

Concept Drift Detection for Multivariate Data Streams and Temporal Segmentation of Daylong Egocentric Videos

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Figure 1: Challenges in temporal segmentation of egocentric videos. 1st row: Significant change in the scene due to head movement but there is no ground truth boundary. 2nd row: Segmentation boundary but no significant change in visuals.

ABSTRACT

The long and unconstrained nature of egocentric videos makes it imperative to use temporal segmentation as an important pre-processing step for many higher-level inference tasks. Activities of the wearer in an egocentric video typically span over hours and are often separated by slow, gradual changes. Furthermore, the change of camera viewpoint due to the wearer’s head motion causes frequent and extreme, but, spurious scene changes. The continuous nature of boundaries makes it difficult to apply traditional Markov Random Field (MRF) pipelines relying on temporal discontinuity, whereas deep Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) networks gather context only upto a few hundred frames, rendering them ineffective for egocentric videos. In this paper, we present a novel unsupervised temporal segmentation technique especially suited for day-long egocentric videos. We formulate the problem as detecting concept drift in a time-varying, non i.i.d. sequence of frames. Statistically bounded thresholds are calculated to detect concept drift between two temporally adjacent multivariate data segments with different underlying distributions while establishing guarantees on false positives. Since the derived threshold indicates confidence in the prediction, it can also be used to control the granularity of the output segmentation. Using our technique, we report significantly improved state of the art f -measure for daylong egocentric video datasets, as well as photostream datasets derived

from them: HUJI (73.01%, 59.44%), UTEgo (58.41%, 60.61%) and Disney (67.63%, 68.83%).

CCS CONCEPTS

• **Computing methodologies** → **Scene understanding; Video segmentation.**

KEYWORDS

Temporal segmentation; Concept drift detection; Egocentric video; Multivariate data; Long videos

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1 INTRODUCTION

Egocentric videos are captured from the cameras typically harnessed on wearer’s head, recording first person perspective in a hands-free, always-on manner. This makes captured videos extremely long (often spanning the whole day), and highly redundant. The natural head motion of the camera wearer causes fast and extreme changes in the viewpoint. The wild camera ego-motion, coupled with the unconstrained environment in which such videos are usually captured, makes the videos extremely hard to watch, and even more challenging to process by traditional computer vision techniques. This has motivated the computer vision community to develop novel techniques designed for analyzing egocentric videos [2–4, 6, 9, 10, 21, 22, 38–46, 49–51, 54].

The focus of this paper is on temporal video segmentation of daylong egocentric video streams. Due to the task’s utility as a pre-processing for many higher-level inference problems like indexing and summarization, the problem is a well-researched area

*The work was done during the internship with Prof. Chetan Arora.

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Methods	Unsupervised	Multivariate Data	Scalability to Long Sequences	Customized Granularity	Works with Extremely Shaky Videos
TCFPN [17]	✗	✓	✗	✗	✗
ADWIN [7]	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓
SR-Clustering [14]	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓
CES [12]	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
Ours	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 1: Comparison of state of the art with our method on various criteria important for applicability to egocentric videos.

in computer vision: both for the first person [7, 20, 42, 43, 56] as well as third person videos [28, 52, 57].

Common techniques for temporal segmentation of third person videos are based on either MRF formulation or deep neural network (DNN) with RNN/LSTM units. The former techniques [27] look for temporal discontinuities, and hence fail for egocentric videos when the segment boundaries are often slow with gradual changes in the scene. DNN based techniques [6, 15, 16, 36] use recurrent connections to capture the temporal context and do not scale well for long segments. To better understand the scales involved, a 10 minutes video segment captured at 30 frames per second (FPS) contains 18000 frames. Even with sophisticated back-propagation techniques [32], it is hard to train RNNs for such a long sequence. Multi-scale network designs [15, 17, 30] are possible but compromise temporal resolution to gain long term context. Fig 1 shows few challenges in the temporal segmentation of egocentric videos.

For temporal segmentation of egocentric videos, researchers have suggested to use both generic (e.g. RGB, Optical flow, etc.) as well as egocentric specific cues (e.g. hand pose, handled object, etc.). However the techniques are often limited to either short segments [24] or segmentation based on long term activities but with short term signatures [6, 42, 43]. For example, to detect long term ‘walking’ activity, [43] independently classifies a video clip of 4 secs.

In this paper, we propose to formulate the problem of temporal segmentation as concept drift detection in multivariate time series data. In a concept drift detection task, one maintains two adjacent temporal windows of fixed size and estimate statistical summary (e.g. average) of the two windows separately. If the summary is significantly different for the two windows, the algorithm declares concept drift. The key challenges to use the formulation for temporal segmentation are: (1) Choosing window length for the statistical summary, as different activity/event lengths may require different temporal windows, and (2) Choosing threshold to declare a boundary, as real boundaries may have smooth visual changes, whereas sharp head motion may cause significant visual changes in non-boundary regions. We emphasize that the proposed formulation can incorporate various other cues suggested for temporal segmentation of egocentric videos viz optical flow, hand pose, and other objects present in the scene, etc. Our primary contribution is in suggesting a way to deal with smooth changes in the features at the real boundaries compared to sharper changes at the spurious boundaries as illustrated in Fig. 1.

