

# Motion Tracking

## CS6240 Multimedia Analysis

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# Introduction

Video contains motion information which can be used for

- detecting the presence of moving objects
- tracking and analyzing the motion of the objects
- tracking and analyzing the motion of camera

Basic tracking methods:

- Gradient-based Image Flow:
  - Track points based on intensity gradient.
  - Example: Lucas-Kanade method [LK81, TK91].
- Feature-based Image Flow:
  - Track points based on template matching of features at points.
- Mean Shift Tracking:
  - Track image patches based on feature distributions, e.g., color histograms [CRM00].

## Strengths and Weaknesses

- Image flow approach:
  - Very general and easy to use.
  - If track correctly, can obtain precise trajectory with sub-pixel accuracy.
  - Easily confused by points with similar features.
  - Cannot handle occlusion.
  - Cannot differentiate between planner motion and motion in depth.
  - Demo: lk-elephant.mpg.
- Mean shift tracking:
  - Very general and easy to use.
  - Can track objects that change size & orientation.
  - Can handle occlusion, size change.
  - Track trajectory not as precise.
  - Can't track object boundaries accurately.
  - Demo: ms-football1.avi, ms-football2.avi.

Basic methods can be easily confused in complex situations:



frame 1



frame 2

- In frame 1, which hand is going which way?
- Which hand in frame 1 corresponds to which hand in frame 2?

## Notes:

- The chances of making wrong association is reduced if we can correctly **predict** where the objects will be in frame 2.
- To predict ahead of time, need to **estimate** the velocities and the positions of the objects in frame 1.

To overcome these problems, need more sophisticated tracking algorithms:

- **Kalman filtering**: for linear dynamic systems, unimodal probability distributions
- **Extended Kalman filtering**: for nonlinear dynamic systems, unimodal probability distributions
- **Condensation algorithm**: for multi-modal probability distributions

## g-h Filter

Consider 1-D case and suppose object travels at **constant speed**.

Let  $x_n$  and  $\dot{x}_n$  denote position and speed of object at time step  $n$ . Then, at time step  $n + 1$ , we have

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + \dot{x}_n T \quad (1)$$

$$\dot{x}_{n+1} = \dot{x}_n \quad (2)$$

where  $T$  is the time interval between time steps.

These equations are called the **system dynamic model**.

Suppose at time step  $n$ , measured position  $y_n \neq$  estimated position  $x_n$ . Then, update speed  $\dot{x}_n$  of object as follows:

$$\dot{x}_n \leftarrow \dot{x}_n + h_n \frac{y_n - x_n}{T} \quad (3)$$

where  $h_n$  is a small parameter.

## Notes:

- If  $x_n < y_n$ , then estimated speed  $<$  actual speed.  
Algorithm 3 increases the estimated speed.
- If  $x_n > y_n$ , then estimated speed  $>$  actual speed.  
Algorithm 3 decreases the estimated speed.
- After updating for several times, the estimated speed will become closer and closer to the actual speed.

Another way of writing Algorithm 3 is as the following equation:

$$\dot{x}_{n,n}^* = \dot{x}_{n,n-1}^* + h_n \frac{y_n - x_{n,n-1}^*}{T}. \quad (4)$$

- $\dot{x}_{n,n-1}^*$  = **predicted estimate**: the estimation of  $\dot{x}$  at time step  $n$  based on past measurements made up to time step  $n - 1$ .
- $\dot{x}_{n,n}^*$  = **filtered estimate**: the estimation of  $\dot{x}$  at time step  $n$  based on past measurements made up to time step  $n$ .

Some books use this notation:

$$\dot{x}_{n|n}^* = \dot{x}_{n|n-1}^* + h_n \frac{y_n - x_{n|n-1}^*}{T}. \quad (5)$$



The estimated position can be updated in a similar way:

$$x_{n,n}^* = x_{n,n-1}^* + g_n(y_n - x_{n,n-1}^*) \quad (6)$$

where  $g_n$  is a small parameter.

Taken together, the two estimation equations form the *g-h track update* or *filtering equations* [Bro98]:

$$\dot{x}_{n,n}^* = \dot{x}_{n,n-1}^* + \frac{h_n}{T}(y_n - x_{n,n-1}^*) \quad (7)$$

$$x_{n,n}^* = x_{n,n-1}^* + g_n(y_n - x_{n,n-1}^*). \quad (8)$$

Now, we can use the system dynamic equations to predict the object's position and speed at time step  $n + 1$ .

