

IN VEHICLE TECHNOLOGY

LAND, SEA, AND AIR

EDITED BY

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WILEY

COMPUTER VISION IN VEHICLE TECHNOLOGY

LAND, SEA, AND AIR

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This edition first published 2017

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John Wiley & Sons Ltd, The Atrium, Southern Gate, Chichester, West Sussex, PO19 8SQ, United Kingdom

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Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Names: López, Antonio M., 1969- editor. | Imiya, Atsushi, editor. | Pajdla, Tomas, editor. | Álvarez, J. M. (Jose M.), editor.

Title: Computer vision in vehicle technology: land, sea and air / Editors Antonio M.

López, Atsushi Imiya, Tomas Pajdla, Jose M. Álvarez.

Description: Chichester, West Sussex, United Kingdom: John Wiley & Sons,

Inc., [2017] | Includes bibliographical references and index.

Identifiers: LCCN 2016022206 (print) | LCCN 2016035367 (ebook) | ISBN 9781118868072 (cloth) | ISBN 9781118868041 (pdf) | ISBN 9781118868058 (epub)

Subjects: LCSH: Computer vision. | Automotive telematics. | Autonomous vehicles–Equipment and supplies. | Drone aircraft–Equipment and supplies. | Nautical instruments.

Classification: LCC TL272.53 .L67 2017 (print) | LCC TL272.53 (ebook) | DDC 629.040285/637–dc23

LC record available at https://lccn.loc.gov/2016022206

A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library.

Cover image: jamesbenet/gettyimages; groveb/gettyimages; robertmandel/gettyimages

ISBN: 9781118868072

Set in 11/13pt, TimesLTStd by SPi Global, Chennai, India Printed and bound in Malaysia by Vivar Printing Sdn Bhd

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Preface

This book was born following the spirit of the *Computer Vision in Vehicular Technology* (*CVVT*) Workshop. At the moment of finishing this book, the 7th CVVT Workshop CVPR'2016 is being held in Las Vegas. Previous CVVT Workshops include the CVPR'2015 in Boston (http://adas.cvc.uab.es/CVVT2015/), ECCV'2014 in Zurich (http://adas.cvc.uab.es/CVVT2014/), ICCV'2013 in Sydney (http://adas.cvc.uab.es/CVVT2013/), ECCV'2012 in Firenze (http://adas.cvc.uab.es/CVVT2012/), ICCV'2011 in Barcelona (http://adas.cvc.uab.es/CVVT2011/), and ACCV'2010 in Queenstown (http://www.media.imit.chiba-u.jp/CVVT2010/). This implies throughout these years, many invited speakers, co-organizers, contributing authors, and sponsors have helped to keep CVVT alive and exciting. We are enormously grateful to all of them! Of course, we also want to give special thanks to the authors of this book, who kindly accepted the challenge of writing their respective chapters.

He would also like to thank the past and current members of the Advanced Driver Assistance Systems (ADAS) group of the Computer Vision Center at the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona. He also would like to thank his current public funding, in particular, Spanish MEC project TRA2014-57088-C2-1-R, Spanish DGT project SPIP2014-01352, and the Generalitat de Catalunya project 2014-SGR-1506. Finally, he would like to thank NVIDIA Corporation for the generous donations of different graphical processing hardware units, and especially for their kind support regarding the ADAS group activities.

Tomas Pajdla has been supported by EU H2020 Grant No. 688652 UP-Drive and Institutional Resources for Research of the Czech Technical University in Prague.

Atsushi Imiya was supported by IMIT Project *Pattern Recognition for Large Data Sets* from 2010 to 2015 at Chiba University, Japan.

Jose M. Álvarez was supported by the Australian Research Council through its Special Research Initiative in Bionic Vision Science and Technology grant to Bionic Vision Australia. The National Information Communications Technology Australia was founded by the Australian Government through the Department of Communications and the Australian Research Council through the ICT Center of Excellence Program.

