COMBINING MOTION INFORMATION WITH APPEARANCE INFORMATION AND UTILIZING OF MUTUAL INFORMATION ENCODED AMONG IMAGE FEATURES OF THE SAME OBJECT FOR BETTER DETECTION PERFORMANCE

運動情報を外観情報との結びつけおよび同一物体の画像特徴によりエンコードされた相互情報の利用ーー検出性能の向上のため

by

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ABSTRACT

Object detection is a fundamental perceptual skill in human, and plays an important role in machine vision area. Effective object detection methods can help with video surveillance, driving assistance, etc. Researchers improve performance of detection methods mainly by proposing better representative models, better classifiers, or more efficient methods for solution space exploring.

In this work, the performance of detection methods is improved from a different aspect. The work explores the information which are not made fully use of by previous methods. And the efforts are two-fold: 1) utilizing of motion information by combining it with appearance information, and 2) utilizing of mutual information encoded among the image features of the same object.

The first detection method is developed for real-time applications. In a hierarchical way, this method makes time-consuming steps in its pipeline deal with fewer instances, and combines motion information with appearance information very efficiently. This method gives promising detection results in real time, and gives 100% detection rate and 0% false alarm rate in one of the experiments.

While the performance of the first method in complex scene is not promising, the second method is proposed. This method extends the Implicit Shape Model [33] to incorporate motion information, and outperforms the state-of-the-art method on two datasets. This method also performs well in distinguishing near objects and similar different-class objects.

To improve the efficiency of the second method, the third method is proposed, which is Pyramid Matching Score for detection. The method does pyramid matching during training and matching for efficiency, and makes use of the mutual information encoded among the image features of the same object, which improves detection performance.

論文要旨

物体検出は人間の中の基本の知覚能力で、マシン・ビジョン・エリアに重要な役割を果たします。2 つの主なカテゴリーの検知方法があります: スライディングウィンドウを使用する方法、およびハフ変換に基づいた方法。最近の研究は、提案する、よりよい代表的なモデル、よりよいクラシファイヤーおよびよりよい解空間探索方法によって検出性能を改善します。この論文は 3 つの方法を提案します。2 つの方法が運動情報を外観情報との結び。1 つの方法が同一物体の画像特徴によりエンコードされた相互情報の利用。

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Detecting objects of interest from a complex scene is a basic perceptual skill in human beings and other animals. While in the area of computer science, object detection [65] is a computer technology that deals with detecting instances of semantic objects of a certain class (such as humans, buildings, or cars) in digital images and videos. And successful object detection methods play fundamental roles in a lot of application areas, which include video surveillance, driving assistance, image retrieval, etc.

Most modern detection methods fall into two categories. Some [12, 16, 20, 29, 38, 56, 62, 71] follow the sliding-window schema, and they detect objects by consider whether each of the sub-images contains an instance of the target object. The other methods [5, 17, 18, 32, 33, 34, 37, 42, 46] infer object centers based on local image features in a bottom-up manner. These methods start with detection of object parts, in the form of image patches, edgelets, or keypoints, and then infer about the target objects' status, like position, or label.

Humans still far outperform computers in the tasks of image-based recognition and detection. Only a few techniques are mature enough for daily applications, i.e., face detection [15] used in cameras. For years, in computer vision, lots of researchers focus on object detection from images. Their efforts include proposing better image features [44] or better models for object representation [26], proposing better discriminative classifiers [8] or better inference model [58], or proposing better searching techniques for exploring solution space [30].

In this thesis, efforts are also made to improve performance of detection methods. These efforts try to explore how to use the information which are not made full use of by previous methods. Roughly, the efforts belong to two categories, the first category is exploring approaches of efficiently and effectively combing of motion information with appearance information, and the second category is exploring mutual information encoded in image features of the same object.

Most methods for detection mainly use either appearance information or motion information. And in our methods, we will address when the information from these two channels are well combined, detection performance can be much better.

The first method is developed mainly for real-time applications under limited computational power. This kind of scenarios include when using embedded sensors. This method can be considered as a two-step method. The first step deals with keypoints. It takes original data as input, and outputs keypoint clusters as detection hypotheses. This step detects, verifies, and clusters keypoints. The second step takes these keypoint clusters as input, verifies them by their appearance and motion information, and outputs the ones which pass verifications as detection results. Motion information plays a very important role in the method. The target objects are considered as possessing both special appearance patterns and motion patterns. When the second step verifies the detection hypotheses using appearance information, a biased classifier is used. This classifier produce more false alarms to pursue higher detection rate. Then motion information is used to filter out the false alarms. Also the pipeline of this method is optimized in a hierarchical way, that the later one step is, the more time consuming it is, and the fewer instances it will deal with. The method performs well under simple scene, i.e., data collected by infrared cameras in tunnel environment, and gives 100% detection rate 0% false alarm rate in one of the experiments. However, the performance of this method under complicated scene is not promising. And then we propose the second method.

The second method belongs to methods based on Hough transforms. It extend the Implicit Shape Model [33] to combine motion information. For training, image features together with labels and offsets to object centers of sample images are considered as codes, and inserted into a codebook. For detection, image features are detected on the target image, and then matched against the codebook using image feature as key. The matched codes will indicate the labels and object centers. During the detection step, this method firstly do motion analysis, which results in grouping results of the image features on the target image. The grouping results are used during the inference for labels and centers of the target objects. It is assumed that image features with the same motion pattern, here in the same motion group, should belong to the same object. The inference procedure then prefers the label and position infers with more consistence in the same motion group. On two datasets, the proposed method outperform the state-of-the-art method.

While the second method performs well under complicated scene, it cannot give results in real time. This is due to the time-consuming property of methods based on Hough transforms. The third method aims at improving the efficiency of the second method. Also it tries to flatten the gap of appearance and positional information. This method does not use motion information. In methods based on Hough transforms, image features are used as key to query similar codes from the codebook, and in the third method, both appearance and position are used as key. The bottom-up property of Hough transform also ignore the relationship between different image features. Actually, the mutual information encoded in the image features of the same object is very informational. The third method consider objects as point sets of, i.e., 14-dimensional, while the first 12 dimensions are appearance information, and the last 2 dimensions are positional information. The training step is almost the same with Hough-transform methods, except for how a few parameters are trained. At the detection step, instead of using the appearance information of one single feature as

query, the point set of a sub-image is used as query. Pyramid Matching is used for accelerating the querying. The procedure ensures the use of the mutual information encoded in the image features of the same object.

The thesis is organised as follows. In chapter 2, background and some very related work are reviewed. In chapter 3, the method aimed at efficient detection by combining motion and appearance information is introduced. In chapter 4, the method which extends the Implicit Shape Model to incorporate motion information is proposed, this method groups object parts for detection. In chapter 5, the method which detects by Pyramid Matching Score is presented. Chapter 6 concludes, and discusses about possible improvements of the proposed methods for future work.

Chapter 2

Background and Related Work

2.1 Vision in Human and Computer

Everyday, new technologies emerge, which make everyday life more and more convenient, and advance human culture, of which, the appearance of text searching engines like google is an important one. Searching images [3] or other multi-media data similar to the way we search text is even more attractive, especially for the popularity of smart phones nowadays. There are still technical obstacles for this beautiful outlook. To decide semantic meanings for images is one, and detection performance on images is another.

The computational power of human is not any more competitive to computers, especially nowadays, when computational ability can be conveniently accessed from the cloud. Still when talking about the performance of visual recognition and detection under general situations, human are champion. In computer vision area, besides bar scanners and optical character recognition, few detection methods are employed in real-world applications, though face detection methods are employed in ordinary cameras.

So what stops the object detection methods of computers from performing as good as human do?

	Computer	Human
Quality of sensors	*	
Computational ability	*	
Representative model		*
Decision procedure		*
Information fusion mechanism		*
Training quality		*

Table 2.1: Comparison between computer and human.

When compared with human, computer will win at almost every aspect of hardware, as shown in 2.1. Especially, for computational ability, [41] believes human

brain has a raw computational power between 10^{13} and 10^{16} operations per second, and modern computers can perform much better. As for representative model, there is no obvious evidence which proves human is doing better than computer. However the author believe human shall perform better than computer in the aspects of software, which then explains why human perform better in multiple visual tasks. And only when the vision researchers also believe so, do they develop so many new detection methods. And the dividing of functionalities are generally based on computer, while in human, two or more of them might work together.

Human babies are taken good care of, and trained to perform very simple visual tasks for months with large amount of examples, which makes the training quality very solid. The performance of new born babies also lead to considerations about to what degree are the visual abilities decided by genes. If the training procedure has taken as long as millions of years, are there possibilities for computer to win in future?

The success of voice recognition and the successful deployment in industry [66] encourage vision researchers. Computational power can be used to make up with the short slab of training. For example, training one model for one hour with thousands of computers is feasible with parrel training. Also, the resent deep learning [8] methods try to fusion representative model with decision procedure to act more like what human might do. These new achievements are expected to fill up the gap between human and computer in aspects of representative model, decision procedure, and training quality.

While the methods proposed in this methods explore the information which can be further made use of, i.e., fusion of temporal and visual information, and the mutual information of different parts of the same object. The efforts here shall belong to decision procedure, and information fusion mechanism.

2.2 Basics of Detection Methods

In the previous section, the possible reason why human perform better in detection is discussed. The main limits of computer are of software. Based on this, researchers present new detection methods or new methods for supporting detection, which includes: 1) new image feature or new representative model, 2) new decision procedures, or 3) better searching techniques in solution space.

2.2.1 Image Features

Image features are very important. Simple image features include features in the form of keypoints, image patches, edges, silhouette, shape [7], or textures. There are also frameworks for combining multiple different image features or information from multiple channels [61, 26, 47], and these belong to image features at middle level. At a even higher level, image features are organized in patterns, and these

are actually representative models. For example, modeling human body as a stick model [40].

The invariance under illumination, scale, and rotation are basic requirement for image features, while some keypoint features [59, 36, 39, 43, 6] fulfill this requirement. Image features which encode global positional information perform well in human detection, i.e., Histograms of Oriented Gradients [12]. Differentials at different orders are also descriptive features [60].

2.2.2 Decision Procedure

Generally, robustness and computational efficiency are the two main pursues in proposing image features. Based or image features, how decisions are made are also of great importance. Dimension reduction methods like principle component analysis, and feature selection methods can be considered as a glue layer between representative models and decision making procedure, which enhance both robustness and processing efficiency.

Discriminative and generative methods are the two main categories for decision making. Support vector machine, and boosting methods belong to discriminative methods. Gaussion processes [53], Dirichlet models [9, 19, 58], and Bayesian graphical models [2] usually belong to generative methods. The difference between discriminative and generative models lay in how they use training examples to estimate parameters of the model, and how the model is used to make decisions.

