et al. (2015) and Lan et al. (2015), and recent mixtures of shallow and deep encodings e.g., Wang et al. (2015a) and Jain et al. (2015). Here we focus on deep end-to-end alternatives that have recently become popular and powerful.

ConvNet architectures. One of the first attempts of using a deep learning architecture for action recognition is by Ji et al. (2013), who propose 3-d convolutional neural networks. A 3-d convolutional network is the natural extension of a standard 2-d convolutional network to cover the temporal domain as a third dimension. However, processing video frames directly significantly increases the learning complexity, as the filters need to model both appearance and motion variations. To compensate for the increased parameter complexity larger datasets are required. Indeed, Tran et al. (2015) demonstrated that 3-d convolutional networks trained on massive sport video datasets (Karpathy et al., 2014) yield significantly better accuracies.

To avoid having to deal with this added complexity of spatio-temporal convolutional filters, Simonyan and Zisserman (2014) proposed a two-stream architecture to learn 2-d filters for the optical flow and appearance variations independently. In order to capture longer temporal patterns, several frames are added as multiple consecutive channels as input to the network. To account for the lack of training data a multi-task setting is proposed, where the same network is optimized for two datasets simultaneously. Similar to Simonyan and Zisserman (2014) we also use optical flow to learn motion filters. Different from Simonyan and Zisserman (2014), however, we propose a more principled approach for learning frame-to-frame appearance and motion transitions via explicit recurrent temporal connections.

LSTM architectures. LSTM networks (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997) model sequential memories both in the long and in the short term, which makes them relevant for various sequential tasks (Donahue et al., 2015; Jia et al., 2015; Karpathy and Fei-Fei, 2015; Wu et al., 2015; Yue-Hei Ng et al., 2015). Where early adopters used traditional features as LSTM input (Baccouche et al., 2010; 2011), more recently both Yue-Hei Ng et al. (2015) and Donahue et al. (2015) propose LSTMs that explicitly model short snippets of ConvNet activations. Ng et al. demonstrate that an average fusion of LSTMs with appearance and flow input improves over improved dense trajectories (Wang and Schmid, 2013) and the two-stream approach of Simonyan and Zisserman (2014), be it that they pre-train their architecture on 1 million sport videos. Srivastava et al. (2015) also pre-train on hundreds of hours of sport video, but without using the video labels. Their representation demonstrates competitive results on the challenging UCF101 and HMDB51 datasets. We also rely on an LSTM architecture that combines appearance and flow for action recognition, but without the need for video pre-training to be competitive.

ALSTM architectures. Where the traditional LSTMs for action classification emphasize on modeling the temporal extent of a sequence with the use of spatial ConvNets, Attention-LSTMs (ALSTMs) also take into account spatial locality in the form of attention. While originally proposed for machine translation (Bahdanau et al., 2015), it was quickly recognized that a soft-Attention mechanism instead of a fixed-length vector is beneficial for vision problems as well (Xu et al., 2015). The attention turns the focus of the LSTM to particular image locations, such that the predictive capacity of the network is maximized. Sharma et al. (2015; 2016) proposed the first ALSTM for action classification, which proved to be an effective choice. However, by staying close to the soft-Attention architecture for image captioning by Xu et al. (2015), they ignore the motion inside a video. Moreover, rather than vectorizing an image, for vision it is more beneficial to rely on convolutional structures (LeCun et al., 1998; Shi et al., 2015). We incorporate convolutions and motion-based attention into the ALSTM, which is not only important for the action classification, but also results in better attention for action localization.
**Action localization.** In action localization two approaches are dominant. One approach first relies on unsupervised action proposals and then classifies each one with the aid of box annotations, e.g., Jain et al. (2014) and van Gemert et al. (2015). The other is to rely on supervised detection of action regions using box annotations and then learning to link these over time, again using box supervision, e.g., Saha et al. (2016) and Weinzaepfel et al. (2015). In general, the more box supervision, the better the action localization result. Recently, Mettes et al. (2016) showed how unsupervised proposals in combination with point supervision can be competitive with box supervision. Our end-to-end solution for action classification and localization learns from just the action class label, without the need for any box- or point-supervision, while still being able to exploit and predict the most salient action location.

3. VideoLSTM for action classification

VideoLSTM starts from the soft-Attention LSTM model of Xu et al. (2015) (or ALSTM) and introduces two novel modules, the Convolutional ALSTM and the Motion-based Attention networks.

