
Understanding Cultural Differences in News Videos

Yicun Liu

Department of Computer Science
Columbia University

Abstract

As the digital archive of our world grows exponentially, international events are widely covered around the globe, and most of them are available as news videos from different cultural perspectives. However, searching for another culture's response upon a specific event can be potentially challenging, as there usually exist language boundaries and user-preference disparities between one culture and another. In this work, we aim to capture the cultural differences by detecting the culture-specific tags: given a short video clip about an international event, we aim to retrieve the most relevant feedback from a specific cultural affinity group. To achieve that goal, we start from targeting the determining characteristic of the international events that get widely covered in different cultures. Datasets covering several interesting international news event is gathered, and we propose several techniques to filter out the noisy contents in the crawled data. To further automate the analysis process, visual and multilingual features are extracted by state-of-the-art neural models, and then mapped onto a joint latent embedding space through canonical correlation analysis and its variations. To bridge the gap between different languages, we only extract the text features using native text models trained in that language. As temporal information is critical for video understanding, we propose several possible ways to embed the temporal information into the joint space. We test our pipeline on several popular international news event, and further experiments are conducted to show the effectiveness of our algorithm.

1 Introduction

Web-archived news videos are growing substantially on media sharing platforms, and a considerable amount of them are focusing on the coverage of international events. As the largest content sharing platform, YouTube nowadays has over 1 million hours of uploaded news video per week, sharing media coverage of domestic and international events in more than 100 languages [5, 50]. Among them, eye-catching international events like health epidemics, elections, terrorists, financial incidents,

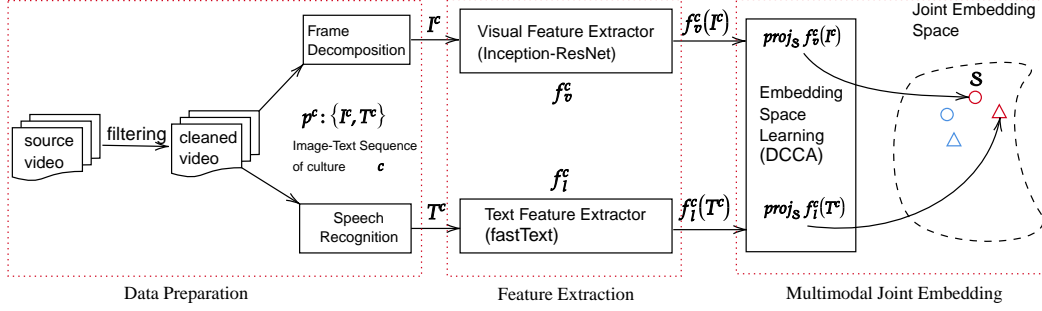


Figure 1: Overview of the pipeline. The pipeline includes three steps: 1. Data preparation, which includes crawling, filtering, and converting video to image-text sequence pair p^c . 2. Feature extraction, which includes using pretrained expert network to extract the visual and language features. 3. Multimodal joint embedding, which aims at learning a shared space \mathbb{S} where the projection of different features can be maximumly correlated.

natural disaster, and sports games usually draw the most attention across the globe. Even though the event covered might overlap, news videos can entail unique feedback from the audience group, revealing the cultural preferences, living behaviors and user patterns in different regions of the world. Nevertheless, due to the flood of the massive media contents available online, the video selection step and interpretation step can be heavy work and exploiting the cultural difference is nearly impossible to conduct manually.

Researchers to date have long realized this dilemma, and there already exists a considerable amount of work focusing on digesting the media content and providing users with a more concise summary of the contents. Early research takes frame segments and extracts visual features from frames to conduct scene based classification [23]. Aroused by the more abstract classification task, there is some later research work focusing on automatically synthesizing text summary for short videos [42]. As speech is also the main resource for information in news videos, solely relying on visual features for news video understanding could be less effective. Multimodal models are then introduced in [35], utilizing both visual and semantic features sources for generating video description. As the comparison, cultural difference received less attention in previous research, although news videos indeed provide a fair testbed for understanding the attitudes and biases of different cultures towards the same international event. In the field of information retrieval, researchers have long been interested in summarizing similarities and differences among related documents [31]. In particular, Nakasaki [33] analyzed the text portion of multimedia pages, and conduct a cross-cultural comparison on the expressed facts and opinions. Lin [30] also observed significant cultural difference towards one common concept or term on social media. However, there exists only limited work using temporally relevant visual and language features to exploit cultural differences, and no comprehensive study of this topic has appeared.

Prior to our work, Tsai made the first attempt in the detection of cultural specific tags from news videos, which is similar to regular image-text retrieval tasks [40]. Each time we use a few keyframes from an international event to conduct a query, and we need to find the most appropriate textual tags in the background culture. International news event appearing as videos in different cultures,

Google's AI subsidiary DeepMind has unveiled the latest version of its Go-playing software, AlphaGo Zero. It is said to be even more powerful than its predecessor, which beat two of the world's best players, including Korea's Lee Sedol. More importantly, AlphaGo Zero did not analyze any human moves and completely taught itself with a blank Go board and no data apart from the rules. Within three days, it was good enough to beat the original program by 100 games to zero.

Twelve members of the Wild Boars youth soccer team and their coach entered the sprawling Tham Luang cave network on June 23, only to be trapped by rising flood waters. The boys were found in early July, but jubilation quickly gave way to the realization that their rescue would be extremely risky and dangerous. The world watched as a team of international cave diving experts led the mission to retrieve them, evacuating the boys. The last of the group, the coach, successfully exited the cave on July 10.

I think I was being through many generations now the first generation of alphago which we published in our original nature paper was able to beat a professional player the best time now we have the final version of alphago alphago zero which is land completely from scratch from first principles without using any human data as a cheap highest level of performance overall...

The whole world was watching so we had to succeed said Kaw a Thai navy seal diver who shook his head in amazement at how every one of the rescues worked I dont think we had any other choice...

Figure 2: Clips of descriptions and transcripts of the crawled news videos. On the left are clips of video descriptions on YouTube, and on the right are clips of video transcripts generated by speech recognition package. Note that in most case the transcribed texts do not have punctuation. We show two pair of clips in this example, where the first one is the about 'AlphaGo vs. Human' news event and the second one is about 'Thailand Cave Rescue' news event. It is worth noticing that the content of the description usually gives a brief idea of what happened, which is more subjective. On the other hand, the content of the transcripts can be originally interviews, debates and other discussions, which involves more objective view of the international event.

only near-duplicate key-frames, and short video descriptions are considered in the embedding space. For non-English descriptions, they should be translated into English to extract text features. While this design is quite straightforward, there also exist certain limitations. First, video descriptions can be very short and less informative in the cultural analysis, like the fact that most descriptions on YouTube are under 100 words. Moreover, descriptions mainly serve as a plain summary of the news event and are usually mixed with noisy texts like the YouTube channel's advertisements. The word choices in video descriptions are more informative and objective, compared with the word choices in the editorial and criticism in the news video. Second, such an embedding process takes no account of the chronological order in the video, which could serve as a critical hint to link the text (speech) and imagery together. Intuitively, one shared imagery only corresponds to the speech near its occurrence. Without taking temporal information into consideration, the intrinsic mapping between image and text could be entirely out of order, leading to less accurate results in the overall retrieval task. Third, using auto-translation to convert descriptions from non-English to English could introduce deficiency for comprehension.

To conquer the limitations as mentioned above, we propose to conduct cultural analysis purely on the imagery and speech available in news videos. For speech, we used speech recognition package to convert speech into text transcript and encoded it by native language embedding models. For imagery, according to the time stamps in the text transcript, we choose the key-frames which are centered by the nearby texts. There are several benefits in doing that: **1.** It is easy to find that speech sequences in the news video is significantly lengthier than video descriptions, and they usually include subjective editorial and criticism, which is more revealing for our task of cross-cultural analysis. For a news video of approximately 3 minutes in length, there are typically 300-500 words, compared with less than 100 words in the video description. A example of this differences is shown in Figure 2. **2.** This approach ensures that speech sequences and image sequences are chronologically aligned, and the temporal association between the text and image can be effectively encoded in the multimodal

embedding. **3.** Despite the advances in machine translation, the vast divergence between one language and another can still lead to inevitable cases of less accurate translation, even for human interpretation. In our method, through native word embedding models, we can bypass the language gaps and encode multilingual texts into language feature vectors with unified size.