Bifet and Gavaldà [7] have suggested a technique, called ADWIN, to segment i.i.d. univariate sequences. Their method maintains an adaptive window, and for each of its various partitions into two sub-windows, a threshold is calculated based upon the harmonic mean of the length of the two sub-windows. A boundary is declared if the difference of the statistical summaries of the two sub-windows is larger than this threshold. The threshold is based on the Hoeffding’s inequality and is valid for all probability distributions. ADWIN gives probabilistic bounds on the boundary detection error and works for univariate sequences with slow as well as abrupt changes.

In this paper, we propose a technique for concept drift detection in multivariate, and non-i.i.d. sequences such as egocentric videos, which can be used for temporal segmentation of such videos. Table 1 compares the key strengths of our approach with state of the art. The specific contributions of this paper are as follows:

- (1) To the best of our knowledge, we are the first to suggest formulating the problem of temporal segmentation of extremely long egocentric videos as detecting concept drift in a time series data.
- (2) We use a multivariate generalization of Hoeffding’s bound to compute distribution invariant segmentation threshold for multivariate time series arising out of a given frame sequence.
- (3) Hoeffding’s bound as such assumes i.i.d. samples and can not be used for video sequences with a large correlation between temporal neighbors. We suggest a simple heuristic of jump factor to get around the problem.
- (4) In our experiments on both day-long egocentric videos, as well as benchmark photo-stream datasets, the proposed technique successfully copes with two key egocentric specific challenges viz continuous as well as extreme viewpoint variations, and long segments. Our technique gives significantly improved f-score of 59.44%, on HUJI [43], in comparison to current state of the art of 45.70% by [12].

2 RELATED WORK

Related Tasks: We note that the solution to action localization as well as scene segmentation results in the temporal segmentation of videos. Action localization refers to predicting the temporal bounds of pre-specified action categories in an input video and researchers have looked at the problem in both third person [5, 8, 11, 15, 18, 33, 36, 48], as well as the first person contexts [2, 6, 9, 10, 24, 26]. The above approaches are mostly supervised, whereas, our focus is on unsupervised segmentation with no prior knowledge of output

categories. Similarly, in a scene segmentation task, one is looking at the boundaries separating two visually different scenes. In a scene segmentation scenario the boundaries are usually sharp, which is not true for the case of egocentric videos. Besides, wearer’s head motion and the resulting sharp viewpoint changes may induce false segmentation using a typical scene segmentation technique.

Deep Learning Techniques for Temporal Segmentation: In the last decade, DNNs have emerged as a leading technique for several computer vision problems, including the temporal video segmentation [1, 12, 16, 20, 28, 43]. Temporal Convolutional Networks (TCNs) and its variants [16, 17, 30] harness local motion information and use a hierarchy of temporal convolutional filters to capture longer range patterns. [16] has proposed a hybrid of LSTM and TCN to capture local motion as well as longer term context. [37] uses Siamese Neural Network to detect context change between two consecutive low-resolution images for egocentric photostreams. [13] and [12] use LSTM based generative model to predict the future context and track their evolution to decide the event boundaries in continuous photostreams. [1] uses a self-supervised perceptual predictive model for contextual event segmentation. These methods do not scale for hours long egocentric video segments, as the gradients during backpropagation vanish beyond a few hundred-time steps [32]. Besides, most of the techniques are supervised and require a large amount of training data

Traditional Techniques for Temporal Segmentation: Traditional techniques for temporal segmentation of third person videos [18, 23, 25, 47, 48, 55] utilize variations of fixed-size sliding window approach to generate the start and end times of all the events in a video. These methods generally specify windows of different sizes and slide them across a video to generate event proposals of corresponding sizes. The overlapping proposals generated are further processed to remove overlap and select only the most relevant proposals. These methods are computationally expensive and require a large scale space search to handle events with significantly varying lengths, making them impractical for egocentric videos. For instance, in Disney egocentric dataset, events can be less than 5 minutes (social interactions), to more than 30 minutes (lunch).

Adaptive Windowing: For variable length events one can use adaptive windowing [7], which maintains the size of a window dynamically, by growing the window if the current event is long, and drop a sub-window from the tail if an event boundary is detected. [14] combines low-level features with high-level semantic labels, and has suggested a graph cut technique to look for the trade-off between the adaptive windowing [7] and agglomerative clustering.

3 PROPOSED APPROACH

We start this section with our theoretical contributions. Since the target of this paper is detecting context drift in a stream of video frames, represented as vectors in \mathbb{R}^d , we first extend the standard Matrix Hoeffding’s bound to the special case of $d \times 1$ matrices, which is our case. Then we use the derived bound for our novel concept drift detection formulation in multivariate sequence. While the discussion until here will assume the input samples (frames in our case) to be independent, we end the section with details on how to deal with temporally correlated data streams.