**Notation and terminology.** We denote 1-d vector variables with lowercase letters, while 2-d matrix or 3-d tensor variables are denoted with uppercase letters. Unless stated otherwise, all activation functions (\(\sigma(\cdot)\), \(\tanh(\cdot)\)) are applied on an element-wise manner and \(\circ\) is an element-wise multiplication. When implementing a particular architecture containing multiple copies of the network, e.g., in unrolled networks, we refer to each of the networks copies as unit. For instance, the unrolled version of an ALSTM network, see Fig. 1, is composed of several LSTM units serially connected.

We start with a video composed of a sequence of \(T\) frames and obtain the image representation \(X_{t:T} = [X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_T]\) for each frame using a ConvNet (Krizhevsky et al., 2012; Simonyan and Zisserman, 2015; Szegedy et al., 2015). Unlike previous studies (Donahue et al., 2015; Yue-Hei Ng et al., 2015) that use features from the last fully connected layer, we choose the convolutional feature maps, which retain spatial information of the frames. Therefore, a feature map \(X_t\) at each timestep \(t\) has a dimension of \(N \times N \times D\), where \(N \times N\) is the spatial dimensionality of the convolutional feature map and \(D\) equals to the number of convolutional filters that produce the feature map. We also define \(\bar{X}_t\) as the attention weighted image representation by combining image features \(X_t\) and the attention map \(A_t\) at each frame \(t\). \(A_t\) is a \(N \times N\) matrix composed of attention weights at all spatial locations.

3.1. Convolutional ALSTM

A video naturally has spatial and temporal components. However, standard LSTM and ALSTM networks make use of full connections and treat the input as linear sequences by vectorizing the feature maps or using the fully connected activations from a deep convolutional network. This results in a major drawback for handling spatio-temporal data like videos, since no spatial information is encoded. It is an important property of images that nearby pixels are more strongly correlated than distant pixels. This property suggests local connectivity is preferred rather than full connectivity in images. In order to preserve the spatial structure of the frames over time, we propose to replace the fully connected multiplicative operations in an LSTM unit with convolutional operations. As research on LSTM has progressed, different LSTM variants have been proposed. We utilize the LSTM unit as described in Donahue et al. (2015), a slight simplification derived from the original LSTM unit proposed in Hochreiter and Schmidhuber (1997). The LSTM updates at time step \(t\) given inputs \(\bar{X}_t\) as follows:

\[
I_t = \sigma(W_i \bar{X}_t + W_{ih} \bar{H}_{t-1} + b_i)
\]

\[
O_t = \sigma(W_o \bar{X}_t + W_{oh} \bar{H}_{t-1} + b_o)
\]

\[
G_t = \tanh(W_c \bar{X}_t + W_{ch} \bar{H}_{t-1} + b_c)
\]

\[
C_t = C_{t-1} + I_t \odot G_t
\]

\[
H_t = O_t \odot \tanh(C_t),
\]

where \(*\) represents the convolutional operation, \(W_{\cdot} \bar{X}_t, W_{\cdot} \bar{H}_{t-1}\) are 2-d convolutional kernels. The gates \(I_t, F_t, O_t\), the candidate memory cell \(C_t\), hidden state \(H_t\) and \(H_{t-1}\) are 3-d tensors and retain spatial dimensions as well.

Different from LSTM and ALSTM who rely on a multi-layer perceptron (MLP) to generate the attention weights, we employ a shallow ConvNet with no fully connected layers conditioned on the previous hidden state and the current feature map. More specifically, the attention map is generated by convolving the previous hidden state \(H_{t-1}\) and the current input feature map \(X_t\):

\[
Z_t = W_t \text{tan}(W_a X_t + W_h H_{t-1} + b_t).
\]

By replacing the inner products with convolutions, \(Z_t\) is a 2-d score map now. From \(Z_t\), we can compute the normalized spatial attention map:

\[
A_t^{ij} = \frac{\exp(Z_t^{ij})}{\sum_i \sum_j \exp(Z_t^{ij})},
\]

where \(A_t^{ij}\) is the element of the attention map at position \((i, j)\). Instead of taking the expectation over the features from different spatial locations as in ALSTM (\(\bar{X}_t = \sum_{i,j} a_t^{ij} X_t^{ij}\)), we now preserve the spatial structure by weighting the feature map locations only without taking the expectation. Formally, this is simply equivalent to an element-wise product between each channel of the feature map and the attention map:

\[
\bar{X}_t = A_t \odot X_t.
\]

Effectively the attention map suppresses the activations from the spatial locations that have lower attention saliency.

