Abstract—With much attention from both academia and industrial communities, visual search reranking has recently been proposed to refine image search results obtained from text-based image search engines. Most of the traditional reranking methods cannot capture both relevance and diversity of the search results at the same time. Or they ignore the hierarchical topic structure of search result. Each topic is treated equally and independently. However, in real applications, images returned for certain queries are naturally in hierarchical organization, rather than simple parallel relation. In this paper, a new reranking method “topic-aware reranking (TARerank)” is proposed. TARerank describes the hierarchical topic structure of search results in one model, and seamlessly captures both relevance and diversity of the image search results simultaneously. Through a structured learning framework, relevance and diversity are modeled in TARerank by a set of carefully designed features, and then the model is learned from human-labeled training samples. The learned model is expected to predict reranking results with high relevance and diversity for testing queries. To verify the effectiveness of the proposed method, we collect an image search dataset and conduct comparison experiments on it. The experimental results demonstrate that the proposed TARerank outperforms the existing relevance-based and diversified reranking methods.

Index Terms—Image search reranking, relevance, topic coverage (TC), topic-aware reranking (TARerank).

I. INTRODUCTION

M OST of the frequently-used commercial Web image search engines, e.g., Bing, Google, and Yahoo!, are implemented by indexing and searching the textual information associated with images, such as image file names, surrounding texts, universal resource locator, and so on. Although text-based image search is effective for large-scale image collections, it suffers from the drawback that textual information cannot comprehensively and substantially describe the rich content of images. As a consequence, some irrelevant images are observed in the search results.

To tackle the difficulties in text-based image search, visual reranking has been proposed. It incorporates visual information of images to refine the text-based search results. Generally, text-based search is first applied to obtain a coarse result from a large text-indexed image database. Then the top returned images are reordered via various reranking approaches by mining their visual patterns. Many reranking methods have been proposed in recent years. According to their reranking objectives, the existing methods can be categorized into two classes, i.e., relevance-based reranking [1]–[7] and diversified reranking [8]–[11].

The objective of relevance-based reranking is to maximize the relevance of the returned image list through reordering. However, since maximizing the relevance of each item in the list is the only objective, the resulting ranking list tends to return a large number of redundant images that convey repetitive information. For example, duplicate, near duplicate, and visually similar images tend to appear in the top of the list. As discussed in [12], users usually prefer search results consisting of images that are not only highly relevant but also covering broad topics. Therefore, diversified reranking is proposed to allow the search results to convey more information by maximizing the topic coverage (TC).

Although the existing diversified reranking methods improve the diversity in some cases, they suffer from two challenges. First, although both relevance and diversity are considered, optimizations are performed in a two-step manner [9], [11], i.e., firstly conducting relevance-based reranking to maximize the relevance, and then enriching the TC by diversifying the relevance-based reranking result. The two-step optimization that maximizes the relevance and
diversity separately can hardly achieve the joint optimum. Second, the diversified reranking usually models topic diversity through low-level visual features [9], which may not reflect users’ perception on the semantic diversity due to the semantic gap. Although Song et al. [8] tried to use automatic annotation to bridge this gap, it is restricted by the scalability and accuracy of the automatic annotation in practical large-scale databases. 

In addition, both relevance-based reranking and diversified reranking do not capture the hierarchical topic structure of search results very well. They usually treat topics equally and independently. However, different topics have different levels of importance. Generally, covering a more popular/important topic is preferred to covering a rare topic. Moreover, it can only deal with the simplest situation where all topics are independent to each other. In real applications, images returned for a certain query are naturally in hierarchical organization, rather than simple parallel relation. For example, the query apple includes two main categories, “fruit apple” and “products of Apple company.” In the topic fruit apple, it further includes several sub-topics, e.g., apple trees, red apple, apple pie, etc.

To address the above problems, this paper proposes a new reranking method, termed TARerank. The framework of TARerank is presented in Fig. 1. When a textual query is submitted to a text-based image search engine, an initial search result is returned which may contain some irrelevant or duplicate images. Our proposed TARerank method reorders those images to obtain a more satisfactory result which consists of relevant and diverse images.

In order to capture the hierarchical topic structure, a new criterion, called normalized cumulated topic coverage (NCTC), is also proposed. This measurement takes topic importance into consideration, and is well-suited for dealing with hierarchical topics. Since irrelevant images have no contribution to TC, NCTC also captures the relevance character.

In short, the main contributions introduced in this paper are summarized as follows.

1) Topic aware reranking is proposed as a learning-based reranking method. It directly learns a model from a training set by jointly optimizing relevance and diversity.

2) We propose a new criterion, NCTC, to seamlessly quantify relevance and diversity simultaneously. NCTC is a highly general measurement. It can handle the hierarchical TC and also take topic importance into consideration. The commonly used criterion topic recall (TRecall) [13] is a special case of NCTC.

3) To learn the TARerank model, we design a set of features to describe the relevance and diversity properties of a ranking result. By introducing a learning procedure, the gap between low-level visual feature diversity and high-level semantic topic diversity is bridged to some extent.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Firstly, we briefly review the related work in Section II and then present the proposed NCTC measurement in Section III. In Section IV, we introduce the proposed TARerank problem, as well as its learning and prediction. By analyzing the properties of most wanted diverse search results, a set of corresponding features is defined in Section V. The experimental results are presented and analyzed in Section VI, followed by the conclusion in Section VII.

II. RELATED WORK

Image search plays an important role in our daily life. Considerable research efforts have been made to improve image search performance from various aspects, e.g., novel visual feature design [14]–[17], feature generation [18]–[21], semantic annotation [22]–[26], machine learning tools [27]–[30], and ranking and reranking algorithms [2], [9], [31]–[33]. Among them, visual reranking draws increasing attention since it leverages the advantages of both content-based [34] and text-based image retrieval. As aforementioned, existing reranking methods can be classified.
into two categories, i.e., relevance-based reranking and diversified reranking.

