

MoViMash: Online Mobile Video Mashup

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ABSTRACT

With the proliferation of mobile video cameras, it is becoming easier for users to capture videos of live performances and socially share them with friends and public. As an attendee of such live performances typically has limited mobility, each video camera is able to capture only from a range of restricted viewing angles and distance, producing a rather monotonous video clip. At such performances, however, multiple video clips can be captured by different users, likely from different angles and distances. These videos can be combined to produce a more interesting and representative mashup of the live performances for broadcasting and sharing. The earlier works select video shots merely based on the quality of currently available videos. In real video editing process, however, recent selection history plays an important role in choosing future shots. In this work, we present MoViMash, a framework for automatic online video mashup that makes smooth shot transitions to cover the performance from diverse perspectives. Shot transition and shot length distributions are learned from professionally edited videos. Further, we introduce view quality assessment in the framework to filter out shaky, occluded, and tilted videos. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first attempt to incorporate history-based diversity measurement, state-based video editing rules, and view quality in automated video mashup generations. Experimental results have been provided to demonstrate the effectiveness of MoViMash framework.

Categories and Subject Descriptors: I.2.10 [Vision and Scene Understanding]: Video Analysis

General Terms: Algorithms, Design.

Keywords: Mobile Video, Virtual Director, Video Mashup.

1. INTRODUCTION

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Worldwide shipment of camera phones were estimated to reach 1.14 billion in the year 2011 alone [1]. Furthermore, a survey of over 2,500 respondents by Photobucket reveals that 45% of the respondents use mobile devices to shoot video at least once weekly during the summer of 2011, validating the significant increase in the amount of mobile video uploaded to Photobucket's video sharing website (14% in Summer 2011 compared to December 2010) [2].

Proliferation of such mobile devices with video capture capability has enabled users to capture video of their life events such as concerts, parades, outdoor performances, etc, and socially share them with friends and public as it happens. Videos recorded by a single user at such events are shot from a limited range of angles and distances from the performance stage, as an attendee typically has limited mobility (e.g., constraint by seating arrangement). The recorded video can be monotonous and uninteresting. Furthermore, videos recorded are typically short (in the order of minutes or tens of minutes), due to tired arms or power constraint of mobile devices. There are, however, likely to have more than one users recording the same performance from different angles at the same time, especially at a well-attended performance.

These recorded and shared video clips of the same performance can be cut and joined together to produce a new mashup video, similar to how a TV director of a live TV show would switch between different cameras to produce the show. Generation of a video mashup can be cast as a video selection problem: given a set of video clips capturing the same performance event, automatically select one of the video clips at any one time instance to be included in the output mashup video.

In this paper, we introduce MoViMash, our approach to solve the above video selection problem. MoViMash aims to produce mashup video from a set of mobile devices that is interesting and pleasing to watch, and uses a combinations of content-analysis, state-based transitions, history-based diversity, and learning from human editors to achieve this goal.

We now provide an overview of how MoViMash works in the usual setting of live performances, shown in Figure 1. There is generally a staging area and an audience area where the audiences either sit or stand to watch the performance, and record the performance with a mobile device. This setting poses a few challenges to video mashup.

Since the videos are recorded with a hand-held mobile device, from the audience area, and likely by non-professional, there is no guarantee on the view quality. The videos can be shaky or tilted. Furthermore, it is common to include the back of the head of other audiences in the view. As other audiences move, the view can be temporarily occluded. When MoViMash needs to decide which video to select, it first filters out the videos with bad views currently from further consideration for selection. To achieve this, MoViMash analyzes the video to determine the current shakiness, the tilt angle, and the level of occlusion in the video. Note that shakiness and tilt angle can be obtained from easily sensory data of mobile device when available.

The shooting angle of the remaining videos are then classified as either center, left, and right; and distance from the stage as near and far as shown in Figure 1. This classification is done every time we perform video selection because mobile users may change their position over time. MoViMash now decides which shooting angle and distance should be used; and for how long the selected class should persist. To this end, MoViMash tries to imitate a professional video editor, by using a finite state machine, whose transition probabilities are learned from analyzing professionally edited videos of the same type of event. The rationale behind the inclusion of learning is that, we have observed that there are no generic editing rules that can be precisely defined to work with all types of events. The video editors make fine decisions such as shot lengths and transitions based on their experience which is hard to enumerate.