Between the ALSTM and the Convolutional ALSTM models we spot three differences, see Fig. 2 for an illustration. First, by replacing the inner products all the state variables, \(I_t, F_t, O_t, C_t, H_t\), of the Convolutional ALSTM model retain a spatial, 2-d structure. As such, the video is now reckoned as a spatio-temporal medium and the model can hopefully capture better the fine idiosyncrasies that characterize particular actions. As an interesting side note, given that the state variables are now 2-d, we could in principle visualize them as images, which would add to the understanding of the internal workings of the LSTM units. Second, ConvolutionALSTM resembles essentially a deep ConvNet, whose layers have recurrent connections to themselves. Last, we should emphasize that the ConvolutionALSTM architecture can receive as input and process any data with a spatial nature. In this work we experiment with RGB and flow frames.

3.2. Motion-based attention

In the ConvolutionALSTM network the attention is generated based on the hidden state of the previous ALSTM unit. The regions of interest in a video, however, are highly correlated to the frame locations where significant motion is observed. This is especially relevant when attention driven recurrent networks are considered. It is reasonable, therefore, to use motion information to help infer the attention in the ALSTM and ConvolutionALSTM network. Specifically, we propose to add another layer with bottom-up connection with the ConvolutionALSTM layer. This layer corresponds to the bottom row of Convolutional LSTM units of Fig. 1 in the green container, which is updated as follows:
where the previous hidden state from top layer $H_{t-1}$ is also given as input to the bottom layer, and $M_t$ is the feature map extracted from optical flow image at timestep $t$. $W^m_i$, $W^m_h$ are 2-d convolutional kernels operating on the inputs and hidden states from the bottom layer, while convolutional kernels $W^m_e$ are applied to the hidden states from the top layer. As shown in Fig. 1, the whole network is built by stacking two layers of convolutional LSTMs, each of which has its individual input streams (RGB or flow images). Based on the updated LSTM cell the attention map is now conditioned on the current hidden state $H_t$ from bottom layer. This contrasts to Eq. (8), and standard LSTM architectures also, where the attention is conditioned on the $H_{t-1}$ from top layer. Namely, with the updated LSTM cell the attention at frame $t$ depends on the hidden state from the same frame $t$, instead of the previous frame $t-1$.

Moreover, note that the motion-based attention map is applied on

Fig. 2. To the left is an ALSTM model, which weights the input vector dimensions based on attention and outputs a $D$-dimensional vector. To the right the proposed Convolutional ALSTM network, which acknowledges the two-dimensional, spatial input, performs a convolution operation and returns a $N \times N \times D$-dimensional tensor preserving the spatial structure of a video.

Fig. 3. VideoLSTM generates attention feature maps for an input sequence of frames from an action class label only. These maps are then first up-sampled and smoothed with a Gaussian filter into saliency maps, shown superimposed over frames. Attention saliency maps are then thresholded and processed to localize the action (green box). With local temporal smoothing the boxes are temporarily better aligned and lead to better localization of action compared to the ground-truth (yellow box). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)
the input feature map $X_t$ from the top layer. Therefore, the bottom layer 
(green container in Fig. 1) only helps to generate the motion-based 
attention and does not provide any direct information to the top layer 
for the final classification.

**VideoLSTM.** As a last step, we define our VideoLSTM as the two-layer 
motion-based Convolutional ALSTM architecture in Fig. 1.

### 4. VideoLSTM for action localization

By design the VideoLSTM provides a sequence of attention maps $A_t$, 
see Eq. (8), which effectively represent the appearance and motion 
saliency at each frame. Each of these attention maps are first up-scaled 
with 2-dimensional interpolation assuming affine transform and then 
smoothed with a Gaussian filter, resulting into saliency maps, 
$\{S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_T\}$ for the $T$ video frames. See Fig. 3 for an example input 
video frame sequence. Given saliency maps ($S_t$), our goal is to sample 
spatio-temporal tubes or sequences of spatial regions from 
the video, which are likely to bound the performed action spatially 
and temporally. Formally, the $p$th action proposal is given by $\alpha_p = [\alpha_p^0, \alpha_p^1, \ldots, \alpha_p^T]$, where $\alpha_p^t$ is a bounding-box enclosing a region from the $t$th frame.

