Supplementary Material for "Cross-Domain Video Anomaly Detection without Target Domain Adaptation"

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1. Additional Details for zxVAD

Additional Implementation Details. We implement zx-VAD in PyTorch [1]. We resize the input frames to 256×256 and normalize them to the range of [-1,1]. The generator, the discriminator, and the normalcy classifier are trained with the learning rates of 0.0002, 0.00002, and 0.00002, respectively with the Adam [2] optimizer ($\beta_1 = 0.5, \beta_2 = 0.999$), following [3]. The generator takes 4 frames as input and outputs one frame. We drop the last sigmoid layer of $\mathcal{N}(\cdot)$

Table	1:	Augmentation	parameters	. K denote	s kor-
nia.a	ugmei	ntation.			
Ope	ratior	1	Korı	nia Parame	ters
K.C	olor	Jitter	0.1,0	0.1,0.1,0.1	
K.R.	ando	mAffine	degr	ees = 360	
K.R.	ando	mPerspective	e dista	$prtion_scale$	e = 0.2

as suggested in [4]. We extracted the frames of all TI datasets at 30 frames/sec. The batch size is set as 8. The training iterations for both SHT and UCFC are set as 5000 in all settings of combinations with TI datasets. Unless otherwise specified, we use the default PyTorch parameters. The average training time is \sim 2 hours for VAD datasets and \sim 24 hours for the experiments involving TI datasets on the Nvidia Titan Xp GPUs.

Augmentation Parameters. Our relative attention affirmation loss \mathcal{L}_{RAA} requires augmentation of normal frames v using Kornia [5] to create augmented normal frames g(v). We use kornia.augmentation.AugmentationSequential to apply these augmentation operations sequentially whose parameters are listed in Tab. 1. kornia.augmentation.ColorJitter has four parameter values that represent factors of "brightness," "contrast," "saturation," and "hue." All the operations have probability parameter p=1.0.

Location and Size Parameters in Pseudo-Anomaly Synthesis Module. Our untrained CNN based Pseudo-anomaly synthesis module \mathcal{O} creates pseudo-anomalies \tilde{v} by pasting cropped object M_x at random location r_z with random size $r_x \times r_y$. We start by initializing a temporary tensor \overline{v} with v. The random location r_z is a rectangular box with coordinates (b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4) [6]. These are computed as $b_1 = b_x - \frac{b_w}{2}, b_2 = b_x + \frac{b_w}{2}, b_3 = b_y - \frac{b_h}{2}$, and $b_4 = b_y + \frac{b_h}{2}$, where (b_x, b_y, b_w, b_h) are uniformly sampled as follows. If H and W are height and width of v respectively, then $b_x \sim \text{Unif}(0, W), b_y \sim \text{Unif}(0, H), b_w = W\sqrt{1-\beta}, b_h = H\sqrt{1-\beta}$. Here, $b_2 > b_1$ and $b_4 > b_3$. We then resize M_x and M to size $(b_2 - b_1) \times (b_4 - b_3)$. Finally, only the pixels corresponding to regions where $M_{(i,j)} = 1$ are replaced in \overline{v} to create anomaly frame \tilde{v} . To handle boundary conditions where $0 \le b_x, b_w \le W$ and $0 \le b_x, b_w \le H$, we clip the values to be in the range of [0, W] and [0, H], respectively. Here, $\beta \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$.

Evaluation criteria. For anomaly scores, we follow [3, 7] and compute Peak Signal to Noise Ratio (PSNR) [8] scores per frame and normalize PSNR of all frames in each testing video to the range [0, 1] in order to compare with ground-truth binary labels. Note that we observed such normalization practice (adopted from [3]) impacts anomaly scores.

2. Additional Results on zxVAD

Impact of the amount of TI Data. We analyzed the impact of the amount of TI data on our zxVAD framework in extreme settings. Particularly, we evaluated zxVAD when the amount of videos of TI datasets (HMDB and UCF101) is close to the number of training videos available in the VAD datasets. With 0.5%, 1%, 2%, 4%, and 8% of HMDB data, we observed an average cross-domain AUC performance of 74.99% on Ped1, 93.82% on Ped2, and 79.49% on Ave. A similar observation was made on UCF101 (0.0625%,

0.125%, 0.315%, 0.63%, and 1.25% of data resulted in average cross-domain AUC performance of 74.61% on Ped1, 94.17% on Ped2, and 79.46% on Ave). This demonstrates that almost SOTA cross-domain performance on the current VAD datasets is achievable even with an extremely low amount of TI data.

Relevancy among VAD data. We followed [9, 10] for the relevancy analysis between the TI to target domain (Ave, Ped1/2) VAD data. We observed higher relevancy scores among SHT (to Ave: 0.241, to Ped1/2: 0.250) and UCFC (to Ave: 0.201, to Ped1/2: 0.167) compared to average TI (to Ave: 0.186, to Ped1/2: 0.138). This confirms: TI data is indeed less relevant to VAD data.

More results on the impact of randomly initialized networks for Pseudo-Anomaly Synthesis. We analyzed the impact of the randomly initialized network $\mathcal{R}(\cdot)$ on our untrained CNN based pseudo-anomaly synthesis module. In Fig. 1, it can be observed that our $z \times VAD$ method outperforms the state-of-the-art (SOTA) xVAD works on the Ped1 and Ped2 datasets in the zero-shot settings when the source is SHT irrespective of kind of randomly initialized network $\mathcal{R}(\cdot)$ employed to extract objects from all our TI datasets.



Figure 1: Impact of $\mathcal{R}(\cdot)$ in zx-VAD. The source is SHT.

More results on same-dataset testing. We beat our baselines in the same-dataset testing in all VAD and TI combination scenarios as shown in Tab. 2. We also compare with more state-of-the-art unsupervised VAD methods under the same-dataset setting in Tab. 3.

Table 2: Same-dataset testing on the SHT_{dc} dataset. We beat our baselines in all the source domain data settings.

VAD Training data	Input to ${\cal O}$	Method	AUC (%) on SHT_{dc}
SHT _{dc}	N/A	rGAN [11] (paper)	70.11
SHT _{dc}	N/A	MPN [7] (code)	67.47
SHT _{dc}	SHT _{dc}	zxVAD (ours)	70.73
SHT _{dc}	HMDB	zxVAD (ours)	70.85
SHT _{dc}	UCF101	zxVAD (ours)	70.80
SHT _{dc}	Jester	zxVAD (ours)	70.50

 $\alpha_{\rm m}$ on $\mathcal{L}_{\rm RN}$ is shown. All cases show better AUC than SOTA MPN [7].

Ablation analysis. $z \times VAD$ is not too sensitive to the loss ratios and Table (on *right*) validates this point. For our backbone GAN, we use exact same ratios as suggested in [3]. For the proposed normalcy classifier, we *do not* use ratios for our losses \mathcal{L}_{AA} and \mathcal{L}_{RAA} (*i.e.* set as 1). Finally, the effect of ratios α_n on \mathcal{L}_N and

Table 3: Additional same dataset testing comparison. The best and second best AUC are marked in **bold** and underline, respectively.

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Methods	Ped2	Ave	SHT
MPPCA [12]	69.3	-	-
MPPC+SFA [12]	61.3	-	-
MDT [13]	82.9	-	-
ConvAE [14]	85.0	80.0	60.9
TSC [15]	91.0	80.6	67.9
StackRNN [15]	92.2	81.7	68.0
MT-FRCN [16]	92.2	-	-
Unmasking [17]	82.2	80.6	-
Frame-Pred [3]	95.4	85.1	72.8
AMC [18]	96.2	86.9	-
MemAE [19]	94.1	83.3	71.2
SDOR [20]	83.2	-	-
rGAN [11]	96.2	85.8	77.9
LMN [21]	97.0	88.5	70.5
MPN [7]	96.9	89.5	73.8
zxVAD	96.95	83.8	71.6

Ratios	SHT_{dc}
MPN [7]	67.47
$(\alpha_n, \alpha_m) = (1, 0.01)$	70.85
$(\alpha_n, \alpha_m) = (1, 0.1)$	69.49
$(\alpha_n, \alpha_m) = (0.1, 0.1)$	69.95
$(\alpha_n, \alpha_m) = (0.01, 0.01)$	70.37

3. Examples from Datasets

We provide some video examples of the VAD datasets (SHT, UCFC, Ped1, Ped2, and Ave in Fig.2(a)) and TI datasets (HMDB, UCF101, and Jester in Fig.2(b)) listed in Tab.2 of the main manuscript.

4. More Qualitative Results

We show additional examples of pseudo-abnormal frames created using our pseudo-anomaly module in Fig. 3 and difference maps from three different datasets indicating anomalies in Fig. 4.



(b) TI datasets

Figure 2: Examples from VAD and TI datasets. We visualize some examples of videos used for experiments in our paper.



Figure 3: Pseudo-abnormal frames. We present examples of pseudo-abnormal frames generated using our proposed untrained CNN based pseudo-anomaly synthesis module.



Figure 4: Difference maps. We show more examples of difference maps obtained from zxVAD (source: SHT). The lighter colors in difference map mean larger prediction error indicating anomalies. Red boxes indicate ground truth anomalies. Best viewed in color.

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