Relevance-based reranking focuses on improving the quality of search results from the relevant aspects, boosting the rank of relevant images. Most visual reranking work in earlier years belongs to this category. Yan et al. [5] proposed to rerank the image search results in classification way. It introduces the pseudo-relevance feedback assumption in document retrieval to obtain pseudo-positive and pseudo-negative training samples for relevance classifier training. Hsu et al. [3] modeled the reranking process as a random walk over a graph that is constructed by using images as the nodes and the edges between them being weighted by visual similarities. Jing and Baluja [2] applied the well-known PageRank algorithm to image search reranking by directly treating images as documents and their visual similarities as probabilistic hyperlinks. Tian et al. [4] proposed a general graph-based reranking framework and formulated visual reranking as an optimization problem from the Bayesian perspective. The problem in relevance-based reranking is that they mainly rely on visual consistency to perform reranking, therefore visually similar images are often ranked nearby. Near-duplicate images present less information to users, especially in response to queries that are ambiguous, such as apple. Many researchers have found that users are not very clear on what they want when performing such searches. Thus, a diverse result covering rich topics may meet the various needs of users more effectively and could help them reach their search targets more quickly.

Since search results with rich TC are preferred by users, various methods have been proposed to achieve the diversity objective at the reranking stage. In [10], a retrieval model is designed to return diversified image search results by utilizing the textual information associated with the images, i.e., tags, titles, and descriptions. In [8], TC relations between an image pair are measured via their associated words that are annotated automatically. By taking TC relations as probabilistic linkage between images, a method similar to PageRank is adopted to deduce the topic richness score for each image, and a diversified result is sequentially derived by choosing images which have high topic richness and cover new topics. Cao et al. [35] extended VisualRank [2] to cluster the images into several groups. In [9], the images are first clustered via clustering algorithms based on the maximal marginal relevance (MMR) rule and then the diverse result is formed by picking up one representative image from each cluster. Yang et al. [11] conducted a relevance-based reranking first to obtain the relevance score of each image, then sequentially selected images which were both relevant and different from images already selected.

Although promising improvements have been made, existing reranking methods have problems in optimizing relevance and diversity simultaneously. The separate two-step optimization of relevance and diversity can hardly achieve joint optimum [9], [11]. Besides, criterion which can measure relevance and diversity seamlessly is highly desired. To solve those problems, we propose a new reranking method and a new criterion to achieve the joint optimum.

III. NCTC

As discussed in Section I, the performance of a ranking result should be measured from two aspects, relevance and diversity. It is expected to use one criterion to measure both aspects at the same time and take topic importance into consideration. This paper proposes such a criterion called NCTC to capture the relevance, diversity, and topic structure. We will detail the proposed NCTC as follows.

A. TC

For a query $q$, suppose there are $N$ images $\mathcal{I} = \{I_1, \ldots, I_N\}$ returned in the text-based search stage. A ranking vector $y = [y_1, \ldots, y_N]^T$ is adopted to represent the ranks of these $N$ images, where $y_i$ denotes the rank of $I_i$. For example, if we have four images $\{I_1, I_2, I_3, I_4\}$, $y = [3, 2, 1, 4]^T$ means the order of these four images are $<I_3, I_2, I_1, I_4>$. For a ranking vector $y$, we use $\text{TC}@k$ to denote the TC of the top-$k$ ranked images in it. In this paper, hierarchical topics are adopted to capture the real Web image data distribution. For each query, all relevant images are organized into different topics and subtopics, as shown in Fig. 2. Irrelevant images do not belong to any topic. The root node denotes the query itself. $\text{TC}@k$ should consider the TC in each topic layer. Therefore, we can define $\text{TC}@k$ as the weighted sum of $\text{TC}$ in each layer $h_i$

$$\text{TC}@k = \frac{1}{z} \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} w_{h_i} \cdot \text{tc}_{h_i} \quad (1)$$

where $N_h$ is the number of the topic layer. For example in Fig. 2, $N_h = 3$. The $w_{h_i}$ is the weighting for layer $h_i$ and $z = \sum_{i=1}^{N_h} w_{h_i}$ is a normalization constant. We use $\tau_{h_i}$ to denote the set of topics in layer $h_i$, for example, $\tau_{h_1} = \{t_1^1, t_2^1, t_3^1\}$ in Fig. 2. Then $w_{h_i}$ is defined as

$$w_{h_i} = \frac{1}{\log_2(1 + |\tau_{h_i}|)} \quad (2)$$

which means larger TC in top layers is preferred.
\( t_{c_h} \) measures to what degree the topics in layer \( h_i \) are covered. The most direct way for calculating \( t_{c_h} \) is to define it as the ratio of covered topic numbers to the total topic numbers in \( h_i \)

\[
t_{c_h} = \frac{\sum_{t \in \tau_{h_i}} \delta(t)}{|\tau_{h_i}|}.
\]

\( \delta(t) \) is a binary function to denote whether topic \( t \in \tau_{h_i} \) is covered by the top-\( k \) images in ranking vector \( y \) or not, i.e., \( \delta(t) = 1 \) if \( t \) is covered and otherwise \( \delta(t) = 0 \).