One can think of a variety of complex models exploiting the saliency 
maps to formulate this problem. We take a naive, greedy approach that 
selects regions in frame $t$ simply applying a threshold on saliency map $S_t$. Each connected component thus obtained forms a region, 
leading to a set of candidate boxes $B_t$ in $S_t$,

$$B_t = C_{\text{box}}(S_t \geq \theta_t)$$

(16)

where $C_{\text{box}}(t)$ is a function generating 8-connected components 
enclosed by rectangular boxes and $\theta_t$ is threshold for $S_t$.

With $|B_t|$ number of boxes for frame $t$, there are $\prod |B_t|$ possible 
action proposals. Here, it is possible to generate a large number of action 
proposals and encode them with state-of-the-art motion features similar 
to Jain et al. (2014) and van Gemert et al. (2015) and Weinzaepfel et al. (2015). However, we choose to avoid using bounding-box ground-truth and keep our approach end-to-end by generating only a single detection. In practice, we set high enough threshold such that we rarely get more than one box in a frame. In case of multiple boxes we select the one that has better IoU (intersection over union) with the preceding selected box. Thus, unlike other approaches (van Gemert et al., 2015; Mettes et al., 2016; Saha et al., 2016; Weinzaepfel et al., 2015) in action detection that rely on a large number of proposals, we output only one proposal per video; hence dropping the subscript $p$, we have:

$$\alpha^t = \arg\max_{b \in B_t} \sum_{t'=0}^{T} \mathbb{1}(\alpha_{t'} \cap b \neq \emptyset)$$

(17)

Sometimes, $\alpha^t$ are sampled from the background, away from the action 
or actor. This is expected as the attentions from VideoLSTM are directed 
to focus on the locations that are discriminative for classi-

5. Experiments

#### 5.1. Datasets

**UCF101** (Soomro et al., 2012). This dataset is composed of about 
13,000 realistic user-uploaded video clips and 101 action classes. The 
database is particularly interesting, because it comprises of several as-
pects of actions in video such as various types of activities, camera 
motion, cluttered background and objects/context. It also provides a 
relatively large number of samples that is needed for training ConvNet/ 
LSTM networks and hence has been popular among approaches based 
on deep learning. There are 3 splits for training and testing, following 
other recent works on end-to-end learning, e.g., Simonyan and 
Zisserman (2014) and Donahue et al. (2015) we report averaged results 
on all the splits. Classification accuracy is used as evaluation measure.

**HMDB51** (Kuehne et al., 2011). Composed of 6766 video clips from 
various sources, the HMDB51 dataset has 51 action classes. The dataset 
has two versions, the original and the one with motion stabilization, we 
use the more challenging original one. It has 3 train/test splits each 
with 3570 training and 1530 test videos. Following the common practice 
in end-to-end learning we evaluate with classification accuracy 
averaged over the 3 splits.

**THUMOS13 localization** (Idrees et al., 2017; Jiang et al., 2013). 
This dataset is a subset of UCF101 with 24 classes (3207 videos) and 
is provided with bounding-box level groundtruth for action localization. The dataset is quite challenging and is currently one of the largest da-
tasets for action localization that has a rich variety of actions. The 
localization set consists of mostly trimmed videos with the actor mostly 
visible along with a few untrimmed videos also. Following the previous 
works (van Gemert et al., 2015; Mettes et al., 2016; Weinzaepfel et al., 
2015; Yu and Yuan, 2015), we use the first split and report mean 
average precision (mAP) over all 24 classes.

#### 5.2. Implementation details

As reported in the literature (Feichtenhofer et al., 2016b; Wang et al., 2016), end-to-end architectures are sensitive to hyperparameters, 
layer designs, different optical flow variations, training styles etc. These 
optimal settings typically vary per architecture, which makes compar-
isons on fair grounds hard. For this reason in our internal experiments 
–where we study Convolutional ALSTM and motion-based attention and 
compare with traditional architectures – we purposefully reconfigure all 
architectures and training styles to be similar for fair assessment. However, in the experiments where we compare against the state-of-
the-art, we rely on our optimal network settings and compare with the 
original numbers published in the related literature. All code and 
models will be made available for future reference.