With features vectors for imagery and text at hand, the next critical problem is how to construct an effective metric to calculate the semantic similarity between multimodal data, in our case is the text features and visual features. Before us, there are merely research in multimodal learning from the inter-cultural perspective. One popular solution is to learn a mapping to project the language features and visual features into a joint embedding space, where vectors from various modalities can be compared side by side. Previously, there exists work approaching this problem by learning a linear transformation [48] or using ranking loss [47, 14]. For each image in the training step, they use a single-directional ranking loss that applies a margin-based penalty to any incorrect annotations which are ranked higher than the correct one. Later work proposed bi-directional ranking loss to add additional guarantee for the rank of the sentences instead of individual words, where correct sentences should be ranked higher than the incorrect ones. Although the ranking loss approach is proved to perform well, it requires additional negative sampling to matching the positive sampling, which is not suitable for our cross-cultural analysis task. Another alternative is canonical analysis based embeddings, which search for linear (CCA) [16] or non-linear (KCCA) [26] projections to maximize the correlation between features from different modalities. Followed by recent work in [40], we propose to use CCA to construct the joint latent space for our cultural analysis task. We assume that we have two pairs of image-text feature vectors from two different cultures, and we aim to find a joint latent space where the projections of the two image-text pairs lead to the maximized correlation.

The main contributions of our work can be summarized as follows:

- We reproduce the results of prior research in [40], which aims at detecting cultural-specific tags in several international events (AirAsia, Ebola, etc.). We rewrite and reorganize a majority portion of the code to best fit the current DL frameworks and website APIs.
- We study the user preferences of mainstream video sharing websites in the US and China, which helps us to design an automatic pipeline to target and crawl news videos from web archive for different countries. Since web-archived videos usually contains considerable amount of noisy information, we construct a simple but effective filtering approach based on the statistical blacklist and whitelist to clean the datasets.
- We exploit several potential drawbacks of the previous method, illustrating why the original speech is preferred in the cross-cultural comparison task. As an improvement, we propose to utilize chronological ordering as the linkage of speech and image and use native language embedding models to bridge the multilingual gap and bypass the error in translation.
- We investigate the performance of language and visual models and propose to replace them with more recent frameworks. Furthermore, we propose several ways for future

improvement, considering alternatives of CCAs for constructing the latent embedding space and more efficient encoding of the temporal information.

2 Related Work

2.1 Video Analysis and Image-Text Matching

Nevertheless, analyzing videos solely based on visual features can be less effective. As an example, for news videos covering the same international news, news imagery can be shared by multiple media channels, where the speech and comments play a more crucial role to determine the cultural preference. In some scenarios, it is of great interest to know the relationship between images and its descriptions. The image-text matching task is later proposed with an emphasis on retrieval of the most relevant text given an image, or finding the most appropriate image given the text descriptions. Completing the matching task usually involves two components [43]: (1) A shared embedding space for to represent language and visual features (2) A metric to fuse the features in the embedding space and calculate the similarity score. The proposed methods achieve impressive accuracy in MSCOCO dataset, but it is designed to operate in single image and text description instead of consecutive frames and speech sequence in videos which generally have a much longer duration.

2.2 Multimodal Representation Learning

CCA-based Method A popular baseline in multimodal representation learning is the Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA), which constructs a linear transformation to maximize the correlation between two projected vectors from the two views [16]. As an improvement, a kernelizable, non-linear version of CCA (KCCA) is then introduced in [26], which aims at finding the maximized correlated non-linear projection in the reproducing kernel Hilbert space. Not limited to its simplicity, CCA works surprisingly well for most language and image embedding task [25], capable of competing with many state-of-the-art methods if the multimodal input features are properly generated.

The main shortcoming of CCA and KCCA is its high memory cost and testing speed. Upon testing, it is required to load the entire dataset to compute the covariance matrix, which consumes a considerable amount of time for inference. To alleviate that problem, a deep learning paralleled version of CCA (DCCA) is introduced in [1], which does not require an inner product and does not require to reference the training data in the testing step. As a parametric method, its training speech scales with the dataset and inference speech is always constant. This property provides DCCA a dominating advantage when handling large-scale dataset. Additionally, the proposed DCCA framework in [1] includes a non-saturating sigmoid function based on the cube root.

Apart from DCCA, there also exist other deep learning variations. Wang proposed deep variational canonical correlation analysis (DVCCA) [45], which adds a lower bound of the data likelihood by parameterizing the posterior probability of the latent variables. Deep generalized canonical correlation analysis (DGCCA) is proposed by Benton [3], which is a deep version of GCCA [11] and targets

at learning non-linear transformation of an arbitrary number of views. Unlike standard CCA, the number of views in the generalized version is not fixed thus suitable for multimodal learning of many views.

Ranking-based Method The ranking loss is a widely used technique for optimizing many multimodal embedding models. Early research work like WSABIE [48] and DeVISE [14] applied single-directional ranking loss in the training step of the linear transformation for visual and language features. Both framework also introduces a margin-based penalty to any incorrect annotations when get ranked higher than correct ones when describing an image. There are also work associating the bi-directional ranking loss, which adds the missing link in the opposite direction [22, 38]. Such design enforces to a stronger guarantee to the ranking order: for any annotation, the corresponding image should get ranked higher than those unrelated images.

Classification-based Method Learning the similarity between multimodal features can also be formulated as a typical classification problem. For example, given a visual feature x and a language feature y , the core idea is to answer whether or not x and y matches each other [19]. Similar to many classification tasks, there is also a soft assignment of the matching decision [19], which includes a softmax function to predict whether the input image and question match with each other. A two-branch network is later introduced using classification loss to match visual and lingual features for zero-shot learning [36]. To train a similarity measurement network (as a branch of the two-branch network), Wang [43] proposed to use the non-exclusive logistic regression loss to replace in the ranking loss, treating each phrase-regio pair as an independent binary classification problem.

2.3 Multilingual Query and Cultural Differences

Despite the exponential growth rate of the online social media contents, the query method of the large volume of multimedia data is still unequally developed. Research shows that people tend to annotate the multimedia sources by their native languages and it is difficult for ordinary people to conduct a cross-lingual query in the multimedia effectively. Not only does the differences between different languages forms such boundary, but also the divergent user habits and preferences for increases the cultural gap. For example, when searching for news video covering an international event, US audiences tend to find such video on a media channel (e.g., CNN) on YouTube. However, in China, people tend to go to localized video sharing website (e.g., Bilibili or iQiYi) in search of such news videos. In real-world cases, most people are unfamiliar about such user habit in another country or culture, thus leads to low efficacy to conduct the multilingual query.

Previously, there also existed some research work in the multilingual query. Popescu [34] first propose a multilingual dataset on FLICKR image (MLFLICKR Dataset), which builds a cross-lingual query platform on FLICKR. First, they translate the query into different languages and further verified the return results by determining whether or not they are visually similar. Bergsma later observed that users tend to naturally tag their images when posting online [4]. The tags that are used initially

provides the perfect link between the language part and the visual part. This discovery enables them to generate tag translations by finding tag-image pairs that share a high level of similarity in the corresponding visual part. Bao [2] proposed Omnipedia, which is a unified framework to retrieve the Wikipedia insights from another language. The contents retrieved includes text, images, hyperlinks and videos in Wikipedia in 25 languages. Clough [10] indicated that for cross-language image retrieval task, the actual language used in textual tags should not affect the overall accuracy of the retrieval. It was also suggested in [10] that users from different cultures tended to spread their attention differently when viewing the image associated with texts of their native language. Similar research conducted in [13] revealed more cultural differences in the image tagging task: US people tend to assign the first tag to the primary object to the image, while Chinese people are more likely to assign the first tag describing the overall relationship between objects and the atmosphere of the image.

2.4 Multimodal News Event Analysis

For news event tracking and analysis, there exist a bunch of work relying on multimodal features. Early work in [49] proposed a constraint-driven co-clustering algorithm (CCC), which utilized the near-duplicate key-frame constraints on top of the text, to mine topic-related stories and the outliers. Li [28] proposed a multimodal topic and-or graph (MT-AOG) to jointly represent textual and visual elements of news stories and their latent topic structures. Their framework is designed to describe the hierarchical composition of news topics by semantic elements like people, places involved, and model contextual relationships between elements in the hierarchy. Jou [21] took a step further, extracting who, what, when, and where from news data. Wang [46] proposed to integrate multimodal features using the conditional random field (CRF) to segment the news stories. Tsai [41] exploited background statics from YouTube for news event understanding, like the metadata, video category, location, comments and user preference to establish a PARAFAC co-clustering model and mine the latent factors.

In social event analysis, Cai [7] proposed a spatial-temporal multimodal TwitterLDA model which uses five Twitter cues including text, image, location, timestamp, hashtag and modeled topics as location-specific distributions. Chen [9] created a Visual-Emotional LDA (VELDA) model which associates images and texts both visually and emotionally for image retrieval. Up until now, few work [40] considers cultural differences in multimodal news analysis, and very few of them explicitly model the temporal information in their framework.

3 Data Preparation

In this section, we will discuss how to prepare the datasets for the cultural analysis task. Before us, there is few publicly available datasets dedicated for cross-cultural news video analysis, and the only relevant dataset gathered by Tsai in [40] has been gradually outdated. Thus, we decide to collect a new dataset based on recent international news events for our further analysis.