The videos from the selected class are further ranked based on the video quality and diversity values to make the final selection. To consider video quality, MoViMash favors video with low blurriness, low blockiness (good compression), good contrast, and good illumination in each video. To consider diversity, MoViMash stores a history of recent video selections and favors videos with dissimilar views with recent selections.

We have developed MoViMash’s algorithm such that it is online and only depends on history information. As such, even though it is not our main goal in this paper, MoViMash can be applied to mashup of live video feeds from mobile devices.

We now briefly compare MoViMash to existing work to highlight the contribution of this paper. There has been few works on video selection in a lecture broadcast and video streaming [21] [6] and video conferencing [3]. In these works the camera is mainly selected based on speaker detection. Live performances are not speaker centric. In fact, the speech signals are generally noise from the crowd. In one recent work, Shrestha et al. [15] propose a method to create a video mashup from a given set of concert recordings. In that work, the authors select the shots based on mainly video quality, mostly ignoring view quality. Also, the diversity is only calculated based on the comparison of the last image of the current shot and first image of the next shot. It does not consider the history of video selection and the time for which a particular camera is selected. Further, video editing rules, which are subtle in the case of live performances, are not considered.

Contributions. We now summarize our contributions in this paper as follows:

- We propose a state-based approach for shot selection that incorporates the selection history in the decision

process. Earlier methods select shots based on only currently available videos.

- We include view quality in the framework to filter out the bad views that are occluded, tilted, or shaky. Earlier methods only considered video quality.
- We build a comprehensive model to calculate diversity that considers both previously selected videos and shot lengths.
- We propose a learning-based approach where the shot transition probabilities and shot lengths are learned from professionally edited videos.

Organization. The rest of the paper is organized as follows.

We provide a review of earlier work in Section 2. In Section 3 we describe proposed mashup framework. We evaluate our system in Section 4. The conclusions are provided in Section 5.

2. PREVIOUS WORK

There has been only few works on online camera selection. In most of these works, videos are mainly selected to show the speakers. In the work by Machnicki and Rowe [9], an online lecture webcast system is presented in which the cameras that are focusing on speaker and the presentation (the screen) are selected iteratively until anybody from audience asks question. When audience ask question, the camera that is focusing the person asking question is selected. The automatic selection of cameras in a lecture webcast is extended by Zhang et al. [21] to incmnedjebdkqwjdqwb3i2uedincerts, a speaker based selection is not appropriate. Further, the faces are generally far from the camera which cannot be detected. Therefore, face detection is not a reliable basis to select videos.

Al-Hames et al. [3] extends the camera selection work to include the motion features. We do not use motion features in our framework because both performers and audience generate continuous motion. Also, the movement of the mobile camera can inject erroneous motion in the video, which is aesthetically appealing. Yu et al. [20] propose to customize the camera selection and shot lengths based on user preferences. At every lecture webcast receiving site, the user can give score to the videos and specify rules for shot lengths. While such an interactive selection of cameras is useful for educational scenarios, people may find it annoying and stressful for performances, particularly when the number of videos is large.

A camera selection method for sports video broadcast is proposed by Wang et al. [16]. The authors assume one main camera and other sub cameras. The empirical main camera duration is found to be from 4 to 24 seconds, and sub camera duration is found to be 1.5 to 8 seconds. They select a sub camera based on the clarity of the view, determined using motion features. In our work, along with shakiness of the videos, we also calculate view quality in terms of occlusion and rotation; and video quality in terms of contrast, blur, illumination, and blockiness. We also include explicit measurement of diversity in the framework. Engstrom et al. [8] discuss automatic camera selection for broadcast in a sports event capture scenario. The work mainly promotes collaborative video production, i.e., video recorded by production team as well as the consumers.

In other media production applications, the shots are selected to convey the story to the audience. For instance, de Lima et al. [7] propose a method to automatically select shots from multiple cameras for storytelling, according to the rules provided by the director. These methods are not useful for us as live performances generally do not have any story.