First, we rewrite the equations using the new notation to obtain the *g-h* state transition or prediction equations:

$$\dot{x}_{n+1,n}^* = \dot{x}_{n,n}^* \quad (9)$$

$$x_{n+1,n}^* = x_{n,n}^* + \dot{x}_{n,n}^* T \quad (10)$$

$$= x_{n,n}^* + \dot{x}_{n+1,n}^* T. \quad (11)$$

Substituting these equations into the filtering equations yield the *g-h* tracking-filter equations:

$$\dot{x}_{n+1,n}^* = \dot{x}_{n,n-1}^* + \frac{h_n}{T}(y_n - x_{n,n-1}^*) \quad (12)$$

$$x_{n+1,n}^* = x_{n,n-1}^* + T \dot{x}_{n+1,n}^* + g_n(y_n - x_{n,n-1}^*). \quad (13)$$

These equations also describe many other filters, e.g.,

- Wiener filter
- Kalman filter
- Bayes filter
- Least-squares filter
- etc...

They differ in their choices of  $g_n$  and  $h_n$ .

## g-h-k Filter

Consider the case in which the object travels with **constant acceleration**.

The equation of motion becomes:

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + \dot{x}_n T + \ddot{x}_n \frac{T^2}{2} \quad (14)$$

$$\dot{x}_{n+1} = \dot{x}_n + \ddot{x}_n T \quad (15)$$

$$\ddot{x}_{n+1} = \ddot{x}_n . \quad (16)$$

Following the same procedure used to develop the *g-h* filtering and prediction equations, we can develop the *g-h-k* filtering equations

$$\ddot{x}_{n,n}^* = \ddot{x}_{n,n-1}^* + \frac{2k_n}{T^2}(y_n - x_{n,n-1}^*) \quad (17)$$

$$\dot{x}_{n,n}^* = \dot{x}_{n,n-1}^* + \frac{h_n}{T}(y_n - x_{n,n-1}^*) \quad (18)$$

$$x_{n,n}^* = x_{n,n-1}^* + g_n(y_n - x_{n,n-1}^*) \quad (19)$$

and *g-h-k* state transition equations

$$\ddot{x}_{n+1,n}^* = \ddot{x}_{n,n}^* \quad (20)$$

$$\dot{x}_{n+1,n}^* = \dot{x}_{n,n}^* + \ddot{x}_{n,n}^* T \quad (21)$$

$$x_{n+1,n}^* = x_{n,n}^* + \dot{x}_{n,n}^* T + \ddot{x}_{n,n}^* \frac{T^2}{2}. \quad (22)$$

(Exercise)

# 1-D 2-State Kalman Filter

The system dynamic equations that we have considered previously

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + \dot{x}_n T \quad (23)$$

$$\dot{x}_{n+1} = \dot{x}_n \quad (24)$$

are **deterministic** description of object motion.

In the real world, the object will not have a constant speed for all time. There is uncertainty in the object's speed.

To model this, we add a random **noise**  $u_n$  to the object's speed. This gives rise to the following **stochastic model** [Bro98]:

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + \dot{x}_n T \quad (25)$$

$$\dot{x}_{n+1} = \dot{x}_n + u_n . \quad (26)$$

The equation that links the actual data  $x_n$  and the observed (or measured) data  $y_n$  is called the **observation equation**:

$$y_n = x_n + \nu_n \quad (27)$$

while  $\nu_n$  is the **observation or measurement noise**.

The error  $e_{n+1,n}$  of estimating  $x_{n+1}$  is

$$e_{n+1,n} = x_{n+1} - x_{n+1,n}^* \quad (28)$$

Kalman looked for an optimum estimate that minimizes the mean squared error. After much effort, Kalman found that the optimum filter is given by the equations:

$$\dot{x}_{n+1,n}^* = \dot{x}_{n,n-1}^* + \frac{h_n}{T}(y_n - x_{n,n-1}^*) \quad (29)$$

$$x_{n+1,n}^* = x_{n,n-1}^* + T \dot{x}_{n+1,n}^* + g_n(y_n - x_{n,n-1}^*) \quad (30)$$

which are the same as for the  $g$ - $h$  filter.

