

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE OF REPUBLIC OF KAZAKHSTAN
SULEYMAN DEMIREL UNIVERSITY
ENGINEERING FACULTY



Department of Computer Engineering

0004.885.5

manuscript copyright

Dosmukhamed Zhanibekov

Traffic Sign Detection through Image Processing and Pattern Recognition

6M070400– «Computing systems and software» speciality

Kaskelen, 2013

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE OF REPUBLIC OF KAZAKHSTAN
SULEYMAN DEMIREL UNIVERSITY
ENGINEERING FACULTY



Department of Computer Engineering

«Accepted for defense»
responsible director of department
d.t.s professor Amirgaliyev E. N.

«10» 06 2013 year



Director of department
for postgraduate education
Ph.D. S. Aydogan S.

2013 year

Master dissertation

Traffic Sign Detection through Image Processing and Pattern Recognition

6M070400– «Computing systems and software» speciality

Master student

(signature)

Zhanibekov Dosmukhamed

(name-surname)

Supervisor

(signature)

d.t.s professor, Amirgaliyev E. N.

(position, name-surname)

ABSTRACT

Urbanisation, growth of cities and their population bring serious changes into our lives. That includes increasing numbers of cars on the road and traffic complexity. Since the very early stages of car and traffic development the very first concern of the designers and engineers was safety on the road. Most commonly it depends on the drivers and pedestrians directly. Attentiveness or inattentiveness of the traffic participants is one of the reasons why accidents can happen.

Traffic signs provide important information for drivers about road condition and hazards. Their discriminating shape and colors make them easily recognizable by humans. Some factors can help development of a visionbased TSR system. Beside the application of TSR in autonomous vehicles, it can also serve as an assistant driver (e.g. when combined with speedometer output) to notify the driver about approaching a traffic sign (e.g. even before driver sees it) or his risky behavior (like driving above the speed limit).

Safe driving was one of the three identified main work areas and meant to employ autonomous vehicle control for safer driving with less mental load on the driver.

My proposed method is composed of three main stages:

1. detection, which is performed using a novel application of maximally stable extremal regions
2. recognition, which is performed with LBP features
3. mobility, which is performed using mobile phone

РЕЗЮМЕ

Урбанизация, рост городов и населения принести серьезные изменения в нашу жизнь. Это включает в себя все большее число автомобилей на дорогах и сложности движения на них. С самых ранних стадиях движения автомобиля и развития самой первой заботой дизайнеров и инженеров была безопасность на дороге. Чаще всего это зависит от водителей и пешеходов напрямую. Внимательность или невнимательности участников дорожного движения является одной из причин, почему несчастные случаи могут произойти.

Дорожные знаки дают важную информацию для водителей о состоянии дорог и опасностей. Их форма и дискриминационные цвета делают их легко узнаваемыми людьми. Такие же факторы могут помочь формированию концепции системы TSR. Кроме применения TSR в автономных транспортных средств, оно также может служить в качестве помощника, чтобы уведомить водителя о приближении дорожный знака (например, еще до того, водитель увидит его).

Мной предлагаемый способ состоит из трех основных этапа:

1. обнаружение дорожного знака
2. распознавание, которое осуществляется с LBP
3. мобильности, которая выполняется с помощью мобильного телефона

ТҮЙІН

Урбанизация, қаланың және оның халқының өсуі біздің өмірімізге өзгерістерді әкелді. Ол жолдағы автомобильдің көптігін және қозғалысының күрделілігін әкелді. Инженерлер мен дизайнерлергін ертеден келе жатқан уайымы, ол жолдағы қауіпсіздік. Көбіне бұл жүргізушіден мен жүргіншілерге тәуелді болады.

Жол белгілері, жолдың күйі туралы маңызды ақпаратты жүргізушілерге береді. Сол себептен мен, жүргізушілер мен жаяу жүргіншілерге арналған бағдарламаны жасауды ұйғардым. Бұл бағдарламаның үш негізгі бөліктен тұрады:

1. жол бегісін табу
2. қай жол бегісі екенін LBP арқылы тану
3. және осының бәрін мобильді қылу

CONTENT

DEFINITIONS, ACRONYMS, ABBREVIATIONS	7
INTRODUCTION.....	8
2. BACKGROUND	9
2.1. TODAY TRAFFIC SITUATION	9
2.2. RECORD STATUS OF ACCIDENTS.....	11
2.3. MOBILE MARKET GROTH.....	12
2.4. LEAD MY WAY	14
3. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	15
3.1. IMAGE PROCESSING.....	15
3.2. PATTERN RECOGNITION AND ITS CONCEPTS.....	18
3.3. COMMON MODEL FOR CLASSICATION	20
3.4. FEATURE EXTRACTION.....	25
3.5. HAAR-like features.....	27
3.6. LOCAL BINARY PATTERNS.....	29
3.1. COMPUTER VISION	34
3.2. TRAFFIC SIGN DETECTION APPLICATION	43
3.3. OPENCV.....	44
3.4. OPENCV ANDROID.....	46
3.5. OPENCV ANDROID CASCADE CLASSIFER	48
3.6. ANDROID SDK & NDK	57
3.7. OpenCV traincascade	63
3.7.1. Data Preperation	64
3.7.2. Negative Images.....	65
3.7.3. Create Samples	65
5.5.2. Cascade Training.....	67
5.6. Android Project.....	72
5.7. REAL – TIME TESTING	73
CONCLUSION.....	76
REFERENCES.....	77

DEFINITIONS, ACRONYMS, ABBREVIATIONS

TSR	Traffic sign recognition
LBP	Local binary patterns.
IDE	An integrated development environment or interactive development environment is a software application that provides comprehensive facilities to computer programmers for software development.
eclipse	In computer programming, Eclipse is a multi-language Integrated development environment comprising a base workspace and an extensible plug-in system for customizing the environment. It is written mostly in Java.
openCV	OpenCV is a library of programming functions mainly aimed at real-time computer vision.
android	Android is a Linux-based operating system designed primarily for touchscreen mobile devices such as smartphones and tablet computers.
SDK	A software development kit is typically a set of software development tools that allows for the creation of applications for a certain software package, software framework, hardware platform, computer system, video game console, operating system, or similar development platform.
ADB	The Android Debug Bridge is a toolkit included in the Android SDK package. It consists of both client and server-side programs that communicate with one another. The ADB is typically accessed through the command-line interface.

INTRODUCTION

TSR can be considered part of the bigger problem of autonomous vehicles. An autonomous vehicle system relies on vision-based recognition of surrounding area in order to make driving decisions. This vision-based recognition system functions as the feedback provider for control of steering wheel, accelerator, brake, ..., and needs to:

- Recognize road and lane to allow control system follow the course of own vehicle.
- Detect obstacles on the road till control system avoid them.
- Detect the passing vehicles (e.g. by side or back cameras) to notify the control system about probable hazards.
- Detect and interpret the traffic signs to provide feedback for safe driving.

2. BACKGROUD

Fast-paced developments in the car industry require car makers to introduce newer, better, faster and cheaper features for their products. Among those features and functionalities highest priority is deservedly given to safety of the car including both passive and active safety options. Most of the time, safety of a driver and his passengers directly depends on information the driver gets about the traffic. One of the essential roles of traffic management is given to traffic lights that allow us to stay in control of whatever happens on the road. To make drivers more careful of the traffic lights it would be good to signal if there is a traffic light ahead. Since, existing parking sensors are not able to sense signs and traffic lights, and GPS navigation does not provide information about traffic lights on the road, these features cannot be used for traffic light detection.

Video monitoring however might provide enough information to processing to see if there are traffic lights ahead. Even though there is no such system or device available on the market currently, some of the auto giants have already looked into this idea. For example, Opel has been playing with recognition of traffic signs on the road and planning to install it on the Opel Insignia in the future, which is on serial production. Mercedes is also working on such system but did not release details of their achievements yet.

2.1.TODAY TRAFFIC SITUATION

In Kazakhstan today, nobody can doubt the fact that video surveillance systems have brought about a positive change in the general security situation. International experience, and unfortunately also experience in Kazakhstan, testifies to the fact that without properly designed systems and professionally trained personnel, it is impossible to ensure law and order, which lies at the heart of all urban security.

The development of Kazakhstan's municipal video surveillance systems is mainly in this area, as well as monitoring of road users – obtaining footage of traffic violations is also improving the situation in this area, helping to protect society from corruption and favouritism. On the whole, Kazakhstan's municipal video surveillance

systems are developed within the country's 'Safe City' programme and have their own characteristics. In order to understand them better, their development path needs to be traced right back to the very beginning, and all their influencing factors need to be assessed.



Figure 1 - video surveillance systems

By 2011-2012, spending on video surveillance in Kazakhstan's regional centres had increased tenfold from 2008. A new OCC and 600 cameras were provided in Atyrau and the number of surveillance cameras on the streets of Pavlodar, Atkai and Semipalatinsk increased. Even in relatively small Kostanay (300,000 inhabitants) over \$600,000 was spent, with dozens of video cameras connected to an OCC and Department of Internal Affairs centres as part of the 'Safe Streets' programme.

There were several reasons for this unexpected growth, among them issues of increasing vehicle numbers and attempts to change the situation on the roads, as well as a general desire to enhance the level of road safety. But the most important factor of all was a new one – the threat of terrorism. In 2011 there were several high-profile successful and failed acts of terrorism, and global experience shows that without modern video surveillance, countering this threat is not possible.

We can agree that it is difficult to picture what happened in Kazakhstan in 2011 taking place in Europe – a radical Islamist stole a car, drove to a gun shop in order to rob it, killed two police officers in the subsequent chase, and then went on to the Office of National Security. Having arrived, he opened fire on the building with a grenade launcher and only after this blew himself up (and not just himself). Clearly,

if the police had been able to see this situation evolving, they would have been able to quickly find a way of stopping or liquidating the terrorist. However, at the intersection of Taraz, in South Kazakhstan, they could not see him, and he met no organised resistance. For this reason, it is most likely that the reality and high probability of a new terrorism threat led to cameras being quickly installed on streets and in schools, hospitals, playschools and other public buildings.

Projects were financed from city budgets, although there were attempts to do things a different way – in Petropavlovsk in 2009, "taking into account the local budget deficit", the Department of Internal Affairs asked the authorities of the North Kazakhstan Region and the city of Petropavlovsk to "assist in the acquisition of external surveillance cameras and the connection of them to OCCs for newly constructed buildings, large markets, supermarkets, and other facilities at the expense of construction companies and owners of these facilities." Needless to say, after the first terrorist attacks in the south, the government money was quickly found.

The main conclusion is the existence of structure of municipal video surveillance systems. Its function in Kazakhstan has expanded to include not just accompaniment of official figures and recording of traffic violations, but also monitoring in schools, hospitals, and public places.

At the same time, urban video surveillance systems in other agencies – the fire and health services, the Ministry of Emergency Situations, etc – has not developed. There have also been no attempts to integrate situation rooms, which would ensure the effective use of security cameras in a range of crisis situations.

2.2.RECORD STATUS OF ACCIDENTS

According to information from the data bank records of accidents and people in them have suffered for four months in 2013 for the Republic reported 4,854 accidents, 3,414 against accidents recorded in the same period of 2012.

Thus, in the past period registered an increase in the number of road accidents in the 1440 facts. When viewed in the context of each region, the highest number of

traffic accidents committed in the territory of Almaty - 1262 (633), South Kazakhstan - 754 (495), Almaty - 423 (394), Zhambyl - 401 (222) East Kazakhstan - 346 (230), Karaganda - 228 (168) and Aktobe - 211 (132) regions.

Most of the accidents occurred in the current period as a result of accidents with pedestrians - 2323, due to the collision of vehicles - 1710, due to rollover - 334, hit a snag - 225, hitting the cyclists - 33, hit a stationary vehicles - 59 , impact on animals - 13, hit a horse-drawn carts - 3 and other types of accidents - 154.