3.1 Multivariate Hoeffding’s Bound

The standard result for Hoeffding’s inequality for random symmetric matrices may be given as the following [35]:

LEMMA 3.1. Consider a finite sequence Z_i of independent, random, symmetric matrices with dimension d , and a sequence of fixed symmetric matrices P_i , such that $\mathbb{E}[Z_i] = 0$ and $Z_i^2 \leq P_i^2$, almost surely. Here, \leq denotes the semi-definite order on symmetric matrices. Then for all $\epsilon \geq 0$, we have:

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left\|\sum_i Z_i\right\|_s \geq \epsilon\right) \leq d \exp\left(\frac{-\epsilon^2}{2\sigma^2}\right), \quad (1)$$

where $\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{2}\left\|\sum_i (P_i^2 + \mathbb{E}[Z_i^2])\right\|_s$, and $\|X\|_s$ denotes the spectral norm of X .

For our case, we assume that $\mathbb{E}[Z_i^2] \approx Z_i^2$, and $Z_i \approx P_i$, and hence compute σ^2 as simply $\left\|\sum_i P_i^2\right\|_s$. Note that the result as such is valid only for the symmetric matrices. We extend it to the vector data-streams using the Jordan-Wielaudt theorem [53] as described below. Consider a vector X of size $d \times 1$. Let A be a block matrix such that $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & X \\ X^T & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Since, A is a symmetric matrix with dimension $(d+1) \times (d+1)$, we can use Eq. (1) for the matrix A , such that:

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left\|\sum_i A_i\right\|_s \geq \epsilon\right) \leq (d+1) \exp\left(\frac{-\epsilon^2}{2\sigma^2}\right), \quad (2)$$

where $\sigma^2 = \left\|\sum_i A_i^2\right\|_s$. It can also be shown that: $A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} XX^T & 0 \\ 0 & X^T X \end{bmatrix}$, and that A ’s non-zero eigenvalues are ± 1 times the singular values of X . Hence $\|A\|_s = \|X\|_2$, where $\|X\|_2$ denotes the ℓ_2 norm of the vector X . Using the result in the equation above:

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left\|\sum_i X_i\right\|_2 \geq \epsilon\right) \leq (d+1) \exp\left(\frac{-\epsilon^2}{2\sigma^2}\right), \quad (3a)$$

$$\text{where } \sigma^2 = \max\left(\left\|\sum_i \mathbb{E}[X_i X_i^T]\right\|_s, \left\|\sum_i \mathbb{E}[X_i^T X_i]\right\|_s\right) \quad (3b)$$

We use the above result to compute the bound for the average as:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}\left(\left\|\frac{1}{n} \sum_i X_i\right\|_2 \geq \epsilon\right) &= \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{1}{n} \left\|\sum_i X_i\right\|_2 \geq \epsilon\right) \\ &= \mathbb{P}\left(\left\|\sum_i X_i\right\|_2 \geq n\epsilon\right) \\ &\leq (d+1) \exp\left(\frac{-n^2 \epsilon^2}{2\sigma^2}\right). \quad (\text{Using Eq. (3a)}) \end{aligned}$$

Denoting $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i X_i$, and $\bar{\sigma}^2 = \sigma^2/n$

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left\|\bar{X}\right\|_2 \geq \epsilon\right) \leq (d+1) \exp\left(\frac{-n\epsilon^2}{2\bar{\sigma}^2}\right), \quad (4)$$

Note that, if we assume the ℓ_2 norm of X as 1, then $X_i^T X_i = 1$, and σ^2 as given in Eq. (3b) is always 1. We summarize our result below:

THEOREM 3.2. Let X_1, \dots, X_n be d dimensional, independent random vectors with $\mathbb{E}[X] = 0$, and unit ℓ_2 norm. Then:

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left\|\bar{X}\right\|_2 \geq \epsilon\right) \leq (d+1) \exp\left(\frac{-n\epsilon^2}{2}\right), \quad (5)$$

where \bar{X} denotes the observed mean of the samples.