For the Kalman filter,  $g_n$  and  $h_n$  are

- dependent on  $n$
- functions of the variance of the object position and speed
- functions of the accuracy of prior knowledge about the object's position and speed

In the steady state,  $g_n$  and  $h_n$  are constants  $g$  and  $h$  given by

$$h = \frac{g^2}{2 - g} . \quad (31)$$



# Kalman Filter in Matrix Notation

The system dynamic equation in matrix form is [Bro98]:

$$\mathbf{X}_{n+1} = \Phi \mathbf{X}_n + \mathbf{U}_n . \quad (32)$$

- $\mathbf{X}_n$  = state vector
- $\Phi$  = state transition matrix
- $\mathbf{U}_n$  = system noise vector

The observation equation in matrix form is

$$\mathbf{Y}_n = \mathbf{M} \mathbf{X}_n + \mathbf{V}_n . \quad (33)$$

- $\mathbf{Y}_n$  = measurement vector
- $\mathbf{M}$  = observation matrix
- $\mathbf{V}_n$  = observation noise vector

The state transition or prediction equation becomes

$$\mathbf{X}_{n+1,n}^* = \Phi \mathbf{X}_{n,n}^* \quad (34)$$

The track update or filtering equation becomes

$$\mathbf{X}_{n,n}^* = \mathbf{X}_{n,n-1}^* + \mathbf{K}_n (\mathbf{Y}_n - \mathbf{M} \mathbf{X}_{n,n-1}^*). \quad (35)$$

The matrix  $\mathbf{K}_n$  is called the **Kalman gain**.

The state transition equation and track update equation are used in the tracking process.

Example: For the stochastic model, the system dynamic equations are:

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + \dot{x}_n T \quad (36)$$

$$\dot{x}_{n+1} = \dot{x}_n + u_n \quad (37)$$

and the observation equation is:

$$y_n = x_n + \nu_n. \quad (38)$$

These equations give rise to the following matrices:

$$\mathbf{X}_n = \begin{bmatrix} x_n \\ \dot{x}_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{\Phi} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & T \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{U}_n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ u_n \end{bmatrix}. \quad (39)$$

$$\mathbf{Y}_n = \begin{bmatrix} y_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{V}_n = \begin{bmatrix} \nu_n \end{bmatrix}. \quad (40)$$

To apply Kalman filtering, we have

$$\mathbf{X}_{n,n}^* = \begin{bmatrix} x_{n,n}^* \\ \dot{x}_{n,n}^* \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{X}_{n+1,n}^* = \begin{bmatrix} x_{n+1,n}^* \\ \dot{x}_{n+1,n}^* \end{bmatrix}. \quad (41)$$

and

$$\mathbf{K}_n = \begin{bmatrix} g_n \\ \frac{h_n}{T} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (42)$$

The previous form of Kalman gain does not tell us how to compute  $g_n$  and  $h_n$ .

The following general form does (derivation omitted):

$$\mathbf{K}_n = \mathbf{S}_{n,n-1}^* \mathbf{M}^T [\mathbf{R}_n + \mathbf{M} \mathbf{S}_{n,n-1}^* \mathbf{M}^T]^{-1} \quad (43)$$

where

$$\mathbf{S}_{n,n-1}^* = \text{COV}(\mathbf{X}_{n,n-1}^*) = E\{\mathbf{X}_{n,n-1}^* \mathbf{X}_{n,n-1}^{*T}\} \quad (44)$$

$$= \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{S}_{n-1,n-1}^* \mathbf{\Phi}^T + \mathbf{Q}_n \quad (45)$$

$$\mathbf{S}_{n-1,n-1}^* = \text{COV}(\mathbf{X}_{n-1,n-1}^*) \quad (46)$$

$$= [\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{K}_{n-1} \mathbf{M}] \mathbf{S}_{n-1,n-2}^* \quad (47)$$

$$\mathbf{Q}_n = \text{COV}(\mathbf{U}_n) \quad (48)$$

$$\mathbf{R}_n = \text{COV}(\mathbf{V}_n) \quad (49)$$

To use Kalman filter:

- ➊ Write down system dynamic equation and observation equation.
- ➋ Derive track update equation and state transition equation.
- ➌ Given  $\Phi$ ,  $M$ ,  $R_n$ ,  $Q_n$ ,  $n = 0, 1, \dots$ ,  $X_{0,-1}^*$ , and  $S_{0,-1}^*$ .
- ➍ Repeat for  $n = 0, 1, \dots$

- ➊ Compute Kalman gain:

$$K_n = S_{n,n-1}^* M^T [R_n + M S_{n,n-1}^* M^T]^{-1}$$

- ➋ Measure  $Y_n$  and update estimate using update equation:

$$X_{n,n}^* = X_{n,n-1}^* + K_n (Y_n - M X_{n,n-1}^*)$$

- ➌ Compute covariance of smoothed estimate:

$$S_{n,n}^* = [I - K_n M] S_{n,n-1}^*$$

- ➍ Predict using state transition equation:

$$X_{n+1,n}^* = \Phi X_{n,n}^*$$

- ➎ Compute predictor covariance:

$$S_{n+1,n}^* = \Phi S_{n,n}^* \Phi^T + Q_{n+1}$$

Notes:

- $\mathbf{U}_n$  and  $\mathbf{V}_n$  are assumed to be uncorrelated zero-mean Gaussian noise, i.e.,

$$\text{COV}(\mathbf{U}_n) = E\{\mathbf{U}_n \mathbf{U}_k^T\} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{Q}_n & \text{if } n = k \\ \mathbf{0} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{COV}(\mathbf{V}_n) = E\{\mathbf{V}_n \mathbf{V}_k^T\} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{R}_n & \text{if } n = k \\ \mathbf{0} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$E\{\mathbf{U}_n \mathbf{V}_k^T\} = 0 \quad \text{for all } n, k$$

- In [Bro98],  $\mathbf{S}_{0,-1}^*$  is given as

$$\mathbf{S}_{0,-1}^* = \text{COV}(\mathbf{X}_{0,-1}^*)$$

and Step 4(e) is given as

$$\mathbf{S}_{n+1,n}^* = \Phi \mathbf{S}_{n,n}^* \Phi^T + \mathbf{Q}_{n+1}.$$

- In other books, e.g., [BH97],  $\mathbf{S}_{0,-1}^*$  is given as

$$\mathbf{S}_{0,-1}^* = \text{COV}(\mathbf{X}_0 - \mathbf{X}_{0,-1}^*)$$

and Step 4(e) is given as

$$\mathbf{S}_{n+1,n}^* = \Phi \mathbf{S}_{n,n}^* \Phi^T + \mathbf{Q}_n.$$

- In general,  $\Phi$  and  $\mathbf{M}$  may change over time, i.e.,  $\Phi_n$ ,  $\mathbf{M}_n$ .
- The matrix form can be easily applied to multi-dimensional, multi-variate cases. For example, for 3-D space, we have

$$\mathbf{X}_{n,n-1}^* = \begin{bmatrix} x_{n,n-1}^* & \dot{x}_{n,n-1}^* & \ddot{x}_{n,n-1}^* \\ y_{n,n-1}^* & \dot{y}_{n,n-1}^* & \ddot{y}_{n,n-1}^* \\ z_{n,n-1}^* & \dot{z}_{n,n-1}^* & \ddot{z}_{n,n-1}^* \end{bmatrix}^T \quad (50)$$



## Example

Use Kalman filter to track “random walk” [BH97].

The actual random walk is generated by the equation:

$$\dot{x} = u(t) \quad (51)$$

where  $u(t)$  is a Gaussian white noise with variance = 1.

Measurements are sampled at time  $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

$$y_n = x_n + \nu_n \quad (52)$$

where  $\nu_n$  is Gaussian white noise with variance = 1.

For the **correct** Kalman filter model, we choose the model

$$\mathbf{X}_{n+1} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} u_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{Y}_n = \begin{bmatrix} y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \nu_n \end{bmatrix}$$

That is,  $\Phi = [1]$  and  $\mathbf{M} = [1]$ .

Also choose  $\mathbf{Q}_n = [1]$ ,  $\mathbf{R}_n = [0.1]$ ,  $\mathbf{X}_{0,-1}^* = [0]$ ,  $\mathbf{S}_{0,-1}^* = [1]$ .

For comparison, consider an **incorrect** Kalman filter model:

$$\mathbf{X}_{n+1} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

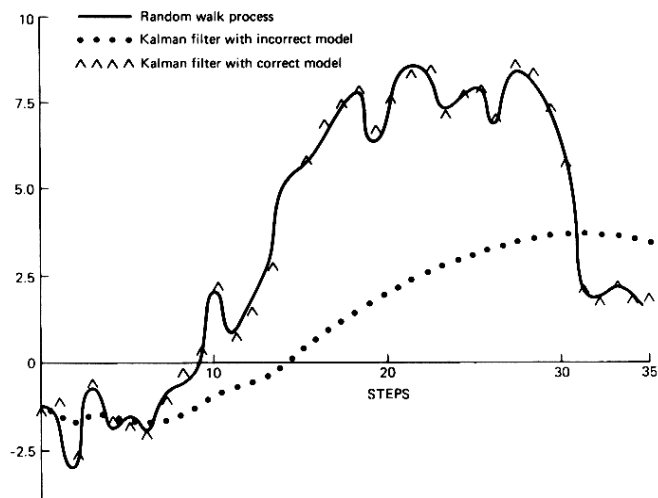
$$\mathbf{Y}_n = \begin{bmatrix} y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \nu_n \end{bmatrix}$$

That is,  $\Phi = [1]$ ,  $\mathbf{M} = [1]$ , and  $\mathbf{Q}_n = [0]$ .

The other parameter values are the same as for the correct model:

$\mathbf{R}_n = [0.1]$ ,  $\mathbf{X}_{0,-1}^* = [0]$ ,  $\mathbf{S}_{0,-1}^* = [1]$ .

## Results:



## Summary:

- Error in the model results in the tracking error.

# Divergence Problems

- We want Kalman filter to converge to the correct track.
- But under certain conditions, divergence problems can arise.

Possible causes of divergence (see [BH97], Sect. 6.6 for details):

- Roundoff Errors:

May become larger and larger as the number of steps increases.

Prevention:

- Use high-precision arithmetic.
- Avoid deterministic model, i.e., include random noise variable.
- Keep the  $\mathbf{S}^*$  matrix symmetric because covariance matrix is symmetric.
- Use the **Joseph form** to update  $\mathbf{S}^*$ :

$$\mathbf{S}_{n,n}^* = [\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{K}_n \mathbf{M}] \mathbf{S}_{n,n-1}^* [\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{K}_n \mathbf{M}]^T + \mathbf{K}_n \mathbf{R}_n \mathbf{K}_n^T \quad (53)$$

- Modeling Errors:

- Errors in the system dynamic equation. We've seen the result of modeling errors in the “random walk” example.
- In general,  $\Phi_n$  and  $\mathbf{M}_n$  may change over time, i.e., vary for different  $n$ .

- Observability Problem:

Some state variables may be hidden and not observable. If unobserved processes are unstable, then the estimation error will be unstable.

# Data Association

During tracking, how to look for the next possible locations of the tracked objects?

Possible approaches [Bro98]:

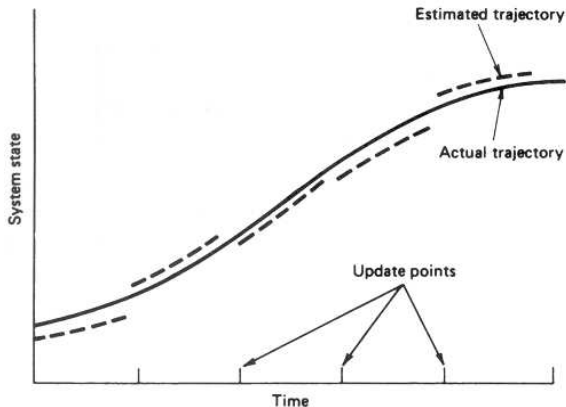
- 1 Nearest-Neighbor:  
Look for the nearest-neighboring object within a **prediction window**.
- 2 Branching or Track Splitting [Bla86]:  
Defer the decision for one or more time steps.
- 3 Probability Hypothesis Testing [Bla86]:  
Probabilistic data association, joint probabilistic data association.
- 4 Match features of the tracked objects.
- 5 Apply known constraints or knowledge about the tracked objects.

# Extended Kalman Filter

Used when dynamics/measurement relationships are nonlinear [BH97].

Basic Idea:

- Approximate actual trajectory by piece-wise linear trajectories.
- Apply Kalman filter on estimated trajectories.