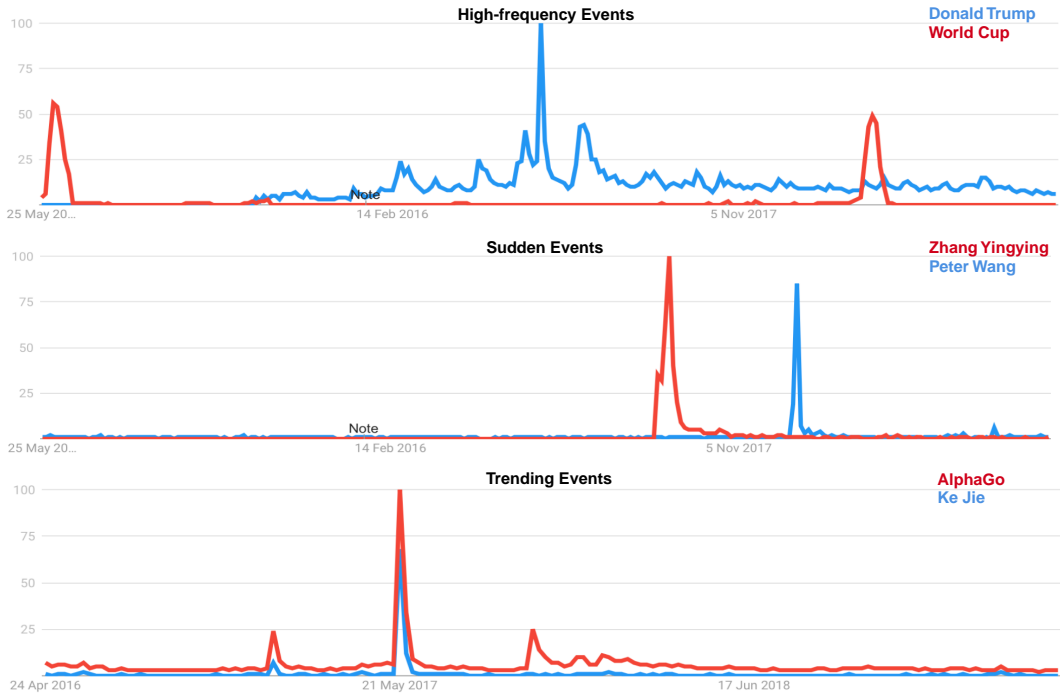


Figure 3: Examples of the three types of international news event: For each type, we use the name of person or the topic as the search keyword in google trend, and we plot the magnitude of the attention each event received in the vertical axis. It can be observed that for the **High-frequency Events** type, such as ‘Donald Trump’ and ‘World Cup’, the search popularity remains very high for a long time duration (usually more than three months). For the **Sudden Events** type, there is a sudden peak of popularity while the rest of the time the popularity is close to zero, which is ideal for our framework to conduct culture analysis based on the near-duplicate frames. The **Trending Events** type performs similar to the **Sudden Events** type, except that it might have several peaks when public exposure draws increasing attentions from the news media.

3.1 Which News Event?

Before start gathering the news videos, the first problem is: which news event should be chosen for our cross cultural analysis task? Although international news get widely covered across the globe, not all news event is fit for our task. Since we need imagery as the key to retrieve the most relevant cultural-specific textual tag, we expect the new coverage in both culture shares a large portion of the similar images, such as iconic photos of a specific person.

We use Google Trend data to narrow down our search. We use the top 100 search in different regions of the world to consider which kind of event is proper for our cultural analysis task. We identify three types of international news events:

1. **High-frequency Events:** The person or topic of the event is frequently mentioned, in which case the person is highly possible to be a public figure. Since the person or the topic frequently appears under the spotlight, there could be thousands of images identified as correlated, where a near-duplicate frame is challenging to find.

2. **Sudden Events:** This type of events usually occur suddenly and unexpectedly, in which the person or topic in the event is not frequent in previous news report. An example of this types of events could be a natural disaster or a human-made tragedy. Since the person of topic is merely reported before the event, there doesn't exist a vast choice of the image in the news video, where a certain portion of the images are similar or shared.
3. **Trending Events:** This type of events are usually about some previously unpopular domains for the main public, such as scientific and medical research, which means that the images before the event merely appears as headlines of the news media. The event is usually an exhibition, a game, or an IPO which gains significant public attention. Since the person of topic is merely reported before the event, there doesn't exist a vast choice of the image in the news video, where a certain portion of the images are similar or shared.

Some examples of the three types of events are shown in Figure 3. In the three types of event, the later two types could be ideal for our analysis, considering the near-duplicate images are easy to find. For the **Trending Events** type, we choose the 'AlphaGo vs. Human' and 'Chinese Moon Rover' events as the target for our analysis. For the **Sudden Events** type, we choose the 'Thailand Cave Rescue', 'Florida High School Shooting', and 'UIUC Zhang Yingying Missing' as the target for our analysis. Note that some of the technical parts of the crawling and refinement will be omitted, and this section only serves as an overview of our data preparation process.

3.2 News Videos Collection

User Patterns In the original work carried out in [40], Tsai proposed to collect news videos in the US and China, using YouTube and Baidu search respectively. Currently, in the US, YouTube has over 170 million users, and over 300 million videos are being watched every day. There are plenty of well-known mass media account registered on YouTube, keeping a daily routine of uploading news videos covering domestic and international events. For US audience in the cultural study, YouTube could be the largest and most convenient source for us to collect news videos.

In China, the top popular video sharing websites include Tencent, Youku, iQiYi and Bilibili. The operation pattern of Tencent, Youku, iQiYi is closer to traditional content sharing website, whereas Bilibili focuses more on young-age users, with particular emphasis on social interaction within its user group. There are in total of over 600 million users of the four major video sharing websites, where Tencent has the largest user community, and Bilibili offers the most original video contents. Similar to YouTube, there also exists some media accounts on these mainstream video sharing platforms, which includes mass media accounts covering all domestic and international news event and smaller media accounts with the special focus on a specific group of users sharing the same interest.

Availability and Crawling Difficulty YouTube provides user-friendly APIs for people to download and analyze the videos, metadata, comments, and statistics. As for the video sharing websites in China, only Bilibili provides developer APIs similar to YouTube, while the rest of the sites can only

be crawled by manually crafted downloaders. We find that the design of the other websites updates frequently so that the legacy web crawler used by Tsai in [40] has been outdated and does not work for concurrent website layouts. Fortunately, there exists a bunch of helpful off-the-shelf third-party packages that can be used for spidering videos and metadata from these sites [51]. Also, utilizing a search engine to find Chinese news videos by keywords can also be possible, but the source of the videos can be quite broad and a unified API or toolkit supporting all the websites is still absent. In our case, we decide first to write query script on the four major websites to obtain the URL of each video, and then we pass the collected URLs to a third-party toolkit [51] to finish the downloading process. As for the video description, we also write a customized script for manual download from the four websites.

Search Query In our initial trial, we directly use ‘AlphaGo News’ and its corresponding Chinese version as the keyword for search in both English and Chinese websites. The returned results include both news coverage and the live videos of the games where AlphaGo competed with Go players named Lee Sedol and Ke Jie. We then limit the length of the video to be less than 5 minutes, expecting the modified search query can filter out the live game videos. This simple modification works well for the top returned results, where the search engines in YouTube or Chinese websites listed them as the ‘most relevant’ results. However, we still observed some unmatched video as we enlarge the query range from 500 to 5000 and allow the websites listed those ‘less relevant’ videos. To refine the search query, we crawled the video descriptions for the top 100 videos and collected the most frequent words into a whitelist, and we also established a blacklist containing the unique words in the unmatched videos. Each time we conduct a query on a specific website, we use both the whitelist and blacklist to check the description of the returned video and decide whether or not to filter this video. With this strategy, it can automatically filter out most of the unmatched videos. After that, we also conduct a manual check of the video topics to ensure that relevance of the downloaded videos.

3.3 Data Preprocessing

Speech Recognition With source files of the downloaded videos, the next step is to convert videos files into time series of image and text. We convert all the downloaded video file into mp4 standard and extract its audio file of wav format. The next step is to obtain the transcripts of the audio files and split them into separate words according to standard NLP pipeline. Although we find that some videos indeed comes with the original subtitles, the majority of the downloaded videos do not come with audio text. To solve that problem, we propose to use Google’s speech recognition model to convert the wav files into text files. The speech recognition service supports more than 20 languages, delivering very high-quality recognition and robust to different levels of noise. We find that for the news audio, a majority of the audio is recorded in the newsroom or public interview, which leads to impressive accuracy of recognition in both Chinese and English. For text files obtained, we remove all the boilerplate or other linguistically insignificant content including the name entities.



Figure 4: Near-duplicate keyframes across cultures with different texts. The upper pair is the near-duplicate keyframes about the AirAsia flight news. The lower pair is the near-duplicate keyframes about the AlphaGo vs.Human. We also includes the translated English version (from Chinese) from auto translator for comparison. It can be noticable that the translation has some lsiht issue, such as tranlate Chines word ‘diliutian(day 6)’ to ‘6th’, omitting the ‘tian’ character.