One very promising method for decision making is deep learning [8]. This can be considered as a special form of neural network. One of its very attractive property is it can take raw data as input and output decision results, like, object label. It deals with extraction of image feature, feature selection, and decision based on features in a unified one under the same framework. Also it can share knowledge from other domain like [50].

The core of machine learning methods is still the model. Training data are used to estimate parameters of the model, and the model is then used to make decisions on the testing data. The model of deep learning is a multi-layer network. The later one layer is, usually it has less nodes, and the information it deals with is more abstract.

The earlier layers of deep-architecture networks act as feature extraction module. The first layer defines rules of how to make abstraction on the raw data. And these layers can be trained using data from other domains. This is why deep learning methods can make use not only domain-specific information. Another aspect which separate deep learning methods from traditional neural networks is during the training procedure. While traditional neural networks are trained as a whole, which include the parameters for lots of parameters, and the requirement for extremely large amount of data is fierce. The training procedure for deep learning methods is layer-wised. There is a merit for evaluate the training quality for each layer. And

after one layer is trained, the output can be used to train the next layer. This means that, each time only a few parameters need to be estimated, which is more robust and efficient, and avoid the requirement for very large amount of data. When the number of layers increase, the abstraction level of the original data enhance, and decisions are easier.

2.2.3 Solution Space Explore

Besides proposing representative models, and decision procedures, there are also work [14, 51, 52] focusing on how the solution space from the decision making procedure can be explored. The methods following the sliding-window schema need to consider each differently scaled sub-image of a target image, to answer wether this sub-image contains an object of interest or not, this amount is extremely large, and even enumerate all the sub-windows is computationally infeasible.

Currently method of [25] and its variants[72] for sliding window search work very efficiently, and give best detection hypothesis in polynomial time in experiments. There are variants[31] which share the same strategy for methods based on Hough transforms. These methods employ branch-and-bound mechanisms during the search for the best detection hypothesis. While map-and-reduce is popular is distributed computations, the underline philosophy is very similar.

Take the testing process of linear support vector machine as an example. When a sub-image is described as a bag of features, each feature will contribute to a specific dimension on the final descriptive vector. And when use this vector by support vector machine for decisions, it is simple linear add-up of the decisions of each single feature. So decision score for each image feature can be calculated. Thus the upper-bound and low-bound for all sub-images contained in a certain rectangle can be estimated, which can be used to filter out lots of rectangles definitely do not contain the best solution. This filtering out is the core for efficiency.

2.3 Advances in Object Detection

Three methods will be proposed in the thesis, methods very related to each method will be further reviewed in the corresponding chapter. Here we review some recent advances in object detection.

Detection is drawing a log of attention [12, 16, 20, 29, 38, 56, 62, 71, 5, 17, 18, 32, 33, 34, 37, 42, 46], and it will continue to. While some methods are unique and very heuristic.

Instead of proposing class-specific methods, [1] try to how like a sub-image contains an object of any class. In the method objects are defined by very general properties, which include having closed boundary, being different from surroundings, and sometimes being unique and salient in the image. By combining saliency

detection methods, color contrast, edge detection, image segmentation methods in Bayesian framework, they give convincing performance in general-purpose object detection.

Bag of image features [26] is an important advance for object detection. Before the method, potential objects are described using feature extracted from raw pixels, while the method describes objects using object components. In the work following, [69] added a biased sampling component for describe each object. Instead of described by one group of features, the objects are described by several groups of features, and then decisions are made using multi-label multi-class classification.

One of the challenging subjects in object detection is rotation-aware detection. Lots of object detection methods ignore scale and rotation changes by using of scale- and rotation-invariant image features, i.e. sift.

The primary direction of the sift feature is used by [42] for locally estimate the rotation angle of object. This method heavily rely on the sift feature. Object is represented by a graph with features as nodes in [27], and scale- and rotation-invariant object match is made by the matching of two graphs. Instead of being a general method for object detection, this method is mainly used for object matching. Most rotation-aware methods follow [54]. This method firstly trains a neural network for rotation estimation. According to the rotation estimation result, the tested sub-image is rotated to a normalized angle and then fed into other classifiers for verification of object hypothesis. Still efficient methods to robustly deal with object rotation in the detection procedure are preferred.

Chapter 3

Efficient Detection by Combining of Appearance and Temporal Information

3.1 Introduction

From time to time, efficient detection methods under limited computational power are very applicable in various areas, such as driving assistance using embedded sensors. Here, a method pursuing efficiency and real-time detection is proposed. The proposed detection method makes use of both appearance and motion information of the target objects. By well optimizing of the detecting pipeline, the method works in real time, and gives 100% detection rate and 0% false alarm rate in one experiment of data collected by infrared camera.

As always, detection performance and efficiency are the two important aspects of this method. Challenges come from the need to distinguish noisy objects as shown in Figure 3.1 and the real-time requirement. In experiments, besides the target object a lot of noisy objects also exist. Some of the noisy objects cannot even by distinguished from the target objects by only appearance. The clutter property of the sensed data makes the detection challenging. The proposed method meets this challenge by making use of both appearance and temporal information of the target objects. There are two main steps in the method.

The first step deals with keypoints, and it takes original data as input, and outputs keypoint clusters as detection hypotheses. In this step, keypoints are detected, verified and then clustered. To detect keypoints, all points on each frame are uniformly sampled and filtered with pre-set intensity thresholds. Then the keypoints are verified by a simple keypoint appearance model powered by k-means. At the end of the first step, the keypoints are clustered based on the Euclidean distance.

The second step takes the keypoint clusters as input, verifies them by appearance and temporal information, and outputs the ones pass verifications as detection results. In the second step, the keypoint clusters are labeled based on appearance by an adaboost machine, which is trained using intensity histograms of keypoint clusters from target objects and keypoint clusters from noisy objects. The keypoint

(a) (b)

Figure 3.1: Original data and detection results. In (a), the red arrow points to the target object: emergency telephone indicator, and the green arrows point to noisy objects. In (b), red rectangles mark detection hypotheses labeled as positive using appearance information, and green rectangles mark negative ones. Yellow trajectories mark detection hypotheses labeled as positive using temporal information, and white trajectories mark negative ones.

clusters are also tracked by temporal association through frames. Motion information encoded in the trajectories are used to further verify the keypoint clusters. Finally, the keypoint clusters which pass both appearance and temporal verifications are decided as target objects.

This pipeline is designed also with consideration of the requirement for efficiency. The method deals with the large amount information contained on one frame following a hierarchical manner. The later one step is, the more time-consuming it is and the fewer instances it deals with. From an image containing 10^5 pixels, 10^4 points go through keypoint detection step of testing by intensity thresholds. Then in average, 10^3 keypoints are detected, and verified, leaving about 10^2 to be clustered. Afterwards, fewer than 10 keypoint clusters are left, which are dealt with by the very time-consuming steps of generating image features and tracking.

The advantage of the method is its ability to give promising detection results from cluttered data in real time. Besides, the method is also a successful attempt to combine bottom-up and classification methods, and a successful attempt to combine both appearance and temporal information.

Firstly, the method is proposed with application scenario of data collected by infrared cameras, then it is also extended to corporate with data collected by ordinary cameras. This chapter is organized as follows: section 3.2 reviews related work, section 3.3 introduces application background, section 3.4 proposes pipeline of the method, section 3.5 gives experimental results, section 3.6 gives results by extending the method for data collected by ordinary cameras, and section 3.7 concludes.

3.2 Related Work

Most modern detection methods fall into two categories. Some [12, 16, 20, 29, 38, 56, 62, 71] follow the sliding-window schema, and they detect objects by consider whether each of the sub-images contains an instance of the target object. Classifiers are usually employed by these methods. The other methods [5, 17, 18, 32, 33, 34, 37, 42, 46] infer object centers based on local image features in a bottom-up manner. The proposed method makes advantages of both frameworks. Following the bottom-up manner, keypoints are detected, verified, and clustered. After these steps, the keypoint clusters are considered as detection hypotheses. Then following the sliding-window schema, the keypoint clusters are verified by their appearance and temporal information using discriminative methods.

Previous methods [55] also consider the combination of the two frameworks. Detection hypotheses are gained using Hough transform and then verified by support vector machines in [37, 70]. The methods in [21, 48], use randomized decision trees for both decisions whether local features belonging to foreground objects or not and decisions of their Hough votes. The method proposed in [31] describes both frameworks in the same manner. While giving state-of-the-art detection performance, they can't meet the requirement for efficiency as this method does.

This work is also related to feature grouping methods [70], methods detecting using trajectories [10, 11], tracking methods [35, 24], and methods integrating appearance and temporal information [67].

3.3 Application background

When developing the method, potential application scenarios are within consideration. The method aims to perform detection in real time, and serve as an effective unit in positioning automobiles in tunnel environment.

Positioning of automobiles acts an important role in autonomous driving, and it is also of great importance for driving assistance, vehicle navigation, etc. When GPS sensors function properly, it is usually easy for an automobile to estimate the position of itself. While in tunnel environment, for most of the time, there is no GPS signals available. A new positioning system which functions properly in tunnel environment is very necessary [13].

In most tunnels which appear on express ways in Japan, there are lots of signs which appear at equal intervals. Attention can be focused on the emergency telephone indicators, which appear every 200 meters in tunnels. The absolute coordinates of the emergency telephone indicators can be obtained by the method of [68]. While travelling in tunnels, if the emergency telephone indicators can be sensed, and the distance from the automobile to the indicators can be estimated, then the absolute position of the automobile can be inferred. Detection methods i.e. [67] based on ordinary cameras fail due to darkness. In experiments infrared cameras, which

are usually equipped by recent intelligent vehicles and suitable in dark environment, are used.

In tunnel environment, besides the target objects, a lot of noisy objects also appear, e.g. ordinary lights, other vehicles, and other vehicles' shadows. So to well distinguish target objects is of importance. And such kind of applications usually require real-time detections. And the proposed method successfully meet the requirements.

3.4 Detection Pipeline

The method can be considered as a two-step method. The first step deals with keypoints. It takes original data as input, and outputs keypoint clusters as detection hypotheses. The second step takes these keypoint clusters as input, verifies them by their appearance and motion information, and outputs the ones which pass verifications as detection results.

3.4.1 Keypoint Detection

In data collected using ordinary cameras, keypoints [6, 36] invariant to rotations, affine changes, and illumination changes are preferable. In the case of using data collected by infrared cameras, keypoint detection intends to provide hypotheses for target objects, i.e. emergency telephone indicators. Thus intensity is of great importance. This method employs a simple yet useful method to detect keypoints. Firstly, points are uniformly sampled with width step W, and height step H. In this manner the magnitude of instances is reduced by at lease one order. Then the points are considered as keypoints if they pass the test which verifies them by setting intensity thresholds .