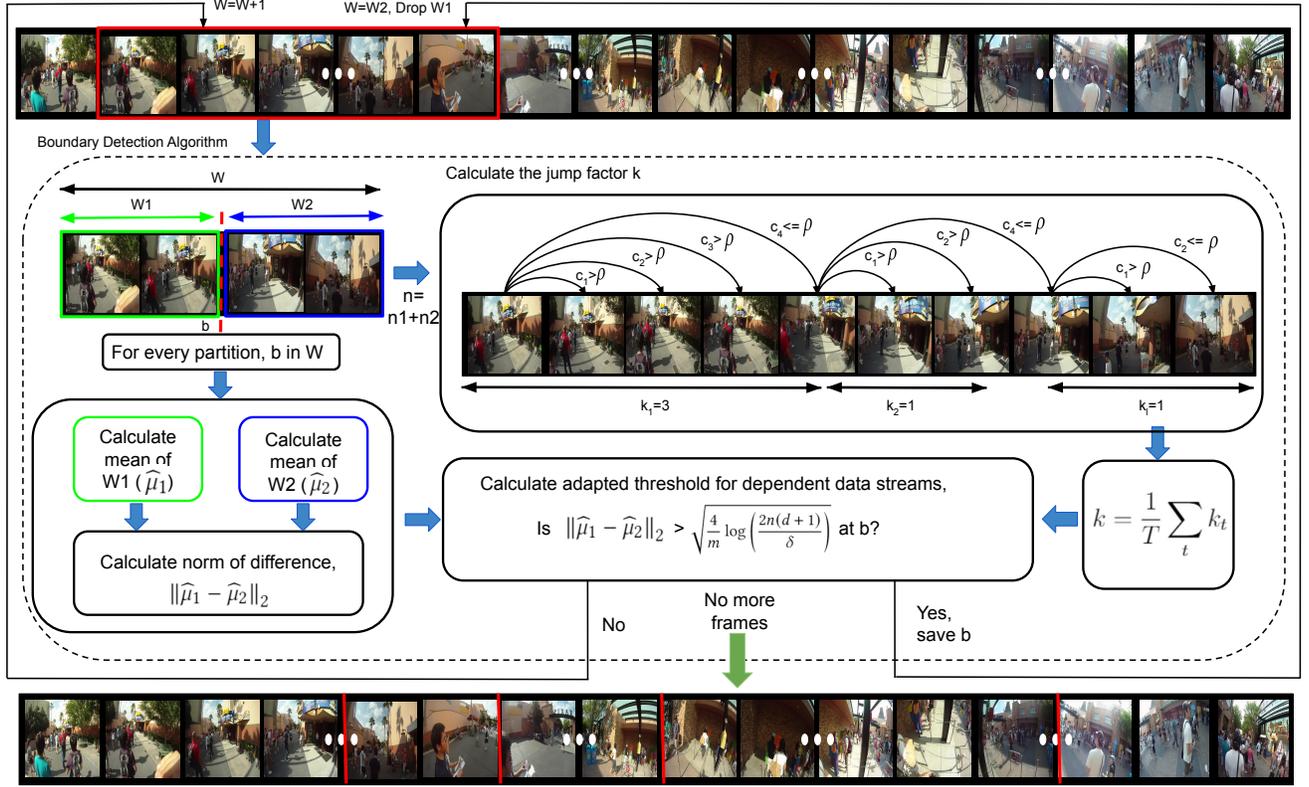


Figure 2: The block diagram describing major steps of the proposed approach. The c_i represents the correlation coefficient between the two frames. Please refer to the main paper for the details

3.2 Concept Drift Detection

We formulate the temporal segmentation of egocentric videos as concept drift detection in a data stream. While in reality, the adjacent frames in the video stream are not conditionally independent of each other, for this section, we will assume so. In the next section, we describe our proposal to get around the assumption.

Concept Drift Detection Pipeline: For the concept drift detection, one maintains a sliding window, w , of dynamic length, n , over the sequence. Consider a hypothesis that there is a segment boundary at index t within the window, i.e., there is a particular segment, w_1 , of length n_1 , from $[0, t)$ and another segment, w_2 , of length n_2 , from $[t, n)$. We assume that the data in two segments is from two unknown distributions with the observed mean values of $\hat{\mu}_1$ and $\hat{\mu}_2$ respectively. If for a particular partition, the score ($\|\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2\|_2$) exceeds a threshold ϵ_{cut} , we would like to declare a detected boundary at t and the segment w_1 will be dropped from w . Otherwise, a new sample is added to the current window w , and the process is repeated for this new window of size $n + 1$. For each window w , the boundary hypothesis is tested for all indices $t \in w$. Below we describe a way to compute the threshold ϵ_{cut} in a principled manner using multiple hypothesis testing.

Multiple Hypothesis Testing: One of the ways to calculate the threshold ϵ_{cut} is by bounding the error rate for declaring incorrect

segment boundaries. Let us denote the observed mean of the segments, as $\hat{\mu}_1, \hat{\mu}_2$ respectively, and the true (unobserved) mean of the current window as μ_w . We perform hypothesis testing with $\hat{\mu}_1 = \hat{\mu}_2 = \mu_w$ as the null hypothesis. In other words, our null hypothesis is that the two segments come from the same, but unknown, distribution. Since we perform multiple tests in a single window for various values of t , hence as per the multiple hypothesis testing problem in the statistics, we would like to increase the threshold of accepting the hypothesis by n (size of the window or number of tests). For the hypothesis accepting the probability of δ , we would like to set the ϵ_{cut} such that:

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\|\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2\|_2 \geq \epsilon_{\text{cut}}\right) \leq \frac{\delta}{n}. \quad (6)$$

The following lemma bounds the probability of difference in the observed means:

LEMMA 3.3. *For a sequence of d -dimensional random vectors, $\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$, sampled from an unknown but stationary probability distribution, and its arbitrary partition into two subsets w_1 , and w_2 , with lengths n_1 , and n_2 , and observed means $\hat{\mu}_1$, and $\hat{\mu}_2$ respectively:*

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\|\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2\|_2 \geq \epsilon\right) \leq 2(d+1) \exp\left(\frac{-m\epsilon^2}{4}\right), \quad (7)$$

where m is the harmonic mean of n_1 and n_2 .

PROOF. Consider the following three events:

- **Event A:** $\|\widehat{\mu}_1 - \widehat{\mu}_2\|_2 < \epsilon$.
- **Event B:** $\|\widehat{\mu}_1\|_2 < k \epsilon$.
- **Event C:** $\|\widehat{\mu}_2\|_2 < (1 - k)\epsilon$.