Word Tokenization The job of tokenization, or word segmentation is rather straightforward for English, where it is mainly based on the spacing and punctuation. However, for languages does not require spacing between words, word segmentation can be a challenge. In Chinese, in a long sentence, there might be several possible ways for segmentation, and the final choice largely depends on the semantic meaning of the sentence. There also exists several popular methods for the task of Chinese word segmentation. Stanford Word Segmentor [18] supports multilingual word segmentation, including segmentation options for Chinese. There also exists Chinese word segmenter [8] making use of lexicon features. With external lexicon features, the segmenter segments more consistently and also achieves higher F measure when we train and test on the bakeoff data. We also test the performance of the news segmentation on the neural based method [6], and we find that it outperforms the former two methods, especially for those unusual word pairings and trendy words. Additionally, we remove some of the name entities for both of the Chinese and English words, because the rare name entities are usually poorly encoded in most standard word2vec models.

Stemming and Lemmatization We use the NLTK package to conduct the stemming and lemmatization for English. Because Chinese words do not have such variations like English, words after tokenization can be directly used.

Chronological Image-Text Pair We use OpenCV package to decompose the video into a sequence of consecutive frames. According to the timestamp in the audio transcript, we use a sliding window of five seconds to create an image-text pair. For each time interval of five seconds, we uniformly sampled n frames to be the imagery, in association with the texts in the transcripts to construct an image-text pair. Such an approach ensures that the imagery and text are chronologically linked

word	frequency	word	frequency	word	frequency	word	frequency
subscribe	70	twitter	67	instagram	63	twitter	24
vice	60	facebook	54	http	51	follow	15
here	46	visit	36	more	31	bussiness	10

Table 1: Top blacklist words and their corresponding frequencies on the ‘AlphgoGo vs. Human’ datasets. We manually identify some templates advertisement text sequences from the video description and calculate their corresponding frequencies based on the collected advertisement sequences.

Subscribe to France 24 now :<http://f24.my/youtubeEN>FRANCE 24 live news stream:
all the latest news 24/7<http://f24.my/YTliveEN>A Google-developed supercomputer bested
a South Korean Go grandmaster again Thursday, taking a commanding 2-0 lead in a
five-game series that has become a stunning global debut for a new style of "intuitive"
artificial intelligence (AI).Visit our website :<http://www.france24.com>Subscribe to our YouTube
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欢迎加入更多更详细的11图攻略尽在碧蓝WIKI！

Figure 5: Example illustrating the challenges of noisy data: Both the English and Chinese text sequences are crawled for the ‘AlphaGo vs. Human’ news event. On the top is the description of an English video crawled from YouTube, where the description is not informative as others but contains several links of advertisements. On the bottom is the description of a news video crawled from Bilibili, which is totally irrelevant with our topic but it falsely appears in the results of the search query because the uploader is named as ‘alphago’.

together. If there is no text appearing on the transcript for that 5 seconds interval, we drop the frames and jump to the next word in the transcript, and use its timestamp as the beginning anchor of the next interval. The total number of available image-text pairs largely determines by the word distribution in the transcript. On average, for a news video of 5-minute duration, there will be more than 300 image-text pairs available.

Near-Duplicate Keyframe Pair To prepare for the training and testing set for our task, we need to find the near-duplicate keyframe in news video from another culture. We establish the set of the near-duplicate keyframes by first selecting an image-text pair in culture A, and then we conduct a greedy search for all the image-text pair in culture B to find the most similar frame. For example, in the AlphaGo vs. Human event, many news videos in the US and China share a similar keyframe, showing the interview of the Go player after the game versus AlphaGo, which can be counted as near-duplicate frames. In our design, we calculate the cosine similarity between visual feature vectors as the distance measurement. We keep only the cross-cultures pairs whose distance is below a threshold τ . This method works quite well over 90% accuracy. After automatic detection, we conduct a manual double check on the keyframes pair to ensure there are no incorrect pairs in our dataset.

3.4 Data Cleaning and Filtering

Noisy Information As we want to scale up the quantity of videos gathered for each news events, the quality of the news videos remains a problem. For a search using keyword about a news event on video sharing websites such as YouTube and Bilibili, the query results are usually sorted according to

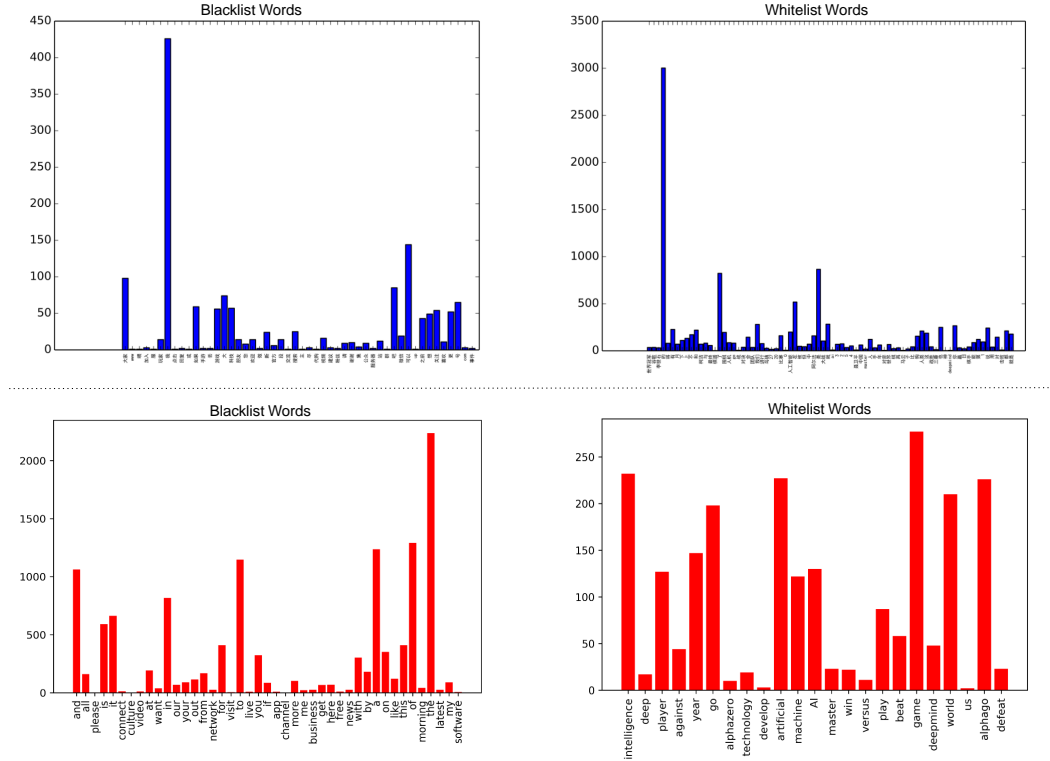


Figure 6: Occurrences of the blacklist words and whitelist words in Chinese (blue) and English (red) on ‘AlphaGo vs. Human Event’. The blacklist words and whitelist words are generated from descriptions of the gathered videos. With the two lists at hand, we calculate the frequency of each word based on the transcripts in the entire dataset. It can be observed from the ticks in the x-axis that the blacklist indeed contains words closely correlated with advertisements, such as *join*, *business*, *free*, *follow*, *please*, *welcome* (translated from Chinese). The whitelist words are closely correlated with the topic, where *alphago*, *play*, *win*, *AI*, *game*, *word champion* (translated from Chinese) are with high frequency.

their relevance/viewing times. In most case, the first several page of results will be of higher quality (videos published by large media such as CNN/South China Morning Post), while the remaining results usually contains with more noise (videos published by individual uploaders). Noisy news videos often contain information irrelevant to the query, which could be advertisement or coverage of other topics. Since there are still significant amount of valuable feedback in the lower-ranked videos of our query, we come out several ways to filter out the noisy videos in the data cleaning process. Typical examples of the challenges from the noisy data is illustrated in the Figure 7.

Targeting Blacklist Words Advertisements can be identified by some frequently used advertising words (in most case, to advertise its own video channel or sell products). Considering we have both descriptions and transcripts at hand, where the text sequence containing advertisement in the description is relatively easy to identify, we decide to construct a ‘ads word bank’ by manually picking out the suspicious text sequences of advertisements. Then we calculate the frequency of words appearing in the ‘ads word bank’ and consider the Top-K of them as the K blacklist words. Empirically, since the descriptions is short, manually selecting such sequences can be done in short

time and our further test shows that the ‘ads word bank’ from 300 videos can already generates good blacklist candidates.

Targeting Whitelist Words Despite the ads word can indeed help eliminate the low-quality news videos of advertising tendency, there still exists some noisy videos which is irrelevant with our topic (One example is shown as the Chinese case in Figure 7). Thus, we further need a whitelist in order to ensure that the video content and our topic is closely related. Similar to blacklist, we starts from the description to manually construct an ‘essential word bank’, using the remaining sequences in the description after the ads sequences have been picked out. Then we calculate the frequency of words appearing in the ‘key word bank’ and consider the Top-K of them as the K whitelist words.