Here Gaussian distribution is assumed for the intensities of the points.

let$\{\mathbf{x}\}$ denote all the sampled points, $I_{\mathbf{x}}$ the intensity of each point, and $l_{\mathbf{x}}$ the label. If the point is considered as belonging to target objects, $l_{\mathbf{x}} = 1$, otherwise, $l_{\mathbf{x}} = 0$. By setting lower threshold, $I_{\mathbf{x}}^{th1}$, and higher threshold, $I_{\mathbf{x}}^{th2}$, the probability that points belongs to target objects based on their falling into this interval is given by,

$$P(l_{\mathbf{x}} = 1 | I_{\mathbf{x}}^{th1} \leq I_x \leq I_{\mathbf{x}}^{th2}) = \frac{P(l_{\mathbf{x}} = 1, I_{\mathbf{x}}^{th1} \leq I_x \leq I_{\mathbf{x}}^{th2})}{P(I_{\mathbf{x}}^{th1} \leq I_x \leq I_{\mathbf{x}}^{th2})} \ . \tag{3.1}$$

At this step, that as few points belonging to the target objects as possible are excluded is also considered. The probability of ont point falling into the defined interval based on its belonging to target objects is given by,

$$P(I_{\mathbf{x}}^{th1} \leq I_x \leq I_{\mathbf{x}}^{th2} | l_{\mathbf{x}} = 1) = \frac{P(l_{\mathbf{x}} = 1, I_{\mathbf{x}}^{th1} \leq I_x \leq I_{\mathbf{x}}^{th2})}{P(l_{\mathbf{x}} = 1)} \ . \tag{3.2}$$

(a) (b)

Figure 3.2: Keypoint detection.

And points of which the intensities fall in the pre-set thresholds are detected as keypoints.

3.4.2 Keypoint Verification

As shown in Figure 3.2(b), the detected keypoints don't just belong to target objects, but also belong to background. And for training, keypoints belonging to target objects are considered as positive ones, otherwise negative.

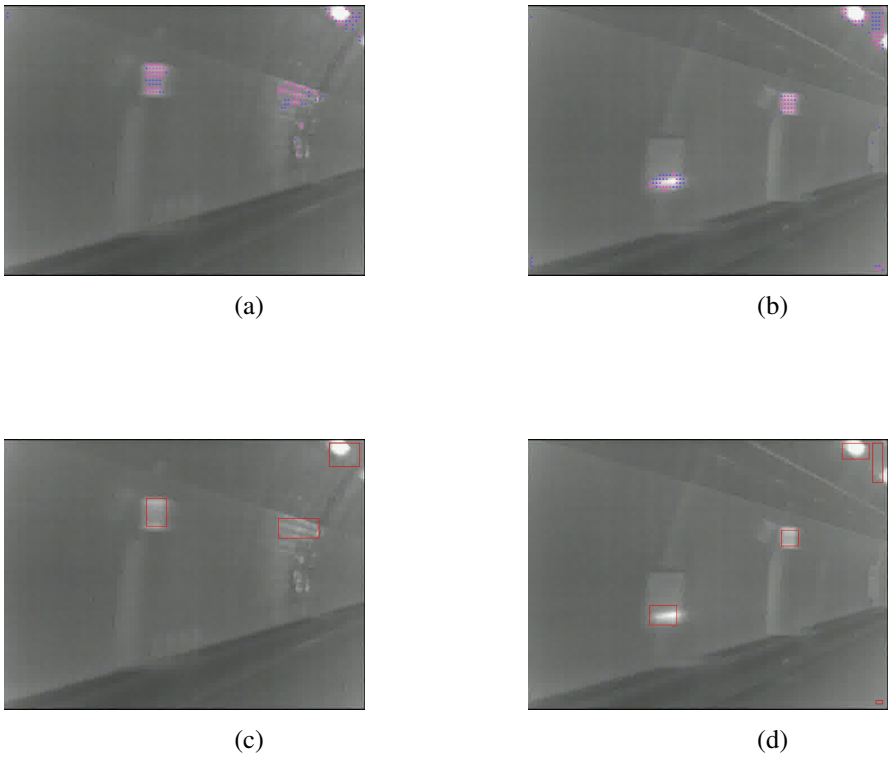
To verify the keypoints, the appearance of the sub-image around each keypoint is used. Intensity histograms are used to describe the appearance. Because the noisy keypoints come from several sources, i.e., way of the tunnel, ordinary lights, and other vehicles in the case of emergency telephone indicator detection. Thus robust linear classifiers are not suitable for the verification. Here, a general model in the form of a simple mixture is used. The *k*-means method is used to cluster the intensity histograms, $\{A_{\mathbf{x}}, l_{\mathbf{x}} = 1\}$, of the positive keypoints, and, $\{A_{\mathbf{x}}, l_{\mathbf{x}} = 0\}$, of the negative keypoints.

Let $\{C_1^i, i = 1, 2, ..., n_1\}$ denote the intensity histogram centers of the positive keypoints, and $\{C_0^i, i = 1, 2, ..., n_2\}$ the negative. For each C_1, the average Euclidean distance between $\{C_0^i, i = 1, 2, ..., n_2\}$ is calculated as,

$$Eu(C_1^i) = \frac{1}{n_2} \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} Euclid(C_1^i, C_0^j) \ . \tag{3.3}$$

Here, $Euclid(\cdot)$ calculates the Euclidean distance, and $Eu(\cdot)$ is a evaluation function of the positive feature centers. The positive feature centers are ranked by $Eu(\cdot)$, and the positive feature centers with largest $Eu(\cdot)$ are chosen and used for verification.

For verification, the intensity histogram of each keypoint's surrounding subimage is extracted. Then the Euclidean distance between the extracted intensity



(a) (b)

(c) (d)

Figure 3.3: Keypoint verification and clustering. Red circles mark keypoints which pass the verification, while blue marks failed ones. Rectangles mark keypoint clustering results.

histogram and its nearest positive feature center is calculated. If this distance exceeds a threshold, $D^{th}_{A_\mathbf{x}}$, it is considered as negative, else it is considered as positive. Here, for simplicity, unlike [57], the same threshold is used for all components of the mixture.

3.4.3 Keypoint Clustering

After the keypoint verification step, on some frames, the result is pretty good, while on other frames, appearance of the keypoints is not enough for decisions of whether the keypoints belonging to target objects or not. Here generation of keypoint trajectories is not feasible, since nearby keypoints are similar in appearance and the time complexity of associating such a large number of keypoints along time dimension is high. So the keypoints are clustered, and then data association in time dimension only need to deal with a small number of keypoint clusters.

To cluster the keypoints, a minimum spanning tree (mst) is built using the pairwise Euclidean distance between two keypoints. And the mst is split by cutting edges larger a threshold. This results in a grouping results of the keypoints, denoted by, $\gamma = \{\mathbf{g}\}$.

3.4.4 Keypoint Cluster Verification by Appearance

For each keypoint cluster, the smallest bounding rectangle is considered as detection hypothesis, as shown in Figure 3.3(c) and Figure 3.3(d).

In the case of emergency telephone indicator detection, there are two main sources of noise. Ordinary lights are the first, and other vehicles with their shadows are the second. The global appearance of ordinary lights is different from that of the emergency telephone indicators. As ordinary lights get further from the infrared camera, the intensity of its corresponding sub-image in the collected data gets lower. At a certain distance, the intensity of the ordinary lights is almost the same with emergency telephone indicators'. And for ordinary lights of which the intensity is higher than the emergency telephone indicators', the transition regions from them to tunnel walls will have similar intensity with the emergency telephone indicators. This means though locally the emergency telephone indicators share the same appearance with ordinary lights, they can still be distinguished globally by appearance. As for other vehicles and their shadows, the intensity range of them is very close to the emergency telephone indicators', and they can hardly be distinguished just by appearance.

At this step, the keypoint clusters are verified by their appearance, aiming at filtering out keypoint clusters which do not share the same appearance model with the target objects. An Adaboost machine is trained using intensity histograms of the target objects and noisy objects. In the case of emergency telephone indicator detection, the appearance of other vehicles is close to the emergency telephone indicators', and they are not used for training the machine. For training of the machine, labeled 32-dimensional intensity histograms are firstly normalized. Then each weak classifier of the machine makes decision on one dimension of the intensity histograms. After this step, each keypoint cluster is either labeled as positive or negative.

In this step, to emphasize the Adaboost machine's performance on the positive training examples, the initial weights of the positive training examples are set to be much larger than the weights of the negative training examples. Since in practice, whether each keypoint cluster is a target object or not is decided by both appearance and motion information. And the difficulties of exclude noisy objects can be left to the later steps.

3.4.5 Keypoint Cluster Tracking

Not all noisy detection hypotheses can be excluded by using appearance, as shown in Figure 3.4. To distinguish keypoint clusters belonging to other vehicles and their shadows, the keypoint clusters are tracked through frames to generate trajectories.

In this case, the problem of keypoint cluster tracking is relatively simple, since no occlusion occurs. To keep the method on-line and maintain efficiency, a pool of trajectories are kept, $\tau = \{T_{\mathbf{g}}^i, i = 1, 2, ..., n\}$, and new detection hypotheses act as

detection responses, $\nu = \{n_{\mathbf{g}}^i, i = 1, 2, ...m\}$, in tracking. The problem of tracking is modeled as finding best data association hypothesis, H^*, between the trajectory set and detection response set as,

$$\begin{aligned} H^* &= \arg\max_{H \in \eta}(P(H|\tau, \nu)) \\ &= \arg\max_{H \in \eta}(\prod_{(T_{\mathbf{g}}^i, n_{\mathbf{g}}^j) \in H} P_{link}(n_{\mathbf{g}}^j | T_{\mathbf{g}}^i)) \ . \end{aligned} \tag{3.4}$$

Let $u_{ij} = 1$ or 0 indicates $n_{\mathbf{g}}^j$ is linked to $T_{\mathbf{g}}^i$ or not, and assuming each trajectory can link once and each detection response can only be linked once, the problem can be modeled as,

$$\arg\max_{u_{ij}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} u_{ij} \ln P_{link}(n_{\mathbf{g}}^j | T_{\mathbf{g}}^i)$$

$$s.t. : \ u_{ij} = 0 \text{ or } u_{ij} = 1, \forall \ i, \forall \ j;$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} u_{ij} \leq 1 \ ; \sum_{j=1}^{m} u_{ij} \leq 1 \ .$$

Here, $P_{link}(n_{\mathbf{g}}^j | T_{\mathbf{g}}^i)$ is defined by the appearance difference, the scale difference, and the time gap between the last detection response contained in $T_{\mathbf{g}}^i$ and $n_{\mathbf{g}}^j$. While Hungarian algorithm [28] gives near-optimal solution, we follow a very simple manner for the solution by finding the best matched pairs and excluding them until no matching pairs can be found.