Recently, there has been works on creating video mashups from given set of videos. In one of the most recent works [15], Shrestha et al. select the cameras based on video quality. Although the authors refer to term “diversity” in the paper, it is merely a comparison of current frame and the next frame of the corresponding camera. The authors completely ignore the selection history and the time for which each view is selected. The authors also ignore editing rules corresponding to different views, which we incorporate through learning based classification and selection. Furthermore, unlike the method proposed in this paper, the authors rely on the future video for current shot selection. While this approach is fine for combining stored videos, it is not suitable for live applications such as broadcasting and live sharing.

We have provided a comparison of the related work in Table 1. The works have been compared with respect to the following aspects: (1) can the method be applied online (a method that uses future information cannot be applied online)? (2) is selection history based diversity considered? (3) is learning incorporated? (4) is video quality (clarity, contrast etc.) considered? (5) is view quality (view occlusion, tilted view etc.) considered? and (6) what is the underlying application scenario? It can be easily seen that the proposed method is the first attempt to consider history based diversity through learning for online video selection for live performances.

3. MOVIMASH FRAMEWORK

In this section, we first enumerate the design principles that we have followed in the development of MoViMashe3112 and then describe the framework. After an overview of MoViMash, we focus on individual components.

3.1 Design Principles

The end goal of the MoViMash is to produce a mashup that users like. To achieve this goal, we have followed a set of design principles as follows:

- **Video Quality:** In our discussion, video quality includes sharpness, contrast, illumination, and blockiness (due to video compression). A good image quality gives pleasing experience to the viewers [10]. Therefore, in our framework we give priority to good quality videos.
- **View Quality:** A video that is captured by a tilted camera (rotated around horizontal axis) may have very good video quality, yet, users generally do not like tilted views. Similarly, a view in which a person or object is occluding stage area (blocking performance view) may be annoying to the user. Therefore view quality is also important. We measure view quality in terms of occlusion, tilt, and shakiness.
- **Diversity:** While static cameras always record videos from same perspective, mobile users generally shoot

videos from a number of views and diverse perspectives. We take this opportunity to include more diversified views in the mashup. Both temporal and spatial aspects of diversity are considered in the proposed framework.

- **Learning:** When professionals edit the videos, they make many decisions based on their experience. Such decisions include shooting angle, distance from the stage, and shot length. It is, however, difficult to precisely state this experience in terms of hard-coded rules. Therefore, in this work, we learn the shot transitions and lengths from professionally edited videos.

The above mentioned design principles are met in our framework through various quality metrics and video selection/filtering phases, as described in the following section.

3.2 Framework

At every time instant, we have a number of videos to choose from. Once we have chosen the video, we also need to decide when to switch to another video. Hence, there are two main questions involved here that need to be answered for combining videos: (1) which video to select? (2) when to switch to another video? We use a three-phase method to select the video while the length is determined based on learned editing rules and overall quality score of the selected video.

Figure 2 shows the block diagram of overall framework. The proposed framework consists of one offline learning phase and three online selection phases namely filtering, classification, and selection. At any given time, the following steps are taken to select the most suitable video at current instant:

1. **Filtering:** In the filtering step, we determine videos that are unusable by comparing occlusion, shakiness, and tilt scores against empirically determined thresholds. The remaining videos are passed to the classification stage.
2. **Classification:** The selected cameras are classified as one of right, center, and left according to the capturing angle. Further, according to the viewing distance from the stage, they are classified as near or far.
3. **Class Prediction:** According to the class of currently selected video, and class transition probabilities learned from professionally edited videos, a most suitable class is predicted and videos from that class are selected for further consideration.
4. **Video Selection:** The classified cameras are further ranked with respect to a combined score of video quality, diversity, and shakiness. The video with highest score is selected.
5. **Shot Length:** The length of the video is selected based on learned distributions and video quality. A higher quality video is generally selected for longer time.

While filtering and selection phase ensure view and video quality, the classification and diversity ensure that we select videos recorded with different angles and viewing distances to provide a complete and interesting coverage of the performance. We now describe each component of the framework in detail.

3.3 View Quality

The view quality is measured in terms of three characteristics: occlusion, shakiness, and camera tilt. The details of measurement of each of these quantities is given below.

