# Modeling Semantic Correlation and Hierarchy for Real-World Wildlife Recognition 

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#### Abstract

We explore the challenges of human-in-the-loop frameworks to label wildlife recognition datasets with a neural network. In wildlife imagery, the main challenges for a model to assist human annotation are two-fold: (1) the training dataset is usually imbalanced, which makes the model's suggestion biased, and (2) there are complex taxonomies in the classes. We establish a simple and efficient baseline, including the debiasing loss function and the hyperbolic network architecture, to address these issues. Moreover, we propose leveraging the semantic correlation to train the model more effectively by adding a co-occurrence layer to our model during training. We demonstrate the efficacy of our method in both a real-world wildlife areal survey recognition dataset and the public image classification dataset, CIFAR100-LT, CIFAR10LT, and iNaturalist.


Index Terms-Wildlife recognition, active learning, class imbalance.

## I. Introduction and Related Work

AERIAL remote sensing technologies [21] are being increasingly used to monitor and survey wildlife populations safely [30], [32], [34]. Previous wildlife aerial surveys require humans to manually count the visual objects on an aircraft which are risky [30], and the monitoring results can be biased for different human observers [6], [27]. In contrast to manual monitoring, aerial remote sensing provides the potential for consistent and reproducible population surveys, with the addition of an accurate geo-referenced digital format [32], [34]. However, as real-world data, such as remote sensing aerial

[^0]survey data, should cover large areas resulting in thousands of images in the dataset, manually processing such real-world data is time-consuming and expensive for researchers and natural resource agencies [3], [12], [15]. As a result, we explore a human-in-the-loop approach [4], [11], [31] to utilize a deep neural network to collaborate with human annotators to efficiently process real-world wildlife datasets. In particular, our goal is to train a neural network as an image classifier to actively assist human annotators in labeling wildlife recognition datasets [23] by suggesting the class of unlabeled images.

When training a network to suggest image classes for realworld digital aerial imagery applications correctly, we observe two major distinctive points in multi-species datasets. (1) Imbalanced data distribution. Like most real-world datasets [33], the wildlife datasets [23] also show extremely imbalanced data distributions in the animal species [26]. Several dominant species are often observed, along with many infrequent species that are sparsely represented in datasets. As illustrated in Fig. 1, in the wildlife dataset from [23], the largest class had 6,246 training images, while the smallest class only had 17 training images. This issue could harm the recognition accuracy as the model prediction can be easily biased towards the abundant class [25]. The fewer training images of a particular species that the model has, the lower the accuracy for that species. (2) Class hierarchy. In addition, as illustrated in Fig. 1, the labels in wildlife datasets have a clear hierarchy which is relatively less prominent in standard datasets such as the CIFAR dataset. For example, mutually exclusive Target and Non-target categories have the highest hierarchy. The Target category consists of three secondlevel categories (super-classes): Scoter, Common Eider, and Long-tailed Duck. Finally, the Scoter super-class consists of three fine-grained classes such as Black Scoter, White-winged Scoter, and Unknown Scoter. As the categories in the class list have different levels of hierarchy, each category should be treated differently according to the corresponding hierarchy level. As a baseline to consider the aforementioned characteristics, we first utilize a simple yet effective debiasing loss [22] by leveraging the prior class distribution. In addition, to leverage the hierarchical nature of the class labels, we utilize hyperbolic neural networks [7] to learn the hierarchy in the labels effectively. To further boost the performance, we propose to learn the semantic correlation by modeling the co-occurrence among the classes. In particular, we add a learnable co-occurrence matrix on top of the model's final layer to refine the probability of the class prediction.


Fig. 1. The six classes in the Cape Cod dataset have a hierarchical relationship described in [23]. Target consists of three super-classes, Scoter Superclass, Common Eider, Long-tailed Duck. Scoter Super-class could be further divided to Black Scoter, White-winged Scoter, and Unknown Scoter. Moreover, the Non-target Species class includes images that cannot be categorized into the other five classes. Note that images between Target and Non-target Species are mutually exclusive in the dataset.

We use a case study of a real-world digital aerial survey dataset of waterbird species collected from the Atlantic Ocean near Cape Cod, Massachusetts, USA [23]. We show the efficacy of our method with both the wildlife dataset and the public image classification datasets, the CIFAR100-LT, CIFAR10-LT, and iNaturalist datasets [2], [5], [33], where our approach shows favorable performance compared to the baseline methods. In summary, our contributions are three-fold: (1) We explore a new problem to actively label a wildlife recognition dataset, (2) as a model to actively assist the human annotation process, we establish a simple yet effective baseline model to address the class imbalance problem and exploit label hierarchy, and (3) we propose a method to model the semantic correlation in the class labels by adding a co-occurrence layer, which further improves the performance.