The reasons for non-compliance has been committed by an accident of traffic, namely speeding - 1127, pedestrians crossing the roadway at an undisclosed location - 384, exit at the oncoming traffic - 488, when driving through crosswalks - 493, disobeying signals of regulation and requirements of road signs - 151, improper passing - 30 left for other violations - 2181. The largest number of accidents committed in settlements 3829, in which 277 people were killed. On the roads of the country's registered - 1025 crash, which killed 399 people. In general, the situation in the Republic as compared to the same period last year is as follows. Died as a result of an accident 676 persons (590) and wounded - 6173 persons (4239)

At the same time, a large number of persons killed in road accidents registered in Almaty - 113 (116), South Kazakhstan - 109 (98), Zhambyl - 76 (49), Almaty - 45 (51), East-Kazakhstan - 41 (40), Karaganda - 41 (45), Akmola - 41 (19) and Mangistau - 34 (23).[2]

2.3.MOBILE MARKET GROTH

As mobile phone users around the world upgrade to smartphones, they are overwhelmingly choosing Android. Google's operating system was installed on more than one-third of all mobile phones that shipped last quarter, and on more than two-thirds of all smartphones.

Research firm Canalys estimates that 438 million mobile phones shipped during the fourth quarter of 2012, roughly the same number as in the year-ago quarter. But a much larger portion of those were smartphones – 216.5 million or just

under 50% of the total. Canalsys says Q4 smartphone shipments were up 37% from the year-ago quarter.

The numbers from Canalsys are very close to those released last month by IDC, which estimated total Q4 smartphone shipments at 219.4 million. Both firms ranked Samsung as the market leader with roughly 63 million smartphones shipped. (Samsung does not publicly report shipment numbers for its mobile devices.)

Apple is of course the No. 2 vendor in the worldwide smartphone market; the company said last month that it shipped 47.8 million iPhones last quarter. In the United States, Apple remains the leading smartphone vendor with more than one-third of the market by some estimates.

Canalsys and IDC both rank China's Huawei as the world's No. 3 smartphone vendor, with about 11 million units' shipped during the fourth quarter. The two research firms differ on who ranks No. 4 and No. 5. Canalsys thinks that ZTE shipped 10.1 million phones and Lenovo shipped 9.5 million; IDC thinks Sony shipped 9.8 million and ZTE 9.5 million.

All the top five smartphone vendors ranked by both firms make primarily Android phones. Mobile operators are hoping that a third operating system will emerge as a serious competitor to Android and Apple's iOS, but right now BlackBerry and Microsoft's Windows combine for just 10% market share.

"BlackBerry, Microsoft and Nokia, as well as other Android vendors, have strategies and devices in place to attack, but the task is daunting to say the least," said Pete Cunningham, principal analyst at Canalsys. "Vendors left in the wake of the top vendors must at the very least improve their portfolios, time-to-market and marketing, as well as communicate their differentiators. Microsoft, BlackBerry and other new OS entrants, such as Mozilla, must make the OS switch as simple as possible and drive and localize their respective app and content ecosystems."

2.4.LEAD MY WAY

This is name of my android application which I gave. It runs on android with 2.2 version and upper. Uses openCV library. For classsifieing uses LBP feature extraction. It was develeppen on eclipse juno 4.2 IDE.

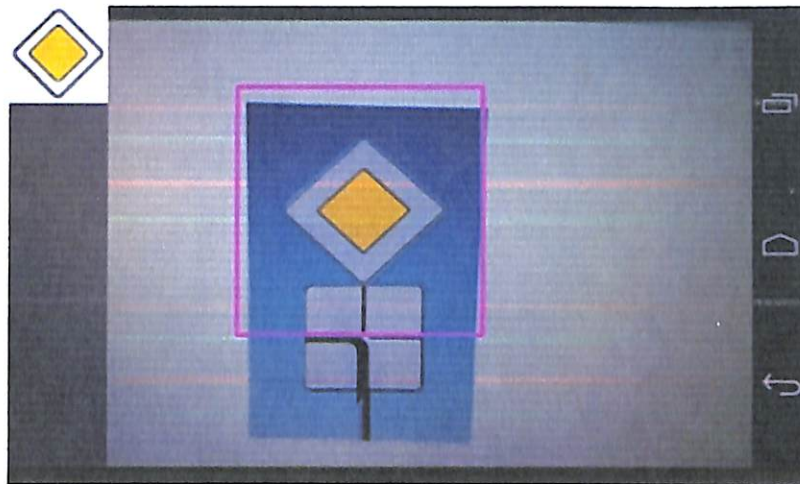


Figure 2 – Lead my way screenshot



Figure 3 – QR code to application in play market

3. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter discusses research work and materials that were referenced during the design and implementation of the project. It includes materials on image processing techniques used, research on feature extraction and additional research on traffic light systems.

3.1. IMAGE PROCESSING

Image Processing is a technique to enhance raw images received from cameras/sensors placed on satellites, space probes and aircrafts or pictures taken in normal day-to-day life for various applications.

Various techniques have been developed in Image Processing during the last four to five decades. Most of the techniques are developed for enhancing images obtained from unmanned spacecrafts, space probes and military reconnaissance flights. Image processing systems are becoming popular due to easy availability of powerful personal computers, large size memory devices, graphics softwares etc. Image processing usually refers to digital image processing, but optical and analog image processing also are possible. This article is about general techniques that apply to all of them. The acquisition of images (producing the input image in the first place) is referred to as imaging. [10]

Image processing is referred to processing of a 2D picture by a computer. Basic definitions:

An image is defined in the “real world” is considered to be a function of two real variables, for example, a (x, y) with a as the amplitude (e.g. brightness) of the image at the real coordinate position (x, y) .

Modern digital technology has made it possible to manipulate multi-dimensional signals with systems that range from simple digital circuits to advanced parallel computers. The goal of this manipulation can be divided into three categories:

- Image Processing (image in \rightarrow image out)
- Image Analysis (image in \rightarrow measurements out)

- Image Understanding (image in ->high-level description out)

An image may be considered to contain sub-images sometimes referred to as regions-of-interest, ROIs, or simply regions. This concept reflects the fact that images frequently contain collections of objects each of which can be the basis for a region. In a sophisticated image processing system it should be possible to apply specific image processing operations to selected regions. Thus one part of an image (region) might be processed to suppress motion blur while another part might be processed to improve color rendition. Sequence of image processing is a technique to enhance raw images received from cameras/sensors placed on satellites, space probes and aircrafts or pictures taken in normal day-to-day life for various applications.

Various techniques have been developed in Image Processing during the last four to five decades. Most of the techniques are developed for enhancing images obtained from unmanned spacecrafts, space probes and military reconnaissance flights.

Image Processing systems are becoming popular due to easy availability of powerful personnel computers, large size memory devices, graphics softwares etc.

Image Processing is used in various applications such as:

- Remote Sensing
- Medical Imaging
- Non-destructive Evaluation
- Forensic Studies
- Textiles
- Material Science.
- Military
- Film industry
- Document processing
- Graphic arts
- Printing Industry

The common steps in image processing are image scanning, storing, enhancing and interpretation. The schematic diagram of image scanner-digitizer diagram is shown in figure 1.

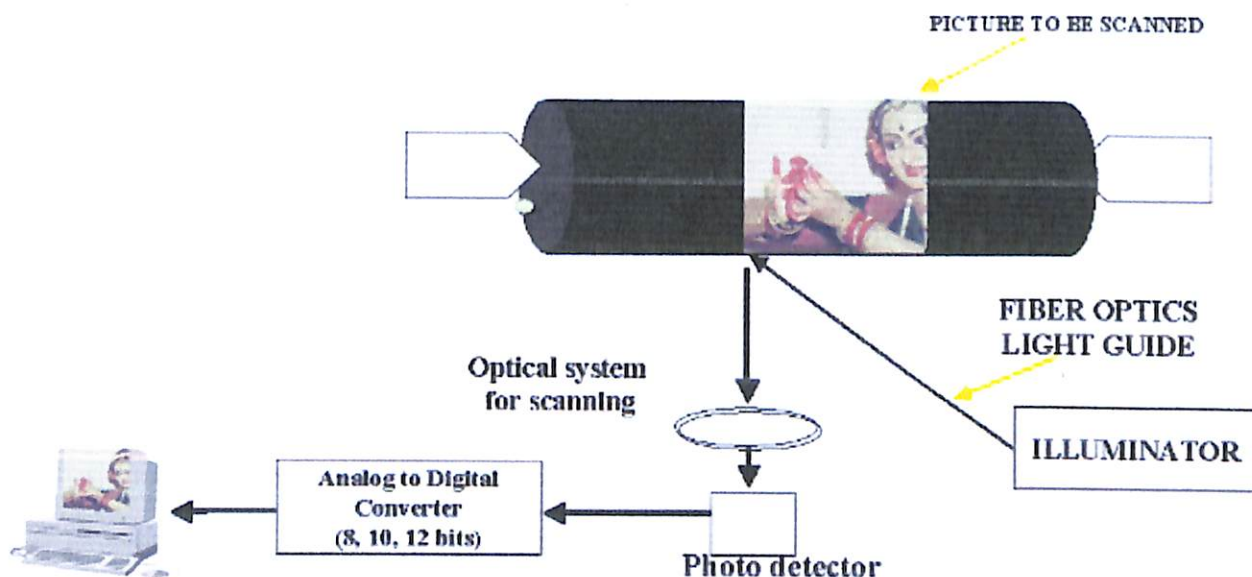


Figure 4 - The schematic diagram of image scanner-digitizer diagram

Methods of Image Processing

There are two methods available in Image Processing.

Analog Image Processing

Analog Image Processing refers to the alteration of image through electrical means. The most common example is the television image.

The television signal is a voltage level which varies in amplitude to represent brightness through the image. By electrically varying the signal, the displayed image appearance is altered. The brightness and contrast controls on a TV set serve to adjust the amplitude and reference of the video signal, resulting in the brightening, darkening and alteration of the brightness range of the displayed image.

Digital Image Processing

In this case, digital computers are used to process the image. The image will be converted to digital form using a scanner – digitizer and then process it. It is defined as the subjecting numerical representations of objects to a series of operations in

in order to obtain a desired result. It starts with one image and produces a modified version of the same. It is therefore a process that takes an image into another.

The term *digital image processing* generally refers to processing of a two-dimensional picture by a digital computer. In a broader context, it implies digital processing of any two-dimensional data. A digital image is an array of real numbers represented by a finite number of bits.

The principal advantage of Digital Image Processing methods is its versatility, repeatability and the preservation of original data precision.

The various Image Processing techniques are:

- Image representation
- Image preprocessing
- Image enhancement
- Image restoration
- Image analysis
- Image reconstruction
- Image data compression

3.2. PATTERN RECOGNITION AND ITS CONCEPTS

In machine learning, pattern recognition is the assignment of a label to a given input value. An example of pattern recognition is classification, which attempts to assign each input value to one of a given set of classes (for example, determine whether a given email is "spam" or "non-spam"). However, pattern recognition is a more general problem that encompasses other types of output as well. Other examples are regression, which assigns a real-valued output to each input; sequence labeling, which assigns a class to each member of a sequence of values (for example, part of speech tagging, which assigns a part of speech to each word in an input sentence); and parsing, which assigns a parse tree to an input sentence, describing the syntactic structure of the sentence.

Pattern recognition algorithms generally aim to provide a reasonable answer for all possible inputs and to perform "most likely" matching of the inputs, taking into account their statistical variation. This is opposed to pattern matching algorithms, which look for exact matches in the input with pre-existing patterns. A common example of a pattern-matching algorithm is regular expression matching, which looks for patterns of a given sort in textual data and is included in the search capabilities of many text editors and word processors. In contrast to pattern recognition, pattern matching is generally not considered a type of machine learning, although pattern-matching algorithms (especially with fairly general, carefully tailored patterns) can sometimes succeed in providing similar-quality output to the sort provided by pattern-recognition algorithms.