The book is organized into seven self-contained chapters related to CVVT topics, and a final short chapter with the overall final remarks. Briefly, in Chapter 1, there

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is a quick overview of the main ideas that link computer vision with vehicles. Chapters 2–7 are more specialized and divided into two blocks. Chapters 2–4 focus on the use of computer vision for the self-navigation of the vehicles. In particular, Chapter 2 focuses on land (autonomous cars), Chapter 3 focuses on air (micro aerial vehicles), and Chapter 4 focuses on sea (underwater robotics). Analogously, Chapters 5–7 focus on the use of computer vision as a technology to solve specific applications beyond self-navigation. In particular, Chapter 5 focuses on land (ADAS), and Chapters 6 and 7 on air and sea, respectively. Finally, Chapter 8 concludes and points out new research trends.

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Abbreviations and Acronyms

ACC adaptive cruise control

ADAS advanced driver assistance system AUV autonomous underwater vehicle

BA bundle adjustment

BCM brightness constancy model

BoW bag of words

CAN controller area network

CLAHE contrast limited adaptive histogram equalization

COTS crown of thorns starfish
DCT discrete cosine transforms

DOF degree of freedom
DVL Doppler velocity log
EKF extended Kalman filter
ESC electronic stability control
FCA forward collision avoidance

FEM finite element method FFT fast Fourier transform

FIR far infrared

FLS forward-looking sonar GA global alignment

GDIM generalized dynamic image model GLCM gray level co-occurrence matrix

GPS global positioning system
GPU graphical processing unit
HDR high dynamic range
HOG histogram of gradients
HOV human operated vehicle

HSV hue saturation value IR infrared

KPCA kernel principal component analysis

LBL long baseline

LBP local binary patterns
LCA lane change assistance
LDA linear discriminant analysis
LDW lane departure warning

LHC local homogeneity coefficient LKS lane keeping system

LMedS least median of squares
MEX MATLAB executable
MLS moving least squares
MR maximum response
MST minimum spanning tree

NCC normalized chromaticity coordinates

NDT normal distribution transform

NIR near infrared

OVV online visual vocabularies
PCA principal component analysis

PDWMD probability density weighted mean distance

PNN probabilistic neural network
RANSAC random sample consensus
radial basis function
ROD region of difference
ROI region of interest

ROV remotely operated vehicle
SDF signed distance function
SEF seam-eliminating function
SIFT scale invariant feature transform

SLAM simultaneous localization and mapping

SNR signal-to-noise ratio

SSD sum of squared differences SURF speeded up robust features SVM support vector machine

TJA traffic jam assist

TSR traffic sign recognition

TV total variation

UDF unsigned distance function

USBL ultra short base line

UUV unmanned underwater vehicle

UV underwater vehicle

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Computer Vision in Vehicles

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This chapter is a brief introduction to academic aspects of computer vision in vehicles. It briefly summarizes basic notation and definitions used in computer vision. The chapter discusses a few visual tasks as of relevance for vehicle control and environment understanding.

1.1 Adaptive Computer Vision for Vehicles

Computer vision designs solutions for understanding the real world by using cameras. See Rosenfeld (1969), Horn (1986), Hartley and Zisserman (2003), or Klette (2014) for examples of monographs or textbooks on computer vision.

Computer vision operates today in *vehicles* including cars, trucks, airplanes, unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) such as multi-copters (see Figure 1.1 for a quadcopter), satellites, or even autonomous driving rovers on the Moon or Mars.

In our context, the *ego-vehicle* is that vehicle where the computer vision system operates in; *ego-motion* describes the ego-vehicle's motion in the real world.

1.1.1 Applications

Computer vision solutions are today in use in manned vehicles for improved safety or comfort, in autonomous vehicles (e.g., robots) for supporting motion or action control, and also for misusing UAVs for killing people remotely. The UAV technology has also good potentials for helping to save lives, to create three-dimensional (3D) models of

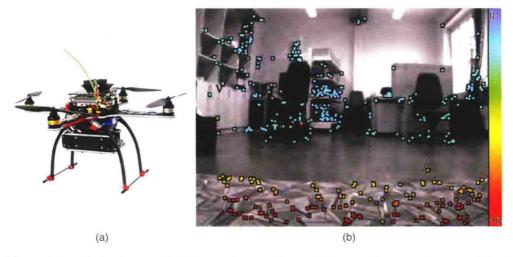


Figure 1.1 (a) Quadcopter. (b) Corners detected from a flying quadcopter using a modified FAST feature detector. Courtesy of Konstantin Schauwecker

the environment, and so forth. Underwater robots and unmanned sea-surface vehicles are further important applications of vision-augmented vehicles.