## II. Proposed Method

Given an input image $X$ and the label $Y$ (among $L$ number of classes), our goal is to learn a classifier $f(\cdot)=\left\{f_{j}(\cdot)\right\}_{j=1}^{L}$ that minimizes the classification error. As mentioned in Section I, wildlife datasets are imbalanced in categories and have a label hierarchy. Therefore, we apply several methods to address these two challenges, (1) debiasing loss, (2) hyperbolic model, and (3) semantic correlation-based learning.

## A. Debiasing Loss Function

We leverage one of the popular long-tailed image classification methods named logit adjustment [22] for imbalanced data distribution. Logit adjustment encourages a large relative margin between logits of rare positive versus dominant negative labels to balance learning. In particular, we apply the logit adjustment [22] as a debiasing loss function during training:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}_{L A}=-\log \frac{\exp \left(f_{y}(X)+\tau \log \pi_{y}\right)}{\sum_{j \in[L]} \exp \left(f_{j}(X)+\tau \log \pi_{j}\right)}, \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\pi \in \Delta_{L}$ (for simplex $\Delta$ ) are estimates of the class priors e.g., the empirical frequencies on the training sample. $\tau$ is
the hyper-parameter. Other concurrent debiasing loss functions, such as margin-based approaches (LDAM [2]), uniformly increase the margin between a rare positive and all negatives and have relatively poor generalizability in most scenarios where the negative classes have heavily biased distribution. In contrast, logit adjustment loss increases the margin between a rare positive and a dominant negative in the output probability, which is more suitable for realistic datasets like wildlife datasets [23].

## B. Hyperbolic Models

To effectively learn the hierarchy in the class labels, we add a hyperbolic module [1], [7], [18], [24], [28], [29] in our classifier to create a hyperbolic neural network (HNN) that utilizes the hyperbolic space to embed data with hierarchical structures. In particular, hyperbolic neural networks lift Euclidean features into hyperbolic space for classification. [28] and [29] especially pointed out that hyperbolic space is non-Euclidean space with constant negative curvature, which can be used for embedding tree structures owing to the nature of exponential growth in volume with respect to its radius. Hyperbolic neural networks have shown to be helpful, especially on datasets with known semantic hierarchies (e.g., analyzing single-cell data [18], learning hierarchical word embedding [24], embedding complex networks [1]). However, Hyperbolic neural networks mostly perform worse than Euclidean neural networks on standard benchmarks without clear hierarchies [7]. Therefore, we leverage the clipped hyperbolic classifier [7] method, which is generally effective on standard image classification benchmarks. This method clips the Euclidean feature magnitude in the hybrid architecture connecting Euclidean features to a hyperbolic classifier while training HNNs:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{CLIP}\left(x^{E} ; r\right)=\min \left\{1, \frac{r}{\left\|x^{E}\right\|}\right\} \cdot x^{E} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $x^{E}$ is the latent feature in the Euclidean space and $r$ is the clipping value. Hyperbolic features capture the hierarchical structure of the dataset and improve the model's image classification performance.


Fig. 2. Our training framework includes a hyperbolic module, debiasing loss function, and our co-occurrence layer to leverage the label correlations. Each box in the matrix refers to the probabilities of the matrix. We color the low and high probability values with white and grey colors, respectively.

## C. Learning With Semantic Correlations

Moreover, we propose taking advantage of the natural correlations in the bird species. In particular, if a model gives a high likelihood of the black scoter (non-rare class), the model should give a similar likelihood of the white-winged scoter (rare class) as well. In addition, the detection of the Non-target species should preclude other bird classes. In particular, we define a learnable co-occurrence matrix [16], [17] in the form of $L \times L$ followed by a softmax nonlinearity, where $L$ is the number of classes. Each entry of the matrix represents the conditional probability $p\left(Y=i \mid Y^{\prime}=j\right)$ that the correct class of the given image is $Y=j$ when a primary model prediction $Y^{\prime}$ is $j$. By adding the co-occurrence matrix on top of the model's final layer as a co-occurrence layer, the probability of the refined class probability is predicted according to the total probability law:

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(Y=i \mid X)=\sum_{j \in \mathcal{Y}} p\left(Y=i \mid Y^{\prime}=j\right) * p\left(Y^{\prime}=j \mid X\right) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

This process is illustrated in Fig. 2. Since the co-occurrence layer is learned end-to-end via the back-propagation from the loss function to the model input, it works as prior knowledge [13], [20], [36] that can be automatically learned from the target dataset. In contrast to language-based prior knowledge, which requires external data sources [13], [20], [36], our co-occurrence prior can be automatically learned.