Here, k is a real number $\in (0, 1)$. Further, from triangle inequality:

$$\|\widehat{\mu}_1 - \widehat{\mu}_2\|_2 \leq \|\widehat{\mu}_1\|_2 + \|\widehat{\mu}_2\|_2 \quad (8)$$

Assuming Events B and C hold:

$$\Rightarrow \|\widehat{\mu}_1 - \widehat{\mu}_2\|_2 < k \epsilon + (1 - k)\epsilon \quad (9)$$

$$\Rightarrow \|\widehat{\mu}_1 - \widehat{\mu}_2\|_2 < \epsilon. \quad (10)$$

Hence, we can say that $B \cap C \subseteq A$, which implies $A^c \subseteq B^c \cup C^c$, where S^c denotes the complement of the set S . Therefore, from union bound rule of the probability theory:

$$\mathbb{P}(A^c) \leq \mathbb{P}(B^c) + \mathbb{P}(C^c) \quad (11)$$

Using event definitions as given above:

$$\mathbb{P}(\|\widehat{\mu}_1 - \widehat{\mu}_2\|_2 \geq \epsilon) \leq \mathbb{P}(\|\widehat{\mu}_1\|_2 \geq k \epsilon) + \mathbb{P}(\|\widehat{\mu}_2\|_2 \geq (1 - k)\epsilon)$$

Using Theorem 3.2

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(\|\widehat{\mu}_1 - \widehat{\mu}_2\|_2 \geq \epsilon) &\leq (d + 1) \exp\left(\frac{-n_1 k^2 \epsilon^2}{2}\right) \\ &\quad + (d + 1) \exp\left(\frac{-n_2 (1 - k)^2 \epsilon^2}{2}\right) \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

The equation above holds for all values of k . Hence, to get the tightest upper bound of the left hand side (l.h.s.) of the above equation, we minimize the right hand side (r.h.s.) with respect to k . Here, we note, and also done in [7], the r.h.s. is approximately minimized when the exponents of the two terms are equal:

$$k^2 \epsilon^2 n_1 = (1 - k)^2 \epsilon^2 n_2 \quad (13)$$

$$\Rightarrow k = \sqrt{(n_2/n_1)/(1 + \sqrt{(n_2/n_1)})} \quad (14)$$

For this value of k , we have:

$$k^2 \epsilon^2 n_1 = (1 - k)^2 \epsilon^2 n_2 = \frac{n_2 n_1}{(\sqrt{n_1} + \sqrt{n_2})^2} \epsilon^2 \quad (15)$$

$$\leq \frac{n_2 n_1}{(n_1 + n_2)} \epsilon^2 = \frac{m}{2} \epsilon^2, \quad (16)$$

where m is the harmonic mean of n_1 and n_2 . We can use the values to get the tightest upper bound for the l.h.s. of Eq. (12) as:

$$\mathbb{P}(\|\widehat{\mu}_1 - \widehat{\mu}_2\|_2 \geq \epsilon) \leq 2(d + 1) \exp\left(\frac{-m \epsilon^2}{4}\right) \quad (17)$$

Hence proved. \square

Calculating ϵ_{cut} : As noted in Eq. (6), and the accompanying discussion, we would like to choose a value of ϵ which enables us to declare a concept drift and hence the segment boundary if the ℓ_2 norm of the difference of the observed means of the two segments goes beyond ϵ . Further, the hypothesis testing framework allows us to choose a value of ϵ according to the threshold of accepting the hypothesis δ , which bounds the error rate for declaring incorrect segment boundaries to δ . Since Lemma 3.3 bounds the probability of difference of observed means exceeding ϵ , we can use it to choose

a value of ϵ (denoted as ϵ_{cut} hereon) such that we get the desired upper bound on declaring the false boundary:

$$2(d + 1) \exp\left(\frac{-m \epsilon_{\text{cut}}^2}{4}\right) \leq \frac{\delta}{n} \quad (18)$$

$$\Rightarrow \epsilon_{\text{cut}} \geq \sqrt{\frac{4}{m} \log\left(\frac{2n(d + 1)}{\delta}\right)} \quad (19)$$

3.3 Handling Conditionally Dependent Data

It may be noted that the derivation of ϵ_{cut} using the Hoeffding's bound is valid only when the data is identically and independently distributed (i.i.d). The assumption is invalid for egocentric video stream where a frame is highly correlated with its temporal neighbor. One way to resolve the problem is by making the data conditionally independent. We observe that the correlation between the frames decreases as the temporal distance between them increases. We fix a threshold and declare two frames independent if the correlation coefficient between them is below the threshold. This is effectively sub-sampling the video.

We discover the optimal sub-sampling rate from the data itself. For the first frame t in a given window W , we find the frame $t + k_t$ for which the correlation coefficient is less than a threshold ρ_c . The process is then repeated from frame $t = t + k_t$, and is continued until the end of the window is reached. We select the sub-sampling rate, k , as the average of k_t for all t .