**ConvNet architectures.** We choose the VGG-16 (Simonyan and 
Zisserman, 2015) architecture which consists of 13 convolutional layers 
to train the appearance network and optical flow network. For both 
networks, we choose the pre-trained ImageNet model as initialization 
for training. The input of the optical flow network is a single optical 
flow image which has two channels by stacking the horizontal and 
vertical flow fields. The optical flow is computed from every two ad-
nacent frames using the algorithm of Zach et al. (2007). We discretize 
the values of flow fields by linearly rescaling them to [0, 255] range.

We then extract the image features from the last fully connected layer 
(i.e., fc7) or the last pooling layer (i.e., pool5) of each VGG-16 network. 

**LSTM, ALSTM and VideoLSTM architectures.** All our LSTM 
models have a single layer with 512 hidden units with input feature
vectors from fc7. For ALSTM and VideoLSTM, we use the convolutional feature maps extracted from the pool5 layer with size $7 \times 7 \times 512$. Although the convolutional features from the earlier layers (e.g., conv5, pool4) could also be used or combined (Ballas et al., 2016), we consider pool5 only in our work for the sake of efficiency. Convolutional kernels for input-to-state and state-to-state transitions are of size $3 \times 3$, while $1 \times 1$ convolutions are used to generate the attention map in Eq. (7). All these convolutional kernels have 512 channels. The hidden representations from the LSTM, ALSTM and VideoLSTM layer are then fully connected to an output layer which has 1024 units. A dropout (Srivastava et al., 2014) is also applied on the output before fed to the final softmax classifier with a ratio of 0.7.

For network training, we randomly sample a batch of 128 videos from the training set at each iteration. From each video, a snippet of 30 frames is randomly selected. We do not perform any data augmentation while being aware it will improve our results further. We train all our models by minimizing the cross-entropy loss using back propagation through time and rmsprop (Tieleman and Hinton, 2012) with a learning rate of 0.001 and a decay rate 0.9. At test time, we follow (Simonyan and Zisserman, 2014) to sample 25 equally spaced segments from each video with size of 30 frames. To obtain the final video-level prediction, we first sum the LSTM frame-level class predictions over time and then average the scores across the sampled segments. For HMDB51 dataset, as the number of videos for training is very small, we use our pre-trained model on UCF101 to initialize its model. All the models are trained on an NVIDIA GeForce GTX Titan.

5.3. Action classification

Convolutional ALSTM. In the first experiment we compare the convolutional ALSTM (ConvALSTM) to other architectures using appearance and optical flow input frames. We present the results on UCF101 and HMDB51 first split in Table 1.

We first focus on the appearance frames. A ConvNet (Simonyan and Zisserman, 2015) already brings decent action classification, but inserting a standard LSTM on top, as suggested in Yue-Hei Ng et al. (2015) and Donahue et al. (2015) brings no significant benefit. The reason is that even a single RGB frame can be quite representative of an action. Moreover, since subsequent frames are quite similar, the LSTM memory adds little to the prediction. Adding soft attention (Xu et al., 2015) to the LSTM to arrive at the ALSTM proposed by Sharma et al. (2015); 2016), even deteriorates the action classification performance, while a Convolutional LSTM has a marginal impact as well. However, when considering the proposed Convolutional ALSTM on appearance data, results gain +2.2% on UCF101 and +1.1% on HMDB51. A small but important improvement, given that all other LSTM-based architectures fail to bring any benefit over a standard ConvNet.

Before discussing the impact of flow, we first note that both the original ALSTM (Sharma et al., 2016) and ConvLSTM models (Shi et al., 2015) rely on appearance only. A design choice which impacts their action classification potential. With flow frames all the LSTM-based models improve over the ConvNet baseline. We attribute this to the observation that in flow frames the background is not as descriptive and one can better rely on the succession of flows to recognize an action. When employing attention or convolutions independently with an LSTM we obtain a noticeable improvement over the standard LSTM, indicating that more refined LSTM architectures can exploit the flow information better. Once again, when considering the proposed Convolutional ALSTM we observe the most consistent improvement: +3.8% over LSTM, +2.6% over ALSTM and +1.7% over Convolutional LSTM on UCF101. The improvement is even larger on HMDB51.