A problem existing in (3) is that, it does not consider the importance of different topics. Therefore, we propose to use a topic importance weighted ratio to calculate \( t_{c_h} \)

\[
t_{c_h} = \frac{\sum_{t \in \tau_{h_i}} w_{t_f} \delta(t)}{\sum_{t \in \tau_{h_i}} w_{t_f}}.
\]

\( w_{t_f} \) is the weighting for topic \( t \) and is defined as

\[
w_{t_f} = \log_2(1 + n_t)
\]

where \( n_t \) denotes the number of images belonging to topic \( t \).

Equation (5) means that covering a topic containing more images provides more information than covering a topic containing fewer images. However, in some applications rare topics might be more important than popular topics. In this case, we can adjust \( w_{t_f} \) and assign larger weighting to rare topics.

TC is a general measurement which considers hierarchical topic coverage and topic importance. If we only consider TC in a certain topic layer and set equal \( w_{t_f} \) for each topic, then TC degenerates to TRecall used in [13] and [35].

### B. NCTC

The TC@\( k \) can accurately measure the TC of the top-\( k \) ranked images in \( y \). However, it does not differentiate the order of these top-\( k \) ranked images. For example, given two ranking vectors \( y_1 = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]^T \) and \( y_2 = [4, 3, 2, 1, 5, 6]^T \), their TC@4 are the same. To measure the overall quality of a ranking vector, we propose a single value measurement, NCTC. NCTC@\( k \) is defined as the weighted sum of TC@1 to TC@\( k \)

\[
NCTC@k = \frac{1}{\zeta} \sum_{i=1}^{k} (1 - \rho_i)TC@i
\]

where \( \rho_i = (k-i)/k \) is the forgetting factor. A larger \( \rho_i \) is assigned to a smaller \( i \) since TC@\( i \) has already incorporated TC@\( i-1 \) to some extent. The normalization constant \( \zeta \) is chosen to guarantee a perfect ranking vector’s NCTC@\( k = 1 \).

### C. Discussion

The proposed NCTC measures both the relevant and hierarchical TC of a ranking result. For a query \( q \) and the \( N \) images returned for it, the ideal ranking result should be the one which has the highest NCTC. To illustrate the advantage of NCTC measurement, we use the toy data in Fig. 2 as an example. There are 17 images returned in total, 14 relevant and three irrelevant. Supposing we can only return three images to users, which three should be selected? Here we discuss three different ranking results which are constructed via different criteria. Result 1: three images are selected by maximizing relevance, i.e., they are all relevant but may belong to duplicate topics, \(<I_{10}, I_{11}, I_{12}>\). Result 2: three images are selected by maximizing the TC in layer \( h_1 \) without considering the hierarchical topic structure, \(<I_1, I_4, I_6>\). Result 3: three images are selected by maximizing NCTC, \(<I_{10}, I_5, I_1>\).

Table I lists the number of topics covered by those three results in topic layers \( h_1, h_2, \) and \( h_3 \), respectively. The best ranking result should maximize the TC in different layers. Table I shows that Result 3, the ideal ranking result defined by NCTC, achieves the maximum TC in all topic layers. This highly diverse result efficiently shows more information about the query, thus it can satisfy different kinds of users with broad search interests and help them reach their search targets more quickly.

### IV. TARerank

#### A. Problem Formulation

For a query \( q \), the text-based image search engine returns a list of images by processing textual information. We denote the top-\( N \) ranked image set as \( I = \{I_1, \ldots, I_N\} \). A ranking vector \( \bar{y} = [\bar{y}_1, \ldots, \bar{y}_N]^T \) is adopted to represent the ranks of these images in text-based search results, where \( \bar{y}_i \) denotes the rank of \( I_i \) in text search results. The aim of TARerank is to reorder the \( N \) images to obtain a new ranking vector \( y = [y_1, \ldots, y_N]^T \) in which the top-ranked images are not only relevant to the query but also cover broad topics.

In this paper, a supervised learning-based reranking method, called TARerank, is proposed. It directly learns a reranking model by optimizing the NCTC on a training set. The training set comprises \( m \) queries \( \{q^{(l)}\}_{l=1}^{m} \). For each query \( q \) in the training set, we already know the relevance degree and hierarchical topic labels of all the images. Then an optimal ranking vector \( y^* \) can be derived via straightforward greedy selection by maximizing criterion NCTC(y), or minimizing a loss \( \Delta(y) \) equivalently. Here we define \( \Delta(y) \) as

\[
\Delta(y) = 1 - NCTC_y@k.
\]
Algorithm 1 Greedy Selection For \(y^* = \arg \min_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \Delta y\)

**Input:** \(\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{Y}, \text{Dep}\)

**Initialization:** \(S = \emptyset, y_i^* = N\) for \(i = 1, \ldots, N\)

for \(k = 1, \ldots, \text{Dep} \) do

\(I_k \leftarrow \arg \min_{y, i \neq I_k, y \in S} \Delta(y)\), where \(y\) is defined as:

\(y = y^*\) and \(y_j = k\);

\(y_i^* = k\);

\(S \leftarrow S \cup \{I_k\}\);

end for

return \(y^*\)

Our aim is to learn a model \(f(\cdot)\) which should satisfy the following constraints:

\[\forall y \in \mathcal{Y} \setminus y^* : f(y^*) > f(y)\]  

where \(\mathcal{Y}\) is the set of all possible \(y\) with \(|\mathcal{Y}| = O(N!)\). It means that a good model should assign a higher value to optimal ranking vector \(y^*\) than any other nonoptimal ones.

