Road Sign Recognition with CNN and RCNN

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1 Introduction

Road signs are a present system in virtually all road infrastructure. They are of critical importance to interpreting correct road usage, road regulations and route recommendations. Their presence is integral to the safe and functional road use.

Contemporary road signs follow strict design rules to optimise their clarity of intention. These rules allow them to be as easy as possible for human interpretation. However, humans are prone to distraction, misinterpretation and other general mistakes, which is why road sign recognition (RSR) algorithms are a fast-advancing point of development in autonomous driving research.

Standard computer vision methods are not versatile enough to deal with the plethora of different physical road conditions. This is why applying a deep learning approach to the problem is necessary - A well crafted AI can exceed even human vision in RSR.

In this project we propose an RSR solution using several different neural network models and evaluating their performance. Since standard computer vision methods are not versatile enough to deal with the plethora of different physical road conditions, it is necessary to apply a deep learning approach to the problem - A well crafted AI can exceed even human vision in RSR.

2 Related Work

With the advent of AI computing autonomous and assisted driving has been an area of extensive research. Road sign recognition (RSR) systems are integral to the field. The functional implementation of RSR systems depends on two related issues - Road sign detection (RSD) and road sign classification (RSC). RSD pertains to localising the relevant information from the data, and RSC to identifying the data with its correct labels. There have already been a number of outstanding studies in the detection and classification in [1], [2], [3], [4], [5].

In many RSR systems, the RSD part is done via conventional machine learning methods. This approach is used by authors like Amal Bouti et al in [6]. The advantages of deep learning methods have made themselves clear by now, but the author has chosen to discuss if SVMs do not still have a place in RSR. In their findings, "the representation of the HOG features and SVM greatly improves the results obtained and shows good results in terms of accuracy. The linear SVM not only achieves high accuracy but also costs least compared with another kernel function" [6, 6722 A. Bouti et al]

[Add info about R-CNN too. That'd be pretty useful]

3 Architectures

This project is based entirely on image recognition, the models we have decided to implement are all CNN-based. This section will describe them all in detail.

3.1 CNN

Recent decades have seen many advancements in representational learning from raw data, with one of the most pertinent approaches to the method being the varieties of CNN modelling. CNN dominates systems related to object recognition and detection. This ubiquity in the field is one of the reasons that made us choose it for our implementation.

Another major advantage of CNNs that led to our choice is the relatively sparse pre-processing required to make a functioning model, compared to more traditional image classifiers. The independent kernel optimisation that CNNs learn, without much prior knowledge is hugely beneficial to implementation complexity.

We have decided to implement two different CNN classifiers parallel to each other, with the intention of seeing if our approaches and results will have any significant differences. Aksel's CNN implementation will be referred to as (CNN-A) and Kieran's as (CNN-K).

3.2 R-CNN

At the time of writing the R-CNN model has not been implemented.

3.3 Faster R-CNN

At the time of writing the Faster-R-CNN model has not been implemented.

4 Dataset

This project intends to use two datasets to conduct its study to ensure flexibility and better insight. The data needed for detection differs from that needed for classification, and many datasets do not meet both requirements. This section will discuss our choices and their features.

4.1 GTSRB - German Traffic Sign Recognition Benchmark

The German Traffic Sign Recognition Benchmark is our first choice. It contains 43 data classes of road signs in Germany with each having enough examples to be used in training.

- As seen from the examples in Figure 1 dataset is only useful for classification purposes and not detection, since its items only feature photos of isolated road signs with no irrelevant data in the image.

Figure 1: Some examples of raw data from the dataset

- The dataset also contains unequal numbers of items in each class, as seen in Figure 2, which introduces a challenge solved in Preprocessing.