3.4.6 Keypoint Cluster Verification by Motion

As shown in Figure 3.5, the trajectories from keypoint clusters belonging to target objects are different from other objects'. In this step, the temporal information

Figure 3.4: Keypoint cluster verification by appearance. Red rectangles: positive detection hypotheses, and green: negative detection hypotheses.

encoded in the trajectories are used to further verify the keypoint clusters. In the case of emergence telephone indicator detection, a linear model is used to fit each trajectory, and the significance of the fitting is the criteria for decisions.

Let $(x^i_{\mathbf{g}}, y^i_{\mathbf{g}})$ denote the coordinate of the ith element belonging to a trajectory. The linear assumption is that $y^i_{\mathbf{g}} = a_0 + a_1 x^i_{\mathbf{g}}$. The significance of the fitting is defined as,

$$r = \left| \frac{\sum_i \left(x^i_{\mathbf{g}} - \bar{x}_{\mathbf{g}}\right)\left(y^i_{\mathbf{g}} - \bar{y}_{\mathbf{g}}\right)}{\left[\sum_i \left(x^i_{\mathbf{g}} - \bar{x}_{\mathbf{g}}\right)^2 \cdot \sum_i \left(y^i_{\mathbf{g}} - \bar{y}_{\mathbf{g}}\right)^2\right]^{1/2}} \right| . \tag{3.5}$$

And the value of r is used to decide the trajectories of the keypoint clusters as belonging to emergency telephone indicators or not.

3.4.7 Pipeline Summary

	M/A	Online/Offline	Discriminative/Generative
Keypoint Detection	**A**	Offline	Generative
Keypoint Verification	**A**	Offline	Generative
Keypoint Clustering	**A**	Online	
KC Verification by Appearance	**A**	Offline	Discriminative
KC Tracking	**M**	Online	
KC Verification by Motion	**M**	Online	Discriminative

Table 3.1: Summary of all steps in the pipeline. Here, KC is short for keypoint cluster, and M/A is short for motion/appearance.

Before proposing the decision step for detection, 3.1 summaries the steps in the pipeline from the type and style of the information source, and which whether it belongs to discriminative or generative models. Generally speaking, motion information and discriminative methods are at later steps. This is because the computational test is high, while discriminative methods need more information to guarantee performance. Online information are also mainly used in later steps, this is because without information provided by model trained offline, there is no instances to generate online information. Also the computational cost of online information is higher on the run.

3.4.8 Object Detection

For each keypoint cluster on the current frame, there exists label given by the Adaboost machine according to its appearance, and the significance of fitting its trajectory as a straight line. For each keypoint cluster, it is considered as an target object if and only if its label given by the Adaboost machine is positive, its trajectory is

longer than l^{th}, and the significance of fitting its trajectory into a straight line is larger than r^{th}.

Each trajectory not only connects the detection responses, but also connects the decisions for each detection responses made by their appearance and motion patterns. The target objects and noisy objects actually appear in successive frames, and even if we make a wrong decision on one frame, we can expect to recover from this mistake based on the results on other frames. The final results is based on the trajectories of decisions. When one trajectory ends, if more than 80% of the decisions it connects are positive, then this trajectory is considered as positive.

3.5 Experimental Results

In this section, this method is tested on detection performance and efficiency. There are two experiments carried on, and results from both are reported.

3.5.1 First Experiment

3.5.2 Second Experiment

Data For the second experiment, an infrared camera is mounted on top of the experimental vehicle, and then take several tours of the Awagatake tunnel. About 7,000 frames are collected for each tour. The frame size is 640×480, the intensity range is [0,255], and the frame rate is 30 frames per second.

Implementation Settings All models are trained using data from the same tour, while evaluated on data from another tour.

To set intensity thresholds for keypoint detection, Gaussian distribution is assumed for the points belonging to emergency telephone indicators. Following the 3σ principle, $I_{\mathbf{x}}^{th1}$ is set to 160 and $I_{\mathbf{x}}^{th2}$, 190.

The approximate sub-images of the emergency telephone indicators are manually marked, and used for training the mixture model of keypoint verification. The detected keypoints falling into the sub-image are marked as positive, and otherwise negative. Note this model and the training is not very accurate, since more accurate marking means more manual efforts. About 30,000 intensity histograms of the positive keypoints are sampled, and about 3,000,000 of the negative. When using of k-means for clustering the positive intensity histograms, k is set to 40, and 400 for negative. The k values over-segment both feature sets. The threshold to verify keypoints, $D_{A_{\mathbf{x}}}^{th}$ is set to 0.14 for the normalized histograms.

For keypoint clustering, the threshold to split the mst is set to 40, which is half the largest height of the emergency telephone indicators.

The Adaboost machine to distinguish other vehicles and their shadows is trained

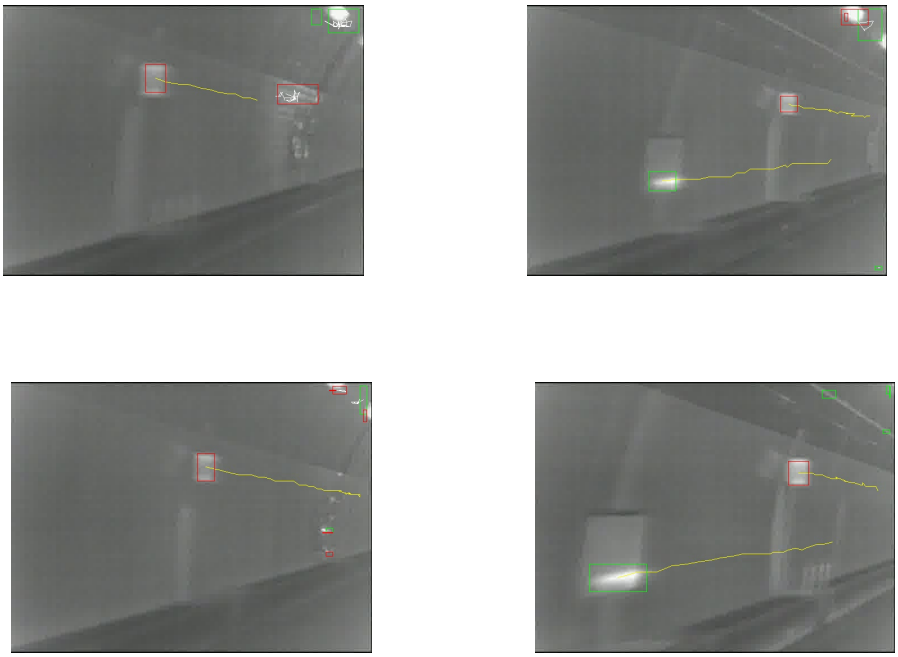


Figure 3.5: Detection results.

by intensity histograms of positive keypoint clusters and negative keypoint clusters. We manually mark positive and negative keypoint clusters. If the Adaboost machine is trained by averagely weighted training examples, its correct rate on the training examples is overall 84%. When trained using this bias weighted training examples, its correct rate on the positive training examples is 94%, and 77% on the negative training examples.

During keypoint cluster tracking, whether a detection response can be linked to a trajectory or not is constrained by position and scale changes. Here scale change limit is set to 4. When the trajectories are fitted as lines, the linear model is also used in associating new detection responses.

Detection Results

On an ordinary desktop computer with Intel Core2 Quad 2.6GHz processors, the method deals with real data at a frame rate of 41 frames per second, and this fulfills real-time requirements.

The detection rate and false alarm rate are evaluated on the keypoint clusters, as shown in TABLE 3.2. More detection results are shown in Figure 3.5.

The detection rate and false alarm rate of [63] are 90% and 19%, while evaluated on a much smaller dataset. We outperforms [63], because this sensed images are much clearer, and also because this more effective training of the Adaboost machine.

The results on the trajectories of decisions are also evaluated. The method cor-

total number	472 + 3304
correctly labeled	468
miss detections	4
false alarms	22
detection rate	99.2%
false alarm rate	0.7%

Table 3.2: Detection rate and false alarm rate.

rectly detects all the 22 emergency telephone indicators with no false alarms. The detection rate is 100%, and the false alarm rate is 0%.

3.6 Experimental results on data collected by ordinary cameras

3.7 Conclusion

We propose an object detection method to detect emergency telephone indicators in tunnel environment. The method makes use of appearance and motion information of the target objects in a hierarchical manner. With careful optimization of detection pipeline, the method gives promising results in real time. Based on the detection results, a positioning system in tunnel environment can be expected.

Chapter 4

Grouping of object parts by motion for detection

4.1 Introduction

~~In ITS areas, detection methods using cameras can be used for navigation, safe driving, surveillance, and sustaining results from other sensors. These methods can be used to detect pedestrians, bicycle riders, and automobiles, and here we focus on techniques from the area of computer vision for detection of such objects.~~ In ITS areas, detection methods using cameras can be used for navigation, safe driving, surveillance, and sustaining results from other sensors. In traditional ITS applications, vehicles are main targets. Currently pedestrians are also considered as important subjects of ITS applications, and bicycles also become very popular for environmental and economical reasons. In Japan, the number of traffic accidents among bicycles and pedestrians is very large. Thus we tackle an issue of detecting freely moving bicycle riders and pedestrians from the data collected by a camera which keeps them under surveillance from the top. These situations can be observed in parks, university campuses, station squares, tourist spots, etc. Here we focus on techniques from the area of computer vision for detection under surveillance scenarios.

Most state-of-the-art visual detection methods fall into two main categories: sliding-window methods and Hough transform based methods. The methods [29, 71] based on a sliding window schema perform detection in a typical machinery way. In these method, decisions of whether a target object exists or not are made for part of or all the sub-images in a test image. Beside the attractive performance and the extendibility of combining various kernels, these methods are favorable also because they consider each object as a whole during detection. However, they share limited aspects with visual perception in human beings, and the efficiency heavily relies on the size of the test images.