Removing Frequent Words After gathering the whitelist and blacklist for our topic, we first need to eliminate the frequent words in both lists (such as prepositions: *of, with, about...*). The frequent words are usually universally frequently used in the language, regardless of the context and topic. Here we conduct a simple word count process based on the entire descriptions and choose the Top-K frequent words, and we remove these words from both the blacklist and whitelist.

Algorithm 1: Black/White-List Joint Filtering Algorithm

Input video description set D , advertisement word bank $M = \emptyset$, key word bank $N = \emptyset$,

blacklist $\mathcal{B} = \emptyset$, whitelist $\mathcal{W} = \emptyset$, blacklist threshold α , whitelist threshold β ;

Output decision (as string) for each video;

for $d \in D$ **do**

select advertisement sequence d_A from d ;
 $M = M \cup d_A$;
 $N = N \cup (d - d_A)$;

end

$\mathcal{B} = \text{Top-K}(M)$, $\mathcal{W} = \text{Top-K}(N)$;

set $a = 0, b = 0, c = 0$;

for $d \in D$ **do**

for $w \in d$ **do**
 if $w \in \mathcal{B}$ **then**
 $a = a + 1$;
 else if $w \in \mathcal{W}$ **then**
 $b = b + 1$;
 $c = c + 1$;
end
if $a/c > \alpha$ **then**
 return ‘advertising’;
if $b/c < \beta$ **then**
 return ‘irrelevant’;
return ‘normal’;

end

BW-List Joint Filtering Filtering is conducted based on the blacklist (tendency towards ads) and whitelist (measure of relevance). For each video description sequence, we check its IoU (intersection of union) with the blacklist and whitelist respectively. Two thresholds for the IoU are set as hyper-parameters. If the IoU of the description with the blacklist is above the threshold, we mark the video as ‘advertising’. Likewise, if the IoU of the description with the whitelist is below the threshold, we mark the video as ‘irrelevant’. For the remaining video neither marked as ‘advertising’ nor ‘irrelevant’, we mark it as ‘normal’. We only use the videos marked as ‘normal’ for further analysis. Since the thresholds are hyper-parameters, we will discuss the tweaking of the two threshold in the experiment section.

3.5 Overview of Cultural Datasets

In the previous work conducted by Tasi [40], three datasets are proposed, based on the international news event Ebola Virus, AirAsia Flight 8501 and Zika Virus. We additionally several international news events to study cultural difference towards various topics. All of the four news events are long-termed (2 months to 1 year).

AirAsia Flight 8501 There are in total 1000 videos and metadata, in approximately 1:1 (China: US) ratio, in a date range from 12/28/14 to 01/15/15. In total 4300 keyframes of the US and 2000 keyframes of China are available.

Ebola Virus There are in total 3100 videos and metadata, in approximately 1:3 (Europe: US) ratio, in a date range from 8/21/14 to 11/30/14. In total 27000 keyframes of the US and 9000 keyframes of Europe are available.

Zika Virus There are in total 1700 videos and metadata, in approximately 7:10 (South Africa: US) ratio, in a date range from 12/01/15 to 02/15/16. In total 61000 keyframes of US and 44000 keyframes of South Africa are available.

AlphaGo vs. Human There are in total 1000 videos and metadata, in approximately 6:4 (China: US) ratio, in a date range from 03/09/16 to 03/23/17. In total 2500 keyframes of the US and 2000 keyframes of China are available.

Thailand Cave Rescue There are in total 400 videos and metadata, in approximately 1:1 (China: US) ratio, in a date range from 06/23/18 to 09/01/18. In total 1000 keyframes of the US and 600 keyframes of China are available.

Chinese Moon Rover Yutu There are in total 400 videos and metadata, in approximately 1:1 (China: US) ratio, in a date range from 01/11/10 to 03/01/19. In total 600 keyframes of the US and 700 keyframes of China are available.

Florida High School Shooting There are in total 600 videos and metadata, in approximately 3:7 (China: US) ratio, in a date range from 02/14/18 to 05/01/18. In total 1500 keyframes of the US and 700 keyframes of China are available.

UIUC Zhang Yingying Kidnapping There are in total 500 videos and metadata, in approximately 6:4 (China: US) ratio, in a date range from 09/07/17 to 06/01/18. In total 1000 keyframes of the US and 1200 keyframes of China are available.

4 Methods

4.1 Problem Formulation

In this work, we focus on a special type of multimodal retrieval task: image-text retrieval in the multi-cultural setting. As introduced in the previous section, we use the timestamp in audio and video to create multiple text-image pairs, where the texts and images in each pair are temporally linked together. Each text-image pair contains a text sequence and an image sequence, and both sequences may contain an arbitrary number of texts or images.

For a news video v^c from a specific cultural c , we first create multiple image-text pairs. In each valid s second time interval, we define a image-text pair $p^c : (I^c, T^c)$. The image sequence I^c stands for n uniformly sampled frames in that time interval. The text sequence T^c stands for words within that time interval. We use I_k^c to denote the k -th frame of the image sequence, and we use T_k^c to denote the k -th word of the text sequence. Note that the length of the image sequence I^c is set to be n , the actual number of n can be manually determined (in our case, we uniformly sample 10 frames within that time interval), and the length of the text sequence T^c depends on the speech rate and actual situation in the original news video. In the real-world case, the length of T^c is usually around 10 to 20 words.

We formulate the our cross cultural image-text retrieval task as follows: given a image-text pair $p^m : (I^m, T^m)$ from culture m , our goal is to detect the most suitable text tag t^m from another culture n to describe the image sequence I^m .

4.2 Intra-Modal Feature Extraction

The intuitive idea is to convert the images sequence I^c into a visual feature vector $\mathcal{F}_v(I^c)$, where \mathcal{F}_v denotes the visual feature extractor. Similarly, we need to convert text sequence T^c into a language feature vector $\mathcal{F}_l(T^c)$, where \mathcal{F}_l denotes the textual feature extractor. With two intermediate feature vectors in their modalities, we aim to bridge the gap between modalities and learn the transformation functions to map the visual features and text features into a joint embedding space \mathbb{S} . In the embedding space \mathbb{S} , cross-modal features can be compared by their corresponding projections onto that space $\mathcal{F}_v(I^c) \rightarrow \mathbb{S}$, and $\mathcal{F}_l(T^c) \rightarrow \mathbb{S}$. For simplicity, we abuse the notation a little bit and use the right arrow \rightarrow to denote projection function $proj_{\mathbb{S}}$.

Visual Features The most common choice for visual embedding is to use the feature maps from the last few layers of many advanced image classification models. A bunch of previous work [40, 43, 41, 44] used the second last layer of VGG-19 or VGG-16 model [37], which is a fully connected layer. The standard procedure is to use weights pretrained on large-scale image classification dataset. For each image, it is proposed first resize the image to 256×256 and randomly cropped in ten different ways into 224×224 : ten four corners, the center, the mirrored version by flipping the x-axis. The classification network encodes the inputted image, and the output dimension of the two FC layers on the image side are 2048 and 512.

In order to obtain better quality visual features specific for our task, we made two modifications: 1. We use more advanced classification architecture Inception-ResNet proposed in [39] to replace the older VGG model. This architecture entails residue block to link the high-level and low-level features and is proved to have a higher score in the visual feature extraction task. 2. We propose to enlarge the spatial size of the image to 512×512 , which is the image size in ImageNet. We think in the image-text retrieval task across culture, larger image size ensures the near-duplicate keyframes to be closer to entirely-duplicate, which can lead to more convincing performance for learning the joint embedding space. For an image sequence of n frames, we flatten n feature vectors into the averaged feature vector for simplicity. We find that for short duration of the time interval, averaging the visual feature vectors generally will not jeopardize the performance of feature embedding. In the near-duplicate keyframe detection task, even if we use averaged feature vector, the accuracy of detection is nearly the same as using single feature vector. ,

Textual Features Usually, there exists a language gap between two cultures (e.g., the US and China), and how to conduct multilingual text embedding should be carefully considered. Intuitively, we can first translate the texts from all other languages towards the main language a , and then we can use the text embedding model for language a to handle all the scenarios. In previous work of Tsai [40], all the non-English texts are first translated into English, and then she used an English word2vec model to obtain the textual features for all languages. Although using machine translation can be an effective method to bridge the multilingual gap, error in translation can never be avoidable. There are always difficult words for a language translation model, where it cannot find direct word-to-word translation but using word-to-phrase instead. In order to conduct better image-text retrieval, we propose to use multilingual language embedding models instead of translating other languages into English.