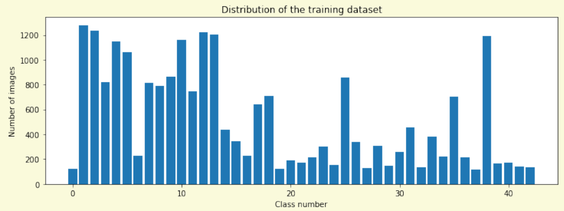

Figure 2: Number of items in each class of GTSRB

4.1.1 Loading the dataset

The 50K images loaded from the dataset were split into two groups for training and testing. The split was arbitrarily chosen to be 0.8/0.2 respectively. Out of the 80% chosen for training, 20% were chosen for validation.

```
testRatio = 0.2
# set aside 20% of images for testing, 80% for training
validationRatio = 0.2
# of all training images, set aside 20% for validation

X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test =
train_test_split(images, classNo, test_size=testRatio)
X_train, X_validation, y_train, y_validation =
train_test_split(X_train, y_train, test_size=validationRatio)

# X_train = ARRAY OF IMAGES TO TRAIN
# y_train = CORRESPONDING CLASS ID
```

4.1.2 Preprocessing data

There are quite a few tasks to be done with preprocessing the data from this dataset.

Dataset Balancing Data imbalance reflects an unequal distribution of classes within the dataset, as we can see in Figure 2. This disproportion needs to be leveled out for better classification. We do this with two techniques - *undersampling* and *oversampling*

Since we have such a huge imbalance in class values, using either an undersampling or oversampling algorithm would not work well. This is why we take a more nuanced approach of using both algorithms to make an augmented dataset with values meeting somewhere in the middle of both extremes.

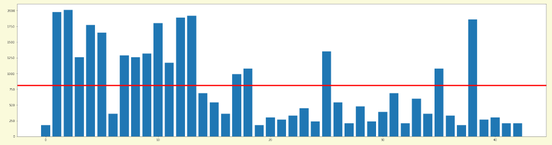

Figure 3: Class balance point

Figure 3 shows a close approximation of the average value each class should achieve. Accordingly, we oversample the ones below the line and undersample the ones above it.

To undersample, we simply take random values from the larger classes and remove them until they reach the midpoint.

To oversample, we are trying out a few different algorithms. SMOTE is one of them, which synthesizes new examples for the minority classes. As described by [7, Nitesh Chawla et al] in their paper, SMOTE works by selecting examples that are close in the feature space, drawing a line between the examples in it and drawing a new sample at a point along that line.

Image Augmentation In CNN-A, the images are augmented - They are converted to a monochromatic greyscale and then undergo histogram equalisation. Finally their values are normalised from 0-255 to 0-1.

Other augmentations the team has considered is using synthetic noise addition in order to test the accuracy of the model against more obscured data, simulating real life conditions such as rain and mist, but as of writing this implementation has not been completed.

4.2 GTSDB - German Traffic Sign Detection Benchmark

The previous dataset was very useful for RSC, but it did not contain the needed info for RSD. This is why we're also incorporating the GTSDB for our study into detection. It contains images of german roads with visible road signs which take up a fraction of the image itself.

Figure 4: Some examples of raw data from the dataset

- The dataset contains 900 separate images
- The images contain zero to six traffic signs
- The sizes of the traffic signs in the images vary from 16x16 to 128x128
- Traffic signs may appear in every perspective and under every lighting condition

Like GTSRB, this dataset also has 43 classes with an imbalance in numbers.

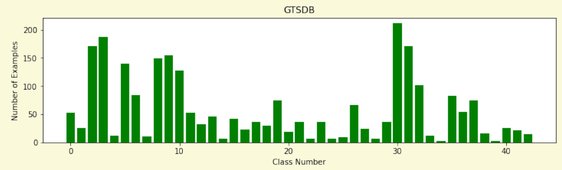

Figure 5: Class balance point

5 Implementation

5.1 CNN-A

Modelling this CNN is very straightforward with Keras. The model we've chosen the CNN-A implementation closely resembles LeNet (Figure 6), proposed by Yann LeCun et al in 1998. The dataset we've trained the model upon is the GTSRB.