In this paper, we consider the simplest linear model \(f(\cdot) = w^T \psi(y)\), where \(w\) is the weighting vector and \(\psi(y)\) is a feature vector which describes the relevance and diversity attributes for ranking vector \(y\). We will detail \(\psi(y)\) later in Section V. With the linear model, the constraints in (8) translate to

\[\forall y \in \mathcal{Y} \setminus y^* : w^T \psi(y^*) > w^T \psi(y).\]  

With \(m\) training queries \(q_j^{(i)}\), we formulate the learning problem by using the powerful structural SVMs [36]

\[
\min_{w, \xi \geq 0} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^{m} \xi_i \tag{10}
\]

s.t. \(\forall i, \forall y \in \mathcal{Y} \setminus y^*(i)\)

\[w^T \psi \left(y^{(i)*}\right) \geq w^T \psi(y) + \Delta(y) - \xi_i\]

where \(\xi\) are the slack variables and \(C > 0\) controls the tradeoff between model complexity and training errors. \(y^{(i)*}\) is the optimal ranking vector for \(q^{(i)}\), which has the minimum loss \(\Delta(y)\). \(\Delta(y)\) on the right hand side of the constraints is utilized to give a more severe penalty to \(y\) which violates far from \(y^{(i)*}\).

The greedy selection algorithm for deriving \(y^{(i)*}\) is given in Algorithm 1. Due to the computation cost and the need in real applications (users often only examine the images returned in the top 1 to 2 pages, about 20–40 images), we only need to select the top subset, for example top-Dep images. The parameter Dep is utilized to denote how many top-ranked images we evaluated in \(y^*\).

Algorithm 2 Cutting Plane Algorithm to Solve (11)

**Input:** \((\mathcal{I}^{(1)}, \mathcal{Y}^{(1)}, \mathcal{Y}^{(1)*}), \ldots, (\mathcal{I}^{(m)}, \mathcal{Y}^{(m)}, \mathcal{Y}^{(m)*}), \mathcal{C}, \varepsilon)\)

**Initialization:** \(\mathcal{W}^{(l)} \leftarrow \emptyset\) for all query \(i = 1, \ldots, m\)

repeat

for \(i = 1, \ldots, m\) do

\(H(y; w) \equiv \Delta(y) + w^T \psi(y) - w^T \psi(y^{(i)*})\)

Compute \(\hat{y} = \arg \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} H(y; w)\)

Compute \(\xi_i = \max(0, \max_{y \in \mathcal{W}} H(y; w))\)

if \(H(\hat{y}; w) > \xi_i + \varepsilon\) then

\(\mathcal{W}^{(l)} \leftarrow \mathcal{W}^{(l)} \cup \{\hat{y}\}\)

\(w \leftarrow \text{optimize (11) over } \mathcal{W} = \cup_l \mathcal{W}^{(l)}\)

end if

end for

until no \(\mathcal{W}^{(l)}\) has changed during iteration.

return \(w\)

C. Prediction on Test Query

After learning the optimal parameter vector \(w\), we use the learned model to predict the rich topic-covering ranking result for new incoming queries. The optimal ranking vector \(\hat{y}\) should be selected according to

\[\hat{y} = \arg \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} w^T \psi(y).\]  

However, it is intractable to find out \(\hat{y}\) by examining all \(N!\) possible permutations in \(\mathcal{Y}\). Therefore, we also resort to
the greedy selection method to complete this procedure. The greedy selection algorithm is similar to Algorithm 3, except we must replace the objective \( \Delta(y) + w^T \psi(y) \) with \( w^T \psi(y) \).

Algorithm 3 Greedy Selection For \( \hat{y} = \arg \max_{y \in \Delta}(y) + w^T \psi(y) \)

Input: \( \tilde{I}, \tilde{y}, \text{Dep}, w \)

Initialization: \( S = \emptyset, y_i^0 = N \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, N \)

for \( k = 1, \ldots, \text{Dep} \) do

\( I_i \leftarrow \arg \max_{I_i \in I \setminus S} \Delta(y) + w^T \psi(y) \), where \( y \) is defined as: \( y = y^* \) and \( y_j = k \);

\( y_i^k = k \);

\( S \leftarrow S \cup \{I_i\} \);

end for

return \( y^* \)

V. FEATURE CONSTRUCTION

In this section, we will detail how to derive a set of proper features \( \psi(y) \) to describe the properties of a ranking vector \( y \). We investigate three important properties that a perceptual good ranking result should have: relevance, TC, and representativeness. For each of those criteria, we define related features to measure them. The feature vector can be defined as \( \psi(y) = (\psi^1, \psi^2, \psi^3)^T \), where \( \psi^j \) is the sub-feature vector corresponding to the \( j \)-th criterion. In the following subsections, we will detail how to derive sophisticated \( \psi \) by addressing the above three criteria respectively.

A. Relevance

All top-ranked images should be relevant. Irrelevant images in the top list affect user experience. We define relevance-related features to measure the relevance quality of \( y \).

The relevance feature \( \psi_1 \) should measure how relevant the top-Dep ranked images in \( y \) are. For each query, a relevance score vector \( r = [\tilde{r}_1, \ldots, \tilde{r}_N]^T \) expresses the relevance of images to this query with \( \tilde{r}_i \) corresponding to image \( I_i \). The \( r \) can be obtained through any existing relevance-based reranking method, or directly obtained from a text-based search.

We define the relevance feature as the weighted sum of the relevance scores of the top-Dep ranked images in \( y \), that is

\[
\psi_1 = \frac{1}{z} \sum_{y_i \leq \text{Dep}} \beta_i \tilde{r}_i
\]  

where \( \beta_i \) is the weight for \( \tilde{r}_i \) and \( z = \sum_{y_i \leq \text{Dep}} \beta_i \) is the normalization constant.