## III. EXPERIMENTS

## A. Dataset and Details

The main dataset we use is an aerial imagery dataset collected by the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service at Nantucket Shoals (Cape Cod), Massachusetts, in February 2017. After data collection, wildlife experts manually cropped images of individual birds (i.e., targets) and annotated the images into six different classes, illustrated in Fig. 1: The number of samples for each class is shown in Table I.

The images in the dataset were collected by the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service at Nantucket Shoals (Cape Cod), Massachusetts, in February 2017. Pixel resolution for the Nantucket Shoals dataset ranged from 0.18 to 1.47 cm . The average image dimension of the dataset is $75 \times 79$. In particular, the average image dimension of Unknown Scoter is $56 \times 61$, while the

TABLE I
The Number of Samples in the Wildlife dataset [23] for Training and Testing Split

| Species | Train \# | Test \# |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Common Eider | 6,246 | 3,172 |
| Unknown Scoter | 466 | 114 |
| Black Scoter | 341 | 108 |
| White-winged Scoter | 45 | 21 |
| Long-tailed Duck | 17 | 5 |
| Non-target Species | 108 | 38 |

The largest class, common eider, has over 6,246 training images, while the smallest class, long-tailed duck, only has 17 training images (imbalance ratio is $367: 1$ ). In other words, the imbalance ratio of the dataset is $367: 1$.
average image dimensions of Black Scoter and Whitewinged Scoter are $100 \times 107$ and $96 \times 103$, respectively. Unknown Scoter can be considered a coarse annotation of Black Scoter and White-winged Scoter because it contains images of either one of the two scoter classes but without species-level annotations.

To construct the dataset, the images of individual birds are manually cropped, and every cropped image is annotated by human experts. The Cape Cod dataset consists of a total of 10,682 cropped images. There are six different classes (Table I), one of which is an unknown class only for scoters (Unknown Scoter) and a general unknown class (Non-target Species) for the instance species that cannot be specified among the classes described in Table I.

We use ResNet50 [8] as our backbone architecture which takes a $224 \times 224$ image as input. We train the model with a batch size of 64 and a learning rate of 0.001 . It takes 90 epochs until convergence. For the hyperbolic module, we used the Poincaré ball model for hyperbolic space, and we set curvature and clipping values as 1 and 15 , respectively.

## B. Results

Table II shows the quantitative results on the real-world wildlife dataset [23]. The baseline (Vanilla) method shows relatively poor performance, especially for species with limited training samples such as Long-tailed Duck (17 training images) and White-winged Scoter (45), which have $0.0 \%$ and $38.1 \%$ test accuracy, respectively. On the other hand,

TABLE II
Quantitative Results on the Wildlife dataset [23]

|  | Test accuracy (\%) |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Species | Vanilla | +LDAM | +LA | +LA+H | +LA+Corr | +LA+H+Corr (Ours) |
| Common Eider | $\mathbf{9 9 . 1}$ | 93.8 | 92.0 | 86.8 | 91.5 | 91.8 |
| Black Scoter | 95.4 | 92.6 | 97.2 | 87.0 | 97.2 | $\mathbf{9 8 . 0}$ |
| White-winged Scoter | 38.1 | 71.4 | 85.7 | 61.9 | 85.7 | $\mathbf{8 5 . 9}$ |
| Long-tailed Duck | 0.0 | 100.0 | $\mathbf{1 0 0 . 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0 . 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0 . 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0 . 0}$ |
| Non-target Species | 39.5 | 68.4 | 78.9 | $\mathbf{8 4 . 1}$ | 81.6 | 81.9 |
| Average accuracy (\%) | 54.1 | 85.3 | 90.8 | 82.9 | 91.2 | $\mathbf{9 1 . 5}$ |

Our final model with logit adjustment loss (+la), hyperbolic module ( +h ), and our semantic co-occurrence aware learning method (+corr) shows the best performance in most of the classes.