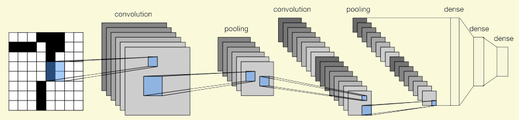

Figure 6: Generic LeNet structure

5.1.1 Structure

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
conv2d_4 (Conv2D)	(None, 28, 28, 60)	1560
conv2d_5 (Conv2D)	(None, 24, 24, 60)	90060
max_pooling2d_2 (MaxPooling2	(None, 12, 12, 60)	0
conv2d_6 (Conv2D)	(None, 10, 10, 30)	16230
conv2d_7 (Conv2D)	(None, 8, 8, 30)	8130
max_pooling2d_3 (MaxPooling2	(None, 4, 4, 30)	0
dropout_2 (Dropout)	(None, 4, 4, 30)	0
flatten_1 (Flatten)	(None, 480)	0
dense_2 (Dense)	(None, 500)	240500
dropout_3 (Dropout)	(None, 500)	0
dense_3 (Dense)	(None, 43)	21543

Model: "sequential_1"

Total params: 378,023
Trainable params: 378,023
Non-trainable params: 0

Figure 7: Structure of our CNN-A model

The first two layers are convolutions. Layer 1 has a depth of 60, a filter size of (5, 5), with relu activation. The second layer does the same. Following the second convolution layer is a max polling layer. Following the LeNet model, we use a (2,2) kernel size. It effectively downsizes the data by only selecting the max value pixel for adjacent pixels.

Next we implement two other convolution layers with new parameters. Half the number of filters and a filter size of (3,3). Their activation is also relu. They're followed by a max pooling layer and a dropout layer to prevent overfitting the model.

Afterwards, the data is flattened and a dense layer with relu activation is used. A second dropout layer prepares the model for the a last fully connected dense layer with class number as size (ie. 43). Softmax is used to return the probabilities of each class, and the model is compiled with the Adam optimiser.

5.1.2 Performance and Results

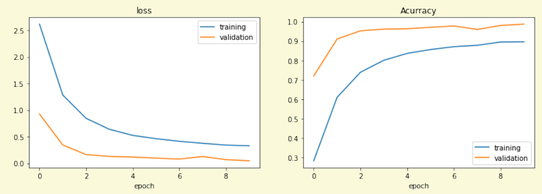

Figure 8: The Loss and Accuracy values throughout the epochs

Within 10 epochs, the accuracy of both training and validation is above 0.98, after which the model shows minimal improvements and the cost/gain balance becomes unreasonable.

This model achieved formidable results with relatively light training. After roughly 30 minutes on Heron labs computers and 10 epochs the test accuracy averaged in the 98th percentile. Figure 8 shows the relevant values throughout training

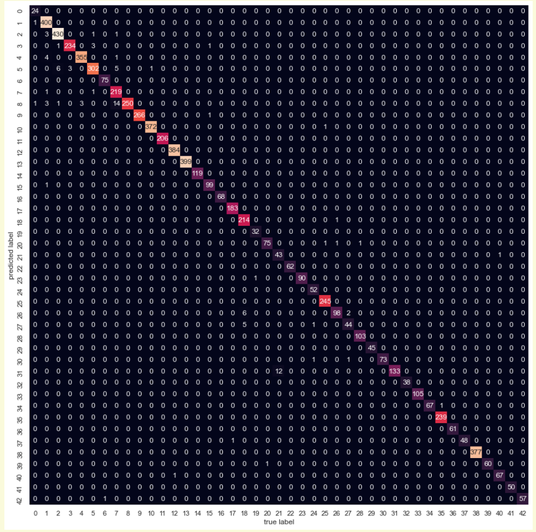

Figure 9: Confusion Matrix for CNN-A

dshjb

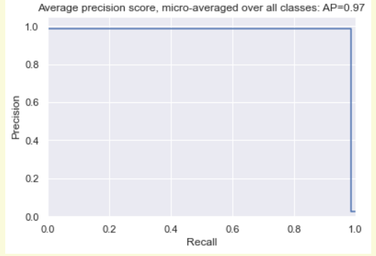

Figure 10: Precision and recall plot

Accuracy(true values, predicted values) ≈ 0.99
Average precision score, micro-averaged over all classes ≈ 0.97

5.2 CNN-K

Along with the difference in preprocessing, this implementation uses a different model structure than the one in CNN-A. CNN-K studies two models, but in this poster we will only look at the one reaching better results for the sake of being concise.