Since we desire more relevant samples to have higher ranks, a larger \( \beta_i \) should be assigned to an image with a higher rank. In this paper, we empirically set \( \beta_i \) as

\[
\beta_i = \frac{1}{\log_2(1 + y_i)}.
\]

The relevance feature is used to maintain the relevance information obtained from any cues. The text-based search results essentially provide a way for deriving \( r \), i.e., setting \( \tilde{r}_i \) according to the rank of \( I_i \) in text-based search results. Besides, we can also resort to relevance-based reranking methods to obtain refined relevance score vectors. Through various text-based search technologies and relevance-based reranking methods, we can derive a set of relevance score vectors \( \{r_d\}, d = 1, \ldots, d_1 \). Then \( \psi_1 \) can be extended to a \( d_1 \)-dimensional vector \( \psi_1 = [\psi_1, \ldots, \psi_{1,d_1}]^T \) with \( \psi_{1,d} \) defined on \( r_d \) according to (13).

B. TC

Images with duplicate topics, although relevant, cannot provide rich information. Therefore diverse topics among top-ranked images are highly preferred. Besides, due to the ambiguity of the text query terms, a diverse ranking result can satisfy various users. Features relating to TC will be utilized to measure the topic richness of the top-ranked images.

To ensure the top-Dep ranked images in \( y \) cover rich topics, we require these images to be visually dissimilar to each other. Therefore, we define the TC feature \( \psi_2 \) as the minimum visual dissimilarity among the top-Dep ranked images, that is

\[
\psi_2 = \min_{y_i \leq \text{Dep}, y_j \leq \text{Dep}, i \neq j} (1 - s_{ij})
\]

where \( s_{ij} \) is the visual similarity between images \( I_i \) and \( I_j \). Maximizing the minimal dissimilarity ensures that, in top-Dep ranked image set each image is highly dissimilar to others.

The similarity \( s_{ij} \) between images \( I_i \) and \( I_j \) is calculated from their visual features \( x_i \) and \( x_j \) as

\[
s_{ij} = \exp \left( -\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\sigma^2} \right).
\]

As we can see from (16), \( s_{ij} \) is influenced by the scaling parameter \( \sigma \) and the utilized visual feature \( x \). Since there is no good solution to determine which kind of visual feature or which \( \sigma \) should be used, we can utilize a set of visual features \( \{\{x\}_p\}_{p=1}^{\ldots,m} \) and a set of scaling parameters \( \{\sigma_p\}_{p=1}^{\ldots,n} \). By calculating a set of \( \psi_2 \) via (15) with each visual feature and variance scale, we can augment \( \psi_2 \) to a long feature vector \( \psi_2 = [\psi_2, \ldots, \psi_{2,d_2}]^T \) with dimensionality \( d_2 = m \times n \).

C. Representativeness

Besides the above two criteria, there is the third that should be considered—representativeness. We define an image as representative if it is located in a dense area with many similar images. Representativeness has dual connections to both relevance and TC. On one hand, it is widely assumed in relevance-based reranking that frequently occurring images are more likely to be relevant [1], [2]. From this point of view, representativeness is part of relevance-related feature. On the other hand, in TARerank, we require top-ranked images to cover rich topics. However, there are usually a set of relevant images that belong to the same topic, therefore determining which should be used to represent the topic is problematic. Generally, more representative images are often preferred. Due to the importance of representativeness, we also define features for measuring the representativeness of the top-Dep ranked images in \( y \).

Intuitively, an image is more representative if it is located in a dense area with many images around it. Therefore, we
can measure the representativeness of image \( I_i \) with its probability density \( p_i \). \( p_i \) can be estimated through kernel density estimation (KDE) [37], [38]

\[
p_i = \frac{1}{|N_i|} \sum_{j \in N_i} k(x_i - x_j)
\]

(17)

where \( N_i \) is the set of neighbors of image \( I_i \) and \( k(x) \) is a kernel function that satisfies both \( k(x) > 0 \) and \( \int k(x)d(x) = 1 \). The Gaussian kernel is adopted in this paper.

With the representativeness \( p_i \) for each image, we can define the representativeness feature \( \psi_3 \) for ranking vector \( y \) as the weighted sum of \( p_i \) of the top-Dep ranked images

\[
\psi_3 = \frac{1}{z} \sum_{y_{\leq \text{Dep}}} \beta_i p_i.
\]

(18)

The weighting \( \beta_i \) and normalization constant \( z \) are defined in the same way as that in (13).

The estimation of \( p_i \) via KDE is also influenced by the scaling parameter \( \sigma \) and the utilized visual feature \( x \). Similar to the TC feature, we also augment \( \psi_3 \) to a d3-dimensional feature vector \( \psi_3 = [\psi_{3,1}, \ldots, \psi_{3,3}]^T \) with each \( \psi_{3,i} \) estimated via (18) with different variance scales and visual features.

VI. EXPERIMENTS

In order to demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed TARerank method, we conduct several experiments on a Web image search dataset.

A. EXPERIMENTAL SETTING

1) Dataset Collection: There is no publicly available benchmark dataset which has been labeled with hierarchical topics. Therefore, we collected a dataset from Web image search engines. Due to the laborious nature of labeling hierarchical topics for training queries, this preliminary dataset currently consists of 23,948 images and 26 queries. (The topic label is not required for a test query.) For each query, we have retrieved the images (at most, the top 1000 ranked) returned by a text-based image search engine.

2) Relevance and Topic Labeling: For each image, its relevance degree with respect to the corresponding query is judged by human labelers on two levels, i.e., “relevant” and “irrelevant.” For each query, the human labelers are also required to group all relevant images into different topics. The images belonging to the same topic are further divided into several subtopics if necessary, until the labelers think there is no need to continue this operation. The numbers of topic layers in these queries vary from 1 to 6.