1.1.2 Traffic Safety and Comfort

Traffic safety is a dominant application area for computer vision in vehicles. Currently, about 1.24 million people die annually worldwide due to traffic accidents (WHO 2013), this is, on average, 2.4 people die *per minute* in traffic accidents. How does this compare to the numbers Western politicians are using for obtaining support for their "war on terrorism?" Computer vision can play a major role in solving the true real-world problems (see Figure 1.2). Traffic-accident fatalities can be reduced by controlling traffic flow (e.g., by triggering automated warning signals at pedestrian crossings or intersections with bicycle lanes) using stationary cameras, or by having cameras installed in vehicles (e.g., for detecting safe distances and adjusting speed accordingly, or by detecting obstacles and constraining trajectories).

Computer vision is also introduced into modern cars for improving driving comfort. Surveillance of blind spots, automated distance control, or compensation of unevenness of the road are just three examples for a wide spectrum of opportunities provided by computer vision for enhancing driving comfort.

1.1.3 Strengths of (Computer) Vision

Computer vision is an important component of intelligent systems for vehicle control (e.g., in modern cars, or in robots). The Mars rovers "Curiosity" and "Opportunity" operate based on computer vision; "Opportunity" has already operated on Mars for

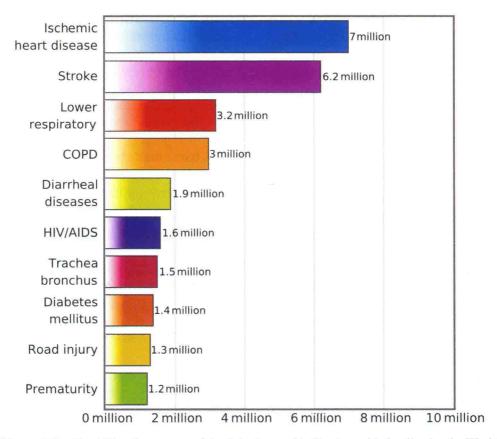


Figure 1.2 The 10 leading causes of death in the world. Chart provided online by the World Health Organization (WHO). Road injury ranked number 9 in 2011

more than ten years. The visual system of human beings provides a proof of existence that vision alone can deliver nearly all of the information required for steering a vehicle. Computer vision aims at creating comparable automated solutions for vehicles, enabling them to navigate safely in the real world. Additionally, computer vision can also work constantly "at the same level of attention," applying the same rules or programs; a human is not able to do so due to becoming tired or distracted.

A human applies accumulated knowledge and experience (e.g., supporting intuition), and it is a challenging task to embed a computer vision solution into a system able to have, for example, intuition. Computer vision offers many more opportunities for future developments in a vehicle context.

1.1.4 Generic and Specific Tasks

There are *generic visual tasks* such as calculating distance or motion, measuring brightness, or detecting corners in an image (see Figure 1.1b). In contrast, there are

specific visual tasks such as detecting a pedestrian, understanding ego-motion, or calculating the *free space* a vehicle may move in safely in the next few seconds. The borderline between generic and specific tasks is not well defined.

Solutions for generic tasks typically aim at creating one self-contained *module* for potential integration into a complex computer vision system. But there is no general-purpose corner detector and also no general-purpose stereo matcher. *Adaptation* to given circumstances appears to be the general way for an optimized use of given modules for generic tasks.

Solutions for specific tasks are typically structured into multiple modules that interact in a complex system.

Example 1.1.1 Specific Tasks in the Context of Visual Lane Analysis Shin et al. (2014) review visual lane analysis for driver-assistance systems or autonomous driving. In this context, the authors discuss specific tasks such as "the combination of visual lane analysis with driver monitoring..., with ego-motion analysis..., with location analysis..., with vehicle detection..., or with navigation...." They illustrate the latter example by an application shown in Figure 1.3: lane detection and road sign reading, the analysis of GPS data and electronic maps (e-maps), and two-dimensional (2D) visualization are combined into a real-view navigation system (Choi et al. 2010).



Figure 1.3 Two screenshots for real-view navigation. Courtesy of the authors of Choi et al. (2010)

1.1.5 Multi-module Solutions

Designing a multi-module solution for a given task does not need to be more difficult than designing a single-module solution. In fact, finding solutions for some single modules (e.g., for motion analysis) can be very challenging. Designing a multi-module solution requires: