

Learning Multimodal Representations for Unseen Activities

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Abstract

We present a method to learn a joint multimodal representation space that enables recognition of unseen activities in videos. We first compare the effect of placing various constraints on the embedding space using paired text and video data. We also propose a method to improve the joint embedding space using an adversarial formulation, allowing it to benefit from unpaired text and video data. By using unpaired text data, we show the ability to learn a representation that better captures unseen activities. In addition to testing on publicly available datasets, we introduce a new, large-scale text/video dataset. We experimentally confirm that using paired and unpaired data to learn a shared embedding space benefits three difficult tasks (i) zero-shot activity classification, (ii) unsupervised activity discovery, and (iii) unseen activity captioning, outperforming the state-of-the-arts.

1. Introduction

Videos contain multiple data sources, such as visual, audio and text/caption data. Each data modality has distinct statistical properties capturing different aspects of the event. Current state-of-the-art activity recognition models [4, 41] only take visual data and class labels as input, which limits the information the model can learn from. For example, the sentence ‘a group of men play basketball outdoors’ contains rich information, such as ‘outdoors’ and ‘group of men’ compared to just the activity class label of ‘basketball.’ We desire to use such additional information to learn better representations and by doing so, we show that the learned representations are able to generalize to unseen activities (i.e., zero-shot learning).

We explore multimodal learning from video and language data, each starting with its own representation. Video data is represented as a sequence of images (spatio-temporal pixel data) while text is represented as a sequence of word embeddings (temporal data). Learning a shared representation allows for modeling the highly non-linear relationships between these modalities, capturing structure present in both video and textual data. Further, using a shared representation enables capturing similarities between concepts (e.g., bas-

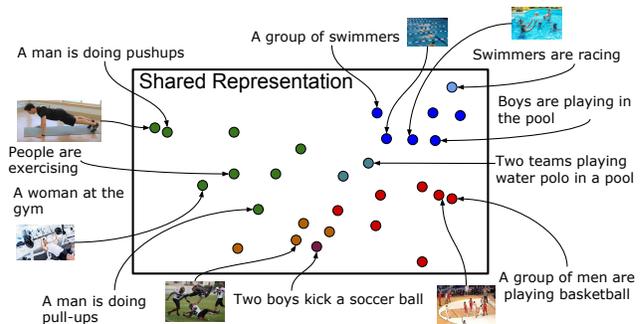


Figure 1. Taking advantage of both text and video data allows for learning of a shared representation. By utilizing unpaired text and video data, the representation naturally captures the relationships between different activities, based on the underlying relationships in word embeddings and video representations. The colors represent different activity classes of the video or sentence (e.g., various sports, pool activities, and exercises).

ketball and volleyball both being sports with a ball) within its space by relying on either modality, even when the data is unpaired. This allows the representation to benefit from concepts not seen in both modalities during training. For example, we show taking advantage of relationships between words in pre-trained word embeddings [26] help recognize activities with no video examples. By learning a shared representation space, we transfer such relationships to video representations of potentially unseen activities. An conceptual overview of the approach is shown in Fig. 1.

Many existing approaches to both zero-shot and embedding space learning require paired data examples (e.g., examples and labeled attributes), which can be expensive to obtain. By taking advantage of adversarial learning [10], we are able effectively augment our method with **unpaired** data (i.e., random sentences and random videos without any labels or correspondence) to further improve our learned representation. By introducing many random videos and text data, we show that we are able learn representations that better capture unseen activities, without requiring any further annotations.

In this paper, we design a method capable of learning joint video/language representation using both paired and unpaired data. We experimentally confirm its benefit to

three challenging tasks: (i) zero-shot activity recognition, (ii) unsupervised activity discovery, and (iii) unseen activity captioning. We show that the use of unpaired, multimodal data allows learning a shared embedding space that generalizes to unseen data.

2. Related works

Multimodal learning Previous approaches to multimodal learning have used Restricted Boltzmann Machines [40] or log-bilinear models [19] to learn distributions over sentences and images. Ngiam et al. [28] designed an autoencoder that learns joint audio-video representations, however relied on greedy, layer-by-layer training instead of training the model end-to-end. Similarly, Chandar et al. [5] proposed an auto-encoder able to learn correlations between different view of images. Frome et al. [9] describe a model that maps images and words to a shared embedding. However, these works either learn a joint embedding by concatenating the different features or require a triplet consisting of positive and negative pairs; they have not explored the use/effect of unpaired data.

Text and vision Using both text and visual data has been studied for many tasks, such as image captioning [17, 15, 16] or video captioning [21, 52, 47]. Other works have explored the use of textual grounding for image/video retrieval [12, 35, 25, 14]. We note that using text for video retrieval/localization (e.g., [14]) is similar in nature to the zero-shot or unseen recognition tasks. However, in those works, there is significant overlap between the text/video examples used in training and testing, while in our work we explicitly separate the classes used during training and evaluation; we focus on ‘unseen’.

There have been various models proposed to learn a fixed text embedding space with mappings from video features into this embedding space [11, 30, 38, 43, 45]. These works all learn a single directional mapping, without a shared representation space (which we find to be important). Further, most of them only learn with paired text/image samples and some require data in the form of positive/negative pairs. In this paper, we find learning a shared representation space and using unpaired, i.e., random additional data, to be important.

Learning with unpaired data Recently, there have been many works taking advantage of variational autoencoders (VAEs) [18] or generative adversarial networks (GANs) [10] to learn mappings between unpaired samples. CycleGan [53] uses a cycle-consistency loss (i.e., the ability to go from a sample in one domain to a second domain then back to the source) to learn unpaired image translation (e.g., image to sketch). Other works learn many-to-many mappings between images [2] or use two GANs to map between domains [50]. An autoencoder with shared weights for both domains has been used to learn a latent space for image-to-image

translation [24]. However, these works all focus on learning mappings between unpaired data of the same modality (e.g. image to image), where the data is from the same underlying distribution. We focus on a more challenging problem: learning from different modalities with very different distributions, where we find directly using previous approaches do not perform well as they are.

Zero-shot activity recognition There are works on zero-shot activity recognition. Common approaches include using attributes [23, 31, 36] or word embeddings [48, 49, 29, 37, 20] or learning a similarity metric [51, 7]. Some works have explored using adversarial losses on the latent space [6], used GANs to generate features for unseen classes [46] or used auto-encoders [44]. Felix et al. [8] proposed a GAN-based approach to learn embeddings for zero-shot learning. Different from our approach, they applied the GAN only on the semantic, hand-crafted attributes of the classes to generate representations. We formulate a more general framework generating representations for all modalities, also taking advantage of more generic and challenging text and video.

Importantly, our work differs from these previous works in three key ways: (1) we show the benefit of using additional **unpaired** samples, (2) we experimentally compare the use of the representations for three tasks (i.e., zero-shot recognition, unseen recognition, and unseen video captioning), and (3) we learn a shared, multimodal representation with bi-directional mappings in an end-to-end fashion. We find that directly using the previous methods with unpaired data do not perform as well.

3. Method

To enable learning of a shared representation, we use a deep autoencoder architecture. Our model consists of 4 neural networks:

Video Encoder $E_V : v \mapsto z_v$ **Video Decoder** $G_V : z \mapsto v$
Text Encoder $E_T : t \mapsto z_t$ **Text Decoder** $G_T : z \mapsto t$

where v is a sequence of video data and t is a sentence (sequence of words). z is the representation in the shared space that we are learning. The encoders learn a compressed representation of the video or text while the decoders are trained to reconstruct the input:

$$\mathcal{L}_{recons}(v, t) = \|G_V(E_V(v)) - v\|_2 + \|G_T(E_T(t)) - t\|_2 \quad (1)$$