We propose to use fastText [15, 32] to conduct native language embedding task. This framework supports multilingual text embedding for 157 languages, where the model for each language is trained on large-scale corpus like Wikipedia. To validate its performance, we select the Chinese language as the testbed to compare the performance with other state-of-the-art methods [27]. The fastText model works surprisingly well, which is close to the other models. The language features generated by fastText is the feature vector of 256 entries. For a text sequence containing n words, we flatten n feature vectors into the averaged feature vector.

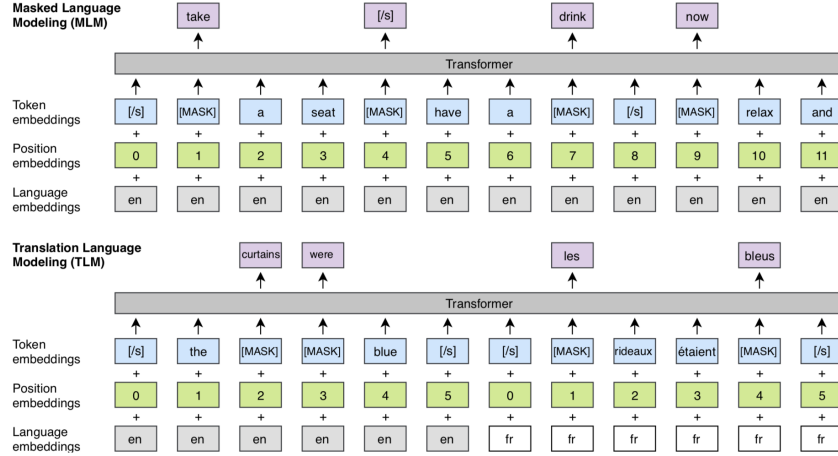


Figure 7: Example of the Masked Language Modeling used in BERT’s [12] training regime. Illustration is adopted from the original paper. Unlike the translation language modeling task, some words of a sentence are randomly masked out, leaving the network to predict the left and right missing words based on the remaining words. Note that the notion of ‘left’ and ‘right’ can be actually far away words, which gives the model the capability to capture the contextual meaning of the sentence.

Contextualize Text Features The training of word2vec doesn’t consider much of the contextual information, which means word2vec might be an effective embedding for words of short phrases but not suitable for long sentences. As its improvement, LSTM and Transformer-based model is later proposed, such as BERT [12], which is a state-of-the-art model for many language tasks. BERT’s key technical innovation is applying the bidirectional training of Transformer, a popular attention model, to language modelling. This is in contrast to previous efforts which looked at a text sequence either from left to right or combined left-to-right and right-to-left training. BERT details a novel technique named Masked Language Model (MLM) which allows bidirectional training in models in which it was previously impossible. As opposed to directional models, which read the text input sequentially (left-to-right or right-to-left), the Transformer encoder reads the entire sequence of words at once. Therefore it is considered bidirectional. This characteristic allows the model to learn the context of a word based on all of its surrounding words.

4.3 CCA-Based Multimodal Embeddings

Canonical Correlation Analysis To start with, we consider a two-culture setting: there are two cultures m and n . Within each culture we have many many image-text pairs, here we denote two sets of image-text pairs as P^m and P^n , where $p^m = (I^m, T^m)$, $p^m \in P^m$ and $p^n = (I^n, T^n)$, $p^n \in P^n$. Given the original image sequence I^m and text sequence T^m , we use the two feature extractors to convert them into visual-textual feature pairs $f^m : (\mathcal{F}_v(I^m), \mathcal{F}_l(T^m))$ and $f^n : (\mathcal{F}_v(I^n), \mathcal{F}_l(T^n))$, where \mathcal{F}_v denotes the visual feature extractor and \mathcal{F}_l denotes the textual feature extractor.

We assume that the I^m and I^n are near-duplicate keyframe pairs sharing similar imagery, which is denoted as (I^n, I^m) . Then we extend the near-duplicate keyframe pairs to its corresponding texts

$\{(I^m, T^m), (I^n, T^n)\}$. Our goal is to find a joint embedding space \mathbb{S} where the projection of the two pairs can be best associated.

If use correlation of the projected vectors to represent the association, the method is actually equal to the design of canonical correlation analysis (CCA) [16]. Given two sets of random vectors, CCA aims at find a linear combination of the two vectors $\{v_1, v_2\}$ to represent the joint embedding space \mathbb{S} , and the correlation of the projected vectors should be maximized:

$$\operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbb{S}} \operatorname{corr}(\operatorname{proj}_{\mathbb{S}}v_1, \operatorname{proj}_{\mathbb{S}}v_2), \mathbb{S} \in \operatorname{span}(v_1, v_2)$$

Two-Way Embeddings Assume that we have two near duplicate images sand we find their corresponding texts $\{(I^m, T^m), (I^n, T^n)\}$. To apply CCA on our cross culture analysis task, $\{(I^m, T^m), (I^n, T^n)\}$ can be further represented as the three ordinary pairs that exploit already known image-image and image-text matching:

$$\{I^m, T^m\}, \{I^n, T^n\}, \{I^m, I^n\}$$

The former two pairs indicate the linkage inside culture m and culture n , and the third pair indicate that I^m and I^n should be near-duplicated. We use the three pairs as input to CCA.

Let $X \in \mathbb{R}^{D_x}$ be the collection of the left elements of those three types pairs, and let $Y \in \mathbb{R}^{D_y}$ be the collection of the right elements of those three types of pairs. The objective of CCA is to find $u_x \in \mathbb{R}^{D_x}$ and $u_y \in \mathbb{R}^{D_y}$ such that the projection of X, Y onto u_x and u_y are maximally correlated:

$$\begin{aligned} (u_x^*, u_y^*) &= \operatorname{argmax}_{u_x, u_y} \operatorname{corr}(u_x^T X, u_y^T Y) \\ &= \operatorname{argmax}_{u_x, u_y} \frac{u_x^T \sum_{xy} u_y}{\sqrt{u_x^T \sum_{xx} u_x u_y^T \sum_{yy} u_y}} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where \sum_{xy} is the covariance matrix between the two views, and \sum_{xx} and \sum_{yy} is the covariance matrix within each view. For CCA problem, the optimal k -dimensional projection mappings are provided as a closed form solution by the rank- k singular value decomposition (SVD) of the $D_x \times D_y$ matrix $\sum_{xx}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \sum_{xy} \sum_{yy}^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, as proved by Johnson in [20].

Deep CCA The major drawback of CCA is that it needs to store all of the training set while testing, which costs a significant amount of memory. Another problem is that CCA only applies linear combination thus performs poorly on two vectors with a non-linear relationship. To alleviate such problems, deep canonical correlation analysis (DCCA) [1] is proposed to capture the hidden non-linear relationship of the data. DCCA also does not require the training set upon testing, which also improves the time consumption of single testing to constant. In the DCCA model, we aim at learning the two branches of deep neural networks f and g to extract features from view X and view Y respectively. The two-branch neural network is constrained by its final objective function, which

maximizes the correlation between the outputs of the two-branch network. The objective function can be expressed as:

$$(\mathbf{W}_f^*, \mathbf{W}_g^*, u_f^*, u_g^*) = \underset{u_f^*, u_g^*}{\operatorname{argmax}} \operatorname{corr}(u_f^T f(X), u_g^T g(Y))$$

where \mathbf{W}_f^* and \mathbf{W}_g^* denotes the optimal weights learned by network f and g . Such multivariate optimization problem has no closed form solution, but the optimal solution can be approximated by gradient descent approach. The weights \mathbf{W}_f^* and \mathbf{W}_g^* can be trained following standard deep learning pipeline, using backward propagation of the loss term.

For our task, we do not need to train the two embedding branch network f and g from scratch, which directly transforms the original image/text data to the shared embedding space. The reason for not doing that is mainly because model visual and language features explicitly by existing expert networks (e.g., VGG and word2vec) can achieve better results for feature representation. Instead, we propose to utilize the expert embedding frameworks to first extract visual and language features, then we pass the intermediate features to f and g , and learn the joint embedding. The language and the visual expert network can fully utilize the large-scale dataset (e.g., ImageNet and multilingual Wikipedia text dataset) and benefited by the high-quality features using transfer learning. The modified objective function for our task can be expressed as:

$$(\mathbf{W}_f^*, \mathbf{W}_g^*, u_f^*, u_g^*) = \underset{u_f^*, u_g^*}{\operatorname{argmax}} \operatorname{corr}(u_f^T f(\mathcal{F}_v(I^c)), u_g^T g(\mathcal{F}_l(T^c)))$$

The \mathcal{F}_l denotes the expert language feature extractor, which is fastText in our case. The \mathcal{F}_v denotes the expert visual feature extractor, which is Inception-ResNet in our case. The $\mathcal{F}_v(I^c)$ and $\mathcal{F}_l(T^c)$ denotes the intermediate features outputted by the expert feature extractors. When training, we load the pertained weights of \mathcal{F}_v and \mathcal{F}_l and only update weights for f and g . Considering the criteria to select near-duplicate keyframes have already guaranteed the similarity of the visual features, we only use the two cross-modal pairs $\{I^m, T^m\}$, $\{I^n, T^n\}$ to train the f and g .