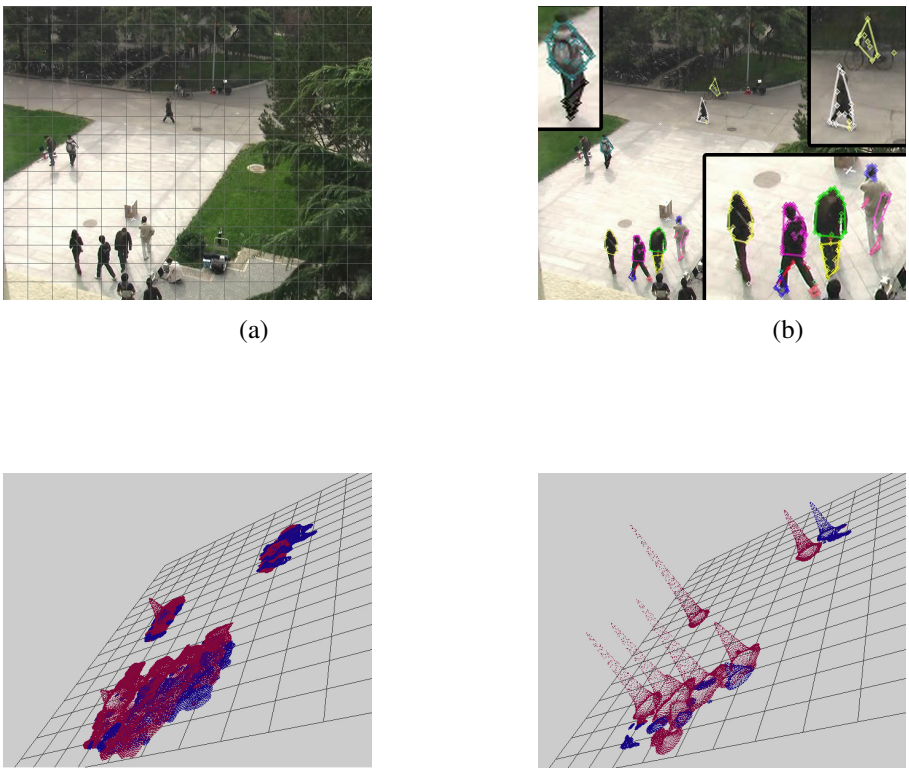
The other methods [33, 17, 18, 46] detect objects based on the generalized Hough transform [4]. Object parts are detected, and the object parts provides confidence of locations being potential objects' centers. Locations of objects are decided

according to the converged confidence. They are favorable for the robustness to partial deformation and easiness of training. To human beings, this kind of methods seems to be more natural. And in our work, we combine a mechanism of visual perception in human with the ISM [33] to demonstrate this natural property.

A typical Hough transform based method contains two steps: training and detection. During training, a codebook of object parts is built from a set of well annotated images. Each code in the codebook contains information about the appearance of the object part, the relative position to the object center, and the class label. Each object part's appearance is given in the form keypoint descriptors [33], image patches [21, 48], or image regions [22]. Each code not only encode one object part's appearance, but also its offset to the ~~the~~ object center and the class label. while during detection, on each test image, object parts are detected. Then every object part is matched against the codebook, and activates several nearest codes in appearance. The offset and class label encoded in each activated code will act as a vote. All the votes from the object parts are added up to form a Hough image. The peaks of the Hough image are considered as detection hypotheses with the height of each peak as the confidence for the corresponding hypothesis.

Two challenging issues for detection methods are how to separate near objects and how to separate similar different-class objects. The target objects, in the case of ITS applications, are pedestrians, bicycle riders, and automobiles. In the schema of sliding window, usually ~~maximum~~non-maximum suppression is needed for post-processing, and a mechanism in [29] works by excluding from the feature pool the features which belong to each successive found detection response. In Hough transform based methods, a similar mechanism is also employed in [5], however, this effort is after the forming of Hough image. During the forming of a Hough image, two kinds of votes make detection challenging: (1) votes casted by object parts from near objects make the peaks corresponding to different objects mixed up, and (2) votes casted by similar different-class object parts lead to tough decisions on the class label of the peaks. See Figure 4.2(d). Before the forming of Hough images, problems also arise from the pollution of training images' background part to the codebook. During training a very clean codebook can be built with foreground marked, which needs manual efforts. Otherwise, large amount of training examples are needed for the effectiveness of the codebook, and this harms efficiency.

In videos, motion information is also available by simple tracking of object parts. Thus we propose a method for detection which utilizes both appearance and motion information. ~~the~~The method is based on the common fate principle [64]. The principle is one of the visual perception principles as theorized by gestalt psychologists, and it states for human beings, tokens moving coherently are perceptually grouped. This provides an intuition to group the object parts by their motion patterns, and let them vote afterwards. In our work, the object parts are represented using keypoint descriptors, which are tracked to generate trajectories. The object parts are grouped by the pairwise similarities of their corresponding trajectories. Having the assumption that object parts in the same motion group probably belong to the same object, for each object part, we assign higher weights for the votes of this object parts which are more "agreeable" within the motion group. This results in votes corresponding



(a) (b)

(c) (d)

Figure 4.1: Merit of the proposed method. (a) Original image. (b) Motion ~~group~~grouping results. Some parts are enlarged to show details. (c) Original Hough image. (d) Hough image formed using our method. The grids in (c) and (d) correspond to the grids in(a).

to true detection responses are more likely to be assigned higher weights. And on a Hough image formed by summing up these weighted votes, the peaks are easier to find as shown in Figure 4.1(d).

By the combination of motion analysis results with the Hough transform framework through assigning different weights to each object part's votes, the proposed method has several appealing properties:

- The method's ability to estimate object position and label of multiple objects from different classes. The existence of three types of objects makes the task challenging: near objects, similar different-class objects, and multi-pose same-class objects.
- Its ability to use a codebook trained by images with cluttered backgrounds.
- The framework to combine grouping results of object parts is very general, and has a good expandability.

The remaining paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews related work. Section 3 gives formalism of the common fate Hough transform. Section 4 describes inference on the formed Hough images. Section 5 gives experimental results, and section 6 concludes.

4.2 Related Work

Our work is most related to object detection methods [5, 32, 33, 34, 37, 42] based on the Hough transform framework. Recently, such methods make a lot of ~~process~~progress. The ISM [33, 34] is extended by notifying correspondences between the object parts and the hypotheses [5] for the detection of multiple near objects. While in ~~[37]~~[21, 37, 48] the Hough transform is placed in a discriminative framework for object detection in a way that the codes are assigned different weights by the co-occurrence frequency of their appearance and offset to the object center. Two Hough transform methods consider the grouping of object parts [49, 70]. The method in [49] deals with scale change. Instead of estimating the scale by local features trained from different scaled examples, the votes are considered as voting lines. By considering the difference of the voted centers, local features are firstly grouped and then vote more consistently for the object center. In [70], the grouping of object parts, the correspondence between object parts and object, and the decisions on detection hypotheses are optimized in the same energy function. For this method, the problem is that the grouping results don't have meaning or correspond to and real entities.

The work is also related to object detection methods by trajectories [10, 11], methods weighting features [69], methods dealing with codebook noise [45], and methods which integrate temporal information [67].

4.3 Common Fate Hough Transform

Probabilistic standpoints are very appealing, because of inference easiness. However, as pointed in [31], placing the ISM in a probabilistic framework is not satisfactory. Especially, describing weights of the votes as priors does not make sense. Hough transform can be simply considered as transformation from a set of object parts, $\{\mathbf{e}\}$, to a confidence space of object hypotheses, $C(\mathbf{x}, l)$. And $\mathbf{x}$ is the coordinate of the object center, while l the label. Terms described as priors of the votes in the ISM are actually weights, and the likelihood terms are actually blurring functions to convert discrete votes into continuous space. Then this section describes how a Hough image for estimation of object centers and labels is formed from object parts observed on an image.

Let $\mathbf{e}$ denote an object part observed on the current image. The appearance of $\mathbf{e}$ is matched against the codebook, and $\mathbf{e}$ activates N best matched codes from the trained codebook. Each code contains the appearance, its offset to the object center,

and the class label. According to the N matched codes, $\mathbf{e}$ casts N votes. Each vote $V_{\mathbf{e}}$ is about the object center that generates $\mathbf{e}$. The position of the object center casted by a vote, V, is denoted by $\mathbf{x}_V$, while the class label by l_V. Based on the N votes of $\mathbf{e}$, the confidence that a position $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ is the center of an object with class label $\tilde{l}$ is given by,

$$C(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{l}; \mathbf{e}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} B(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{l}; V_{\mathbf{e}}^i) w(V_{\mathbf{e}}^i) \; . \tag{4.1}$$

Here $B(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{l}; V_{\mathbf{e}}^i)$ is the blurring function. And $w(V_{\mathbf{e}}^i)$ is the weight of $V_{\mathbf{e}}^i$.

The idea of the proposed method is that, the weight term, $w(V_{\mathbf{e}}^i)$, is defined by the motion grouping results of all the object parts.

The blurring function is defined as,

$$B(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{l}; V) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } l_V \neq \tilde{l} \text{ or } |\tilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}_V| > d \\ G(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}; \mathbf{x}_V, \sigma) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \; . \tag{4.2}$$

Here $G(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}; \mathbf{x}_V, \sigma)$ is a Gaussian function that fixes the ~~spacial~~spatial gap between $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ and $\mathbf{x_V}$.

Let M be the total number of object parts on the image, then by summing up over all the object parts, the confidence of $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ being the center of a $\tilde{l}$-class object is given by,

$$\begin{aligned} C(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{l}) &= \sum_{j=1}^{M} C(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{l}; \mathbf{e}_j) w(\mathbf{e}_j) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{M} \sum_{i=1}^{N} B(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{l}; V_{\mathbf{e}_j}^i) w(V_{\mathbf{e}_j}^i) w(\mathbf{e}_j) \; . \end{aligned} \tag{4.3}$$

Here, a uniform weight is assumed for each object part, and $w(\mathbf{e}_j) = \frac{1}{M}$. Then by considering $C(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{l})$ as the evaluation score of the Hough space $(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{l})$, the task of estimating object centers and labels converts to finding and then validating the local maxima of the Hough image.

4.3.1 Common Fate Weights

To meet the challenges of separating near objects, separating similar different-class objects, and using a noisy codebook, different weights are assigned to the votes of

each object part by considering the motion grouping results of the object parts. In this sub-section, when given some grouping results, how the results are combined into a Hough transform framework is introduced.

Let $\gamma = \{\mathbf{g}\}$ denote the grouping results, where $\mathbf{g}$ is a group of object parts, and assume $\mathbf{e}_m \in \mathbf{g}$ and $\mathbf{e}_n \in \mathbf{g}$. Those votes of $\mathbf{e_m}$ which are more "agreeable" by the votes of the other objects in $\mathbf{g}$ are assigned larger weights.

Towards this end, the relationship between the votes of $\mathbf{e_m}$ and the votes of $\mathbf{e_n}$ needs to be given in advance. This relationship is named support. The support from $V_{\mathbf{e}_n}$ to $V_{\mathbf{e}_m}$ is defined by that based on $V_{\mathbf{e}_n}$, the confidence $V_{\mathbf{e}_m}$'s voted center is correct, as,

$$S(V_{\mathbf{e}_n} \rightarrow V_{\mathbf{e}_m}) = B(\mathbf{x}_{V_{\mathbf{e}_m}}, l_{V_{\mathbf{e}_m}}; V_{\mathbf{e}_n}) \, , n \neq m \, .$$

Here $B(\mathbf{x}_{V_{\mathbf{e}_m}}, l_{V_{\mathbf{e}_m}}; V_{\mathbf{e}_n})$ is defined in (4.2). This measures the coherence of the two votes from different object parts.

Then, the support from $\mathbf{e}_n$ to $V_{\mathbf{e}_m}$ is defined by that based on $\mathbf{e}_n$, the confidence that $V_{\mathbf{e}_m}$'s voted center is correct, as,

$$\begin{aligned} S(\mathbf{e}_n \rightarrow V_{\mathbf{e}_m}) &= C(\mathbf{x}_{V_{\mathbf{e}_m}}, l_{V_{\mathbf{e}_m}}; \mathbf{e}_n) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} S(V_{\mathbf{e}_n}^i \rightarrow V_{\mathbf{e}_m}) w(V_{\mathbf{e}_n}^i) \, , n \neq m \, . \end{aligned}$$

And the support from $\mathbf{g}$ to $V_{\mathbf{e}_m}$ is defined by the confidence that $V_{\mathbf{e}_m}$'s voted center is correct based on the votes of all the other object parts but its belonging object part in $\mathbf{g}$, as,

$$\begin{aligned} S(\mathbf{g} \rightarrow V_{\mathbf{e}_m}) &= \sum_{\mathbf{e}_i \in \mathbf{g} - \{\mathbf{e}_m\}} C(\mathbf{x}_{V_{\mathbf{e}_i}}, l_{V_{\mathbf{e}_m}}; \mathbf{e}_i) w(\mathbf{e}_i) \\ &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_{\mathbf{e}_i \in \mathbf{g} - \{\mathbf{e}_m\}} S(\mathbf{e}_i \rightarrow V_{\mathbf{e}_m}) \, . \end{aligned}$$

~~By assuming all object parts in the same motion group are from the same object, which means motion grouping gives good results. The center position and the class label given by one vote shall be consistent with that given by the motion group.~~By assuming all object parts in the same motion group are from the same object, which means motion grouping gives good results, the estimations for center position and class label given by every object part shall be consistent with that given by the motion group. Thus for a particular vote of $\mathbf{e}_m$, i.e., $\tilde{V}_{\mathbf{e}_m}$, a weight is assigned to it by considering its consistence with $\mathbf{g}$ and the consistence of $\mathbf{e}_m$'s other votes with

g, as:

$$
\begin{aligned}
w(\tilde{V}_{\mathbf{e}_m}) &= \frac{S(\mathbf{g} \to \tilde{V}_{\mathbf{e}_m}) + \frac{\Delta}{N}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} S(\mathbf{g} \to V^i_{\mathbf{e}_m}) + \Delta} \\
&= \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{e}_j \in \mathbf{g} - \{\mathbf{e}_m\}} \sum_{k=1}^{N} S(V^k_{\mathbf{e}_j} \to \tilde{V}_{\mathbf{e}_m}) w(V^k_{\mathbf{e}_j}) + \frac{M\Delta}{N}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{\mathbf{e}_j \in \mathbf{g} - \{\mathbf{e}_m\}} \sum_{k=1}^{N} S(V^k_{\mathbf{e}_j} \to V^i_{\mathbf{e}_m}) w(V^k_{\mathbf{e}_j}) + M\Delta}.
\end{aligned}
\tag{4.4}
$$

Here, Δ is a small constant for preventing zeros. Notice, $w(\tilde{V}_{\mathbf{e}_m})$ is defined using $w(V^k_{\mathbf{e}_j})$, the weights of the votes of the other object parts in $\mathbf{g}$. In order to give $w(\tilde{V}_{\mathbf{e}_m})$, uniform weights are firstly assigned to the votes of each object part in $\mathbf{g}$, i.e., $w(V^k_{\mathbf{e}_j}) = \frac{1}{N}$. Then new weights are calculated based on the uniformly assigned weights. The weights of votes to form the Hough image are weights converged in iterations.

The grouping result $\gamma = \{\mathbf{g}\}$, can be replaced by grouping results based on other information, while our method utilizes motion to group the voting elements. The manner of extending the Hough transform is very general, and the extended Hough transform with motion grouping results is called the common fate Hough transform. The votes given by the best matched codes and the votes with higher defined weights are shown in Figure 4.2.

4.3.2 Motion Grouping

In this subsection how to group the object parts by their motion patterns is introduced. Basically, the object parts are tracked, and clustered by their motion patterns. The object parts are tracked through frames before and after the current frame to generate trajectories. Then the object parts are grouped by their corresponding trajectories' pairwise motion similarity.

The object parts in this method are in the form of keypoint descriptors. The Harris Corner [23] feature is chosen, for robustness, to represent each object part, while for appearance, the region covariance [61] feature of the image patch around each keypoint is used. The image feature is chosen because of its flexibility to combine multiple channels of information, and also for its capability of handling scale changes in a certain range. For each object part, a trajectory is generated by tracking its corresponding Harris Corner by the KLT tracker [59]. To group the trajectories, two pairwise similarities are defined.

Let $T_{\mathbf{e}_m}$ and $T_{\mathbf{e}_n}$ denote two trajectories corresponding to $\mathbf{e}_m$ and $\mathbf{e}_n$. The first similarity between two trajectories is defined as,

(a) (b)

(c) (d)

Figure 4.2: Effect of the proposed weight. (a) Motion groups, different colors mark different motion groups. (b) Voted centers given by the 7 best matched codes. (c) Voted centers with the highest defined weights. (d) Voted centers with weights higher than a threshold.

$$D_1(T_{\mathbf{e}_m}, T_{\mathbf{e}_n}) = \max_{i=1...L}(|\mathbf{x}^i_{T_{\mathbf{e}_m}} - \mathbf{x}^i_{T_{\mathbf{e}_n}}|) \, .$$

Here, i is the frame index, and L is ~~the length of the overlapping part of the two trajectories~~the number of frames which are crossed by both trajectories.

To define the second similarity, the ith directional vector of T is firstly defined as, $\mathbf{d}^i_T = \mathbf{x}^{i+3}_T - \mathbf{x}^i_T$. Let $\mathbf{a}_i = \mathbf{d}^i_{T_{\mathbf{e}_m}}$, $\mathbf{b}_i = \mathbf{d}^i_{T_{\mathbf{e}_n}}$, $a_i = \frac{\mathbf{a}_i \cdot \mathbf{b}_i}{\mathbf{a}_i \cdot \mathbf{a}_i}$, and $b_i = \frac{\mathbf{a}_i \cdot \mathbf{b}_i}{\mathbf{b}_i \cdot \mathbf{b}_i}$. Then the second similarity is defined as,

$$D_2(T_{\mathbf{e}_m}, T_{\mathbf{e}_n}) = \max_{i=1...L-3}(\max(|\mathbf{a}_i - a_i\mathbf{a}_i|, |\mathbf{b}_i - b_i\mathbf{b}_i|)) \, .$$

Before grouping the trajectories, the static points are excluded. ~~Inspired by [10], a minimal spanning tree of the trajectories is built upon D_1, and split by cutting edges larger than a threshold, D^1_{th}. For each element of the splitting results, a minimal spanning tree is built upon D_2 and split by cutting the edges larger than~~

~~a threshold, D_{th}^2.~~The defined D_1 is calculated for all pairs of trajectories, and a minimal spanning tree is then built using the calculated distances. The built mst is split by cutting edges larger than a threshold, D_{th}^1, and this gives a grouping result of the trajectories. For each element in the clustering result, D_2 is used in the same procedure to generate even smaller clusters. This hierarchical procedure ensures that trajectories in the same group have both small D_1 and D_2. Each trajectory corresponds to an object part, and the grouping results of the trajectories correspond to grouping results of the object parts.

4.3.3 Codebook

For training, Harris corners are extracted from the training images with the object center and the class label annotated. In this method, region covariance is chosen to represent the appearance, which is defined as,

$$\mathbf{r} = \frac{1}{K-1}\sum_{i=1}^{K}(\mathbf{z}_i - \mu)(\mathbf{z}_i - \mu)^T \ .$$

Here, K is the number of pixels in the region, and $\mathbf{z}_i$ is a 7-dimensional vector regarding the (x, y) coordinate of the pixel, while μ is the mean of $\mathbf{z}_i$. And $\mathbf{z}(x, y)$ contains the RGB color of the pixel and the intensity gradients of the pixel, as: $r(x, y)$, $g(x, y)$, $b(x, y)$, $|\frac{\partial I(x,y)}{\partial x}|$, $|\frac{\partial I(x,y)}{\partial y}|$, $|\frac{\partial^2 I(x,y)}{\partial x^2}|$, and $|\frac{\partial^2 I(x,y)}{\partial y^2}|$.

The appearance similarity between $\mathbf{r}_m$ and $\mathbf{r}_n$ is given by,

$$\rho(\mathbf{r}_m, \mathbf{r}_n) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{7} \ln^2 \lambda_i} \ .$$

Here, λ_i is the generalized eigenvalue by solving the generalized eigenvalue problem, $\lambda_i \mathbf{r}_m \mathbf{u}_i = \mathbf{r}_n \mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{u}_i \neq \mathbf{0}$, with $\mathbf{u}_i$ the eigenvector.

A square image patch around each keypoint is used to represent the appearance of an object part. Six region co- variances are generated for each image patch by using the pixels of the top-left, the top-right, the bottom-left, the bottom-right, the central, and all of the image patch. Then besides the offset and the class label, a code contains six region covariances. ~~When an object part is matched against the codebook, the similarity between the image patch of the object part and a code is defined by the smallest similarity of the corresponding region covariance. In this way, a codebook of object parts is built.~~All codes from all training images constitute the codebook. When an object part is matched against the codebook, the similarity between the image patch of the object part and a code is defined by the smallest similarity of the corresponding region covariance.

4.4 Detection

After forming the Hough image, the detection hypotheses are validated. Let $\mathbf{h} = \{H\}$ be the points in the Hough space which are evaluated by $C(\mathbf{x}_H, l_H)$ and have $C(\mathbf{x}_H, l_H) > 0$. Inspired by [5], the hypotheses are validated by an optimizing procedure. Let O be the number of the points in $\mathbf{h}$. ~~let~~Let $u_i = 1$ or 0 indicate H_i being a true object center or not. The problem is:

$$\arg\max_{u_i} \prod_{i=1}^{O} C^{u_i}(H_i) \Longleftrightarrow \arg\max_{u_i} \sum_{i=1}^{O} u_i \ln(C(H_i)) \ .$$

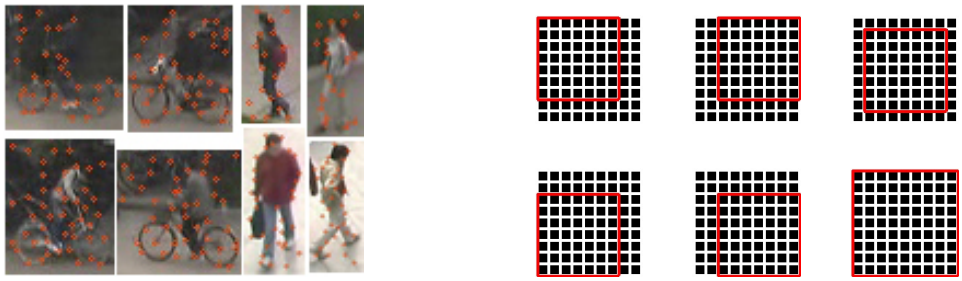
Let $v_{ij} = 1$ or 0 indicate ~~e_j~~$\mathbf{e}_j$ belongs to H_i or not, then

$$\begin{aligned} C(H_i) &= \sum_{j=1}^{M} C(\mathbf{x}_{H_i}, l_{H_i}; \mathbf{e}_j) w(\mathbf{e}_j) \\ &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^{M} v_{ij} C(\mathbf{x}_{H_i}, l_{H_i}; \mathbf{e}_j) \ , \end{aligned}$$

and by assuming one object part belongs to and only belongs to one hypothesis, the problem is,

$$\begin{aligned} &\arg\max_{u_i, v_{ij}} \sum_{i=1}^{O} u_i \ln(\sum_{j=1}^{M} v_{ij} C(\mathbf{x}_{H_i}, l_{H_i}; \mathbf{e}_j)) \\ &s.t. : \ u_i = 0 \text{ or } u_i = 1, \forall\ i; \\ &\qquad v_{ij} = 0 \text{ or } v_{ij} = 1, \forall\ i, \forall\ j; \\ &\qquad \sum_{i=1}^{O} v_{ij} = 1, \forall\ j; \\ &\qquad \sum_{j=1}^{M} v_{ij} \leq u_i, \forall\ i \ . \end{aligned}$$

Following [5], the optimal result for the problem is given by greedy maximization. As described in Algorithm 1, the largest local maximum of all the local maxima is chosen to be the center of a true object and then the object parts belonging to the chosen object center are excluded from the object part set. A new Hough image where new objects are found is formed using the remaining object parts. And this procedure ends when the object part set is empty or the confidence of the chosen object is lower than a threshold.



(a) (b)

Figure 4.3: (a) Training images. Note some keypoints fall on the background. (b) The manner how a 9×9 image patch is used to generate six region covariances, and red rectangles indicate the pixels used for each covariance.

4.5 Experimental Results

In experiments, improvement of the method is verified in terms of detection accuracy. The method is tested on the P-campus dataset with [5] as benchmark, and then tested on a dataset of ~~sevral~~several animals.

4.5.1 Campus-scene Detection

Dataset The P-campus dataset contains two primary classes of foreground objects: pedestrians and bicycle riders. The frame size is 720×576. Among all the 401 continuous frames, 633 different-class ground truth bounding boxes are annotated on 79 frames. In this dataset, pedestrians and bicycle riders have in common the upper human body, and pedestrians appear in front, back, and side views.

Implementation Settings For training, 52 images of bicycle riders and 171 images of pedestrians are randomly selected. Harris corners are generated on the image, examples are given in Figure 4.3(a). For appearance, six region covariances are generated for each keypoint using the 9×9 image patch around it as shown in 4.3(b). The appearance, the offset to the image (object) center, and the label of the training image are encoded into a code, and the code is inserted into a codebook. The final codebook contains 5502 codes.

For motion grouping, each keypoint is tracked through 10 frames before and through 10 frames after the current frame. The similarity of two 21-point trajectories is defined using only ~~the overlapping part~~the frames crossed by both trajectories. To set the two thresholds for motion grouping, D_1 and D_2 are measured for keypoint pairs of different objects. D_{th}^1 is set that it is larger than only 10% of the measured D_1s, and so is D_{th}^2. By doing so, keypoints belonging to different objects are not likely to be grouped together. So that in one motion group, the keypoints are very likely to belong to the same object, as shown in Figure 4.4.

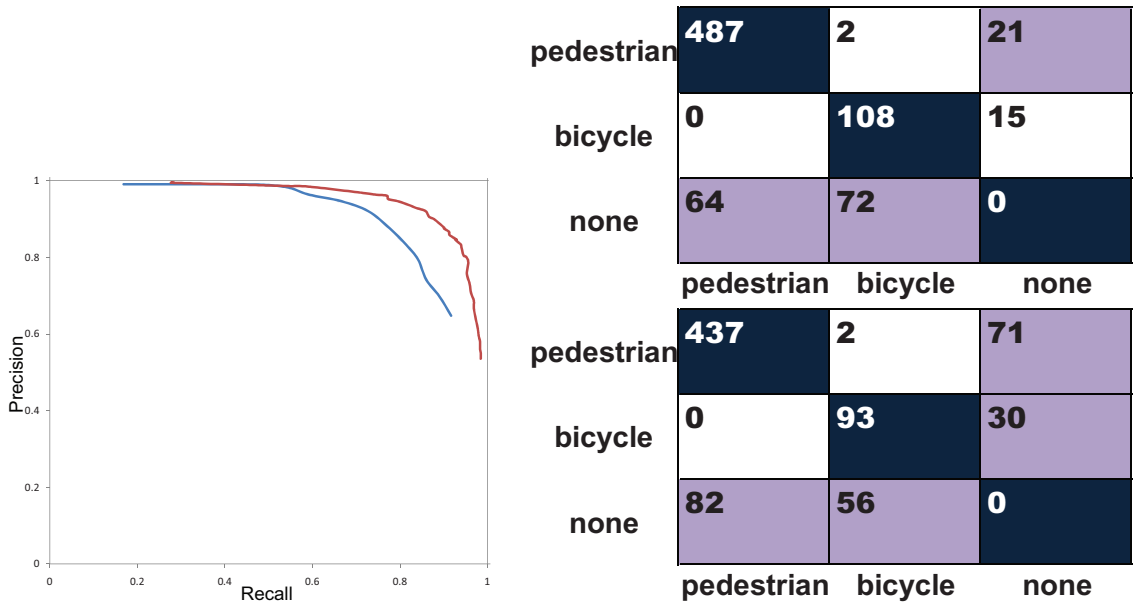
Figure 4.4: Motion grouping results.

To form the Hough image, 35 best matched codes are chosen from the codebook for each object part. In (4.3), d and σ need to be given. The precision-recall curves are based on σ, while d is set to be 10. Here σ is the most important parameter.

Comparisons For comparison, detection is done on the Hough images formed with and without motion grouping results. The same codebook and the same parameter settings are used for forming and searching over both Hough images. The votes of each object part are assigned uniform weights in the benchmark method, while weights defined in (4.4) are assigned in the proposed method.

The precision-recall curves are shown in Figure 4.5(a). An object is considered as correctly detected only if the distance from the ground truth to it is less than 10 pixels. In Figure 4.5(a), the correctly positioned but wrongly labeled objects are considered as true positives, aiming at verifying the positioning ability of the proposed method.

The confusion matrices are given in Figure 4.5(b). For clarity of the comparisons, the proposed method is compared with the benchmark method when they have nearly equal number of false alarms. To evaluate the labeling ability, a class of "none" to represent missed detections and false alarms is manually added. For example, in Figure 4.5(b), 487 pedestrian instances are correctly positioned and labeled by the proposed method, 2 are wrongly labeled to be bicycle riders, and 21 are miss-detected. More results are shown in Figure 4.6.



(a) (b)

Figure 4.5: (a) Precision-recall curves (red: the proposed method, blue: the benchmark method). (b) Confusion matrices (upper: the proposed method, down: the benchmark method).

4.5.2 Wild-scene Detection

Dataset ~~To show the effectiveness of our method in general cases, we prepared a more difficult dataset.~~In order to show that our method can be used for general purposes, we test our method on complicated scenes, especially, complicated background. Even in these cases, our method works well, which shows robustness of our method. A mini dataset is built upon leopards and tigers of the family Felidae. Especially, the image feature used by this method belongs to the type of texture, and texture from different ~~postions~~positions of the leopards are almost the same. The dataset contains 6 video clips of 9 leopards and 4 tigers. The frame size is 640×480. Both the animals are in the side view.

Implementation settings Most implementation settings are the same with the settings for campus object detection. For training, 5 leopards and 2 tigers are used. The size of the image patch around each keypoint is 27×27.

Comparisons In Figure 4.7, the motion grouping results and how the voted centers are affected are given. Since parts from different positions of the leopard are very similar, the true center of a leopard is difficult to find from the voted centers of the object parts. In Figure 4.8, example Hough images are given to show the merit of the proposed prior by the ability to detect leopards. In Figure 4.9, the detection results are given. The proposed method successfully localizes and labels all the leopards and tigers, while the benchmark method miss-detects three leopards.

Figure 4.6: Results. Red rectangles and blue rectangles mark correctly detected pedestrians and bicycle riders. Yellow rectangles mark missed detections. White rectangles mark correctly detected but not correctly labeled objects. Green rectangles mark false alarms. Black rectangles mark static objects, which are beyond the verification for the method.