We further optimize the proposed pipeline by observing that we do not really need to sub-sample the video, but the effect of sub-sampling can be incorporated in the threshold ϵ_{cut} itself. Consider an extreme scenario, when the original samples were conditionally independent, but we introduced a severe correlation by duplicating a sample r times. Note that in this case, the ground truth boundary should not shift but the length of the segments W_0 and W_1 just increases by r times. The harmonic mean m also increases by r times, thus effectively decreasing segmentation threshold ϵ_{cut} , and leading to over-segmentation. We compensate for the reduction in ϵ_{cut} by updating the expression to:

$$\epsilon_{\text{cut}} \geq \sqrt{\frac{4k}{m} \log\left(\frac{2n(d_1 + 1)}{k\delta}\right)} \quad (20)$$

where k is the sub-sampling rate for un-correlating the input data, as described earlier. Note that the exact choice of correct k is not very critical, but merely helps to virtually sub-sample a video such that the i.i.d. assumption starts to hold, by penalizing the effect to ϵ_{cut} . However, the role of k becomes more important to normalize videos taken at different temporal resolutions (frames per second). The proposed approach avoids over-segmentation of a video by adjusting the threshold for videos at the higher temporal resolution, leading to higher accuracy in boundary prediction. Note that the discussion above does not address the problems when videos are captured at extremely low temporal resolution, which we discuss next.



Figure 3: The segmentation granularity increases as we increase δ in our approach. The three rows in the figure show the output from our approach at $\delta, 10^{-6}, 10^{-4}$, and 10^{-2} respectively, on the ‘Alireza Day 1’ sequence from Disney dataset. The bars above each row indicates the time instance of frames chosen as a boundary, such that the length of the row shows the length of the sequence.

3.4 Handling Photo-stream Data

Imagine we had a video, and have found an optimal sub-sampling rate k at which the adjacent frames become conditionally independent. Note that, any larger k will also satisfy the independence constraint, but will lead to under-segmentation. We observe that when the input is a photo-stream, the frames are indeed conditionally independent, but they would likely be independent (as per our correlation coefficient criterion) even when we insert an additional frame (by interpolating neighboring frames) in between. We believe that our method underestimates the length of the segment in the case of photo-streams due to the above reason. Therefore, for the photo-streams, we suggest to look for the smallest number of k frames, which when inserted in the photo-stream still keeps the neighboring frames independent. We introduce these frames, or feature vectors as the case may be, by simply averaging the features of two consecutive frames. The process is continued until the correlation coefficient of the feature vectors remains below a user specified threshold.

However, similar to the way we handled correlated frames in the videos, we do not need to make the actual addition of frames to the dataset. We just need to know the length of the adaptive window, when the frames will be added to the window. This new window length is then used to modify the threshold. The modified threshold used for the photo-stream is as follows:

$$\epsilon_{\text{cut}} \geq \sqrt{\frac{4}{mk} \log \left(\frac{2nk(d+1)}{\delta} \right)} \quad (21)$$

Fig. 2 shows the block diagram of the proposed approach and Algorithm 1 in the supplementary material presents the pseudo-code.

4 EXPERIMENTS

We demonstrate the results of proposed approach on three extremely long egocentric video datasets, viz HUJI [42, 43], Disney [19], and UTEgo [31, 34], as well as on the standard photo-stream dataset, viz EDUB-Seg20 [14?]. We give a detail description of the datasets in the supplementary material. The proposed technique is implemented on Matlab with system architecture comprising

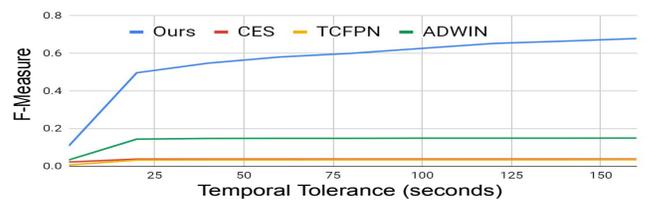


Figure 4: The figure shows the F-Measure comparison between SOTA and proposed approach for different values of temporal tolerance for the Disney dataset.

of Quadro P5000 GPU and Intel i7 processor with 4 cores (32 GB RAM). It takes approximately 2 hrs (inclusive of feature extraction) and approximately 8GB CPU RAM to segment 8 hrs long video.

4.1 Implementation Details

Feature Vector: For all the video datasets, we use the input at 5fps and use frame-wise AlexNet [29] features as used by SR-Clustering [14]. However, for a fair comparison on the photo-stream datasets, we use LSTM features similar to one used by [12]. However, since we operate in the streaming mode in our application, instead of bi-direction features as suggested in [12], we use only unidirectional features.

Frame Correlation Coefficient: As discussed earlier, to make the frames independent for meeting the requirements of our theoretical results, we use the notion of skip factor. The learned skip factor requires a hyper-parameter correlation coefficient threshold, ρ_c to declare the two frames independent. We have chosen $\rho_c = 0.95$ for video datasets. However, we observe that LSTM features used for the photo-stream datasets exhibit a high correlation. Hence, we use $\rho_c = 0.999$ for the photo-stream datasets.