3.3.1 Occlusion

For both a stand mounted camera and a mobile camera, there is always a chance of view occlusion. At crowded places, people sometime do not notice the cameras recording the video and occlude the performance view. Even if people notice the cameras, they stand in front of or walk across the cameras, because the main purpose of the performances is to entertain the audience who are present at the venue rather than video recording. Therefore, we detect the videos which are recorded by occluded cameras and filter them out.

Occlusion detection methods are popular in the field of object tracking [13, 19]. These methods employ various appearance models to seamlessly track multiple objects. In this case, the occlusion occurs when an object is hidden behind another. In live performances, this could be intentionally done by the performers, i.e., one performer coming in front of other. We are more interested in detecting the audience blocking the view. Therefore, those works are not applicable here.

We have developed an edge density based method to detect videos with occluded views. The method is based on the assumption that the objects that occlude the performance area will result in lower edge density than the performance area. Therefore, the non-occluded area of the image, which is far from the camera, will result in more dense edge points than the occluded area. To differentiate between homogeneous regions of the stage area, which could also have less edge density, and occluded area; we perform connected components on the edge image. Following are the steps of the occlusion detection in a given image I:

- **Edge Detection:** In the first step, we calculate the presence of an edge at each pixel location. Let I^e be the resulting binary edge image:

$$I^e(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if edge is detected at pixel } I(x, y) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

- **Edge Density:** We convolve the edge image with a square matrix W with all of its elements unity:

$$I^d = I^e \odot W \quad (2)$$

The output of the operation gives the density of edges around each pixel.

- **Labeling the Patches:** The image is now divided into patches of block size $b \times b$. Each patch is labeled as 1 if the sum of edge densities is less than a threshold, else it is labeled as 0.

$$I^p(x', y') = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if the sum of edge densities in the patch } (x', y') \text{ is greater than threshold} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The 1's in the patch image shows potentially occluded regions.

- **Connected Components:** There can be homogeneous regions in the non-occluded area as well. These re-

gions, however, are generally small. Therefore, connected components operation is performed to find the size of largest group of connected patches with label 1, which corresponds to occluded region.

- **Occlusion Score:** To calculate the final occlusion score S^o , we first calculate the fractional occluded region f in the connected components output image, i.e.,

$$f = \frac{\text{No of 1 patches}}{\text{Total number of patches}} \quad (4)$$

We also observed that generally the dynamic range of f is very small. Therefore, we expand its range with an exponential function to calculate the final score S^o :

$$S^o = 1 - e^{-f} \quad (5)$$

The resulting occlusion scores for an example video sequence are shown in the Figure 3. The sequence shows a person walking across a camera, which is recording an outdoor performance. We can see that as the person enters the camera view, the occlusion score starts increasing. We obtained similar results for night videos also, which are not shown due to space limitation. We found that for a patch size of 20×15 pixels, videos with occlusion score more than 0.2 are very bad, so these are filtered in the framework.

3.3.2 Tilt

In this work, we define tilt as the rotation of the camera around horizontal axis. User's generally do not like the videos recorded by tilted cameras. Therefore, we detect the tilted camera views and filter them. Here we use the heuristic that for a horizontally placed camera, most of the lines in the view are horizontal, while an inclined view generally has non-horizontal lines. The following steps are taken to calculate tilt:

- **Line Detection:** We use Hough transform to detect the straight line in the image. Let l'_i be the length of the i^{th} line and o'_i the angle with respect to the horizontal line.
- **Angle Restriction:** We assume that the maximum tilt a camera can have is less than $\pm\pi/4$ and any line with the inclination above this angle is noise and not considered in calculation. Let the resulting orientation of l'_i line be o_i .
- **The final tilt score S^t** is calculated as absolute of the mean weighted orientation and normalized by $\pi/4$:

$$S^t = \frac{abs(\frac{1}{N^l} \sum_{i=1}^{N^l} o_i * l'_i)}{\pi/4} \quad (6)$$

where N^l is the total number of lines in the image.

An example of tilt calculation is shown in Figure 4; the upper row shows frames from the video and the figure in lower row shows occlusion scores. The video clip is recorded by a mobile phone camera. In between, the mobile user gets engaged in some other activity, and the mobile phone gets tilted. We can observe in the frames itself the straight lines getting tilted. It gets reflected in the tilt score as shown in Figure 4 for frames 200 and 216. The videos with a tilt score of 0.4 are found unusable and they are filtered.