Generalized Version of CCA Limited by the definition of the covariance, both CCA and DCCA can only handle inputs of two modalities. As an extension to handle an arbitrary number of modals, generalized canonical correlation analysis (DCCA) is proposed in [11], with its deep learning version DGCCA later proposed in [3]. The objective of GCCA is to find a shared representation G of J ($J \geq 2$) different views with maximum inter-correlation. The objective function can be written as:

$$U_j^* = \underset{U_j \in \mathbb{R}^{d_j \times r}, G \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times N}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{j=1}^J \|G - U_j^T X_j\|_F, \text{ where } GG^T = I_r$$

where N is the number of datapoints (in our case is 3), d_j is the dimension of the j -th view, r is the dimension of the learned representation, and $X_j \in \mathbb{R}^{d_j \times N}$ is the data matrix for the j -th view. We can first find the eigen-decomposition of a $N \times N$ matrix to solve GCCA, where the $N \times N$ matrix scales quadratically with the sampled size and leads to extreme memory consumption. Unlike CCA

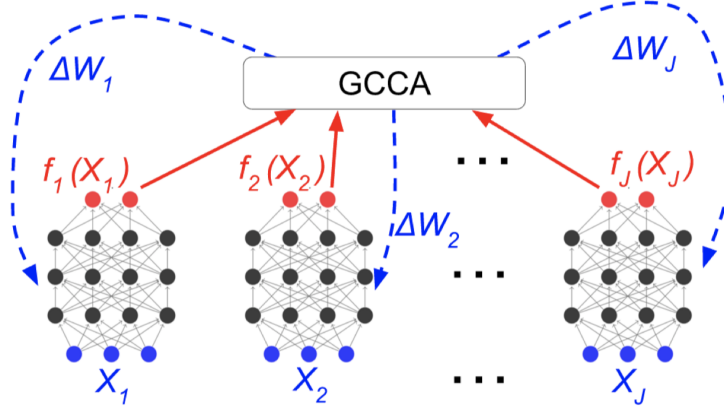


Figure 8: Schematic Illustration of DGCCA, which is originally proposed in [3]. The f_j denotes the j -th (branch) of the network to project j -th input data entity X_j into the GCCA joint embedding space. Our objective function aims at maximize the total sum of the inter-input correlation, which calculates the correlation between each of pair of the two inputs.

and DCCA, which only learn projections or transformations on each of the views, GCCA also learns a view-independent representation G that best reconstructs all of the view-specific representations.

Deep Generalized CCA For the gradient descent version of GCCA, the key idea is to construct a embedding network with J branches. Now we need to replace the data matrix X in the previous GCCA objective function with the feature matrix $f(X)$, where f denotes the network with J -branches. The objective function becomes:

$$U_j^* = \arg \min_{U_j \in \mathbb{R}^{d_j \times r}, G \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times N}} \sum_{j=1}^J \|G - U_j^T f_j(X_j)\|_F, \text{ where } GG^T = I_r$$

where $f_j(X_j)$ indicates applying j -th branch of the network on the j -th input.

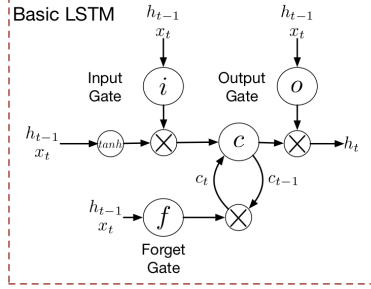
For optimization, we define $C_{jj} = f(X_j)f(X_j)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{o_j \times o_j}$ to be the scaled empirical covariance matrix of the j -th network output. We define $P_j = f(X_j)^T C_{jj}^{-1} f(X_j) \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ to be the corresponding projection matrix of the data. Then the reconstruction error should be expressed as follows:

$$e = \sum_{j=1}^J \|G - U_j^T f_j(X_j)\|_F^2 = \sum_{j=1}^J \|G - G f_j(X_j)^T C_{jj}^{-1} f_j(X_j)\|_F^2 = rJ - \text{Tr}(GMG^T)$$

where minimizing the ojective function equals to maximizing $\text{Tr}(GMG^T)$, with the sum of eigenvectors $L = \sum_{i=1}^r \lambda_i(M)$. Taking derivation of L based on $f_j(X_j)$, we have:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial f_j(X_j)} = 2(U_j G - U_j U_j^T f_j(X_j))$$

Thus, the gradient is the difference between the r -dimensional auxiliary representation G embedded into the subspace spanned by the columns of U_j (the first term) and the projection of the actual data in $f_j(X_j)$ onto the subspace (the second term).



$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{i}_t &= \text{sigmoid}(\mathbf{W}_i[\mathbf{x}_t^T, \mathbf{h}_{t-1}^T]^T) \\
\mathbf{f}_t &= \text{sigmoid}(\mathbf{W}_f[\mathbf{x}_t^T, \mathbf{h}_{t-1}^T]^T) \\
\mathbf{o}_t &= \text{sigmoid}(\mathbf{W}_o[\mathbf{x}_t^T, \mathbf{h}_{t-1}^T]^T) \\
\mathbf{c}_t &= \mathbf{i}_t \odot \tanh(\mathbf{W}_c[\mathbf{x}_t^T, \mathbf{h}_{t-1}^T]^T) \\
&\quad + \mathbf{f}_t \odot \mathbf{c}_{t-1} \\
\mathbf{h}_t &= \mathbf{o}_t \odot \tanh(\mathbf{c}_t),
\end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Figure 9: Illustration of LSTM unit from [52]. The memory cell is modulated jointly by the input, output and forget gates to control the knowledge transferred at each time step. The \odot denotes element-wise products.

Three-Way Embeddings Assume the near-duplicate image pairs can be viewed as equal, the previous near-duplicate image-text pair $\{(I^m, T^m), (I^n, T^n)\}$ can be simplified to $\{I^{mn}, T^m, T^n\}$, where $I^{mn} = I^m = I^n$. For the objective function of GCCA, now the data matrix of \mathbf{X} involves three inputs $\{I^{mn}, T^m, T^n\}$. The objective function of DGCCA becomes:

$$\begin{aligned}
U_j^* = \arg \min_{U_j \in \mathbb{R}^{d_j \times r}, G \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times N}} & \|G - U_j^T f^v(I^{mn})\|_F + \|G - U_j^T f_m^l(T^m)\|_F \\
& + \|G - U_j^T f_n^l(T^n)\|_F, \text{ subject to } GG^T = I_r
\end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

where f_m^l stands for language embedding model for a language m and f^v stands for visual embedding model for imagery. Therefore, by training the common representation for the triplets $\{I^{mn}, T^m, T^n\}$, we can embed the three inputs into the joint embedding space. Using the same strategy as in DCCA, we first load the pretrained weights from expert networks (fastText(Eng), fastText(Chi), Inception-ResNet) to obtain the intermediate features, then optimize the weights in the three branches: f_v , f_l^n and f_l^m to obtain the final joint embedding.

4.4 Temporal Relationship Reasoning

Why Encode Temporal Dependency In the previous work [40] of a similar task, only keyframes and video descriptions are used. For imagery, each time only one frame is encoded, and there is no concern temporal relationship among the selected keyframes. For descriptions, there is no explicit timeline like the audio file, so she randomly selects n tags and averaging the language features vectors for embedding. For our baseline CCA-based model in section 4.3, one improvement is that we use speech sequence and image sequence for the encoding job. The temporal information is encoded implicitly because the image-text pair in our dataset guarantees that in the original news video image are text are chronologically close to each other. Nevertheless, such loose constraints can be potentially dangerous because there is no guarantee for the intra-chronological-order within a visual or language sequence. For example, for a sentence of three words ‘Tom eats an apple’, if we encode this sentence using word2vec and flatten the feature vectors, the vectors could represent 16 different results ‘Tom eat(s) an apple’, ‘an apple eat(s) Tom’, ... etc. On the other hand, pooling

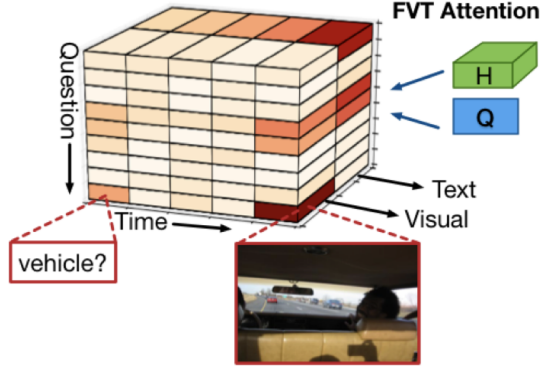


Figure 10: Illustration of the data matrix H and query matrix Q to encode sequence of multimodal information according to the temporal order. This time-based sequence encoding method is originally used for VQA task in [29]. Slightly different from the (question) text-image query in QVA, the query matrix Q in our task is directly the image features of the near-duplicate frame/sequence.

the visual/text feature vectors could be harmful for the accurate feature representation, features after pooling will be more ambiguous, and inferring original visual/text from features becomes more difficult after such temporal-pooling operations. For visual representation, this problem could be as equal severe as the frame numbers increases, uniformly sample the keyframes might omit important frames, and temporal order between consecutive frames are vital for the overall video understanding (hence, if the frames are completely out of order, even human beings are difficult to summarize the news in the videos).