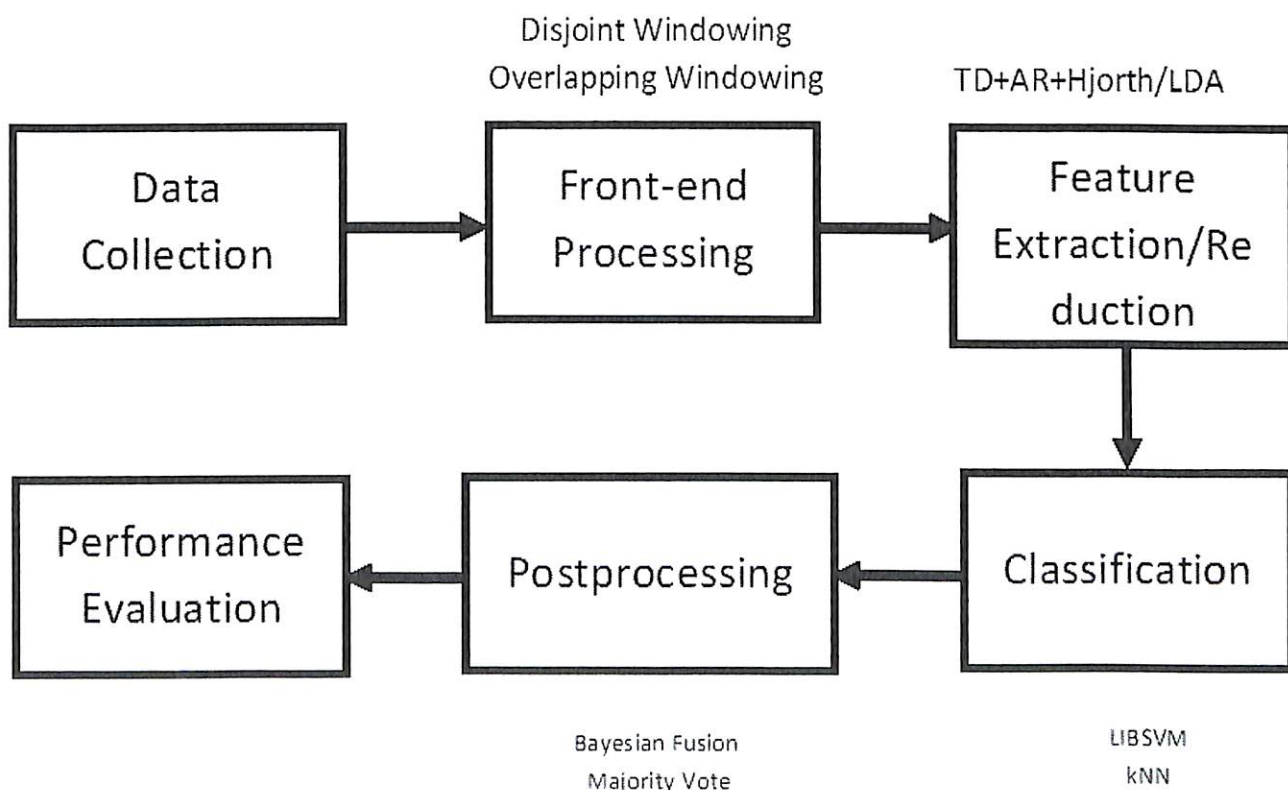


Figure 5 – Pattern recognition concepts

In many practical problems, there is a need to make some decision about the content of an image or about the classification of an object that it contains. For example, the user of a notebook computer may be able to give input using handprinted characters. In this case, there would be $m = 128$ ASCII characters and

each handprinted object would be classified into one of the m classes. The classification of an object {whether it is an 'A' or an '8', etc} would be based on the features of its optical image or perhaps of a pressure footprint, which is also an image-like representation. The classification process might actually fail, either because the character is badly made, or because the person invented a new character. Usually, a reject class is included in a system design in order to cover such cases. Image data put into the reject class might be examined again later at some higher level, might result in the formation of a new class, or might just be saved in raw form for viewing.

One definition for recognition is to know again. A recognition system must contain some memory of the objects that it is to recognize. This memory representation might be built in- perhaps as is the frog's model of a fly; or might be taught by provision of a large number of samples- as a schoolteacher teaches the alphabet; or it might be programmed in terms of specific image features- perhaps as a mother would teach a child to recognize fire trucks versus buses. Recognition and learning of patterns are subjects of considerable depth and interest to cognitive psychology- pattern recognition- and computer vision. This chapter takes a practical approach and describes methods that have had success in applications- leaving some pointers to the large theoretical literature in the references at the end of the chapter.

3.3. COMMON MODEL FOR CLASSIFICATION

Summarize the elements of the common model of classification; this breakdown is practical rather than theoretical and done so that pattern recognition systems can be designed and built using separately developed hardware and software modules.

Classes

There is a set of m known classes of objects. These are known either by some description or by having a set of examples for each of the classes. For example- for character classification- we have either a description of the appearance of each character

or we have a set of samples of each. In the general case- there will be a special reject class for objects that cannot be placed in one of the known classes.

An ideal class is a set of objects having some important common properties: in practice, a class to which an object belongs is denoted by some class label. Classification is a process that assigns a label to an object according to some representation of the object's properties. A classifier is a device or algorithm which inputs an object representation and outputs a class label.

A reject class is a generic class for objects that cannot be placed in any of the designated known classes.

Sensor/transducer

There must be some device to sense the actual physical object and output a (usually digital* representation of it for processing by machine. Most often- the sensor is selected from existing sensors (the shelf built for a larger class of problems. For example- to classify vegetables in the supermarket- we could first try using a general color camera that would provide an image representation from which color- shape- and texture features could be obtained. To recognize characters made by an impression using a stylus- we would use a pressure sensitive array.

Since this is a book about machine vision- sensors that produce 3D arrays of sensed data are of most interest. However- pattern recognition itself is more general and just as applicable to recognizing spoken phone numbers- for example- as phone numbers written on paper.

Feature extractor

The feature extractor extracts information relevant to classification from the data input by the sensor. Usually- feature extraction is done in software. Software can be adapted to the sensor hardware on the input side and can evolve through research and development to output results highly relevant to classification. Many image features were defined in the previous chapter.

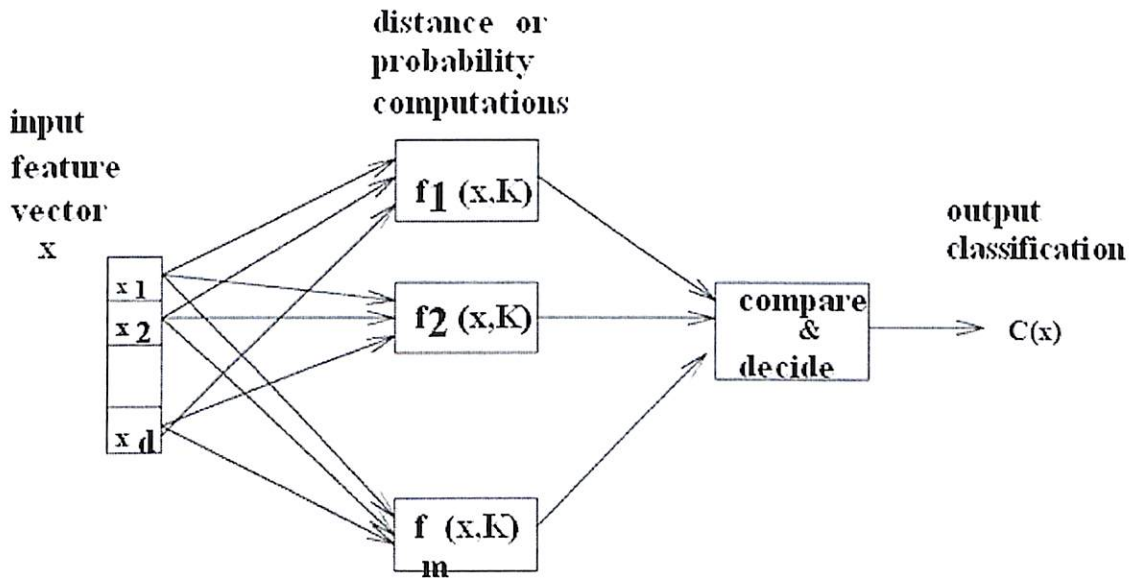


Figure 6 – Feature extractor

Classifier

Classification system diagram; discriminant functions $f(x; K^*)$ perform some computation on input feature vector x using some knowledge K from training and pass results to a final stage that determines the class.

The classifier uses the features extracted from the sensed object data to assign the object to one of the m designated classes $C^1 - C^2 - \dots - C^m$. $C^m = C^r$ - where C^r denotes the reject class.

A d -dimensional feature vector x is the input representing the object to be classified. The system has one block for each possible class - which contains some knowledge K about the class and some processing capability. Results from the m computations are passed to the final classification stage - which decides the class of the object. The diagram is general enough to model the three different types of classification discussed below; (a* classification using the nearest mean - (b* classification by maximum a posteriori probability - and (c* classification using a feed-forward artificial neural network.

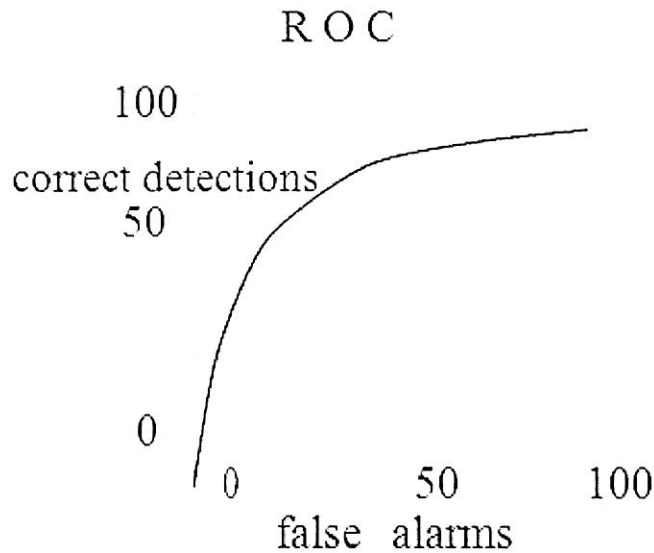


Figure 7 – ROC

The receiver operating curve or "ROC" plots correct detection rate versus false alarm rate. Generally- the number of false alarms will go up as the system attempts to detect higher percentages of known objects. Modest detection performance can often be achieved at a low cost in false alarms- but correct detection of nearly all objects will cause a large percentage of unknown objects to be incorrectly classified into some known class.

Classification is usually somewhat arbitrary and more due to engineering concerns than to some inherent properties of an application. Indeed- we will look at neural nets- which can do one step classification directly from the input image.

Evaluation of system error

The error rate of a classification system is one measure of how well the system solves the problem for which it was designed. Other measures are speed- in terms of how many objects can be processed per unit time- and expense- in terms of hardware- software- and development cost. Performance is determined by both the errors and rejections made; classifying all inputs into the reject class means that the system makes no errors but is useless.

Classification error – The classifier makes a classification error when- ever it

lassifies the input object as class C_i when the true class is class C_j ; $i \neq j$ and $C_i = C_r$, the reject class.

Empirical error rate – The empirical error rate of a classification system is the number of errors made on independent test data divided by the number of classifications attempted.

Empirical reject rate – The empirical reject rate of a classification system is the number of rejects made on independent test data divided by the number of classifications attempted.

Independent Test Data – Independent test data are sample objects with true class known, including objects from the "reject class", that were not used in designing the feature extraction and classification algorithms.

The above definitions can be used in practice to test the performance of a classification system. We must be very careful to insure that the samples used to design and those used to test the system are representative of the samples that the system will have to process in the future; and- samples used to test the system must be independent of those used to design it. Sometimes- we assume that our data follows some theoretical distribution. With this assumption- we are able to compute a theoretical probability of error for future performance- rather than just an empirical error rate from testing. This concept will be discussed below.

Suppose a handprinted character recognition module for a hand-held computer correctly recognizes a user's input characters. Given that the user may have to edit an input document anyway- a 6% error rate may be acceptable. Interestingly- such a system might actually train the user- as well as the user training the system- so that performance gradually improves. For example- perhaps the user learns to more carefully close up 9's so that they are not confused with 7's. For a banking system that must read hand-printed digits on deposit slips- a 6% error rate might be intolerable.

False alarms and false dismissals

Some problems are special two-class problems where the meaning of the classes might be (a* good object versus bad object-

(b* object present in the image versus object absent-or (c* person has disease D versus person does not have disease D. Here- the error stake on special meaning and are not symmetric. Case (c* is most instructive; if the system incor.

rectly says that the person does have disease D then the error is called a false alarm or false positive; whereas- if the system incorrectly says that the person does not have disease D- then the error is called a false dismissal or false negative. In the case of the false alarm- it probably means that the person will undergo the cost of more tests- or of taking medicine that is not needed. In the case of false dismissal- the diagnosis is missed and the person will not be treated- possibly leading to grave circumstances.

Because the cost of the errors $d(P)$ is great- it may make sense to bias the decision in order to minimize false dismissals at the cost of increasing the number of false alarms. Case (a* is less dramatic when the problem is to cull out bruised cherries; a false alarm may mean that the cherry goes into a pier rather than in the produce bin where it would have had more value. False alarms in case (b* may mean we waste energy by turning on a light when there really was no motion in the scene or that we counted an auto on the highway when one really did not pass by; false dismissals in case (b* also have interesting consequences. Typical receiver operating curve- which relates false alarm rate to detection rate.

In order to increase the percentage of objects correctly recognized- one usually has to pay a cost of incorrectly passing along objects that should be rejected.

3.4. FEATURE EXTRACTION

In pattern recognition and in image processing, feature extraction is a special form of dimensionality reduction.

When the input data to an algorithm is too large to be processed and it is suspected to be notoriously redundant (e.g. the same measurement in both feet and meters) then the input data will be transformed into a reduced representation set of

features (also named features vector). Transforming the input data into the set of features is called feature extraction. If the features extracted are carefully chosen it is expected that the features set will extract the relevant information from the input data in order to perform the desired task using this reduced representation instead of the full size input. [11]

Feature extraction involves simplifying the amount of resources required to describe a large set of data accurately. When performing analysis of complex data one of the major problems stems from the number of variables involved. Analysis with a large number of variables generally requires a large amount of memory and computation power or a classification algorithm which overfits the training sample and generalizes poorly to new samples. Feature extraction is a general term for methods of constructing combinations of the variables to get around these problems while still describing the data with sufficient accuracy.

Best results are achieved when an expert constructs a set of application-dependent features. Nevertheless, if no such expert knowledge is available general dimensionality reduction techniques may help. These include:

- Principal component analysis
- Semidefinite embedding
- Multifactor dimensionality reduction
- Multilinear subspace learning
- Nonlinear dimensionality reduction
- Isomap
- Kernel PCA
- Multilinear PCA
- Latent semantic analysis
- Partial least squares
- Independent component analysis
- Autoencoder

3.5. HAAR-like features

Haar-like features are digital image features used in object recognition. They owe their name to their intuitive similarity with Haar wavelets and were used in the first real-time face detector.

Historically, working with only image intensities (i.e., the RGB pixel values at each and every pixel of image) made the task of feature calculation computationally expensive. A publication by Papageorgiou et al. discussed working with an alternate feature set based on Haar wavelets instead of the usual image intensities. Viola and Jones adapted the idea of using Haar wavelets and developed the so-called Haar-like features. A Haar-like feature considers adjacent rectangular regions at a specific location in a detection window, sums up the pixel intensities in each region and calculates the difference between these sums. This difference is then used to categorize subsections of an image. For example, let us say we have an image database with human faces. It is a common observation that among all faces the region of the eyes is darker than the region of the cheeks. Therefore a common Haar feature for face detection is a set of two adjacent rectangles that lie above the eye and the cheek region. The position of these rectangles is defined relative to a detection window that acts like a bounding box to the target object (the face in this case).

In the detection phase of the Viola–Jones object detection framework, a window of the target size is moved over the input image, and for each subsection of the image the Haar-like feature is calculated. This difference is then compared to a learned threshold that separates non-objects from objects. Because such a Haar-like feature is only a weak learner or classifier (its detection quality is slightly better than random guessing) a large number of Haar-like features are necessary to describe an object with sufficient accuracy. In the Viola–Jones object detection framework, the Haar-like features are therefore organized in something called a classifier cascade to form a strong learner or classifier.

The key advantage of a Haar-like feature over most other features is its calculation speed. Due to the use of integral images, a Haar-like feature of any size can

be calculated in constant time (approximately 60 microprocessor instructions for a 2-rectangle feature).

A simple rectangular Haar-like feature can be defined as the difference of the sum of pixels of areas inside the rectangle, which can be at any position and scale within the original image. This modified feature set is called *2-rectangle feature*. Viola and Jones also defined 3-rectangle features and 4-rectangle features. The values indicate certain characteristics of a particular area of the image. Each feature type can indicate the existence (or absence) of certain characteristics in the image, such as edges or changes in texture. For example, a 2-rectangle feature can indicate where the border lies between a dark region and a light region.

One of the contributions of Viola and Jones was to use summed area tables, which they called *integral images*. Integral images can be defined as two-dimensional lookup tables in the form of a matrix with the same size of the original image. Each element of the integral image contains the sum of all pixels located on the up-left region of the original image (in relation to the element's position). This allows to compute sum of rectangular areas in the image, at any position or scale, using only four lookups:

$$\text{sum} = I(C) + I(A) - I(B) - I(D).$$

where points A, B, C, D belong to the integral image I , as shown in the figure. Each Haar-like feature may need more than four lookups, depending on how it was defined. Viola and Jones's 2-rectangle features need six lookups, 3-rectangle features need eight lookups, and 4-rectangle features need nine lookups.

Lienhart and Maydt introduced the concept of a tilted (45°) Haar-like feature. This was used to increase the dimensionality of the set of features in an attempt to improve the detection of objects in images. This was successful, as some of these features are able to describe the object in a better way. For example, a 2-rectangle tilted Haar-like feature can indicate the existence of an edge at 45° .

Messom and Barczak extended the idea to a generic rotated Haar-like feature. Although the idea sounds mathematically sound, practical problems prevented the use of Haar-like features at any angle. In order to be fast, detection algorithms use low resolution images, causing rounding errors. For this reason, rotated Haar-like features are not commonly used.

3.6. LOCAL BINARY PATTERNS

Local Binary Pattern (LBP) is a simple yet very efficient texture operator which labels the pixels of an image by thresholding the neighborhood of each pixel and considers the result as a binary number. Due to its discriminative power and computational simplicity, LBP texture operator has become a popular approach in various applications. It can be seen as a unifying approach to the traditionally divergent statistical and structural models of texture analysis. Perhaps the most important property of the LBP operator in real-world applications is its robustness to monotonic gray-scale changes caused, for example, by illumination variations. Another important property is its computational simplicity, which makes it possible to analyze images in challenging real-time settings.

The basic idea for developing the LBP operator was that two-dimensional surface textures can be described by two complementary measures: local spatial patterns and gray scale contrast. The original LBP operator (Ojala et al. 1996) forms labels for the image pixels by thresholding the 3×3 neighborhood of each pixel with the center value and considering the result as a binary number. The histogram of these $2^8 = 256$ different labels can then be used as a texture descriptor. This operator used jointly with a simple local contrast measure provided very good performance in unsupervised texture segmentation. After this, many related approaches have been developed for texture and color texture segmentation.

The LBP operator was extended to use neighborhoods of different sizes (Ojala et al. 2002). Using a circular neighborhood and bilinearly interpolating values at non-integer pixel coordinates allow any radius and number of pixels in the neighborhood. The gray scale variance of the local neighborhood can be used as

the complementary contrast measure. In the following, the notation (P,R) will be used for pixel neighborhoods which means P sampling points on a circle of radius of R. See Fig. 2 for an example of LBP computation.

The value of the LBP code of a pixel (x, y) is given by:

$$LBP_{P,R} = \sum_{p=0}^{P-1} s_p |g_p - g| \cdot 2^p \quad s_p = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x > 0; \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

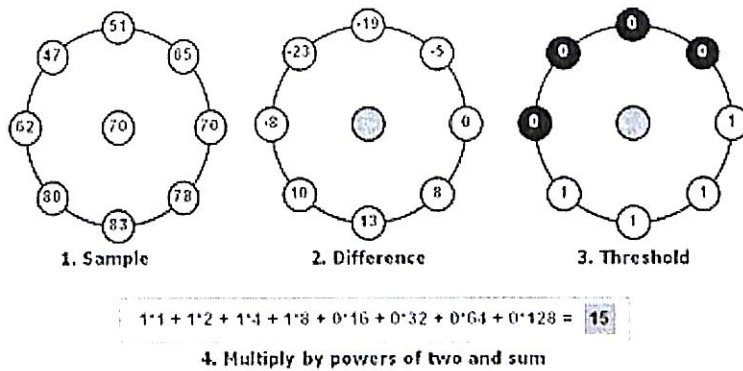


Figure 8 – An example of LBP computation.

Another extension to the original operator is the definition of so-called *uniform patterns*, which can be used to reduce the length of the feature vector and implement a simple rotation-invariant descriptor. This extension was inspired by the fact that some binary patterns occur more commonly in texture images than others.

A local binary pattern is called uniform if the binary pattern contains at most two bitwise transitions from 0 to 1 or vice versa when the bit pattern is traversed circularly. For example, the patterns 00000000 (0 transitions), 01110000 (2 transitions) and 11001111 (2 transitions) are uniform whereas the patterns 11001001 (4 transitions) and 01010010 (6 transitions) are not.

In the computation of the LBP labels, uniform patterns are used so that there is a separate label for each uniform pattern and all the non-uniform patterns are labeled with a single label. For example, when using (8,R) neighborhood, there are a total of 256 patterns, 58 of which are uniform, which yields in 59 different labels.

Ojala et al. (2002) noticed in their experiments with texture images that uniform patterns account for a little less than 90% of all patterns when using the (8,1)

neighborhood and for around 70% in the (16,2) neighborhood. Each bin (LBPcode) can be regarded as a micro-texton. Local primitives which are codified by these bins include different types of curved edges, spots, flat areas etc.

The following notation is used for the LBP operator: $LBP_{P,R}^{u2}$. The subscript represents using the operator in a (P,R) neighborhood. Superscript u2 stands for using only uniform patterns and labeling all remaining patterns with a single label. After the LBP labeled image $f_i(x,y)$ has been obtained, the LBP histogram can be defined as

$$H_i = \sum_{x,y} I\{f_i(x,y)=i\}, i=0, \dots, n-1, (1)$$

in which n is the number of different labels produced by the LBP operator, and $I\{A\}$ is 1 if A is true and 0 if A is false.

When the image patches whose histograms are to be compared have different sizes, the histograms must be normalized to get a coherent description:

$$N_i = H_i / \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} H_j. (2)$$

The original LBP operator was defined to only deal with the spatial information. Later, it was extended to a spatiotemporal representation for dynamic texture analysis. For this purpose, the so-called Volume Local Binary Pattern (VLBP) operator was proposed (Zhao and Pietikäinen 2007). The idea behind VLBP consists of looking at dynamic texture as a set of volumes in the (X,Y,T) space where X and Y denote the spatial coordinates and T denotes the frame index (time). The neighborhood of each pixel is thus defined in three dimensional space. Then, similarly to LBP in spatial domain, volume textons can be defined and extracted into histograms. Therefore, VLBP combines motion and appearance together to describe dynamic textures.

To make VLBP computationally simple and easy to extend, an operator based on co-occurrences of local binary patterns on three orthogonal planes (LBP-TOP) was also introduced. LBP-TOP considers three orthogonal planes: XY, XT and YT, and concatenates local binary pattern co-occurrence statistics in these three directions. The circular neighborhoods are generalized to elliptical sampling to fit to the space-time statistics.

directions. The circular neighborhoods are generalized to elliptical sampling to fit to the space-time statistics.

The XY plane represents appearance information, while the XT plane gives a visual impression of one row changing in time and YT describes the motion of one column in temporal space. The LBP codes are extracted for all pixels from the XY, XT and YT planes, denoted as XY-LBP, XT-LBP and YT-LBP, and histograms from these planes are computed and concatenated into a single histogram. In such a representation, a dynamic texture is encoded by an appearance (XY-LBP) and two spatial temporal (XT-LBP and YT-LBP) co-occurrence statistics.

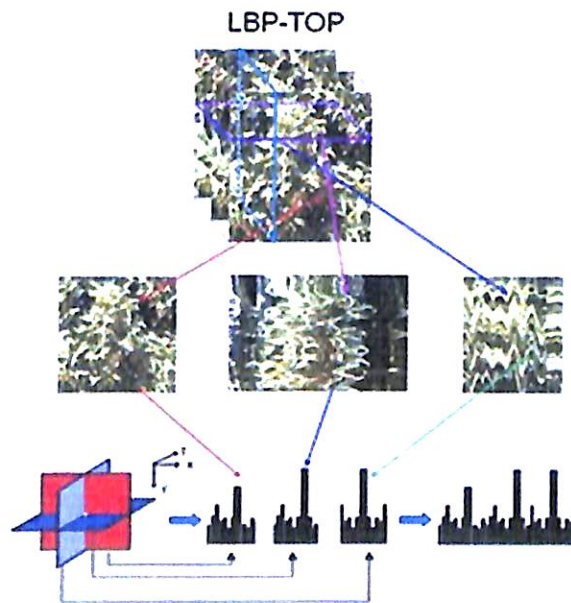


Figure 9 – LBP from three orthogonal planes.

Setting the radius in the time axis to be equal to the radius in the space axis is not reasonable for dynamic textures. So we have different radius parameters in space and time to set. In the XT and YT planes, different radii can be assigned to sample neighboring points in space and time. More generally, the radii in axes X, Y and T, and the number of neighboring points in the XY, XT and YT planes can also be different.

The LBP methodology has led to significant progress in texture analysis. It is widely used all over the world both in research and applications. Due to its discriminative power and computational simplicity, the method has been very

regarded as texture problems, such as face analysis and motion analysis (Pietikäinen et al. 2011). For a bibliography of LBP-related research and links to many papers, see http://www.cse.oulu.fi/MVG/LBP_Bibliography.

To increase the applicability of LBP, various extensions and modifications of it have been proposed. For example, Liao et al. (2009) proposed dominant local binary patterns which make use of the most frequently occurred patterns of LBP to improve the recognition accuracy. The use of interest region descriptors (such as SIFT) to various computer vision problems has been of great interest recently. For this purpose, a novel descriptor combining the strengths of SIFT and LBP was proposed (Heikkilä et al. 2009), in which center-symmetric local binary patterns (CS-LBP) were used to replace the gradient operator used by the SIFT operator. Mäenpää and Pietikäinen (2004) proposed an opponent color LBP, and investigated joint and separate use of color and texture in classification. The combination of the LBPs and Gabor features has been investigated (Tan et al. 2007, Wang et al. 2009).

The first texture-based method for background subtraction was proposed by Heikkilä and Pietikäinen (2006). Each pixel is modeled as a group of adaptive local binary pattern histograms that are calculated over a circular region around the pixel. It was shown to be tolerant to illumination variations, the multimodality of the background, and the introduction or removal of background objects. Furthermore, the method is capable for real-time processing. A preprocessing algorithm based on the LBPs has been developed to handle variations in illumination in a face authentication system (Heusch et al. 2006). The use of LBPs in the recognition of actions was considered by (Kellokumpu et al. 2010). The use of LBPs in the facial age classification has been investigated (Wang et al. 2009). Other related LBP-based approaches to these problems have been proposed recently.

In addition to face and facial expression recognition, the LBP has also been used in many other applications of biometrics, including eye localization, iris recognition, fingerprint recognition, palmprint recognition, gait recognition and facial age classification. References to many of these works can be found from the LBP bibliography. [12]

3.1.COMPUTER VISION

Computer vision is a field that includes methods for acquiring, processing, analyzing, and understanding images and, in general, high-dimensional data from the real world in order to produce numerical or symbolic information, e.g., in the forms of decisions. A theme in the development of this field has been to duplicate the abilities of human vision by electronically perceiving and understanding an image. This image understanding can be seen as the disentangling of symbolic information from image data using models constructed with the aid of geometry, physics, statistics, and learning theory. Computer vision has also been described as the enterprise of automating and integrating a wide range of processes and representations for vision perception.

Applications range from tasks such as industrial machine vision systems which, say, inspect bottles speeding by on a production line, to research into artificial intelligence and computers or robots that can comprehend the world around them. The computer vision and machine vision fields have significant overlap. Computer vision covers the core technology of automated image analysis which is used in many fields. Machine vision usually refers to a process of combining automated image analysis with other methods and technologies to provide automated inspection and robot guidance in industrial applications.

As a scientific discipline, computer vision is concerned with the theory behind artificial systems that extract information from images. The image data can take many forms, such as video sequences, views from multiple cameras, or multi-dimensional data from a medical scanner.

As a technological discipline, computer vision seeks to apply its theories and models to the construction of computer vision systems. Examples of applications of computer vision include systems for:

- Controlling processes, e.g., an industrial robot;
- Navigation, e.g., by an autonomous vehicle or mobile robot;

- Detecting events, e.g., for visual surveillance or people counting;
- Organizing information, e.g., for indexing databases of images and image sequences;
- Modeling objects or environments, e.g., medical image analysis or topographical modeling;
- Interaction, e.g., as the input to a device for computer-human interaction, and
- Automatic inspection, e.g., in manufacturing applications.

Sub-domains of computer vision include scene reconstruction, event detection, video tracking, object recognition, learning, indexing, motion estimation, and image restoration.

In most practical computer vision applications, the computers are pre-programmed to solve a particular task, but methods based on learning are now becoming increasingly common.

Areas of artificial intelligence deal with autonomous planning or deliberation for robotical systems to navigate through an environment. A detailed understanding of these environments is required to navigate through them. Information about the environment could be provided by a computer vision system, acting as a vision sensor and providing high-level information about the environment and the robot.

Artificial intelligence and computer vision share other topics such as pattern recognition and learning techniques. Consequently, computer vision is sometimes seen as a part of the artificial intelligence field or the computer science field in general.

Solid-state physics is another field that is closely related to computer vision. Most computer vision systems rely on image sensors, which detect electromagnetic radiation which is typically in the form of either visible or infra-red light. The sensors are designed using quantum physics. The process by which light interacts with surfaces is explained using physics. Physics explains the behavior of optics which are a core part of most imaging systems. Sophisticated image sensors even require quantum mechanics to provide a complete understanding of the image

formation process. Also, various measurement problems in physics can be addressed using computer vision, for example motion in fluids.

A third field which plays an important role is neurobiology, specifically the study of the biological vision system. Over the last century, there has been an extensive study of eyes, neurons, and the brain structures devoted to processing of visual stimuli in both humans and various animals. This has led to a coarse, yet complicated, description of how "real" vision systems operate in order to solve certain vision related tasks. These results have led to a subfield within computer vision where artificial systems are designed to mimic the processing and behavior of biological systems, at different levels of complexity. Also, some of the learning-based methods developed within computer vision (e.g. neural net based image and feature analysis and classification) have their background in biology.

Some strands of computer vision research are closely related to the study of biological vision – indeed, just as many strands of AI research are closely tied with research into human consciousness, and the use of stored knowledge to interpret, integrate and utilize visual information. The field of biological vision studies and models the physiological processes behind visual perception in humans and other animals. Computer vision, on the other hand, studies and describes the processes implemented in software and hardware behind artificial vision systems. Interdisciplinary exchange between biological and computer vision has proven fruitful for both fields.

Yet another field related to computer vision is signal processing. Many methods for processing of one-variable signals, typically temporal signals, can be extended in a natural way to processing of two-variable signals or multi-variable signals in computer vision. However, because of the specific nature of images there are many methods developed within computer vision which have no counterpart in processing of one-variable signals. Together with the multi-dimensionality of the signal, this defines a subfield in signal processing as a part of computer vision.

Beside the above mentioned views on computer vision, many of the related research topics can also be studied from a purely mathematical point of view. For example, many methods in computer vision are based on statistics, optimization or geometry. Finally, a significant part of the field is devoted to the implementation aspect of computer vision; how existing methods can be realized in various combinations of software and hardware, or how these methods can be modified in order to gain processing speed without losing too much performance.

The fields most closely related to computer vision are image processing, image analysis and machine vision. There is a significant overlap in the range of techniques and applications that these cover. This implies that the basic techniques that are used and developed in these fields are more or less identical, something which can be interpreted as there is only one field with different names. On the other hand, it appears to be necessary for research groups, scientific journals, conferences and companies to present or market themselves as belonging specifically to one of these fields and, hence, various characterizations which distinguish each of the fields from the others have been presented.

Computer vision is, in some ways, the inverse of computer graphics. While computer graphics produces image data from 3D models, computer vision often produces 3D models from image data. There is also a trend towards a combination of the two disciplines, e.g., as explored in augmented reality.

The following characterizations appear relevant but should not be taken as universally accepted:

Image processing and image analysis tend to focus on 2D images, how to transform one image to another, e.g., by pixel-wise operations such as contrast enhancement, local operations such as edge extraction or noise removal, or geometrical transformations such as rotating the image. This characterization implies that image processing/analysis neither require assumptions nor produce interpretations about the image content.

Computer vision includes 3D analysis from 2D images. This analyzes the 3D scene projected onto one or several images, e.g., how to reconstruct structure or other information about the 3D scene from one or several images. Computer vision often relies on more or less complex assumptions about the scene depicted in an image.

Machine vision is the process of applying a range of technologies & methods to provide imaging-based automatic inspection, process control and robot guidance in industrial applications. Machine vision tends to focus on applications, mainly in manufacturing, e.g., vision based autonomous robots and systems for vision based inspection or measurement. This implies that image sensor technologies and control theory often are integrated with the processing of image data to control a robot and that real-time processing is emphasised by means of efficient implementations in hardware and software. It also implies that the external conditions such as lighting can be and are often more controlled in machine vision than they are in general computer vision, which can enable the use of different algorithms.

There is also a field called imaging which primarily focus on the process of producing images, but sometimes also deals with processing and analysis of images. For example, medical imaging includes substantial work on the analysis of image data in medical applications.

Finally, pattern recognition is a field which uses various methods to extract information from signals in general, mainly based on statistical approaches. A significant part of this field is devoted to applying these methods to image data.

Typical tasks of computer vision

Each of the application areas described above employ a range of computer vision tasks; more or less well defined measurement problems or processing problems, which can be solved using a variety of methods. Some examples of typical computer vision tasks are presented below.

Recognition

The classical problem in computer vision, image processing, and machine vision is that of determining whether or not the image data contains some specific object, feature, or activity. This task can normally be solved robustly and without effort by a human, but is still not satisfactorily solved in computer vision for the general case – arbitrary objects in arbitrary situations. The existing methods for dealing with this problem can at best solve it only for specific objects, such as simple geometric objects (e.g., polyhedra), human faces, printed or handwritten characters, or vehicles, and in specific situations, typically described in terms of well-defined illumination, background, and pose of the object relative to the camera.

Different varieties of the recognition problem are described in the literature:

- Object recognition – one or several pre-specified or learned objects or object classes can be recognized, usually together with their 2D positions in the image or 3D poses in the scene. Google Goggles provides a stand-alone program illustration of this function.
- Identification – an individual instance of an object is recognized. Examples include identification of a specific person's face or fingerprint, or identification of a specific vehicle.
- Detection – the image data are scanned for a specific condition. Examples include detection of possible abnormal cells or tissues in medical images or detection of a vehicle in an automatic road toll system. Detection based on relatively simple and fast computations is sometimes used for finding smaller regions of interesting image data which can be further analyzed by more computationally demanding techniques to produce a correct interpretation.

Several specialized tasks based on recognition exist, such as:

- Content-based image retrieval – finding all images in a larger set of images which have a specific content. The content can be specified in different ways, for example in terms of similarity relative to a target image (give me all images similar to image X), or in terms of high-level search criteria given as text input (give

meall images whichcontains manyhouses, are taken during winter, and have nocars in them).

- Poseestimation – estimating theposition or orientation of a specificobject relative to thecamera. Anexampleapplication for this technique would beassisting a robot arm in retrieving objects from aconveyor belt in an assembly line situation or picking parts from a bin.
- Optical character recognition (OCR) – identifying characters in images of printed or handwritten text,usually witha view toencoding the text in a format moreamenable toediting or indexing (e.g. ASCII).
- 2D Code reading Reading of 2D codes suchas data matrixand QR codes.
- Facial recognition

Motion analysis

Several tasks relate to motion estimation wherean image sequence is processed toproducean estimateof thevelocityeither at eachpoints in the imageor in the 3D scene, or even of thecamera that produces the images .

- Egomotion – determining the 3D rigid motion (rotation and translation) of thecamera from an imagesequenceproduced by thecamera.
- Tracking – following the movements of a (usually) smaller set of interest points or objects (e.g., vehiclesor humans) in the image sequence.
- Optical flow – to determine, for eachpoint in the image, how that point is moving relative to the imageplane, i.e., its apparent motion. This motion is a result bothof how thecorresponding 3D point is movingin the sceneand how thecamera is moving relative to the scene.

Scene reconstruction

Given oneor (typically) more images of a scene, or a video, scene reconstruction aims at computing a 3D modelof the scene. In the simplest case the model can bea set of 3D points. More sophisticated methods produceacomplete 3D surface model. Theadvent of 3D imaging not requiring motion or scanning, and

related processing algorithms is enabling rapid advances in this field. Grid-based 3D sensing can be used to acquire 3D images from multiple angles. Algorithms are now available to stitch multiple 3D images together into point clouds and 3D models.

Image restoration

The aim of image restoration is the removal of noise (sensor noise, motion blur, etc.) from images. The simplest possible approach for noise removal is various types of filters such as low-pass filters or median filters. More sophisticated methods assume a model of how the local image structures look like, a model which distinguishes them from the noise. By first analysing the image data in terms of the local image structures, such as lines or edges, and then controlling the filtering based on local information from the analysis step, a better level of noise removal is usually obtained compared to the simpler approaches.

An example in this field is the inpainting.

Computer vision system methods

The organization of a computer vision system is highly application dependent. Some systems are stand-alone applications which solve a specific measurement or detection problem, while others constitute a sub-system of a larger design which, for example, also contains sub-systems for control of mechanical actuators, planning, information databases, man-machine interfaces, etc. The specific implementation of a computer vision system also depends on if its functionality is pre-specified or if some part of it can be learned or modified during operation. Many functions are unique to the application. There are, however, typical functions which are found in many computer vision systems.

- **Image acquisition** – A digital image is produced by one or several image sensors, which, besides various types of light-sensitive cameras, include range sensors, tomography devices, radar, ultra-sonic cameras, etc. Depending on the type of sensor, the resulting image data is an ordinary 2D image, a 3D volume, or an image sequence. The pixel values typically correspond to light intensity in one or

several spectral bands (gray images or colour images), but can also be related to various physical measures, such as depth, absorption or reflectance of sonic or electromagnetic waves, or nuclear magnetic resonance.

- **Pre-processing** – Before a computer vision method can be applied to image data in order to extract some specific piece of information, it is usually necessary to process the data in order to assure that it satisfies certain assumptions implied by the method. Examples are
 - Re-sampling in order to assure that the image coordinate system is correct.
 - Noise reduction in order to assure that sensor noise does not introduce false information.
 - Contrast enhancement to assure that relevant information can be detected.
 - Scale space representation to enhance image structures at locally appropriate scales.

- **Feature extraction** – Image features at various levels of complexity are extracted from the image data. Typical examples of such features are
 - Lines, edges and ridges.
 - Localized interest points such as corners, blobs or points.More complex features may be related to texture, shape or motion.

- **Detection/segmentation** – At some point in the processing a decision is made about which image points or regions of the image are relevant for further processing. Examples are
 - Selection of a specific set of interest points
 - Segmentation of one or multiple image regions which contain a specific object of interest.

- **High-level processing** – At this step the input is typically a small set of data, for example a set of points or an image region which is assumed to contain a specific object. The remaining processing deals with, for example:
 - Verification that the data satisfy model-based and application specific assumptions.
 - Estimation of application specific parameters, such as object pose or object size.
 - Image recognition – classifying a detected object into different categories.
 - Image registration – comparing and combining two different views of the same object.

- **Decision making** Making the final decision required for the application, for example:
 - Pass/fail on automatic inspection applications
 - Match / no-match in recognition applications
 - Flag for further human review in medical, military, security and recognition applications

3.2. TRAFFIC SIGN DETECTION APPLICATION

As I started working on the Traffic sign recognition (TSR), I have been facing a big job to do. First of all, I had no idea about image processing and pattern detection. Therefore, this project opened a whole new world for me. Rather than building up on full of bugs classes I search web for existing libraries and I found a lot, like: CellProfiler, imageJ, FIJI, Endrov, Mango, OpenCV, GNU Octave, GemIdent, 3D Slicer, OsiriX, FreeSurfer, InVesalius, FMRIB Software Library and etc. But the best one for me was OpenCV. Because it is open source and has a lot of ports and rapidly developing.

3.3. OPENCV

OpenCV (Open Source Computer Vision Library) is a library of programming functions mainly aimed at real-time computer vision, developed by Intel, and now supported by Willow Garage and Itseez. It is free for use under the open source BSD license. The library is cross-platform. It focuses mainly on real-time image processing. If the library finds Intel's Integrated Performance Primitives on the system, it will use these proprietary optimized routines to accelerate itself.

Officially launched in 1999, the OpenCV project was initially an Intel Research initiative to advance CPU-intensive applications, part of a series of projects including real-time ray tracing and 3D display walls. The main contributors to the project included a number of optimization experts in Intel Russia, as well as Intel's Performance Library Team. In the early days of OpenCV, the goals of the project were described as

Advance vision research by providing not only open but also optimized code for basic vision infrastructure. No more reinventing the wheel.

Disseminate vision knowledge by providing a common infrastructure that developers could build on, so that code would be more readily readable and transferable.

Advance vision-based commercial applications by making portable, performance-optimized code available for free—with a license that did not require to be open or free themselves.

The first alpha version of OpenCV was released to the public at the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition in 2000, and five betas were released between 2001 and 2005. The first 1.0 version was released in 2006. In mid-2008, OpenCV obtained corporate support from Willow Garage, and is now again under active development. A version 1.1 "pre-release" was released in October 2008.

The second major release of the OpenCV was on October 2009. OpenCV 2 includes major changes to the C++ interface, aiming at easier, more type-safe patterns, new functions, and better implementations for existing ones in terms of performance (especially on multi-core systems). Official releases now occur every six months and development is now done by an independent Russian team supported by commercial corporations.

In August 2012, support for OpenCV was taken over by a non-profit foundation, OpenCV.org, which maintains a developer and user site.

OpenCV is written in C++ and its primary interface is in C++, but it still retains a less comprehensive though extensive older C interface. There are now full interfaces in Python, Java and MATLAB/OCTAVE (as of version 2.5). The API for these interfaces can be found in the online documentation. Wrappers in other languages such as C#, C#, Ruby have been developed to encourage adoption by a wider audience.

All of the new developments and algorithms in OpenCV are now developed in the C++ interface.

ACUDA-based GPU interface has been in progress since September 2010.

An OpenCL-based GPU interface has been in progress since October 2012, documentation for version 2.4.5 can be found here.

OpenCV runs on Windows, Android, Maemo, FreeBSD, OpenBSD, iOS, BlackBerry 10, Linux and OS X. The user can get official releases from SourceForge, or take the current snapshot under SVN from there. OpenCV uses CMake.

OpenCV has a modular structure, which means that the package includes several shared or static libraries. The following modules are available:

- core - a compact module defining basic data structures, including the dense multi-dimensional array `Mat` and basic functions used by all other modules.

- `imgproc` - an imageprocessing module that includes linear and non-linear image filtering, geometrical image transformations (resize, affine and perspective warping, generic table-based remapping), color space conversion, histograms, and soon.
 - `video` - a videoanalysis module that includes motion estimation, background subtraction, and object tracking algorithms.
 - `calib3d` - basic multiple-view geometry algorithms, single and stereocamera calibration, object pose estimation, stereo correspondence algorithms, and elements of 3D reconstruction.
 - `features2d` - salient feature detectors, descriptors, and descriptor matchers.
 - `objdetect` - detection of objects and instances of the predefined classes (for example, faces, eyes, mugs, people, cars, and soon).
 - `highgui` - an easy-to-use interface to video capturing, image and video codecs, as well as simple UI capabilities.
 - `gpu` - GPU-accelerated algorithms from different OpenCV modules.
- ... some other helper modules, such as FLANN and Google test wrappers, Python bindings, and others.

The further chapters of the document describe functionality of each module. But first, make sure to get familiar with the common API concepts used thoroughly in the library.

3.4. OPENCV ANDROID

OpenCV Manager is an Android service targeted to manage OpenCV library binaries on end users devices. It allows sharing the OpenCV dynamic libraries between applications on the same device. The Manager provides the following benefits:

1. Less memory usage. All apps use the same binaries from service and do not keep native libs inside themselves;
2. Hardware specific optimizations for all supported platforms;

3. Trusted OpenCV library source. All packages with OpenCV are published on GooglePlay market;
4. Regular updates and bug fixes;

Usage model for end user

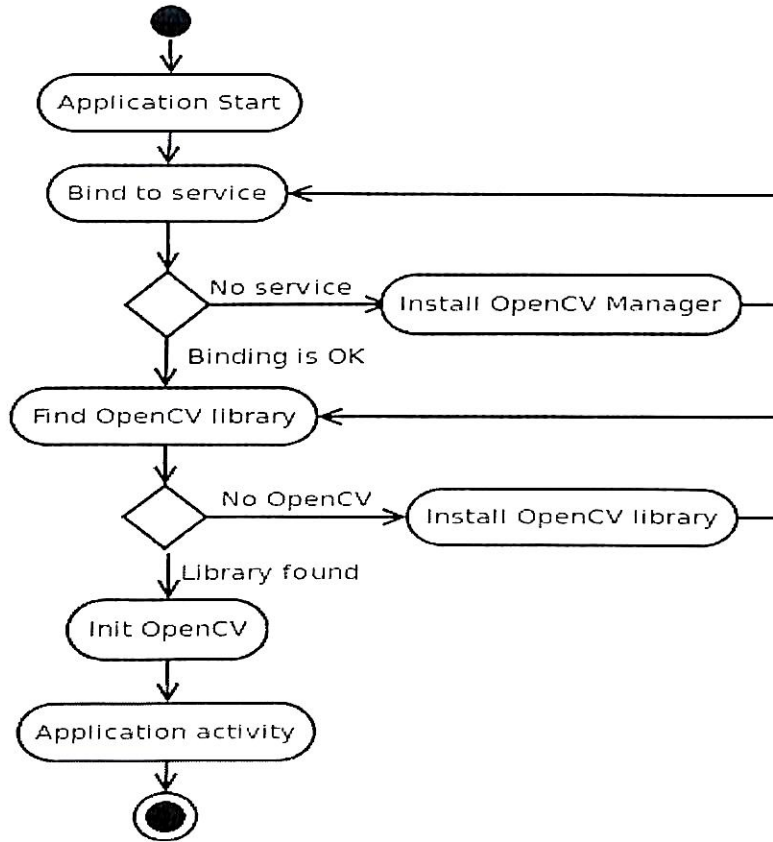


Figure10 – model for end user

First OpenCV app:

1. Any OpenCV-dependent app is installed from GooglePlay marketplace or manually;
2. At the first launch, it suggests installation of OpenCV Manager;
3. Then OpenCV Manager is downloaded and installed, using the GooglePlay application.
4. When Manager has been started, the application suggests installation of OpenCV library for the target device architecture if it is necessary;
5. After the installation is finished, the app may be launched.

Subsequent launches of OpenCV apps:

1. Any OpenCV-dependent app is installed from GooglePlay market or manually;

2. At the first launch, the app starts as usually;
3. If the selected OpenCV version is not installed, OpenCV Manager suggests installing OpenCV library for the target device through Google Play marketplace;
4. After the installation is finished, the app may be launched.

Architecture of OpenCV Manager

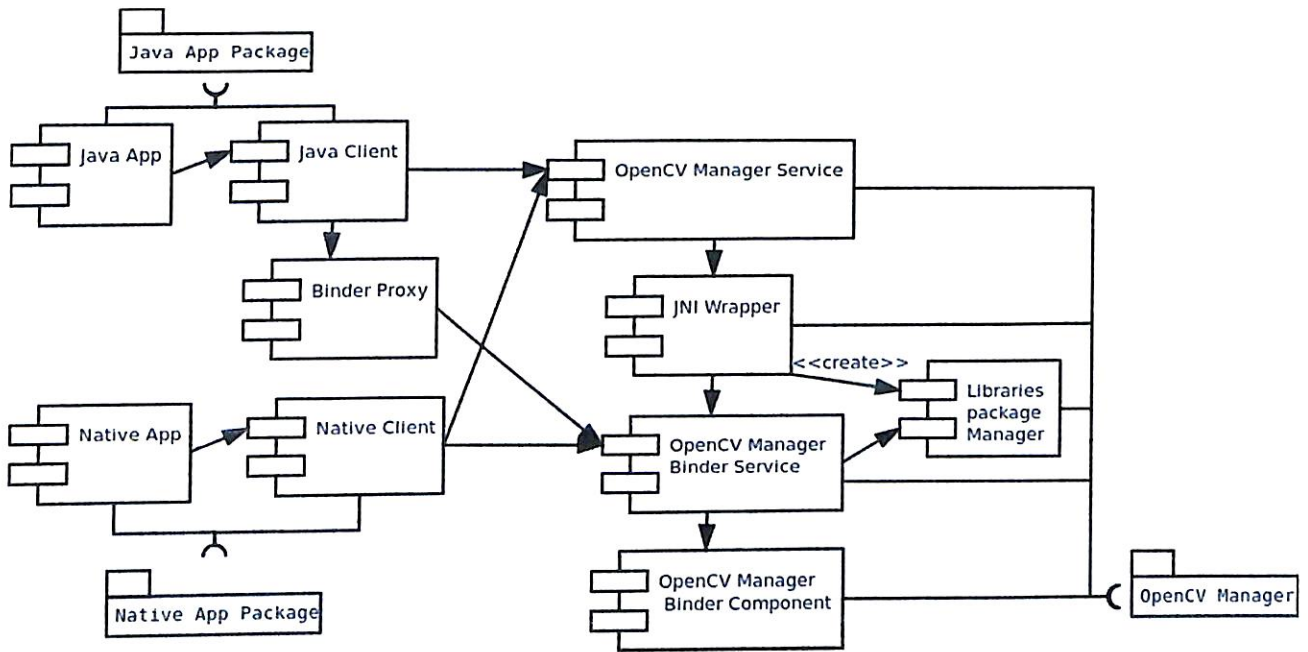


Figure 11 – openCV manager

3.5. OPENCV ANDROID CASCADE CLASSIFIER

Cascading is based on the concatenation of several classifiers, using all information collected from the output from a given classifier as additional information for the next classifier in the cascade. Unlike voting or stacking ensembles, which are multiexpert systems, cascading is a multistage one.

The work with a cascade classifier includes two major stages: training and detection. Detection stage is described in a documentation of objdetect module of general OpenCV documentation. Documentation gives some basic information about cascade classifier. Current guide is describing how to train a cascade classifier: preparation of a training data and running the training application.

There are two applications in OpenCV to train cascade classifier: `opencv_haartraining` and `opencv_traincascade`. `opencv_traincascade` is a newer version, written in C++ in accordance to OpenCV 2.x API. But the main difference between these two applications is that `opencv_traincascade` supports both Haar and LBP (Local Binary Patterns) features. LBP features are integer in contrast to Haar features, so both training and detection with LBP are several times faster than with Haar features. Regarding the LBP and Haar detection quality, it depends on training: the quality of training dataset first of all and training parameters too. It's possible to train a LBP-based classifier that will provide almost the same quality as Haar-based one.

`opencv_traincascade` and `opencv_haartraining` store the trained classifier in different file formats. Note, the newer cascade detection interface supports both formats. `opencv_traincascade` can save (export) a trained cascade in the older format. But `opencv_traincascade` and `opencv_haartraining` cannot load (import) a classifier in another format for further training after interruption.

Note that `opencv_traincascade` application can use TBB for multi-threading. To use it in multicore mode OpenCV must be built with TBB.

Also there are some auxiliary utilities related to the training.

- `opencv_createsamples` is used to prepare a training dataset of positive and test samples. `opencv_createsamples` produces dataset of positive samples in a format that is supported by both `opencv_haartraining` and `opencv_traincascade` applications. The output is a file with `*.vec` extension, it is a binary format which contains images.
- `opencv_performance` may be used to evaluate the quality of classifiers, but for trained by `opencv_haartraining` only. It takes a collection of marked up images, runs the classifier and reports the performance, i.e. number of found objects, number of missed objects, number of false alarms and other information.

Since `opencv_haartraining` is an obsolete application, only `opencv_traincascade` will be described further. `opencv_createsamples` utility is needed to prepare a training data for `opencv_traincascade`, so it will be described too.

For training we need a set of samples. There are two types of samples: negative and positive. Negative samples correspond to non-object images. Positive samples correspond to images with detected objects. Set of negative samples must be prepared manually, whereas set of positive samples is created using `opencv_createsamples` utility.

Negative samples are taken from arbitrary images. These images must not contain detected objects. Negative samples are enumerated in a special file. It is a text file in which each line contains an image filename (relative to the directory of the description file) of negative sample image. This file must be created manually. Note that negative samples and sample images are also called background samples or background samples images, and are used interchangeably in this document. Described images may be of different sizes. But each image should be (but not necessarily) larger than a training window size, because these images are used to subsample negative image to the training size.

An example of description file:

Directory structure:

```
/img  
img1.jpg  
img2.jpg  
bg.txt
```

File `bg.txt`:

```
img/img1.jpg  
img/img2.jpg
```

Positive samples are created by `opencv_createsamples` utility. They may be created from a single image with object or from a collection of previously marked up images.

Please note that you need a large dataset of positive samples before you give it to the mentioned utility, because it only applies perspective transformation. For example you may need only one positive sample for absolutely rigid object like an OpenCV logo, but you definitely need hundreds and even thousands of positive samples for faces. In the case of faces you should consider all the race and age groups, emotions and perhaps beard styles.

So, a single object image may contain a company logo. Then a large set of positive samples is created from the given object image by random rotating, changing the logo intensity as well as placing the logo on arbitrary background. The amount and range of randomness can be controlled by command line arguments of `opencv_createsamples` utility.

Command line arguments:

- `-vec <vec_file_name>`

Name of the output file containing the positive samples for training.

- `-img <image_file_name>`

Source object image (e.g., a company logo).

- `-bg <background_file_name>`

Background description file; contains a list of images which are used as a background for randomly distorted versions of the object.

- `-num <number_of_samples>`

Number of positive samples to generate.

- `-bgcolor <background_color>`

Background color (currently grayscale images are assumed); the background color denotes the transparent color. Since there might be compression artifacts, the amount of color tolerance can be specified by `bgthresh`. All pixels withing `bgcolor-bgthresh` and `bgcolor+bgthresh` range are interpreted as transparent.

- `-bgthresh <background_color_threshold>`

- `-inv`

If specified, colors will be inverted.

- `-randinv`

If specified, colors will be inverted randomly.

- `-maxidev <max_intensity_deviation>`

Maximal intensity deviation of pixels in foreground samples.

- `-maxxangle <max_x_rotation_angle>`

- `-maxyangle <max_y_rotation_angle>`

- `-maxzangle <max_z_rotation_angle>`

Maximum rotation angles must be given in radians.

- `-show`

Useful debugging option. If specified, each sample will be shown. Pressing `Esc` will continue the samples creation process without.

- `-w <sample_width>`

Width (in pixels) of the output samples.

- -h <sample_height>

Height (in pixels) of the output samples.

For following procedure is used to create a sample object instance: The source image is rotated randomly around all three axes. The chosen angle is limited by `-max?angle`. Then pixels having the intensity from `[bg_color - bg_color_threshold; bg_color + bg_color_threshold]` range are interpreted as transparent. White noise is added to the intensities of the foreground. If the `-inv` key is specified then foreground pixel intensities are inverted. If `-randinv` key is specified then algorithm randomly selects whether inversion should be applied to this sample. Finally, the obtained image is placed onto an arbitrary background from the background description file, resized to the desired size specified by `-w` and `-h` and stored to the `vec-file`, specified by the `-vec` command line option.

Positive samples also may be obtained from a collection of previously marked up images. This collection is described by a text file similar to background description file. Each line of this file corresponds to an image. The first element of the line is the filename. It is followed by the number of object instances. The following numbers are the coordinates of objects bounding rectangles (x, y, width, height).

An example of description file:

Directory structure:

```
/img
  img1.jpg
  img2.jpg
  info.dat
```

File info.dat:

```
img/img1.jpg 1 140 100 45 45
img/img2.jpg 2 100 200 50 50 50 30 25 25
```

Image `img1.jpg` contains single object instance with the following coordinates of bounding rectangle: (140, 100, 45, 45). Image `img2.jpg` contains two object instances.

In order to create positive samples from such collection, `-info` argument should be specified instead of `-img`:

- `-info <collection_file_name>`

Description file of marked up images collection.

The scheme of samples creation in this case is as follows. The object instances are taken from images. Then they are resized to target samples size and stored in output `vec`-file. No distortion is applied, so the only affecting arguments are `-w`, `-h`, `-show` and `-num`.

`opencv_createsamples` utility may be used for examining samples stored in positive samples file. In order to do this only `-vec`, `-w` and `-h` parameters should be specified.

Note that for training, it does not matter how `vec`-files with positive samples are generated. But `opencv_createsamples` utility is the only one way to collect/create a vector file of positive samples, provided by OpenCV.

Example of `vec`-file is available here `opencv/data/vec_files/trainingfaces_24-24.vec`. It can be used to train a face detector with the following window size: `-w 24 -h 24`.

The next step is the training of classifier. As mentioned above `opencv_traincascade` or `opencv_haartraining` may be used to train a cascade classifier, but only the newer `opencv_traincascade` will be described further.

Command line arguments of `opencv_traincascade` application grouped by purposes:

1. Common arguments:

- `-data <cascade_dir_name>`

Where the trained classifier should be stored.

- `-vec <vec_file_name>`

vec-file with positive samples (created by `opencv_createsamples` utility).

- `-bg <background_file_name>`

Background description file.

- `-numPos <number_of_positive_samples>`

- `-numNeg <number_of_negative_samples>`

Number of positive/negative samples used in training for every classifier stage.

- `-numStages <number_of_stages>`

Number of cascade stages to be trained.

- `-precalcValBufSize<precalculated_vals_buffer_size_in_Mb>`

Size of buffer for precalculated feature values (in Mb).

- `-precalcIdxBufSize<precalculated_idx_buffer_size_in_Mb>`

Size of buffer for precalculated feature indices (in Mb). The more memory you have the faster the training process.