Motion-based Attention. Next we evaluate the impact of motion-based attention, by explicitly modeling motion saliency using optical flow to help generate the attention maps while using RGB appearance input. We present the results in Table 2 on UCF101 and HMDB51 first split. For ALSTM models motion-based attention obtains obvious improvements for classification, outperforming appearance-based attention by +1.6% on UCF101 and +1.7% on HMDB51, while for Convolutional ALSTMs we obtain also +1.5% improvement on HMDB51. On UCF101 the improvement is smaller, because the background context is already a very strong indicator of the action class. We expect that for datasets where the background context is less indicative of the action class, motion-based attention will boost accuracy further.

Fig. 4 shows the attention maps generated from our proposed VideoLSTM using RGB raw frames as input and optical flow images as input. We can see that the model does not always attend to the actor when using RGB frames, although the video is correctly classified. The first video is classified as Long Jump, however, the running track distinguishes it from other actions. In the second video, the model tends to look at the diving board and predicts the action Diving. The contextual cues in the background are already very strong indicators of some action classes. By contrast, the attention generated using optical flow images is more likely to focus consistently on the person performing the action. Therefore, we use the attention maps generated from optical flow images in our action localization experiments.

Comparison with other LSTM architectures. We list in Table 3 the accuracies from other LSTM architectures for action classification. As designs and training regimes vary widely, direct comparisons are hard to make. We list properties of individual architectures to better assess relative merit. Instead of using average, we simply use product fusion on predictions from our VideoLSTM models with RGB input and optical flow input. VideoLSTM obtains the best result on both UCF101 and HMDB51. We note that the second best performing LSTM architecture by Yue-Hei Ng et al. (2015), the same architecture as the second column in Table 1, performs pre-training on 1 million sport videos, where our approach pre-trains on ImageNet only. Our implementation of the ALSTM of Sharma et al. obtains 75.8 mAP on UCF101, while our VideoLSTM obtains 88.9, a notable difference due to the convolutions and motion-based attention. On HMDB51 the difference is even more pronounced.

State-of-the-art comparison: fusion. As a final experiment, we explore the benefit of a late fusion of VideoLSTM action predictions with approaches relying on hand-crafted IDT features (Peng et al., 2014; Wang and Schmid, 2013) and object responses (Jain et al., 2015). The prediction scores are fused by product with exponential weights. We report the results on UCF101 and HMDB51 in Table 4. First of all, adding our VideoLSTM on top of IDT features improves the results on UCF101 to 91.5% and on HMDB51 to 63.0% (data not shown). This...
Fig. 4. VideoLSTM generates attention maps for an input sequence of images. For each video, the first row indicates the original video frames. The second row represents the attention maps generated using RGB raw frames as input, while the third row is generated using optical flow images as input. Attention maps are shown superimposed over frames, and the brightness indicates the strength of attention. Note that the attention generated using optical flow images is more likely to focus consistently on the person performing the action.

Table 3
State of the art comparison for LSTM-like architectures. Results on UCF101 and HMDB51 are averaged over all 3 splits, the UCF101 results for Sharma et al. (2015, 2016) are based on our implementation of their ALSTM. Srivastava et al. (2015) report results on HMDB51 using RGB input only. Even without the need to train on more than 1 million sports videos, VideoLSTM is competitive amidst alternative LSTM architectures.
VideoLSTM performs better than ALSTM of Sharma et al. (2015, 2016). The benefit of temporal smoothing suggests most of our attentions are on the action foreground, which does not seem to be the case for ALSTM.

Table 4
Comparison to state-of-the-art: fusion. The fusion experiment shows that VideoLSTM is highly complementary to hand-crafted iDT features (Peng et al., 2014; Wang and Schmid, 2013) and object responses (Jain et al., 2015), resulting in good accuracy (averaged over all 3 splits) on UCF101 and state-of-the-art on HMDB51.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>UCF101</th>
<th>HMDB51</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jain et al. (2015)</td>
<td>88.5</td>
<td>71.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wang et al. (2015b)</td>
<td>91.5</td>
<td>65.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zhu et al. (2016)</td>
<td>93.1</td>
<td>63.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feichtenhofer et al. (2016b)</td>
<td>93.5</td>
<td>69.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wang et al. (2016)</td>
<td>94.2</td>
<td>69.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>de Souza et al. (2016)</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td>70.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lev et al. (2016)</td>
<td>94.1</td>
<td>67.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feichtenhofer et al. (2016a)</td>
<td>94.6</td>
<td>70.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feichtenhofer et al. (2017)</td>
<td>94.9</td>
<td>72.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VideoLSTM</td>
<td>88.9</td>
<td>56.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VideoLSTM + iDT + Objects</td>
<td>92.2</td>
<td>73.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implies that our end-to-end prediction is highly complementary to hand-crafted approaches, as previously also observed by others (Feichtenhofer et al., 2016b; Lev et al., 2016; de Souza et al., 2016). When combined with the object and iDT motion encoding from Jain et al. (2015), we further improve performance to 92.2% on UCF101, where Feichtenhofer et al. (2016a) score 94.6%, and we set a new state-of-the-art of 73.7% on HMDB51.