LSTM-based Sequence Encoder A popular approach for encoding video/speech sequence is to use the Long-Short-Term-Machine (LSTM) [17], which has been used for video summarization [52] and visual question answering (VQA) [29]. LSTM is a bionically designed recurrent neural network that is adept at modeling long-range feature dependencies. The dependency can be continuous attributes such as time. At the core of the LSTM, there exist some memory cells c which encode, at every time step, the knowledge of the inputs that have been observed up to that step. The cells are then modulated by non-linear gates, which are usually constructed by logistic (sigmoid) functions. The gates determine whether the LSTM should keep the information (if the gates return 1) or discard them (if the gates return 0). There are three gates: the input gate (i) controlling whether the LSTM considers its current input (x_t), the forget gate (f) allowing the LSTM to forget its previous memory (c_t), and the output gate (o) decides the amount of the memory to transfer to the hidden states (h_t). Together, they provide LSTM with the capability to learn complex long-term dependencies. In particular, the forget gate serves as a time-varying data-dependent on/off switch to selectively incorporating the past and present information. This design makes LSTM extremely suitable for encoding temporal sequences such as videos and speeches.

We propose to use separate LSTM networks to encode the visual and textual sequences, respectively, to capture the temporal dependency within each sequence. The inputs to the LSTM units are intermediate image/text features from the expert feature extraction network. Let d denote the size

of the hidden state of the LSTM unit; The temporally encoded text and images are represented by $H \in \mathbb{R}^{2d \times T \times 2}$, where T denotes the maximum length of the sequence. The query is represented as a matrix Q of concatenated bi-directional LSTM outputs, i.e., $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{2d \times M}$, where M is the maximum length of the query.

Intra-Sequence Temporal Constraint Inspired by work in VQA [29] to maintain the temporal consistency, we introduce the temporal correlation matrix $C \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times T}$ as a constraint to ensure the data matrix H and query matrix Q is encoded chronologically. Let $h_i = H_{:,i} \in \mathbb{R}^{2d \times 2}$ to denote the visual/text representation for the i -th timestep in the multimodal data matrix H . The entry C_{ij} is calculated by:

$$C_{ij} = \tanh \sum_{k=1}^K \mathbf{w}_c^T (\mathbf{w}_h^T \cdot \text{sim}(h_{ik}, h_{jk}) + Q_{:,M})$$

where K is the number of modalities, in our case, $K = 2$. The operator $:$ is a slicing operator to extract all elements from a dimension, where $h_{i1} = H_{:,i1}$ $\text{sim}(h_{ik}, h_{jk})$ denotes the similarity between the two-modal features. The $\mathbf{w}_c \in \mathbb{R}^{2d \times 1}$ and $\mathbf{w}_h \in \mathbb{R}^{4d \times 2d}$ are parameters to learn.

5 Experiments

5.1 Implementation Details

In the previous work [40], we have three datasets: Ebola Virus, Zika Virus, Air Asia Flight 8501. We collect additional dataset based on the feedback of the US and Chinese people on ‘AlphaGo vs. Human’ news event. For speech recognition, we use the pretrained model provided by Google Speech Recognition to convert English and Chinese speech sequences into text sequences. We use standard NLP pipelines provided by NLTK to remove the stop words, and then preprocess the texts extracted by WordNet’s Lemmatizer. Then we extract image-text sequence pair using a 5 second sliding window, the sampling rate for keyframes is set to be 2 frames per second. For visual feature embedding, we resize the images into 584×584 and conduct random cropping and flipping to generate resulted input frame of 512×512 . We use feature outputted by the last two fully connected layer in Inception-ResNet model and load existing weight pretrained on ImageNet.

For near-duplicate keyframes, we set the threshold τ to be 20 to 45, and we observe that threshold at around 30 can already satisfy the requirement of very similar keyframes. For text embedding, we use the pre-trained word2vec model on multilingual the Wikipedia dataset to conduct the language embedding. To learn the joint embedding space, we modified the previous DCCA code based on MATLAB and reimplemented the pipeline on PyTorch. We use Adam [24] optimizer with parameter of $\beta_1 = 0.9$ and $\beta_2 = 0.999$. The initial learning rate is set to be $1e^{-2}$, and the learning rate should automatically decrease by 10% after every 5 epoch.

	Query	Recall@1	Recall@5	Recall@10
Ebola Virus	US images query EU tags	8.2	29.8	40.3
	EU images query US tags	9.5	29.5	44.1
AirAsia Flight	US images query CN tags	7.6	18.8	29.1
	CN images query US tags	9.3	23.3	36.4
Zika Virus	US image query SA tags	11.8	31.2	54.1
	SA images query US tags	9.6	32.9	52.7
AlphaGo vs. Human	US images query CN tags	10.1	25.4	41.3
	CN images query US tags	11.6	27.2	45.9
Thailand Cave Rescue	US images query CN tags	10.4	25.1	38.9
	CN images query US tags	10.9	27.0	41.8

Table 2: Performance of intra-culture image-text queries. The Ebola, AirAsia, Zika dataset is based on prior work in [40], Thailand Cave Rescue and AlphaGo vs. Human are our new datasets.

α	0.01	0.025	0.01	0.025	0.025	0.05	0.05
β	0.02	0.02	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.1	0.1
advertising	4/0	6/1	4/0	6/1	6/1	8/3	8/3
irrelevant	98/91	98/91	26/21	26/21	26/21	7/3	7/3

Table 3: Experiments on the two thresholds for the blacklist/whitelist filtering. We test it based on a test set of 150 videos for ‘AlphaGo vs. Human’ event. The ‘advertising’ and ‘irrelevant’ videos are manually picked out within the test dataset. For the performance metric, each x/y denotes the total positive/false positive. We find that $\alpha = 0.05$ and $\beta = 0.1$ could be relatively ideal for the BW-List Joint Filtering Task.

5.2 Experimental Results

We first conduct a simple search for the hyper-parameters α and β used as the blacklist/whitelist filtering threshold. As shown in Table 3, the variations of α and β is set to be 0.01, 0.02, 0.025, 0.05 and 0.10. For the testing set, we manually pick out the ‘advertising’ and ‘irrelevant’ videos within 150 videos, which is randomly sampled in the total dataset for the Chinese videos on ‘AlphaGo vs. Human’ news event. We use the total and true positive as the standard to evaluate the quality of the filtering. After several trials in tweaking, we find that $\alpha = 0.05$ and $\beta = 0.1$ could be relatively ideal for the filtering task.

For each news event, we generate two culture-specific image-text embedding space for two different cultures. For AirAsia Flight 8501, Thailand Cave Rescue, and AlphaGo vs. Human, one for the US and one for China. For Ebola Virus, one for the US and one for Europe. For Zika Virus, one for south Africa and one for the US. For each culture-specific joint embedding space, we randomly select 1000 images with the tags, or 10% of the dataset, whichever is smaller as the testing set. Each time of the query, we randomly select a keyframe from culture A to query the text tags in culture B. For performance evaluation, we use Recall@1, Recall@5, Recall@10 as the testing metric. For AlphaGo event, we achieved 45.9% in Recall@10, which is slightly higher than the previous results. Thailand Cave Rescue performs similar to the AlphaGo news event, where the Recall@10 is relatively lower. We further try to swap the word2vec text features with BERT features, which doesn’t lead to a boost in the performance. Due to limited time, we haven’t tested on all of our newly gathered

datasets. Further ablation study needs to be carried to determine which proposed component leads to significant accuracy boost.

6 Conclusion and Future Work

In this work, we exploit the image-text retrieval task to discover the text tagging differences in cross-cultural and multilingual news videos. Based on the prior work conducted in [?], we propose several improvement ideas for visual/textual feature extraction and bridge the language gap using speech recognition and native text embedding models. We also particularly study on the temporal encoding method to extract image-text sequence. We use implicit encoding method to ensure the image and language features are chronologically related in our analysis. Furthermore, we rewrite most of the code in [40] to adopt the developing environments, transforming the entire pipeline to the native Python environment, which is much easier to use, update and deploy.

For our feature work, several potential improvements can be explored: 1. Carry out the ablation study based on controlled variants to analyze the performance of our proposed components. 2. Apply the newest deep generalized CCA and conduct three-way embeddings. 3. Explore the LSTM temporal grounding for both visual and textual features, with emphasis on the Chronological ordering. 4. Find the problem of using contextualized text features in our model 5. Extend our model to all of the available datasets.

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