5.2.1 Structure

```
Model: "sequential"
_________________________________________________________________
Layer (type)                 Output Shape              Param #
=================================================================
conv2d (Conv2D)              (None, 32, 32, 32)        896
_________________________________________________________________
activation (Activation)      (None, 32, 32, 32)        0
_________________________________________________________________
conv2d_1 (Conv2D)            (None, 32, 32, 32)        9248
_________________________________________________________________
activation_1 (Activation)    (None, 32, 32, 32)        0
_________________________________________________________________
max_pooling2d (MaxPooling2D) (None, 16, 16, 32)        0
_________________________________________________________________
dropout (Dropout)            (None, 16, 16, 32)        0
_________________________________________________________________
flatten (Flatten)            (None, 8192)              0
_________________________________________________________________
dense (Dense)                (None, 512)               4194816
_________________________________________________________________
activation_2 (Activation)    (None, 512)               0
_________________________________________________________________
dropout_1 (Dropout)          (None, 512)               0
_________________________________________________________________
dense_1 (Dense)              (None, 43)                22059
_________________________________________________________________
activation_3 (Activation)    (None, 43)                0
=================================================================
Total params: 4,227,019
Trainable params: 4,227,019
Non-trainable params: 0
```

Figure 11: Structure of our CNN-K model

Unlike the CNN-A implementation, this one beings with a convolutional layer of a 32,32,32 shape. An activation layer preceeds the second convolution. There is a second activation, after which the data is reshaped in a max pooling grid.

It undergoes dropout and flattening, and the 8th layer is the first dense layer. Another activation and dropout later, the data passes through the final dense and activation layers and the output shape is 43, denoting the classes.

5.2.2 Performance

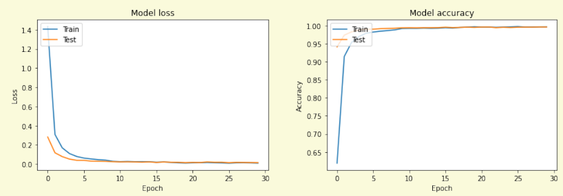

Figure 12: The Loss and Accuracy values throughout the epochs

The model is fitted with 30 epochs, but as with the previous implementation, the accuracy of both training and validation is above 0.98, after which the model shows minimal improvements and the cost/gain balance becomes unreasonable.

5.3 R-CNN

5.4 Faster R-CNN

6 Cross-Model Analysis

7 Conclusions

data goes in and numbers come out and we don't question any of it

References

[1] Smit Mehta, Chirag Paunwala, and Bhaumik Vaidya. Cnn based traffic sign classification using adam optimizer. In *2019 International Conference on Intelligent Computing and Control Systems (ICCS)*, pages 1293–1298, 2019.

[2] Jianming Zhang, Wei Wang, Chaoquan Lu, Jin Wang, and Arun K. Sangaiah. Lightweight deep network for traffic sign classification. *Annales des télécommunications*, 75(7-8):369–379, Aug 2020.

[3] S. Mehta, C. Paunwala, and B. Vaidya. Cnn based traffic sign classification using adam optimizer. In - *2019 International Conference on Intelligent Computing and Control Systems (ICCS)*, pages 1293–1298, 2019. ID: 1.

[4] D. Ciresan, U. Meier, J. Masci, and J. Schmidhuber. A committee of neural networks for traffic sign classification. pages 1918–1921. IEEE, Jul 2011.

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[7] N. V. Chawla, K. W. Bowyer, L. O. Hall, and W. P. Kegelmeyer. Smote: Synthetic minority over-sampling technique. *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research*, 16:321–357, Jun 2002.