Granularity: Any segmentation problem is inherently dependent upon the scale one is looking for. In our technique, the granularity at which the user wants their video to be segmented can be controlled by the δ . As seen in Fig 3, as the value of δ increases, the number of segments increases, and boundaries are detected even for smaller changes. Similarly, upon decreasing the value of δ , the

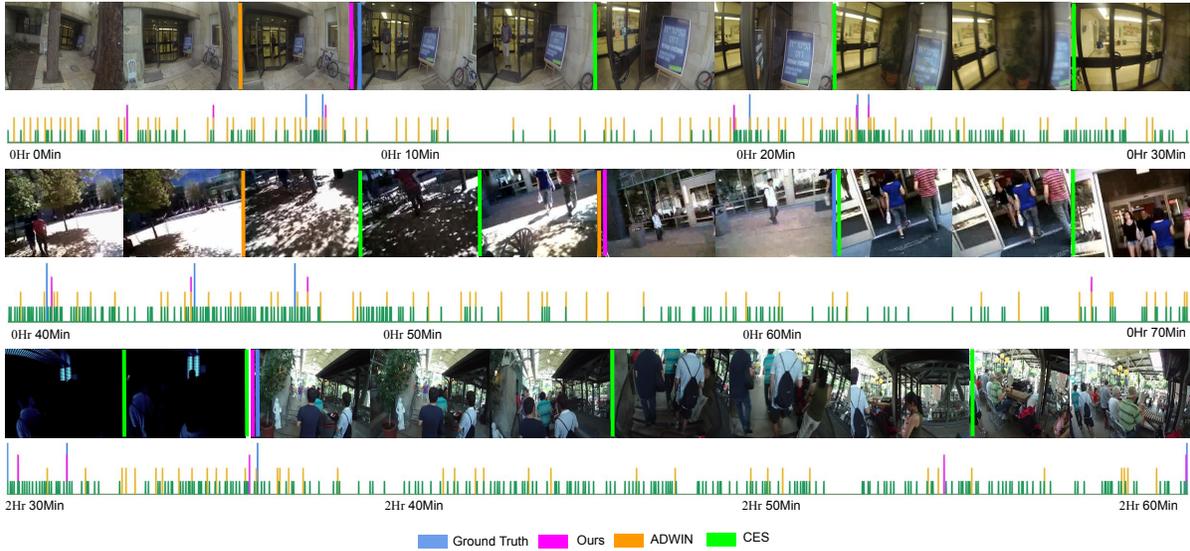


Figure 5: Temporal segmentation of long egocentric videos: The figure shows a qualitative representation of closeness of boundaries predicted by the proposed approach, ADWIN [7], CES [12] to ground truth boundaries from specific portions of Huji (first row), UTEgo (second row) and Disney (third row) datasets (better visualize in colors). Please see the text for details.

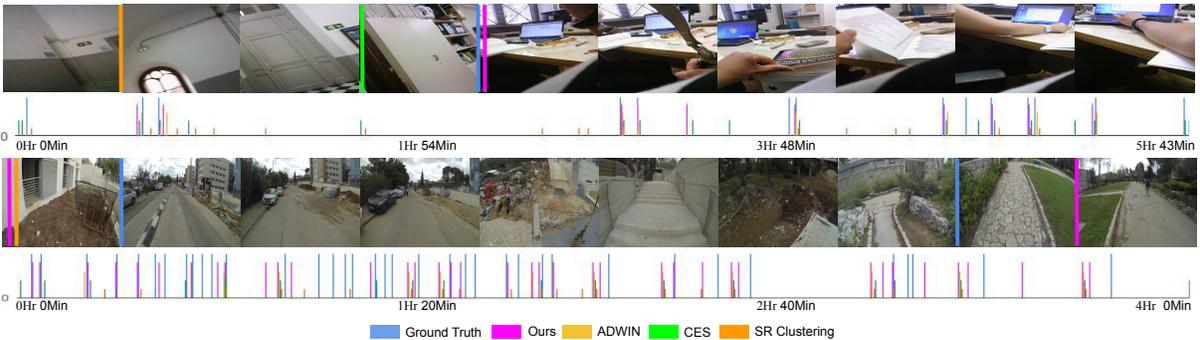


Figure 6: Temporal segmentation of photo-stream data: The figure shows a qualitative representation of the closeness of boundaries predicted by the proposed approach, ADWIN [7], CES [12] to ground truth boundaries from specific portions of EDUB-Seg (first row), and Huji (second row). Please see the text for details.

number of segments decreases, corresponding to capturing large heterogeneous context in a single event. In general application of our technique, we expect that such a granularity could be taken as feedback from the end-user. However, for comparing with benchmark datasets, we do not have such user-feedback available. Hence we use average segment length as the proxy for the segmentation granularity required. We define 2500-3000, 1600-2500, and 1000-1600 frames per segment as our ranges for low, medium, and high levels of granularity respectively. We set the δ for the corresponding granularity as 10^{-2} , 10^{-4} , and 10^{-6} respectively. Similarly, for the photo-stream datasets of HUJI, UTEgo, Disney, and EDUB-Seg20, we experiment with δ values of 10^{-1} , 10^{-3} , and 10^{-7} for different levels of granularity.