3.3.3 Shakiness

Shakiness is calculated based on the method described in [4]. In this method, the pixel values are projected on horizontal and vertical axes. The horizontal and vertical projections are matched across the frames for calculating camera motion. A median filtered is finally applied on the motion vectors to differentiate the shakiness from the smooth camera motion. The final value of shakiness score, S^s , is calculated by summing the absolute difference of original motion vector and median filtered motion vector. The score is normalized by calculating maximum difference empirically. For a shakiness window of 100 frames, the normalization value is 300; for any value above 300, S^s is saturated to 1.

3.4 Learning

As mentioned earlier in Section 1, it is difficult to precisely enumerate all the rules which professional editors follow in selecting a video and its corresponding shot length. In MoViMash, we propose to learn the behavior of professional editor statistically for use in creating mashup. We use professionally edited videos for this purpose. The rules are learned in terms of shooting angle, shooting distance, and shot length. Following are the steps taken in the process of learning:

- At first, we divide the video into a sequence of shots and record shot length.
- Each shot is classified as right (\mathcal{R}), left (\mathcal{L}), or center (\mathcal{C}) based on shooting angle (Figure 1).
- Depending on the distance of the recording device from the stage, the videos are further classified as near (\mathcal{N}) or far (\mathcal{F}) (Figure 1).
- Based on both classifications, we define six states (also referred as classes in the paper) in which a video can be at any time instant, i.e., \mathcal{CN} , \mathcal{CF} , \mathcal{RN} , \mathcal{RF} , \mathcal{LN} , and \mathcal{LF} .
- From the sequence of the shots, we calculate the state transition probabilities for the above described six states.
- We now feed the transition probabilities (transition matrix) along with shot lengths (emission matrix) to an hidden Markov model (HMM). The HMM generates a sequence of shot states and their corresponding lengths.

$$\begin{array}{c|cccccc}
 & \mathcal{CN} & \mathcal{CF} & \mathcal{RN} & \mathcal{RF} & \mathcal{LN} & \mathcal{LF} \\
 \hline
 \mathcal{CN} & 0 & 0.4 & 0.2 & 0.1 & 0.2 & 0.1 \\
 \mathcal{CF} & 0 & 0.4 & 0.2 & 0.1 & 0.2 & 0.1 \\
 \mathcal{RN} & 0 & 0.4 & 0.2 & 0.1 & 0.2 & 0.1 \\
 \mathcal{RF} & 0 & 0.4 & 0.2 & 0.1 & 0.2 & 0.1 \\
 \mathcal{LN} & 0 & 0.4 & 0.2 & 0.1 & 0.2 & 0.1 \\
 \mathcal{LF} & 0 & 0.4 & 0.2 & 0.1 & 0.2 & 0.1
 \end{array} \quad (7)$$

$$\begin{array}{c|ccccccc}
 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\
 \hline
 \mathcal{CN} & 1/31 & 2/31 & 4/31 & 7/31 & 7/31 & 6/31 & 4/31 \\
 \mathcal{CF} & 3/12 & 4/12 & 2/12 & 1/12 & 1/12 & 1/12 & 0 \\
 \mathcal{RN} & 2/15 & 3/15 & 4/15 & 3/15 & 2/15 & 1/15 & 0 \\
 \mathcal{RF} & 3/10 & 4/10 & 2/10 & 1/10 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 \mathcal{LN} & 2/15 & 3/15 & 4/15 & 3/15 & 2/15 & 1/15 & 0 \\
 \mathcal{LF} & 3/10 & 4/10 & 2/10 & 1/10 & 0 & 0 & 0
 \end{array} \quad (8)$$

We use affine transformation to classify the video, giving an accuracy of $\approx 77\%$ on our dataset. However, since learning is one time job, we performed manual classification of shots during the learning phase to get accurate statistics. Equation 7 shows the learned transition matrix while Equation 8 emission matrix. We have carefully selected five videos (live group dances with length of videos ranging from 210 to 300 seconds), which are professionally edited and aired on television. We downloaded these videos from YouTube.