Assume the dynamic and measurement equations can be written as

$$\dot{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{X}, t) + \mathbf{U}(t) \quad (54)$$

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{X}, t) + \mathbf{V}(t) \quad (55)$$

where  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{h}$  are known functions.

For Extended Kalman filter, the filter loop at Step 4 is similar except:

- In Step 4(b), the filtering equation is

$$\mathbf{X}_{n,n}^* = \mathbf{X}_{n,n-1}^* + \mathbf{K}_n(\mathbf{Y}_n - \mathbf{Y}_{n,n-1}^*). \quad (56)$$

- In Step 4(d), compute  $\mathbf{X}_{n+1,n}^*$  as the solution of Eqn. 54 at  $t = t_{n+1}$ , subject to the initial condition  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}_{n,n}^*$  at  $t_n$ .

Once  $\mathbf{X}_{n+1,n}^*$  is computed, can compute  $\mathbf{Y}_{n+1,n}^*$  as

$$\mathbf{Y}_{n+1,n}^* = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{X}_{n+1,n}^*, t). \quad (57)$$

Then, the filter loop is repeated.



# CONDENSATION

Conditional Density Propagation over time [IB96, IB98].

Also called **particle filtering**.

Main differences with Kalman filter:

- ① Kalman filter:
  - Assumes uni-modal (Gaussian) distribution.
  - Predicts single new state for each object tracked.
  - Updates state based on error between predicted state and observed data.
- ② CONDENSATION algorithm:
  - Can work for multi-modal distribution.
  - Predicts multiple possible states for each object tracked.
  - Each possible state has a different probability.
  - Estimates probabilities of predicted states based on observed data.

# Probability Density Functions

Two basic representations of probability density functions  $P(x)$ :

## 1 Explicit

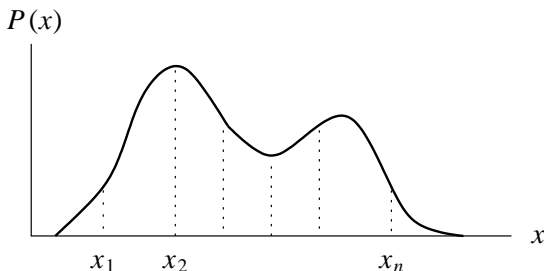
- Represent  $P(x)$  by an explicit formula, e.g., Gaussian

$$P(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \quad (58)$$

- Given any  $x$ , can compute  $P(x)$  using the formula.

## 2 Implicit

- Represent  $P(x)$  by a set of samples  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  and their estimated probabilities  $P(x_i)$ .
- Given any  $x' \neq x_i$ , cannot compute  $P(x')$  because there is no explicit formula.

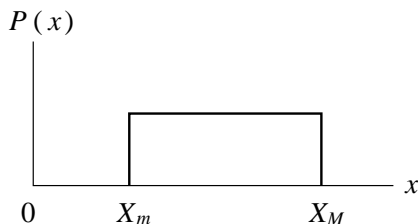


CONDENSATION algorithm predicts multiple possible next states.

- Achieved using **sampling** or **drawing samples** from the probability density functions.
- High probability samples should be drawn more frequently.
- Low probability samples should be drawn less frequently.

# Sampling from Uniform Distribution

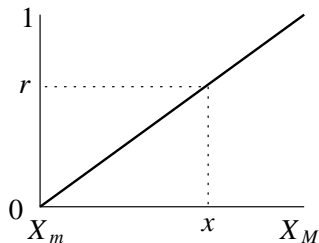
Uniform Distribution:



- Equal probability between  $X_m$  and  $X_M$ :

$$P(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{X_M - X_m} & \text{if } X_m \leq x \leq X_M \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (59)$$

## Sampling Algorithm:



- 1 Generate a random number  $r$  from  $[0, 1]$  (uniform distribution).
- 2 Map  $r$  to  $x$ :

$$x = X_m + r(X_M - X_m) \quad (60)$$

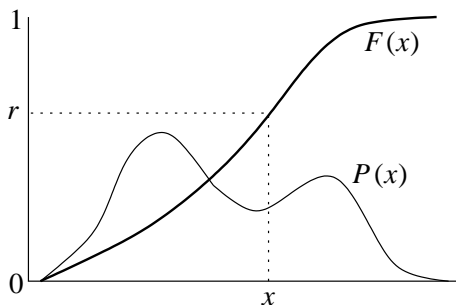
The samples  $x$  drawn will have uniform distribution.

# Sampling from Non-uniform Distribution

Let  $P(x)$  denote the probability density function.

$F(x)$  is the indefinite integral of  $P(x)$ :

$$F(x) = \int_0^x P(x)dx \quad (61)$$



## Sampling Algorithm:

- 1 Generate a random number  $r$  from  $[0, 1]$  (uniform distribution).
- 2 Map  $r$  to  $x$ :
  - Find the  $x$  such that  $F(x) = r$ , i.e.,  $x = F^{-1}(r)$ .
  - That is, find the  $x$  such that the area under  $P(x)$  to the left of  $x$  equals  $r$ .

The samples  $x$  drawn will fit the probability distribution.

# Sampling from Implicit Distribution

The method is useful when

- it is difficult to compute  $F^{-1}(r)$ , or
- the probability density is implicit.

The basic idea is similar to the previous method:

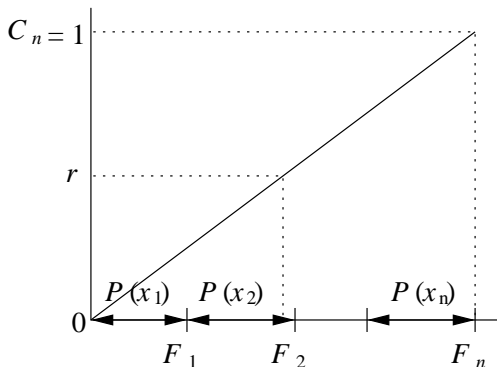
- Given  $x_i$  and  $P(x_i)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .
- Compute cumulative probability  $F(x_i)$ :

$$F(x_i) = \sum_{j=1}^i P(x_j) \quad (62)$$

- Compute normalized weight  $C(x_i)$ :

$$C(x_i) = F(x_i)/F(x_n) \quad (63)$$





Sampling Algorithm:

- 1 Generate a random number  $r$  from  $[0, 1]$  (uniform distribution).
- 2 Map  $r$  to  $x_i$ :
  - Find the smallest  $i$  such that  $C_i \geq r$ .
  - Return  $x_i$ .

Samples  $x = x_i$  drawn will follow probability density.

- The larger the  $n$ , the better the approximation.

# Factored Sampling

- $x$ : object model (e.g., a curve)
- $z$ : observed or measured data in image
- $P(x)$ : a priori (or prior) probability density of  $x$  occurring.
- $P(z|x)$ : likelihood that object  $x$  gives rise to data  $z$ .
- $P(x|z)$ : a posteriori (or posterior) probability density that the object is actually  $x$  given that  $z$  is observed in the image.  
So, want to estimate  $P(x|z)$ .

From Bayes' rule:

$$P(x|z) = k P(z|x) P(x) \quad (64)$$

where  $k = P(z)$  is a normalizing term that does not depend on  $x$ .

Notes:

- In general,  $P(z|x)$  is multi-modal.
- Cannot compute  $P(x|z)$  using closed form equation.  
Has to use iterative sampling technique.
- Basic method: factored sampling [GCK91]. Useful when
  - $P(z|x)$  can be evaluated point-wise but sampling it is not feasible, and
  - $P(x)$  can be sampled but not evaluated.

Factored Sampling Algorithm [GCK91]:

- 1 Generate a set of samples  $\{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n\}$  from  $P(x)$ .
- 2 Choose an index  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$  with probability  $\pi_i$ :

$$\pi_i = \frac{P(z|x = s_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^n P(z|x = s_j)} . \quad (65)$$

- 3 Return  $x_i$ .

The samples  $x = x_i$  drawn will have a distribution that approximates  $P(x|z)$ .

- The larger the  $n$ , the better the approximation.
- So, no need to explicitly compute  $P(x|z)$ .

# CONDENSATION Algorithm

## Object Dynamics

- state of object model at time  $t$ :  $\mathbf{x}(t)$
- history of object model:  $\mathbf{X}(t) = (\mathbf{x}(1), \mathbf{x}(2), \dots, \mathbf{x}(t))$
- set of image features at time  $t$ :  $\mathbf{z}(t)$
- history of features:  $\mathbf{Z}(t) = (\mathbf{z}(1), \mathbf{z}(2), \dots, \mathbf{z}(t))$

General assumption: object dynamic is a Markov process:

$$P(\mathbf{x}(t+1) | \mathbf{X}(t)) = P(\mathbf{x}(t+1) | \mathbf{x}(t)) \quad (66)$$

i.e., new state depends only on immediately preceding state.

- $P(\mathbf{x}(t+1) | \mathbf{X}(t))$  governs probability of state change.

## Measurements

Measurements  $\mathbf{z}(t)$  are assumed to be mutually independent, and also independent of object dynamics. So,

$$P(\mathbf{Z}(t) | \mathbf{X}(t)) = \prod_{i=1}^t P(\mathbf{z}(i) | \mathbf{x}(i)). \quad (67)$$

## CONDENSATION Algorithm

Iterate:

At time  $t$ , construct  $n$  samples  $\{\mathbf{s}_i(t), \pi_i(t), c_i(t), i = 1, \dots, n\}$  as follows:

The  $i$ th sample is constructed as follows:

- 1 **Select** a sample  $\mathbf{s}'_j(t)$  as follows:
  - generate a random number  $r \in [0, 1]$ , uniformly distributed
  - find the smallest  $j$  such that  $c_j(t-1) \geq r$
- 2 **Predict** by sampling from

$$P(\mathbf{x}(t) \mid \mathbf{x}(t-1) = \mathbf{s}'_j(t-1))$$

to choose  $\mathbf{s}_i(t)$ .

- ③ Measure  $\mathbf{z}(t)$  from image and weight new sample:

$$\pi_i(t) = P(\mathbf{z}(t) \mid \mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{s}_i(t))$$

- normalize  $\pi_i(t)$  so that  $\sum_i \pi_i(t) = 1$
- compute cumulative probability  $c_i(t)$ :

$$c_0(t) = 0$$

$$c_i(t) = c_{i-1}(t) + \pi_i(t)$$



# Example

Track curves in input video [IB96].

Let

- $\mathbf{x}$  denote the parameters of a linear transformation of a B-spline curve, either affine deformation or some non-rigid motion,
- $\mathbf{p}_s$  denote points on the curve.

Notes:

- Instead of modeling the curve, model the transformation of curve.
- Curve can change shape drastically over time.
- But, changes of transformation parameters are smaller.

## Model Dynamics

$$\mathbf{x}(t+1) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{B}\boldsymbol{\omega}(t) \quad (68)$$

- $\mathbf{A}$ : state transition matrix
- $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ : random noise
- $\mathbf{B}$ : scaling matrix

Then,  $P(\mathbf{x}(t+1) | \mathbf{x}(t))$  is given by

$$P(\mathbf{x}(t+1) | \mathbf{x}(t)) = \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{B}^{-1}[\mathbf{x}(t+1) - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(t)]\|^2 \right\}. \quad (69)$$

$P(\mathbf{x}(t+1) | \mathbf{x}(t))$  is a Gaussian.

## Measurement

- $P(\mathbf{z}(t) | \mathbf{x}(t))$  is assumed to remain unchanged over time.
- $\mathbf{z}_s$  is nearest edge to point  $\mathbf{p}_s$  on model curve, within a small neighborhood  $\delta$  of  $\mathbf{p}_s$ .
- To allow for missing edge and noise, measurement density is modeled as a robust statistics, a truncated Gaussian:

$$P(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) = \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_s \phi_s \right\} \quad (70)$$

where

$$\phi_s = \begin{cases} \|\mathbf{p}_s - \mathbf{z}_s\|^2 & \text{if } \|\mathbf{p}_s - \mathbf{z}_s\| < \delta \\ \rho & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (71)$$

$\rho$  is a constant penalty.

Now, can apply CONDENSATION algorithm to track the curve.

## Further Readings:

- 1 [BH97] Section 5.5: Kalman filter given in slightly different notations and slightly different estimate for  $\mathbf{S}_{n+1,n}^*$ .
- 2 [BH97] p. 346, 347: Extended Kalman filter.
- 3 [IB96, IB98]: Other application examples of CONDENSATION algorithm.

## Exercises:

- 1 Derive the state transition equation and track update equations for  $g$ - $h$ - $k$  filter.
- 2 Derive the transition matrix  $\Phi$  for the dynamic system given by Equations 14, 15, 16.

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