3) Visual Features: We extract several low-level visual features to describe the images’ content and use them for calculating similarity and density. These features include: 1) attention-guided color signature [39]; 2) color spatialet [40]; 3) scale-invariant feature transform [41]; 4) multilayer rotation invariant edge orientation histogram [42]; 5) histogram of gradient [43]; 6) the combination of the above five features and daubechies wavelet [44] as well as facial feature [45], as described in [40]; and 7) color moment in lightness color-opponent dimensions space [46]. More details of these extractions of visual features can be found in [40]. For fair comparison, in our experiments all other methods also utilize these features for calculating the similarity between images. In calculating the TC and representativeness features in (16) and (18), seven different \( \sigma \)s are adopted for each kind of visual feature, resulting \( |\psi_2| = |\psi_3| = 49 \). A set of scaling parameters \( \{\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_7\} \) are empirically defined as

\[
\sigma_i = \text{scale}_i \times \text{MeanDist}
\]

(19)

where MeanDist is the average distance of \( K \) nearest neighbors over all \( N \) images and scale = \{1/4, 1/2, 1/\sqrt{2}, 1, \sqrt{2}, 2, 4\}. \( K \) is set as 15 in this paper.

4) Dataset Split for Fourfold Cross Validation: We split the 26 queries into fourfolds with each fold comprising 7, 7, 6, and 6 queries, respectively. Each time, we use twofolds queries for training, onefold queries for validation and the remaining fold queries for testing. We repeat the experiments four times and let each fold be used once for testing.

5) EVALUATED METHODS: We compared TArerank with several methods, including the text search baseline (Text), one typical relevance-based reranking method—Bayesian reranking (BR) [4], one typical diversified reranking method—MMR [9] based on text search results (MMR-Text), as well as the two-step combination of applying MMR to the post-process BR result, denoted as MMR-BR. BR, MMR-Text, and MMR-BR are all unsupervised methods. For fair comparison, their optimal parameters are also selected on the validation set and then applied on the test set to get the fourfold cross validation results. Here we do not evaluate the method proposed in [10] and [11] due to the lack of tags, which are essentially required in those methods but often unavailable for general Web images.

6) EVALUATION MEASURES: The measurements used for performance evaluation in this paper include: 1) the aforementioned NCTC; 2) existing relevance measurement averaged precision (AP) [47] and normalized discounted cumulated gain (NDCG) [48]; and 3) existing diversity measurement TRecall [13]. AP is the mean of the precision values obtained when each relevant image occurs. The AP of top-\( k \) ranked images is defined as

\[
\text{AP}@k = \frac{1}{Z_k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \text{[precision}(i) \times \text{rel}(i)]
\]

(20)

where \( \text{rel}(i) \) is a binary function denoting the relevance of the \( i \)th ranked image with “1” for relevant and “0” for irrelevant. precision\( (i) \) is the precision of top-\( i \) ranked images

\[
\text{precision}(i) = \frac{1}{i} \sum_{j=1}^{i} \text{rel}(j).
\]

(21)

\( Z_k \) is a normalization constant that is chosen to guarantee AP\( @1 = 1 \) for a perfect ranking result list. The perfect ranking result list is derived by ordering images according to their ground-truth relevance labels. The TRecall is calculated in a similar way, and is also normalized by a constant to guarantee a perfect ranking result list’s TRecall\( @k = 1 \). The perfect ranking result list is derived by ordering images according to their ground-truth topic labels.
TABLE II
RERANKING COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT METHODS. CROSS-VALIDATION IS CONDUCTED ACCORDING TO NCTC, FOR FAIR TC COMPARISON.
TARerank Marked by “∗∗” MEANS IT OUTPERFORMS ALL OTHER FOUR METHODS SIGNIFICANTLY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Dep-5 NCTC</th>
<th>TRecall</th>
<th>AP</th>
<th>NDCG</th>
<th>Dep-10 NCTC</th>
<th>TRecall</th>
<th>AP</th>
<th>NDCG</th>
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<th>TRecall</th>
<th>AP</th>
<th>NDCG</th>
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<tr>
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<td>58.8</td>
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<td>65.6</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>MMR-BR</td>
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<td>72.2</td>
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<td>54.0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>49.8</td>
<td>66.7∗</td>
<td>79.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE III
RERANKING COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT METHODS. CROSS-VALIDATION IS CONDUCTED ACCORDING TO NDCG, FOR FAIR RELEVANCE COMPARISON

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
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<th>AP</th>
<th>NDCG</th>
</tr>
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<td>65.9</td>
<td>79.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MMR-Text</td>
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<td>51.0</td>
<td>65.9</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>BR</td>
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<td>45.8</td>
<td>67.2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>MMR-BR</td>
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<td>66.7</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>TARerank</td>
<td>60.5</td>
<td>51.6</td>
<td>69.7</td>
<td>81.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Experimental Results and Analysis
In this section, the results of experiments with various settings are presented and analyzed. We have tested a set of \(\text{Dep} = \{5, 10, 20\}\). Table II presents the experimental results of the proposed TARerank and the four baseline methods. For fair comparison, in all methods their optimal parameters are selected via fourfold cross-validation by optimizing their performance in terms of NCTC on the validation set.

1) Comparison of NCTC: We first analyze their performance in terms of NCTC. Table II shows that the proposed TARerank presents the best performance among the five methods, and achieves consistent improvements over three \(\text{Dep} = \{5, 10, 20\}\) settings (compared with Text baseline). The NCTC in relevance-based reranking method BR decreases because BR has the only objective of improving the relevance and neglects the diversity. For diversified reranking method MMR-Text, its performances on \(\text{Dep}-5, \text{Dep}-10, \text{and} \text{Dep}-20\) slightly decrease, keep stable, and then slightly increase, respectively. The reason is that MMR-Text post-processes the top-ranked images in Text result by selecting a visually diverse image set. The gap between visual diversity and semantic topic diversity causes limited improvements (sometimes even deterioration). For relevance-diversified two-step method MMR-BR, it accumulates the TC reduction in the BR step. This error accumulation, coupled with the limited power of MMR, makes it hard for MMR-BR to improve the TC.

2) Correlation With TRecall: TRecall is a diversity measurement which has been used in some diversified reranking work for evaluation [13], [35]. The main difference between NCTC and TRecall is that NCTC is much more general and takes the hierarchical topic structure and the topic importance into consideration. By comparing NCTC and TRecall of the five methods in Table II, we can find that they are roughly consistent, i.e., methods achieving high NCTC generally also have high TRecall. Specifically, their correlation coefficients measured via Kendall \(\tau\) (\(\in [-1, 1]\)) [49] are 0.875, 1.0, and 0.5 on \(\text{Dep}-5, \text{Dep}-10, \text{and} \text{Dep}-20\), respectively. Since both TRecall and NCTC are used for TC measuring, the positive correlation between them partially verifies the capacity of NCTC in measuring reranking performance. Since TRecall is just a special case of NCTC, they are not perfectly correlated.

3) Comparison of Relevance: We have analyzed the performance of TARerank in terms of NCTC above. Now we examine whether it improves relevance and diversity simultaneously. The performance in terms of relevance corresponds to the AP and NDCG columns in Table II. We find that TARerank also achieves excellent performance in improving relevance, even better than the relevance-based reranking method BR. However, since the results in Table II are obtained via cross-validation according to NCTC, the relevance comparison between TARerank and BR here may be unfair since they have different ranking objectives. Considering this, we further conduct another cross-validation where optimal parameters are selected for all methods according to NDCG. The results are presented in Table III. Here we take only \(\text{Dep}-20\) for illustration. This table shows that TARerank also outperforms BR. This phenomenon demonstrates the power of TARerank in improving relevance and diversity simultaneously.

Overall, MMR-Text can only slightly improve the diversity of Text, while sacrificing relevance. BR improves the relevance of Text, while sacrificing diversity. Two-step method MMR-BR improves diversity and relevance in two separate steps and the errors are easily accumulated. As a consequence, MMR-BR can hardly achieve satisfactory results. Our proposed TARerank directly optimizes the relevance and diversity simultaneously in one objective and achieves the best performance.

To verify whether the improvement of TARerank is statistically significant, we further perform a statistical significance test. Here we conduct a paired \(T\)-test with a 5% level of significance between TARerank and the other four methods. The results are reported in Table II. A mark of “∗∗” is given if TARerank significantly outperforms all other methods. It shows that the differences are significant in most cases, especially when \(\text{Dep} \leq 10\).
4) **Comparison of Performance (NCTC, AP) at Different Truncation Levels:** In Tables II and III, only the performances at truncation level $Dep$ are given. To further examine their effectiveness at truncation levels from 1 to $Dep$, we also illustrate the curves of NCTC@1-20 and AP@1-20, as shown in Fig. 3. From Fig. 3(a), we find that TARerank gets stable improvements at different truncation levels with the only exception of NCTC@2, which is slightly degraded. Fig. 3(b) shows that the text search baseline is consistently improved by TARerank at different truncation levels, while BR and MMR-BR improve the Text only at levels 17–20.

5) **TARerank on Each Query:** Besides the overall performance on the whole dataset, we also analyze the performance of TARerank on each query. Here we take the experiments with $Dep$-20 for illustration and present the results in terms of NCTC@20 and AP@20 for each query in Figs. 4 and 5, respectively. From Fig. 4, we can find that for most queries, NCTC is improved after reranking via TARerank. Specifically, TARerank outperforms Text on 19 out of 26 queries and obtains the highest performance over all five methods on 11 out of 26 queries. As for AP@20, Fig. 5 shows that BR and MMR-BR improve the AP of Text on some queries, for example “baby” and “batman” for BR, and “camera” and “Paris Hilton” for MMR-BR. However, they also suffer from sudden decreases on many queries, for example “angle,” “Disney,” and “football.” Compared with BR and MMR-BR, TARerank improves the Text much steadier and rarely shows large decreases on queries.

MMR-BR performs the reranking in a two-step manner, i.e., first using BR to improve relevance and then utilizing MMR to improve the diversity of the BR result. This two-step process creates the problem of error accumulation, which is the reason why MMR-BR is not as stable as TARerank. The performance of MMR-BR highly depends on the BR result. As shown in Fig. 5, for those queries BR fails, the MMR-BR shows either a sudden increase (“airplanes,” camera) or a sudden decrease (angel). As we know, BR tends to return near-duplicate images in the top of the reranking result. MMR-BR increases the diversity by eliminating the visually duplicate images from BR result sequentially. Those near-duplicate images may be relevant, but they can also be noisy. As a consequence, if the eliminated near-duplicate images are
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Fig. 5. Performance in terms of AP@20 of TARerank, as well as the other four methods on each query. TARerank outperforms Text on 15/26 queries. Compared with BR and MMR-BR, TARerank improves the Text more steadily and rarely shows large decreases on queries.

noisy, MMR-BR can improve the performance of BR, leading to a sudden increase. Otherwise, a sudden decrease will be observed if the eliminated near-duplicate images are relevant.

Fig. 6 gives the top-10 images returned on query “Van Gogh” by Text, MMR-Text, BR, MMR-BR, and TARerank. MMR-Text improves the diversity of Text, but introduces some irrelevant images at the same time. BR improves the relevance but returns some near-duplicate images (for example, the “sunflower” paintings). MMR-BR accumulates the errors in BR and MMR, therefore it performs the worst. Our proposed TARerank achieves the best performance and returns the paintings of Van Gogh without duplication.

6) Individual Feature Evaluation: As introduced in Section V, our proposed feature $\psi(y)$ consists of three sub-feature vectors which correspond to relevance (Fea1), TC (Fea2), and representativeness (Fea3) respectively. Here we further investigate the effectiveness of each of those three features and their late fusion. The experimental results are presented in Table IV. Fea1 is a 1-D feature vector defined according to the relevance information provided by the text-based search result. Since there is no other information utilized, the performance of TARerank with only Fea1 is almost the same as Text. For TARerank with only Fea2, it improves the TC of Text to some extent, but AP and NDCG decrease. This is because Fea2 only focuses on selecting visually diverse images and neglects the relevance property. As a consequence, some visually different, but irrelevant, images are returned. For TARerank with only Fea3, it outperforms Text in terms of AP and NDCG, but underperforms Text in terms of TRecall and NCTC since representative images may be visually duplicated. Overall, compared to TARerank with all features combined (“AllCombined”), the individual features do not perform well. This is because those three features characterize very different but highly complementary properties of a good search result. All of them are essentially required to learn a satisfactory reranking model. “LateFusion” denotes the performance that we combine the reranking results of “Fea1,” “Fea2,” and “Fea3.” This late fusion is performed as follows. We assign three scores $S_{i1} = 1/(r_{Fea1}), S_{i2} = 1/(r_{Fea2}), S_{i3} = 3/(r_{Fea3})$ for each image $I$, where $r_{Feai}$ is the rank of image $I$ in the ranking result of “Feai,” $i = 1, 2, 3$. The final score of image $I$ is the average of those three scores. The late fusion is obtained by ranking all images according to their final score in descending order. We can see that LateFusion performs better than the individual features, but achieves much lower performance than AllCombined (early fusion).

7) Sensitivity of TARerank to Parameter C: Our proposed TARerank has only one free parameter $C$ in structural support vector machine (11). In the experiments, we test a set of $C = \{1000, 100, 10, 1, 0.1, 0.01\}$. The results presented above are obtained via cross-validation over all Cs. To investigate the sensitivity of TARerank to this parameter, here we examine its performance with each $C$, as presented in Table V. From this table, we find that TARerank outperforms Text with various Cs stably for Dep-10 and Dep-20. For Dep-5, TARerank is more sensitive to $C$ and the NCTC decreases slightly when $C \leq 10$. By comparing their best $C$ (1000 for Dep-5 and Dep-10, 0.1 for Dep-20), we find that a lower Dep usually prefers a larger $C$, and vice versa. This provides a rough guideline for setting proper $C$ empirically in practical applications. An intuitive
The time complexity for BR is $O(Dep \cdot MN + MN^2 + N^3)$. In TARerank, the time complexity for extracting feature $\psi(y)$ for a given $y$ is $O(DepMN)$. For the training of TARerank, it is guaranteed to converge in polynomial time [36]. Besides, the model only needs to be trained once offline. Therefore, we mainly analyze the time complexity during the online testing stage for TARerank, which is $O((DepMN + d)DepN)$, where $d$ is the dimension of $\psi(y)$. Since $d$ is usually much smaller than $DepMN$, the online testing time cost for TARerank can be approximated by $O(Dep^2MN^2)$. In summary, among the four methods MMR-Text has the lowest time complexity, and the time cost for TARerank in the testing stage is comparable to that of BR and MMR-BR when $Dep$ is small.

Besides theoretical analysis, we also test the time cost experimentally. They are implemented using C++ and run on a server with 2.67-GHz Intel Xeon CPU and 16 GB memory in single thread, $N = 200$, $Dep = 20$. MMR-Text takes less than 0.01 s. For BR and MMR-BR, they take about 0.1 s for reranking. For TARerank, it takes about 2 min for training the model from 13 queries, and takes less than 0.4 s for testing. It is worth emphasizing that in the testing stage, TARerank can be processed in parallel for efficiency and then its time cost is further reduced to $O(Dep^2MN)$. From the theoretical analysis and the statistical numbers discussed above, we can see that TARerank achieves the best reranking performance with acceptable time complexity.

### VII. Conclusion

In this paper, we propose a new diversified reranking method, TARerank, to refine text-based image search results. This method not only takes topic importance into consideration, but also directly learns a reranking model by optimizing a criterion related to reranking performance in terms of both relevance and diversity in one stage simultaneously. To better model the hierarchical topic structure of search results and describe the relevance and diversity in one criterion seamlessly, NCTC is proposed to quantify the hierarchical TC. Compared with the two-step optimization in other diversified reranking methods, TARerank can achieve the joint optimum

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**Fig. 6.** Top-ten images returned on query Van Gogh by Text, MMR-Text, BR, MMR-BR, and TARerank.

**Table V**

<table>
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of improving relevance and diversity. Besides, the learning procedure can bridge the gap between low-level visual feature diversity and high-level semantic topic diversity to some extent. These two advantages ensure the superiority of TARerank. By conducting extensive experiments on a Web image dataset, we have demonstrated the effectiveness of the proposed method. Furthermore, we find that both the relevance and TC are improved in our proposed TARerank. We believe that this method is a promising new paradigm for Web image search reranking.

Our future work will explore some additional objectives. One is to involve semantic information in TC feature construction and further bridge the gap between visual diversity and topic diversity. Currently, the NCTC can only deal with two relevance levels. Thus, generating multilevel relevance in the NCTC and TARerank is a direction for future research.

REFERENCES


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