Boundary Tolerance: As proposed by [12], when dealing with continuous boundaries in an egocentric video, there is an inherent ambiguity in annotating the exact frame which should be marked as the boundary, and many frames in the temporal vicinity could have been marked as a boundary as well. Hence, penalizing an algorithm for marking the exact frame as a boundary may not indicate the true strength of the technique. [12] has proposed the use of temporal tolerance, which allows a technique to be rewarded if it predicts a boundary within a certain range of the ground truth. We adopt the metric in our experiments and use a temporal tolerance (*tol*) of 2.5 minutes to calculate the performance (f-measure) of our technique. As shown in Fig. 4, the boundary detection accuracy improves as the value of temporal tolerance is increased.

Methods	HUJI	UTEgo	Disney
TCFPN [17]	4.18	2.50	3.56
ADWIN [7]	12.44	0.83	15.01
CES[12]	4.52	9.31	3.96
Ours	73.01	58.41	67.63

Table 2: F-Measure comparison on video datasets

4.2 Evaluation Measure

We use the averaged F-measure to evaluate our performance. As proposed in [12], we consider a predicted boundary as true positive if it occurs within the tolerance(tol) neighborhood of a ground truth boundary, while taking into consideration that this ground truth boundary has not already been matched to a predicted boundary before. Analogously, all the ground truth boundaries, for which no frame within its tol range has been predicted, are referred to as false negative. We also evaluate our method based on the number of segments predicted. The metric is used to show reduction in over-segmentation achieved for video data using our method.

4.3 Comparative Evaluation

For comparison on video datasets, we pick two representative techniques to compare against, viz CES [12] and TCFPN [17]. We also compare against ADWIN [7] which is based on unsupervised concept drift detection but does not handle multivariate data or correlated samples. For comparison with ADWIN, we pretend the data is uncorrelated and convert a feature vector into a single scalar by taking its ℓ_2 norm. We ignore the SR-Clustering [14] for the video datasets because it doesn't scale for day-long video sequences.

Since many of the approaches we compare against were originally targeted for photo-streams and not videos, therefore, to ensure a fair comparison, we prepare two configurations for each dataset. In the first configuration, we resample a video at 2 frames per minute, thereby making it resemble a photo-stream. In the second configuration, each input video is resampled at 5fps to match the lowest temporal resolution of all the datasets. For photo-stream datasets, we also compare with SR-Clustering [14]. Table 2 shows the quantitative evaluation based on F-measure for $tol = 750$ for video datasets. We notice significant performance improvement over all the state of the art approaches as these techniques fail to handle the daylong video sequences.

Fig 5 shows a qualitative visualization of the comparison between various state of the art techniques and the proposed approach. The bar chart shows the frames selected as a boundary by different techniques for a 30 minutes clip. It is clear that the state of the art techniques severely over-segment all the video sequence datasets due to frequent scene changes accompanying the sharp head motion of the wearer. The images above each of the bar charts show representative frames from a short video segment from each of the clips. The boundaries selected by each technique are marked by thick colored lines between the frames. This is for visual comparison of the frames where different techniques choose to create

Methods	Features	EDUB	HUJI	UTEgo	Disney
TCFPN [17]	CNN	19.26	2.37	1.37	3.84
ADWIN [7]	CNN	35.37	44	11.47	23.21
CES [12]	LSTM-Bi	69	45.70	36.19	61.40
SR-Clustering [14]	CNN	49.93	44.06	9.44	55.81
Ours	LSTM-uni	63.96	59.44	60.61	68.83

Table 3: F-Measure Comparison on photo-stream datasets

a boundary. From the figure, we can observe that the proposed approach doesn't over-segment and precisely locates the temporal boundaries.

Table 3 shows the F-measure for $tol = 5$ for photo-stream datasets (EDUB-Seg as well as all the video datasets down-sampled to photo-streams as described earlier). For photo-stream datasets also we show considerable improvement. We report 13.74%, 24.42%, and 7.43% improvement in F-measure for HUJI, UTEgo, and Disney datasets respectively, however, for EDUB-Seg20 we under-perform marginally as CES [12] uses bidirectional features, whereas we use uni-directional features to maintain the online streaming mode property of our technique. Fig 6 shows the visualization for photo-stream datasets. The first row shows the visualization for the EDUB-Seg20 dataset where the CES [12] performs competitively. For the HUJI dataset proposed method performs better than the CES [12].

4.4 Online Streaming vs Recorded Video

Our algorithm can be potentially used in the online streaming mode as well. Recall that for detecting a temporal boundary, we take a window w , split it at time instant t , in two windows w_1 and w_2 , and then find the difference of means. Therefore, we effectively find the temporal boundary at t after looking at w_2 as well. This can be seen as detecting a boundary with a certain latency. Table on the right shows the average latency of our algorithm vs the average segment length in the video.

Datasets	High	Medium	Low
UTEgo	2m19s	3m08s	3m29s
Disney	1m77s	2m54s	3m87s

5 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have introduced a novel, principled, and theoretically justified technique for temporal segmentation of egocentric videos. We have adapted the univariate concept drift for i.i.d. data to multivariate correlated data using the adaptive windowing technique. We demonstrate the results on long videos as well as photo-stream datasets to prove the efficacy of the proposed approach. We have also shown that the adaptive windowing technique can generate superior results in video temporal segmentation when compared to the state-of-the-art deep CNN/LSTM models.

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