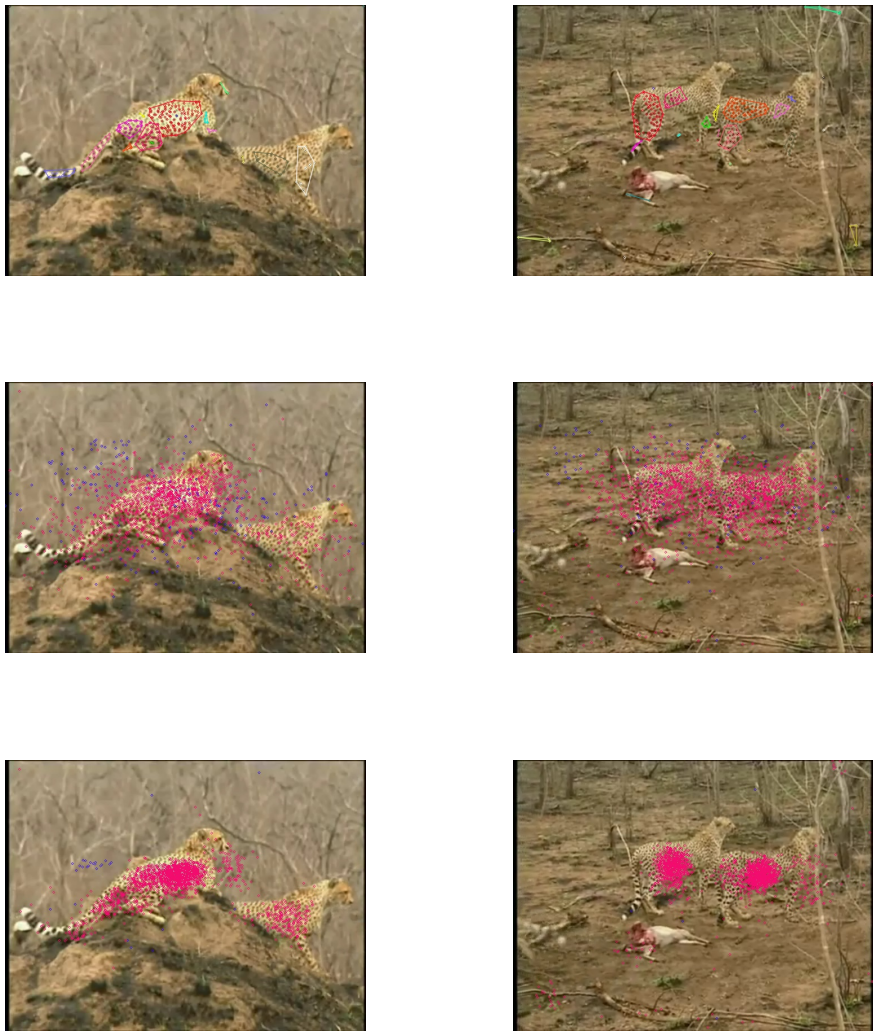


Figure 4.7: Effect of the proposed weight assignment. Red circles are voted center for leopards, while blue ones are voted centers for tigers. On the top are the motion grouping results. In the middle are the voted centers according to the best matched codes. On the bottom are the voted centers voted by votes with highest weights.

4.6 Conclusion

The computational ability of human beings is limited, while the ability to detect is far beyond machines. Thus, it is very possible that this detection ability benefits from multiple perceptual mechanisms. By using one of these mechanisms, we propose a detection method. ~~The~~By embedding motion grouping results into the voting schema of hough transform, the method is capable to distinguish near objects' positions, to distinguish similar objects' labels, and to maintain detection rate with a noisy codebook. The success of our method further demonstrate the advancement of perceptual mechanisms in human beings. And the success of this method will

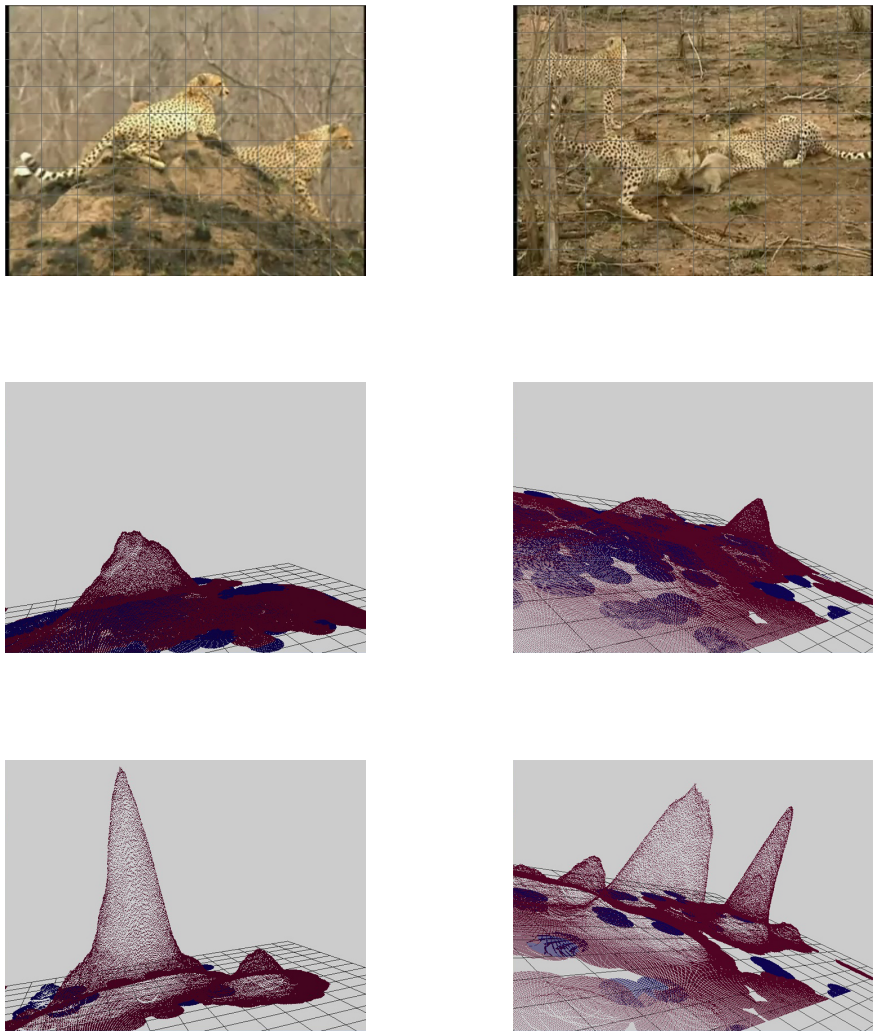


Figure 4.8: Example Hough images. On the top are the original images. In the middle are the Hough images formed by votes with uniform priors. On the bottom are the Hough images formed by votes with the proposed weights. Red indicates leopards, and blue indicates tigers. Note for the two leopards, there is no peak corresponding to the right one on the benchmark Hough image. For the three leopards, there is also no peak corresponding to the leopard in behind on the benchmark Hough image.

help with detection methods in ITS areas.

Figure 4.9: Results. Red crosses mark the centers for leopards and blue crosses mark the centers for tigers.

Algorithm 1 Greedy Maximization

Let ε be the set of object parts, C_{th} be the low confidence threshold to accept detection responses, and $\hat{\mathbf{h}}$ be the local maxima of $\mathbf{h}$

while $\varepsilon \neq \emptyset$ **do**
  Form $\mathbf{h}$ with ε
  Generate $\hat{\mathbf{h}}$ and select $H_i \in \hat{\mathbf{h}}, u_i = 0$ and $\forall H^{'} \in \hat{\mathbf{h}}, C(\mathbf{x}_{H_i}, l_{H_i}) >= C(\mathbf{x}_{H'}, l_{H'})$
  if $C(\mathbf{x}_{H_i}, l_{H_i}) >= C_{th}$ **then**
    $u_i \leftarrow 1$
    for $\mathbf{e}_j \in \varepsilon$ **do**
      if $\forall H^{'} \in \hat{\mathbf{h}}, C(\mathbf{x}_{H_i}, l_{H_i}|\mathbf{e}_j) >= C(\mathbf{x}_{H'}, l_{H'}|\mathbf{e}_j)$ **then**
        $v_{ij} \leftarrow 1$
        $\varepsilon \leftarrow \varepsilon - \{\mathbf{e}_j\}$
      end if
    end for
  else
    for $\mathbf{e}_j \in \varepsilon$ **do**
      $v_{1j} \leftarrow 1$
    end for
    $\varepsilon \leftarrow \emptyset$
  end if
end while
return $\{H_i, u_i = 1\}$

while $\varepsilon \neq \emptyset$ **do**
  Form $\mathbf{h}$ with ε
  Generate $\hat{\mathbf{h}}$ and select $H_i \in \hat{\mathbf{h}}$ with the largest $C(\mathbf{x}_{H_i}, l_{H_i})$
  if $C(\mathbf{x}_{H_i}, l_{H_i}) >= C_{th}$ **then**
    for $\mathbf{e}_j \in \varepsilon$ **do**
      if $\forall H^{'} \in \hat{\mathbf{h}}, C(\mathbf{x}_{H_i}, l_{H_i}|\mathbf{e}_j) >= C(\mathbf{x}_{H'}, l_{H'}|\mathbf{e}_j)$ **then**
        $\varepsilon \leftarrow \varepsilon - \{\mathbf{e}_j\}$
      end if
    end for
  else
    $\varepsilon \leftarrow \emptyset$
  end if
end while
return $\{H_i\}$

Chapter 5

Pyramid Match Score for Detection

5.1 Pyramid Match

The Pyramid Match method is designed to find the best one-one match between two point(feature) sets in a heuristic manner.

Given two point sets, $S_1 = \{u_1, u_2, ..., u_m\}$ and $S_2 = \{v_1, v_2, ..., v_n\}$, there exists a best one-one match π^* that minimizes the sum of $L1$ -distances between matched pairs,

$$\pi^* = \arg\min_{\pi} \sum_{u_i \in S_1} ||u_i - v_{\pi(i)}||_1 \ .$$

Here $m < n$, and π maps each feature u_i in S_1 to a unique feature $v_{\pi(i)}$ in S_2.

The best match exists, and be found by simple brute-force methods. In special cases, the Hungarian algorithm is also applicable.

Sub-optimal solution can be found by heuristic methods. A very intuitionistic method is to find matched pairs of nearest distance, exclude corresponding points from both point sets, and repeat until no pair can be found.

The methods mentioned above are not efficient enough. The Pyramid Match method is straightforward. Divide the space into very fine grids, and exclude all pairs of points, each of which exists in the same grid. Then divide the space into coarser grids, and continue to exclude matched pairs of points until no pair can be found.

However, in order to know the sum of distances between matched pairs, the distance between two matched points still needs to be calculated. In order to avoid such calculations, the ”distance” is directly assigned by how fine the grids are when the two points are considered as match.

The Pyramid Match method is very efficient.

5.2 Pyramid Match Score

The Pyramid Match Score measures the confidence about one rectangle contains an object of a given type. One ”point” set contains all the image features contained in the rectangle to be measured, the other ”point” set is a ”super template”. The template is trained by inserting all features from training images.

When SIFT is used, PCA is used to do dimension reduction. And the position information of each feature can be used by adding them as two extra dimensions of the feature.

Chapter 6

Conclusion and outlook

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