As both text and video data are sequences, they often have different lengths. A shared representation requires that the features from both modalities have the same dimensions. Given a text representation of length L and a video representation of length T , we need to obtain a fixed-size representation. To learn a fixed-dimensional representation, there are many choices for the encoder/decoder architecture, such

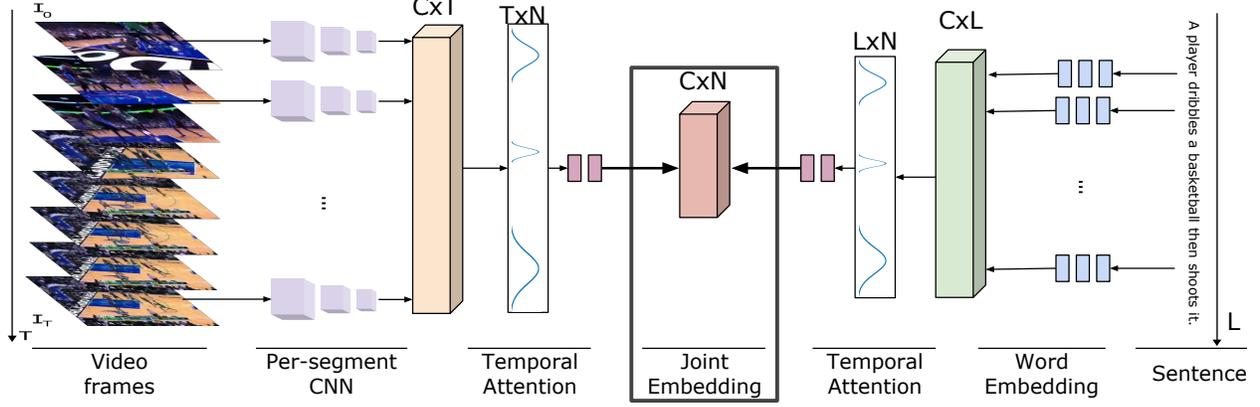


Figure 2. Illustration of the encoder models used to learn a shared representation. Videos and sentences are mapped into a low-dimensional space by applying CNNs and temporal attention. Then several fully-connected layers map to the representation. The decoders follow this same architecture with the weights transposed.

as temporal pooling [27], attention [32] or RNNs [21]. We chose temporal attention filters [32] as they learn a mapping from any length input to a N -dimensional vector and have been shown to outperform temporal pooling and RNNs on activity recognition tasks.

The attention filters consists of N Gaussians, each learning 2 parameters: a center \hat{g} and width σ , which are constrained to be positive. The filters are determined by:

$$g_n = 0.5 \cdot T \cdot (\hat{g}_n + 1)$$

$$F[n, t] = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\left(-\frac{(t - g_n)^2}{2\sigma_n^2}\right) \quad (2)$$

$$n \in \{0, 1, \dots, N - 1\}, t \in \{0, 1, \dots, T - 1\}$$

The weights are applied by matrix multiplication with the video or text sequence (e.g., the outputs of E_V or E_T): $v' = Fv$. This (i.e., v') is then used as the representations for the joint space. Additionally, we can learn a transposed version of these filters to reconstruct the input: $v = F^T v'$. To reconstruct the input, the decoders learn their own parameters with the tensors transposed, resulting in the matching output size. Fig. 2 shows our encoder architecture.

3.1. Learning a joint embedding space

To learn a joint representation space, we minimize the L_2 distance between the embeddings of a pair of text and video (shown in Fig. 3(a)):

$$\mathcal{L}_{joint}(v, t) = \|E_V(v) - E_T(t)\|_2 \quad (3)$$

This forces the joint embeddings to be similar and when combined with the reconstruction loss, ensures that the representations can still reconstruct the input.