5.4. Action localization

In the final experiment, we evaluate VideoLSTM for action localization. We set the threshold for saliency maps in Eq. (16) to a constant ($\theta = 100$) to ensure pixels with reasonable attention are included. We did not optimize or cross-validate over training data as it would require bounding-box ground-truth. Along with VideoLSTM, we also process the saliency maps from the ALSTM of Sharma et al. (2016), and compare the two in Fig. 5.

There are two things to note here. First, VideoLSTM leads to strikingly higher recalls than ALSTM. Due to its motion awareness and spatial structure preserving properties, VideoLSTM is capable of localizing actions, whereas ALSTM does not seem to do so. Second, the impact of temporal smoothing is considerable in case of VideoLSTM, which means most of the attentions are on the action/actor foreground. In contrast, smoothing does not help ALSTM which suggests that the attention is either stationary or is evenly distributed between foreground and background.

In Table 5, we compare with state-of-the-art action localization methods on the THUMOS13 localization dataset for an IoU threshold of 0.2, following (Mettes et al., 2016). When we consider approaches that use action class labels only, VideoLSTM is state-of-the-art, improving considerably over alternatives. Naturally, the action localization approaches with the most amount of supervision thrive and VideoLSTM cannot compete with them. Interestingly, however, VideoLSTM was able to slightly outperform recent methods that rely on unsupervised action proposals in combination with box (van Gemert et al., 2015) or point supervision (Mettes et al., 2016), in addition to the action class. Note that these methods need thousands of spatio-temporal action proposals (van Gemert et al., 2015), where we predict a single proposal only. Several visual examples of our action localization results are shown in Fig. 6. We conclude that VideoLSTM returns very good action localization from an action class label only, especially considering that only a single spatio-temporal proposal is returned.

6. Conclusion

In this work, we postulate that in order to model videos accurately with LSTMs, we must adapt the model architecture to fit the video medium and not vice versa. The video model must, therefore, address common video properties, i.e., what is the right appearance and motion representation, how to transform spatio-temporal video content into a memory vector, how to model the spatio-temporal locality of an action, simultaneously and not in isolation. We propose VideoLSTM, a recurrent neural network architecture intended for action recognition. VideoLSTM makes three novel contributions to address these video properties in a joint fashion: (i) it introduces convolutions to exploit the spatial correlations in images, (ii) it introduces a convolutional neural network to allow for motion information to generate motion-based attention maps and finally (iii) by only relying on video-level action class labels, it exploits the attention maps to localize the action spatio-

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Training per video</th>
<th>Testing on THUMOS13</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#Class</td>
<td>#Annotations #Proposals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saha et al. (2016)</td>
<td>action label</td>
<td>– 400 boxes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weinzaepfel et al. (2015)</td>
<td>action label</td>
<td>– 400 boxes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>van Gemert et al. (2015) (from Mettes et al., 2016)</td>
<td>action label</td>
<td>– 400 boxes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mettes et al. (2016)</td>
<td>action label</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharma et al. (2015, 2016)</td>
<td>action label</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cinbis et al. (2014) (from Mettes et al., 2016)</td>
<td>action label</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This paper</td>
<td>action label</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
temporally. Experiments on three challenging datasets outline the theoretical as well as the practical merits of VideoLSTM. As previously observed by Fernando et al. (2015) on Hollywood2, a video representation capturing temporal dynamics is particularly superior for videos with longer clips. We will also investigate the capability of our VideoLSTM for modeling large-scale untrimmed videos, e.g., ActivityNet (Heilbron et al., 2015), in our future work.

Fig. 6. Two examples of our action localization results using VideoLSTM. In each video, we show the attention generated from VideoLSTM (second row), action localization without temporal smoothing (third row) and action localization with temporal smoothing (fourth row). The green boxes are our predictions, while the yellow boxes indicate ground-truth. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

References