These videos include concerts by professional bands and performance at the Academy Awards ceremony. We observed that in dance videos, the shot lengths are relatively smaller (average around 2.3 seconds) compared to solo singing videos (average around 3.5 seconds). This finding implies that the learning dataset should comply with the type of performance for mashup. We also observed that the average shot lengths for all five dance videos ranged between 2.2 seconds to 2.4 seconds, showing little variations, which shows that a particular type of events have similar pattern of transitions and shot lengths which can be learned and applied to create online mashup.

3.5 Video Quality

We can have different quality videos because of the limitation of recording devices, varied camera positioning, lighting conditions, camera angle, and video recording skills of the person. To produce aesthetically beautiful video, it is important to consider the quality of the videos. We are considering the following aspects to obtain video quality score:

- **Blockiness:** The blocking effect mainly comes due to poor quality of data compression. To measure blockiness, we take current image as sample and calculate its compression quality using the method described in [18]. The method generates a score that takes a value between 1 and 10 (10 represents the best quality, 1 the worst). We normalize the score between 0 and 1. Let S^b be the blockiness score.
- **Blur:** The video can be blurred due to many reasons such as out-of-focus recording, camera movement etc. We are calculating blur based on the method described in [5]. Let S^{br} be the blur score which varies between 0 to 1 (0 represents blurred and 1 sharp).
- **Illumination:** There can be videos that are recorded in poor lighting conditions. The purpose of including this metric in quality measurement is to avoid selecting dark videos. The illumination score for the image S^{im} (with width N_w and height N_h) is calculated as average gray value, normalized by 255.
- **Contrast:** It has also been found in the literature that an image with good contrast is appreciated by the viewers [10]. Therefore, contrast is also chosen as one of the metrics. The contrast score S^c is calculated as standard deviation of the pixel intensities.

$$S^{im} = \frac{1}{255} \frac{1}{N_w * N_h} \sum_{x=0}^{N_w} \sum_{y=0}^{N_h} I(x, y) \quad (9)$$

$$S^c = \frac{1}{255} \sqrt{\frac{1}{N_w * N_h} \sum_{x=0}^{N_w} \sum_{y=0}^{N_h} (I(x, y) - \bar{I})^2} \quad (10)$$

Its value varies from 0 to 1 where 1 is the desired value corresponding to high contrast.

- **Burned Pixels:** It has been identified that pixels that are close to 255 or 0 are generally not informative [15]. If N_b is the number of such pixels, the quality score representing burnt pixels is calculated as follows:

$$S^{bp} = \begin{cases} 1 - N^b / (0.25 * N^i) & \text{if } N^b / (0.25 * N^i) < 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

where N^i is the total number of pixels in the image. In this case, a value of 1 represents best quality, i.e., no burnt pixels; while a value of 0 means at least 25% pixels are burnt.

The individual quality scores are multiplied to calculate overall video quality score S^q , i.e.,

$$S^q = S^b \times S^{br} \times S^{im} \times S^c \times S^{bp} \quad (12)$$

We have chosen to multiply the individual scores because we want to give priority to the videos that are good in all aspects.

3.6 Diversity

The aspect of diversity is included in the framework by calculating the similarity of the views of the videos selected in the recent past. Let \mathcal{H} be the history of the cameras that have been selected so far. The history is stored as set of chronologically order tuples, i.e.,

$$\mathcal{H} = \{(I_j^h, \Delta_j) | 1 \leq j \leq N^v\} \quad (13)$$

where N^v is the number videos selected in the recent past. Each tuple has the following two entries:

- I^h - Snapshot from the selected cameras at the time of selection.
- Δ - The time for which the particular camera is selected. It is normalized between 0 to 1 by dividing each video duration by the total time over which history is stored.

Let VS be the view similarity matrix:

$$VS = \{v_{ij} | 1 \leq i \leq n; 1 \leq j \leq N^v; \forall i = j, v_{ij} = 1\} \quad (14)$$

where n is number of cameras, and v_{ij} is the view similarity measure between current frame from the i^{th} video and j^{th} frame of the history. The motivation of defining the view similarity VS is to select video with different views. The overall steps of diversity calculation are as follows:

1. Determine the view similarity matrix VS by comparing current frame with the frames stored in the history, i.e.,

$$v_{ij} = Diff(I_i^c, I_j^h) \quad (15)$$

where I_i^c is the current frame of i^{th} camera, I_j^h is the j^{th} frame of the history, and $Diff$ can be any function to calculate view similarity. We are using SSIM [17] for this purpose.