We can further constrain the networks and learned representation by forcing a cross-domain mapping from text to

video and from video to text (shown in Fig. 3(b)):

$$\mathcal{L}_{cross}(v, t) = \|G_T(E_V(v)) - t\|_2 + \|G_V(E_T(t)) - v\|_2 \quad (4)$$

Additionally, we can use a ‘cycle’ loss to map from video to text and back to video. Note that while the previous losses all require paired examples, this loss does not.

$$\mathcal{L}_{cycle}(v, t) = \|G_T(E_V(G_V(E_T(t)))) - t\|_2 + \|G_V(E_T(G_T(E_V(v)))) - v\|_2 \quad (5)$$

To train the model to learn a joint embedding space, we minimize

$$\mathcal{L}(v, t) = \mathcal{L}_{recons}(v, t) + \alpha_1 \mathcal{L}_{joint}(v, t) + \alpha_2 \mathcal{L}_{cross}(v, t) + \alpha_3 \mathcal{L}_{cycle}(v, t) \quad (6)$$

where α_i are hyper-parameters weighting the various loss components.

3.2. Semi-supervised learning with unpaired data

To learn using unpaired data (i.e., unrelated text and video), we use an adversarial formulation. We treat the encoders and decoders as generator networks. We then learn an additional 3 discriminator networks which constrain the generators and embedding space and force the encoders and decoders to be consistent:

- (1) D_z which learns to discriminate between latent text representations and latent video representations. Conceptually, this constrains the learned embeddings to appear to be from the same distribution.
- (2) D_V which learns to discriminate between true video data and generated video data $G_V(E_T(t))$.
- (3) D_T which learns to discriminate between true text data and generated text data, $G_T(E_V(v))$.

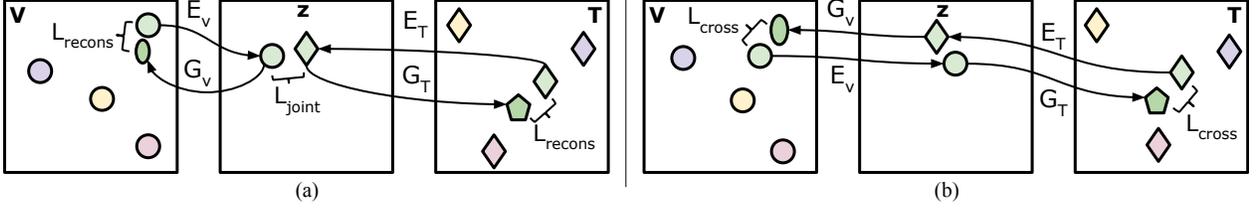


Figure 3. Visualization of several constrains on the shared embedding space. Circles are video data, ovals are reconstructed video. Diamonds are text data, and pentagons are reconstructed text. **(a)** The reconstruction (Eq. 1) and joint (Eq. 3) losses. **(b)** Mapping from text to video using the cross-domain (Eq. 4) loss.

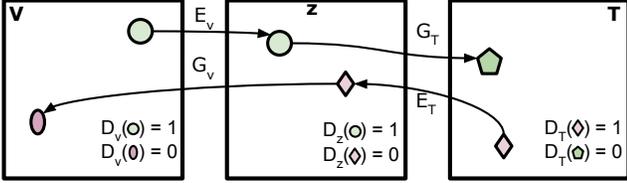


Figure 4. Visualization of the adversarial formulation to learn with unpaired data. We create 3 discriminators, (1) D_z learns to discriminate examples of text/video in the latent space. (2) D_V learns to discriminate video generated from text compared to video. (3) D_T learns to discriminate generated text compared to text.

Algorithm 1 Semi-supervised alignment with adversarial learning

function TRAIN

for number of initialization iterations **do**

 Sample (V, T) from paired training data

 Update encoders/decoders (Eq. 6)

 Update discriminators (Eq. 7)

end for

for number of training iterations **do**

 Sample $P = (V_p, T_p)$ from paired and

$U = (V_u, T_u)$ from unpaired training data

 Update encoders/decoders with P (Eq. 6)

 Update encoders/decoders with U (Eq. 8)