TABLE III
Top-1 Accuracy on CIFAR10-LT and CIFAR100-LT dataset [2], [5] With the Imbalance Ratio of 100 Along With the Inaturalist dataset [33]

| Methods | CIFAR100-LT | CIFAR10-LT | iNaturalist |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Vanilla | 38.3 | 70.4 | 57.9 |
| LDAM [2] | 42.0 | 77.0 | 68.0 |
| LA [22] | 43.9 | 77.7 | 66.4 |
| Ours | $\mathbf{4 5 . 3}$ | $\mathbf{7 9 . 0}$ | $\mathbf{6 8 . 7}$ |

Our final model consistently outperforms the baseline methods across different imbalanced datasets.

Common Eider, the class with the largest number of training samples $(6,246)$, shows $99.1 \%$ test accuracy.

While the classification model with a traditional debiasing loss function (LDAM [2]) already improves the recognition performance over the vanilla model, our model with the logit adjustment loss function (LA [22]) shows even more performance improvement in all the classes $(+31.2 \%$ average classification accuracy improvement from LDAM and $+36.7 \%$ from LA). The largest gain comes from the two tail classes, Long-tailed Duck and White-winged Scoter, from $0.0 \%$ to $100.0 \%$ and $38.1 \%$ to $85.7 \%$, respectively. Despite the improvements in the less abundant classes, the performance of Common Eider dropped by $7.1 \%$, which is a common phenomenon of imbalanced methods where the performance of large classes is sacrificed [19], [25], [35].

Upon the logit adjustment loss, adding both the hyperbolic module or our co-occurrence-based learning method gives noticeable performance improvements in the Non-target Species class by better learning the correlation among the categories. However, the hyperbolic module shows a performance drop in most of the other classes. We conjecture that it is because the number of classes in the wildlife dataset is too small (which might have a relatively weak hierarchy among the labels), and the hyperbolic module requires a large number of parameters (which causes an overfitting problem). Note that combining both the hyperbolic module and our co-occurrence-based learning method leads to the best performance by compensating the weakness of each other.

We also evaluate our method on standard image classification datasets with class imbalance, CIFAR100-LT and CIFAR10LT [2], [5] with the imbalance ratio of 100, in order to validate the efficacy of our method to alleviate imbalance problems. We also evaluate our method on a realistic imbalanced classification dataset, iNaturalist [33]. The result is shown in Table III. As shown in the table, our method shows the best performance compared to the recent powerful debiasing methods, LDAM [2]


Fig. 3. The visualization of the learned co-occurrence matrix. Along the Y-axis is the given action, and the X -axis enumerates conditional actions.
or logit adjustment [22]. This signifies that our method is also effective in alleviating class imbalance on popular benchmarks, even on a realistic setup.

Finally, we visualize the learned co-occurrence matrix from our method in Fig. 3. The correlation between Black Scoter and White-winged Scoter and the correlation between Long-tailed Duck and Non-target Species can be found in the co-occurrence matrix. An interesting observation is that there is a correlation between White-winged Scoter and the Long-tailed Duck, which is not intuitive.

## IV. CONCLUSION

We explore how to utilize a network to collaborate with human annotators to process real-world wildlife datasets. We present solutions in terms of our debiasing loss function, a hyperbolic model, and our semantic correlation learning. We hope our challenges and solutions inspire future researchers in wildlife surveys. One of the possible future research directions would be to apply our method to more practical active labeling frameworks [4], [11]. Other possible future works include higher-level visual tasks, such as caption generation [12], [15] with wildlife datasets. Furthermore, our method can be extended to other domains that are vulnerable to data issues, such as human-object interaction detection [16], [17] and sign language recognition [9], [10].

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[^0]:    Manuscript received 25 November 2022; revised 1 March 2023; accepted 4 March 2023. Date of publication 16 March 2023; date of current version 24 March 2023. The work of Dong-Jin Kim was supported by the Institute of Information and communications Technology Planning and Evaluation funded by the Korea Government, MSIT, through Artificial Intelligence Graduate School Program, Hanyang University, under Grant 2020-0-01373. The work of Stella X. Yu was supported by the USGS and UC Berkeley Cooperative Research. A previous version of this work appeared in NeurIPS 2022 Workshop on Human in the Loop Learning, in close collaboration with Kyle Landolt and Travis Harrison at USGS and Mark Koneff at US Fish and Wildlife Service. The associate editor coordinating the review of this manuscript and approving it for publication was Moacir A. Ponti. (Corresponding author: Stella X. Yu.)

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    Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/LSP.2023.3257725