2. For the given content, the user interest decreases with time over which the user watches same or similar content. Hence, the diversity score of the i^{th} video, i.e., S^d is calculated for each of the current videos as follows:

$$S^d = \sum_{j=1}^{N^v} v_{ij} * \Delta_j \quad (16)$$

3. Store the viewing time of the previous video and the current frame of the selected video in \mathcal{H} . If we choose a scheme where each camera is selected only for fixed amount of time, we may just store the current frame of the selected video.

The diversity scores for two candidate videos (Cam 1, Cam 2) and final mashup created using MoViMash for a performance (P3 in Table 2) are shown in the Figure 5. Although we are showing diversity for only two videos for clarity, there were five candidate videos in total. We can see that whenever a video gets selected, its diversity generally reduces, e.g., diversity of Cam 1 after Shot 8 and diversity of Cam 2 after Shot 3. At Shot 4, Cam 1 gets selected despite low diversity because its video quality is much better than others (Figure 5.a-b) with a stable view. Sometimes the diversity increases even when the video is currently selected (Shot 2, Cam 1) due to change in camera view, or when one of previous selections of the video moves out of history window. The diversity of Cam 2 decreases even though it is not selected. It is because during this time, its view is similar to Cam 1, resulting in large (near 1) value of v_{12} (Equation 15). At Shot 9, a third (other than Cam 1 and Cam 2) video gets selected until Cam 1's diversity increases enough so that it gets selected again. In summary, the metric S^d is able to capture and spatial and temporal diversity of videos.

3.7 Final Ranking

For all the videos of the selected class, we have three metrics: video quality score, diversity score, and shakiness score. We calculated weighted sum of these values to calculate final score S^f :

$$S^f = \alpha_1 S^q + \alpha_2 S^d + \alpha_3 (1 - S^s) \quad (17)$$

where α_1, α_2 , and α_3 are weighting coefficients and $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3 = 1$. In the experiments, we are using $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \alpha_3$, which gives equal weightage to the quality, diversity, and stability of the videos. Nevertheless, these coefficients should be determined based on the type of performance. For instance, in a hip-hop video mashup we can give less weightage to shakiness for better diversity and quality. A shaky video, however, can be annoying if the performance has smooth movements such as a tango performance. We therefore need to keep α_3 higher in this case. Furthermore, if the videos are generally bad in the quality, we can give set high value for α_1 . The shot from the video with the highest score is selected at the current time instant.

3.8 Length Selection

4. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This section is optional; it is a location for you to acknowledge grants, funding, editing assistance and what have you. In the present case, for example, the authors would like to thank Gerald Murray of ACM for his help in codifying this *Author's Guide* and the `.cls` and `.tex` files that it describes.

APPENDIX

A. HEADINGS IN APPENDICES

The rules about hierarchical headings discussed above for the body of the article are different in the appendices. In the **appendix** environment, the command **section** is used to indicate the start of each Appendix, with alphabetic order designation (i.e. the first is A, the second B, etc.) and a title (if you include one). So, if you need hierarchical structure *within* an Appendix, start with **subsection** as the highest level. Here is an outline of the body of this document in Appendix-appropriate form:

A.1 Introduction

A.2 The Body of the Paper

A.2.1 *Type Changes and Special Characters*

A.2.2 *Math Equations*

Inline (In-text) Equations.

Display Equations.

A.2.3 *Citations*

A.2.4 *Tables*

A.2.5 *Figures*

A.2.6 *Theorem-like Constructs*

A Caveat for the T_EX Expert

A.3 Conclusions

A.4 Acknowledgments

A.5 Additional Authors

This section is inserted by L^AT_EX; you do not insert it. You just add the names and information in the `\additionalauthors` command at the start of the document.

A.6 References

Generated by bibtex from your `.bib` file. Run latex, then bibtex, then latex twice (to resolve references) to create the `.bbl` file. Insert that `.bbl` file into the `.tex` source file and comment out the command `\thebibliography`.

B. MORE HELP FOR THE HARDY

The sig-alternate.cls file itself is chock-full of succinct and helpful comments. If you consider yourself a moderately experienced to expert user of L^AT_EX, you may find reading it useful but please remember not to change it.