 Update discriminators based on all (Eq. 7)

end for

end function

Given these discriminators, we minimize the following losses:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{D_z}(v, t) &= -\log(D_z(E_T(t))) - \log(1 - D_z(E_V(v))) \\ \mathcal{L}_{D_V}(v, t) &= -\log(D_V(v)) - \log(1 - D_V(G_V(E_T(t)))) \\ \mathcal{L}_{D_T}(v, t) &= -\log(D_T(t)) - \log(1 - D_T(G_T(E_V(v)))) \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

Using the discriminators, we can train the generators (encoders and decoders) to minimize the following loss based

on unpaired data:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{G_z}(v, t) &= \log(D_z(E_T(t))) + \log(1 - D_z(E_V(v))) \\ \mathcal{L}_{G_V}(v, t) &= \log(1 - D_V(G_V(E_T(t)))) \\ \mathcal{L}_{G_T}(v, t) &= \log(1 - D_T(G_T(E_V(v)))) \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

Note that in this formulation, v and t are not paired.

These networks are trained in an adversarial setting. For example, for the text-to-video generator (i.e., $v' = G_V(E_T(t))$) and video discriminator, D_V , we optimize the following minimax equation:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{E_T, G_V} \max_{D_V} &= \mathbb{E}_{v \sim p_{\text{data}}(v)} [\log D_V(v)] \\ &+ \mathbb{E}_{t \sim p_{\text{data}}(t)} [\log(1 - D_V(G_V(E_T(t))))] \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

This equation is similarly applied for video-to-text. For learning the embedding space with the video and text encoders, E_V, E_T and the discriminator D_z , we optimize the following minimax equation:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{E_T, E_V} \max_{D_z} &= \mathbb{E}_{v \sim p_{\text{data}}(v)} [\log D_z(E_V(v))] \\ &+ \mathbb{E}_{t \sim p_{\text{data}}(t)} [\log(1 - D_z(E_T(t)))] \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

As training GANs can be unstable, we developed a method to allow for more stable training of the joint embedding space, shown in Algorithm 1. We initialize both the generator and discriminator networks by training only on paired data. After several iterations of this, we train with both unpaired and paired data. We found the initial training of the generators and discriminators was important for stability, without it the loss often diverges and the learned embedding did not generalize to unseen activities.

4. Experiments

We compare our various approaches on different tasks (i) zero-shot activity recognition, (ii) unsupervised activity discovery and (iii) unseen activity captioning. These tasks test various combinations of our encoders and decoders and how well the shared representation generalizes to unseen data. We experimentally confirm the benefits of our methods using multiple public datasets: ActivityNet [13, 21], HMDB [22], UCF101 [39], and MLB-YouTube [33]. Implementation details can be found in the Appendix.

Table 1. Comparison of accuracy of various methods on ActivityNet for 5, 10, 20 or 50 unseen classes. These results are averaged over 10 trials where each trial has a different set of unseen activities.

	5 Unseen	10 Unseen	20 Unseen	50 Unseen
Paired Data				
Fixed Text Representation	41.9	38.4	29.4	15.6
Triplet Loss	56.8	44.9	38.8	23.3
joint	54.3	41.7	36.1	21.2
recons + cross	21.1	12.6	7.6	2.9
joint + recons	70.1	54.4	42.6	27.5
joint + recons + cycle	70.4	54.3	42.1	26.8
joint + recons + cross	72.6	55.4	43.2	27.8
joint + recons + cross + cycle	76.4	56.9	45.5	28.8
triplet + recons + cross + cycle	76.7	57.2	46.3	29.1
With Adversarial Losses (triplet + recons + cross + cycle + Adv.)				
+ D_z	78.5	57.4	45.9	29.3
+ $D_v + D_t$	77.4	57.2	45.7	28.9
+ $D_z + D_v + D_t$	79.8	58.4	46.5	29.8
Paired + Unpaired Data				
recons + cycle	22.8	13.6	8.4	4.2
triplet + recons + cycle	72.6	58.4	44.7	29.3
triplet + recons + cross + cycle	73.4	59.1	45.3	29.2
Without Algorithm 1	23.4	11.7	6.5	3.1
All terms	82.5	60.4	46.2	30.1

Baselines For baselines, we compare to a fixed-text embedding space, where only a mapping from video data into the text embedding space is learned (e.g., [30]). We also compare to learning a shared embedding space with the ‘recons’ (Eq. 1) and ‘cross’ (Eq. 4) terms (e.g., [28]). We additionally compare to methods like CycleGan [53], using various components without Algorithm 1.

4.1. Zero-shot activity recognition

Zero-shot activity recognition is the problem of classifying a video that belongs to a class not seen during training. Given training videos of seen classes together with paired text descriptions, our approach learns a shared embedding that maps videos/texts from multiple seen classes. The objective is to classify videos of unseen classes solely based on the learned embedding space and the text samples.

To enable recognition of unseen activities, we use a sentence of the new, unseen class and obtain its representation in the shared space. We can then obtain representations of videos in the same space, using nearest neighbors matching to classify each clip. Such approach takes advantage of the learned textual relationships (e.g., [26]) and the shared, multimodal representation space.

We use the ActivityNet captions [21] dataset to learn the shared representations, as this dataset has both sentence descriptions for each video as well as activity classes. We randomly choose a set of K activity classes and withhold all videos/sentences belonging to those classes during training. For evaluating on the unseen activities, we take a subset of

sentences for the unseen classes and map the sentences into the joint embedding space, $z_t = E_T(t)$. We then map the videos into the space, $z_v = E_V(v)$ and use nearest neighbors to match each video (z_v) to text (z_t), using the class of the nearest sentence as the classification for the video. We rely on the similarities between the representations (e.g., word embeddings) to enable the models ability to generalize to these unseen classes.

In Table 1, we compare the effect of the various loss components. For each method, we run 10 trials each with a different set of unseen activity classes and average the results. We find that previous methods of learning a fixed language embedding (e.g., [37, 48, 49]) are significantly outperformed by learning a joint representation. Previous methods learning embedding spaces without the ‘joint’ term (e.g. [28]), we found yield nearly random performance on these tasks, suggesting that forcing the representations to match in the embedding space is important. Further, adding the reconstruction, cross-domain, and cycle losses all improve performance. We also compare to a standard triplet loss (e.g., [11]) which requires positive/negative samples. We find that the triplet loss outperforms the ‘joint’ loss, but is surpassed by adding the ‘cycle’ and ‘cross’ terms, which use less data. We also compared using the triplet loss when combined with the other terms, finding a slight improvement over the joint term. Note using both the joint and triplet would be redundant, since the triplet loss contains the joint loss terms.

We also compare the various components of the adver-

Table 2. Results on HMDB51 and UCF101 (accuracy) compared to previous state-of-the-art results. We find that learning a shared representation is beneficial and that augmented with unpaired data provides the best results.

	Feat	HMDB51	UCF101
SJE [1]	IDT	12.0 ± 2.6	9.3 ± 1.7
ConSe [29]	IDT	15.0 ± 2.7	11.6 ± 2.1
ZSECOC [34]	IDT	22.6 ± 1.2	15.1 ± 1.7
SE [48]	IDT	21.2 ± 3.0	18.6 ± 2.2
MRR [49]	IDT	24.1 ± 3.8	22.1 ± 2.5
SAE [20]	I3D	25.6 ± 3.2	25.4 ± 2.2
Ours (paired)	IDT	26.3 ± 3.2	25.4 ± 3.4
Ours (paired + unpaired)	IDT	29.7 ± 2.2	26.4 ± 2.1
Ours (paired)	I3D	28.3 ± 2.7	27.8 ± 2.2
Ours (paired + unpaired)	I3D	34.7 ± 2.4	33.4 ± 1.8

Table 3. Comparison of various source of unpaired data on ActivityNet with 10 unseen classes, values reported for both unseen classes and all (seen+unseen) classes. Results are accuracy, higher is better.

	Unseen	All
Paired Data	58.3	69.6
+ Random Wikipedia Sentences	55.8	66.4
+ Random Dictionary Defs.	56.3	68.2
+ Verb Dictionary Defs.	59.2	70.7
+ Random YouTube Videos	58.7	70.1
+ Verbs + Random Videos	60.3	71.2

serial loss. We compare to having just the adversarial loss on the representation (D_z), like [6], and compare just the adversary on the generated videos/sentences. We find the use of all terms is important for performance.

While previous works such as [28] can support learning with unpaired data, we find that the adversarial loss provides better results than just the ‘cycle’ and ‘recons’ terms, and further improves over training with just paired data. Further, we find that CycleGan-style approaches, without Algorithm 1, fail on this task.

In Table 2, we compare our approach to previous zero-shot learning methods on HMDB and UCF101. The paired training data for these models is drawn from ActivityNet with any classes belonging to HMDB or UCF101 withheld. The unpaired text data is sampled from Charades and the video data comes from either HMDB (when testing on UCF101) or UCF101 (when testing on HMDB). As HMDB and UCF101 have no text descriptions, we created a sentence description for each activity class (included in Appendix B). We find that the shared representation outperforms the previous approaches on these datasets and unpaired adversarial learning further improves performance.

4.2. Use of Unpaired Data

We explore different strategies for obtaining unpaired data. Keeping a fixed set of paired text and videos, we explore adding various sources of unpaired data: (i) 10k random Wikipedia sentences, (ii) 10k random dictionary definitions, and (iii) 10k verb dictionary definitions. We also

Table 4. Comparison of unsupervised activity classification on MLB-YouTube.

	Accuracy	mAP
Baseline I3D features	23.4	32.6
Fixed Text Representation	27.9	34.7
joint	34.5	41.6
joint + recons	37.9	43.7
joint + recons + cycle	44.2	48.6
joint + recons + cross	43.7	49.3
triplet + recons + cross	43.9	49.5
All (paired)	48.4	51.2
All (+ unrelated unpaired)	39.7	43.9
All (+ related unpaired)	49.1	54.3

compare adding 10k random videos from YouTube as additional video data. Ours results using 10 unseen classes are in Table 3. We find that augmenting with similar unpaired data improves performance, while irrelevant data harms performance. We find that dictionary verb definitions improve performance the most, as they capture important semantic information regarding the activities we are learning. The use of additional video data is further beneficial.

4.3. Unsupervised activity discovery

To further evaluate the shared representation, we conducted experiments on unsupervised activity discovery. For this task, we expanded the MLB-YouTube dataset [33] by densely annotating the videos with a transcription of the announcers’ commentary, resulting in approximately 50 hours of aligned text and video. Examples of this data are shown in Fig. 5. The MLB-YouTube dataset is designed for fine-grained activity recognition, where the difference between activities is quite small. Additionally, these captions only roughly describe what is happening in the video, and often contain unrelated stories or commentary on a previous event, making this a challenging task. The dataset will be made publicly available. To train the shared representation, we split each baseball video into 30 second intervals and use the corresponding text as paired data, resulting in 6,089 paired training samples.

We evaluate the shared representation using the segmented videos from MLB-YouTube. For each video, we compute the embedded features and apply k -means clustering ($k = 8$, the number of classes). Each segmented video is assigned to a cluster and votes for the cluster label based on its ground truth label. We use that cluster assignment for classification on the MLB-YouTube test set. We report our findings in Table 4. As a baseline, we cluster I3D features pre-trained on Kinetics. We find that our methods improve the representation. However, we note that when using unpaired data from Charades, the performance drops. This is likely due to Charades data being very different from MLB-YouTube data. We collected additional captions and baseball videos to augment the MLB-YouTube dataset, and confirmed that unpaired data helps when it is from a similar

Table 5. Unseen activity recognition results (accuracy) on ActivityNet, HMDB51 and UCF101, evaluated by using both unseen and seen classes for the testing.

	ActNet (10 unseen)	ActNet (50 unseen)	HMDB51	UCF101
Fixed Text Representation	55.7	46.8	24.5	26.8
Triplet Loss	57.7	48.5	27.6	29.8
joint	62.1	50.2	29.8	30.6
joint + recons	64.4	52.6	30.4	31.3
joint + recons + cross + cycle	69.6	58.5	35.6	36.5
triplet + recons + cross + cycle	69.8	58.6	35.7	36.8
Paired + Unpaired Data				
All terms	71.7	65.9	38.9	42.2



He got right on top of that pitch, Pederson, and shot and way out of here. Three-run blast.



They would suspend him at the beginning of next year as opposed to for a game during this World Series.



That has been a feat in this series for both teams, nobody is hitting with two strikes. That's how good the pitching has been.



He is an aggressive third baseman and he can really play over there you know. He definitely takes pride in his defense as well.

Figure 5. Example video sequences from the MLB-YouTube dataset with the commentary caption. **Top:** Sentences that describe the occurring activities. **Bottom:** Sentences that do not describe the current activities.

Table 6. Comparison of unsupervised activity classification on HMDB and UCF101.

	HMDB	UCF101
I3D features	26.6	42.5
Joint	32.4	57.7
Joint + recons	33.5	59.0
All (paired)	34.6	59.5
All (+ unpaired)	34.9	59.9

distribution.

In Table 6 we compare various methods for unsupervised activity discovery on HMDB and UCF101. Here, we learn a shared representation using the ActivityNet videos and captions. We withhold any videos belonging to a class in HMDB or UCF101. Unlike MLB-YouTube, on these datasets, we find that using the unpaired training with Charades further improves performance. This confirms that when the additional data is similar to the target dataset, using the adversarial learning setting further improves the representations.

4.4. Unseen video captioning

As our model learns a bi-directional mappings, we can apply our model to generate video captions. Existing video captioning models are unable to create realistic captions for unseen activities, as without training data they do not know the words to describe the video. Given a video, v , we

can generate a caption by mapping the video to text $t = G_T(E_V(v))$. For each word, we then use nearest neighbors matching with the GloVe embeddings to obtain the words to form a sentence. We find that using our method with paired and unpaired data improves performance using METEOR (3.6 to 6.9) [3] and CIDEr [42] (8.9 to 13.9) scores. For these metrics, higher values are better and are measured with the unseen classes from the ActivityNet dataset. In Table 7, we report the commonly used METEOR [3] and CIDEr [42] scores of our various models, measured with the unseen classes from the ActivityNet dataset. We find that learning a shared representation (4.1) is beneficial and using unpaired samples further improves the task (5.3 paired only vs 6.9 paired and unpaired). In Fig. 6, we show example captioned videos. Note that this task is extremely challenging, as it requires the model to generate captions using activity words (e.g., basketball) not seen during training.

5. Conclusion

We proposed an approach to learn a joint language/text representation using various constraints. We further extended the model to be able to learn with unpaired video and text data using an adversarial formulation. We experimentally confirmed that learning with unpaired data is beneficial to three difficult tasks (i) zero-shot activity classification, (ii) unsupervised activity discovery, and (iii) unseen activity



Several men are playing basketball



People are swimming in the ocean

Figure 6. Example captions for unseen activities. **Left:** Using a shared representation allows the model to correctly caption this video as basketball, despite never seeing an example of basketball during training. **Right:** An example of a caption for the unseen water-ski activity. Here the model fails to correctly caption the activity.

Table 7. Comparison of several models for unseen activity captioning using the ActivityNet dataset, using METEOR and CIDEr scores. This evaluation was done on 10 unseen classes held out during training. Higher values are better.

	METEOR	CIDEr
Fixed Text Representation	3.64	8.95
Joint	4.21	9.23
All (paired)	5.31	11.21
All (paired + unpaired)	6.89	13.95

captioning. We find that the use of related unpaired data is beneficial. We presented several strategies for obtaining unpaired data and confirmed the benefit of adding additional, relevant unpaired data.

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