- `-baseFormatSave`

This argument is actual in case of Haar-like features. If it is specified, the cascade will be saved in the old format.

2. Cascade parameters:

- `-stageType <BOOST(default)>`

Type of stages. Only boosted classifier are supported as a stage type at the moment.

- `-featureType<{HAAR(default), LBP}>`

Type of features: HAAR - Haar-like features, LBP - local binary patterns.

- `-w <sampleWidth>`

- `-h <sampleHeight>`

Size of training samples (in pixels). Must have exactly the same values as used during training samples creation (`opencv_createsamples` utility).

3. Boosted classifier parameters:

- `-bt <{DAB, RAB, LB, GAB(default)}>`

Type of boosted classifiers: DAB - Discrete AdaBoost, RAB - Real AdaBoost, LB - LogitBoost, GAB - Gentle AdaBoost.

- `-minHitRate <min_hit_rate>`

Minimal desired hit rate for each stage of the classifier. Overall hit rate may be estimated as $(\text{min_hit_rate}^{\text{number_of_stages}})$.

- `-maxFalseAlarmRate <max_false_alarm_rate>`

Maximal desired false alarm rate for each stage of the classifier. Overall false alarm rate may be estimated as $(\text{max_false_alarm_rate}^{\text{number_of_stages}})$.

- `-weightTrimRate <weight_trim_rate>`

Specifies whether trimming should be used and its weight. A decent choice is 0.95.

- `-maxDepth <max_depth_of_weak_tree>`

Maximal depth of a weak tree. A decent choice is 1, that is case of stumps.

- `-maxWeakCount <max_weak_tree_count>`

Maximal count of weak trees for every cascade stage. The boosted classifier (stage) will have so many weak trees ($\leq \text{maxWeakCount}$), as needed to achieve the given `-maxFalseAlarmRate`.

4. Haar-like feature parameters:

- `-mode <BASIC (default) | CORE | ALL>`

Selects the type of Haar features set used in training. BASIC use only upright features, while ALL uses the full set of upright and 45 degree rotated feature set.

5. Local Binary Patterns parameters:

Local Binary Patterns don't have parameters.

After the `opencv_traincascade` application has finished its work, the trained cascade will be saved in `cascade.xml` file in the folder, which was passed as `-dataparameter`. Other files in this folder are created for the case of interrupted training, so you may delete them after completion of training.

Training is finished and you can test you cascade classifier!

3.6.ANDROID SDK & NDK

Android software development is the process by which new applications are created for the Android operating system. Applications are usually developed in the Java programming language using the Android Software Development Kit, but other

other development tools are available. As of October 2012, more than 700,000 applications have been developed for Android, with over 25 billion downloads. A June 2011 research indicated that over 67% of mobile developers used the platform, at the time of publication. In Q2 2012; around 105 million units of Android smartphones were shipped which acquires a total share of 68% in overall smartphones sale till Q2 2012.

The Android software development kit (SDK) includes a comprehensive set of development tools. These include a debugger, libraries, a handset emulator based on QEMU, documentation, sample code, and tutorials. Currently supported development platforms include computers running Linux (any modern desktop Linux distribution),

MacOS X 10.5.8 or later, Windows XP or later; for the moment one cannot develop Android software on Android itself. The officially supported integrated development environment (IDE) is Eclipse using the Android Development Tools (ADT) Plugin, though IntelliJ IDEA IDE (all editions) fully supports Android development out of the box, and NetBeans IDE also supports Android development via a plugin. Additionally, developers may use any text editor to edit Java and XML files, then use command line tools (Java Development Kit and Apache Ant are required) to create, build and debug Android applications as well as control attached Android devices (e.g., triggering a reboot, installing software package(s) remotely).

Enhancements to Android's SDK go hand in hand with the overall Android platform development. The SDK also supports older versions of the Android platform in case developers wish to target their applications at older devices. Development tools are downloadable components, so after one has downloaded the latest version and platform, older platforms and tools can also be downloaded for compatibility testing.

Android applications are packaged in .apk format and stored under /data/app folder on the Android OS (the folder is accessible only to the root user for security reasons). APK package contains .dex files (compiled bytecode files called Dalvik executables), resource files, etc.

The Android Debug Bridge (ADB) is a toolkit included in the Android SDK package. It consists of both client and server-side programs that communicate with one another. The ADB is typically accessed through the command-line interface.

The format for issuing commands through the ADB is typically:

```
adb [-d|-e|-s <serialNumber>] <command>
```

In a security issue reported in March 2011, ADB was targeted as a vector to attempt to install a rootkit on connected phones using a "resource exhaustion attack".

Fastboot is a diagnostic protocol included with the SDK package used primarily to modify the flash filesystem via a USB connection from host computer. It requires that the device be started in a boot loader or Second Program Loader mode in which only the most basic hardware initialization is performed. After enabling the protocol on the device itself, it will accept a specific set of commands sent to it via USB using a command line. Some of the most commonly used fastboot commands include:

- flash - Rewrites a partition with a binary image stored on the host computer.
- erase - Erases a specific partition.
- reboot - Reboots the device into either the main operating system, the system recovery partition or back into its bootloader.
- devices - Displays a list of all devices (with the serial number) connected to the host computer.
- format - Format a specific partition. The file system of the partition must be recognized by the device.

Libraries written in C and other languages can be compiled to ARM, MIPS or x86 native code and installed using the Android Native Development Kit. Native classes can be called from Java code running under the Dalvik VM using the `System.loadLibrary` call, which is part of the standard Android Java classes.

Complete applications can be compiled and installed using traditional development tools. The ADB debugger gives a root shell under the Android Emulator which allows native ARM, MIPS or x86 code to be uploaded and executed. Native code can be compiled using GCC on a standard PC. Running native code is complicated by Android's use of a non-standard C library (libc, known as Bionic). The underlying graphics device is available as a framebuffer at `/dev/graphics/fb0`. The graphics library that Android uses to arbitrate and control access to this device is called the Skia Graphics Library (SGL), and it has been released under an open source licence. Skia has backends for both Win32 and Unix, allowing the development of cross-platform applications, and it is the graphics engine underlying the Google Chrome web browser.

Unlike Java application development based on the Eclipse IDE, the NDK is based on command-line tools and requires invoking them manually to build, deploy and debug the apps. Several third-party tools allow integrating the NDK into Eclipse and Visual Studio.

The NDK is a toolset that allows you to implement parts of your app using native-code languages such as C and C++. For certain types of apps, this can be helpful so you can reuse existing code libraries written in these languages, but most apps do not need the Android NDK.

Before downloading the NDK, you should understand that the NDK will not benefit most apps. As a developer, you need to balance its benefits against its drawbacks. Notably, using native code on Android generally does not result in a noticeable performance improvement, but it always increases your app complexity. In general, you should only use the NDK if it is essential to your app—never because you simply prefer to program in C/C++.

The Android framework provides two ways to use native code:

Write your application using the Android framework and use JNI to access the APIs provided by the Android NDK. This technique allows you to take advantage of

the convenience of the Android framework, but still allows you to write native code when necessary. If you use this approach, your application must target specific, minimum Android platform levels, see [Android platform compatibility](#) for more information.

Write a native activity, which allows you to implement the lifecycle callbacks in native code. The Android SDK provides the `NativeActivity` class, which is a convenience class that notifies your native code of any activity lifecycle callbacks (`onCreate()`, `onPause()`, `onResume()`, etc). You can implement the callbacks in your native code to handle these events when they occur. Applications that use native activities must be run on Android 2.3 (API Level 9) or later.

You cannot access features such as Services and Content Providers natively, so if you want to use them or any other framework API, you can still write JNI code to do so.

Typical good candidates for the NDK are self-contained, CPU-intensive operations that don't allocate much memory, such as signal processing, physics simulation, and soon. When examining whether or not you should develop in native code, think about your requirements and see if the Android framework APIs provide the functionality that you need.

The NDK includes a set of cross-toolchains (compilers, linkers, etc..) that can generate native ARM binaries on Linux, OS X, and Windows (with Cygwin) platforms.

It provides a set of system headers for stable native APIs that are guaranteed to be supported in all later releases of the platform:

- `libc` (C library) headers
- `libm` (math library) headers
- JNI interface headers
- `libz` (Zlib compression) headers
- `liblog` (Android logging) header

- OpenGL ES 1.1 and OpenGL ES 2.0 (3D graphics libraries) headers
- libjngraphics (Pixel buffer access) header (for Android 2.2 and above).
- A Minimal set of headers for C++ support
- OpenSL ES nativeaudio libraries
- Android nativeapplication APIS

The NDK also provides a build system that lets you work efficiently with your sources, without having to handle the toolchain/platform/CPU/ABI details. You create very short build files to describe which sources to compile and which Android application will use them — the build system compiles the sources and places the shared libraries directly in your application project.

The Android 3.1 platform (also backported to Android 2.3.4) introduces Android Open Accessory support, which allows external USB hardware (an Android USB accessory) to interact with an Android-powered device in a special "accessory" mode. When an Android-powered device is in accessory mode, the connected accessory acts as the USB host (powers the bus and enumerates devices) and the Android-powered device acts as the USB device. Android USB accessories are specifically designed to attach to Android-powered devices and adhere to a simple protocol (Android accessory protocol) that allows them to detect Android-powered devices that support accessory mode.

Android is created by the Open Handset Alliance which is led by Google. The early feedback on developing applications for the Android platform was mixed. Issues cited include bugs, lack of documentation, inadequate QA infrastructure, and no public issue-tracking system. (Google announced an issue tracker on 18 January 2008.) In December 2007, MergeLab mobile startup founder Adam MacBeth stated, "Functionality is not there, is poorly documented or just doesn't work... It's clearly not ready for prime time." Despite this, Android-targeted applications began to appear the week after the platform was announced. The first publicly available application was the Snake game. The Android Dev Phone is a SIM-unlocked and hardware-unlocked device that is designed for advanced developers. While developers can use

regular consumer devices purchased at retail to test and use their applications, some developers may choose not to use a retail device, preferring an unlocked or no-contract device.

A preview release of the Android SDK was released on 12 November 2007. On 15 July 2008, the Android Developer Challenge Team accidentally sent an email to all entrants in the Android Developer Challenge announcing that a new release of the SDK was available in a "private" download area. The email was intended for winners of the first round of the Android Developer Challenge. The revelation that Google was supplying new SDK releases to some developers and not others (and keeping this arrangement private) led to widely reported frustration within the Android developer community at the time.

On 18 August 2008, the Android 0.9 SDK beta was released. This release provided an updated and extended API, improved development tools and an updated design for the home screen. Detailed instructions for upgrading are available to those already working with an earlier release. On 23 September 2008, the Android 1.0 SDK (Release 1) was released. According to the release notes, it included "mainly bug fixes, although some smaller features were added." It also included several API changes from the 0.9 version. Multiple versions have been released since it was developed.

3.7. OpenCV train cascade

The OpenCV library provides us a greatly interesting demonstration for a face detection. Furthermore, it provides us programs (or functions) that they used to train classifiers for their face detection system, called Haar Training, so that we can create our own object classifiers using these functions. It is interesting.

However, I could not follow how OpenCV developers performed the Haar training for their face detection system exactly because they did not provide us several information such as what images and parameters they used for training. The objective of this report is to provide step-by-step procedures for following people.

My working environment is Visual Studio + cygwin on Windows 7, or on Ubuntu. The cygwin is required because I use several UNIX commands. I am sure that you will use the cygwin (especially I mean UNIX commands) not only for this haartraining but also for others in the future if you are one of engineer or science people.

3.7.1. Data Preperation

For data I search up the internet and found wonderful dataset of traffic signs. Just here <http://benchmark.ini.rub.de/?section=gtsrb&subsection=dataset>

Positive Images

We need to collect positive images that contain only objects of interest, e.g., signs. For tha we use linux command which goes throu folder and saves name, width and height of images.

```
find <dir> -name '*.<ext>' -exec identify -format '%i 1 0  
0 %w %h' \{\} \; > <description_file>
```

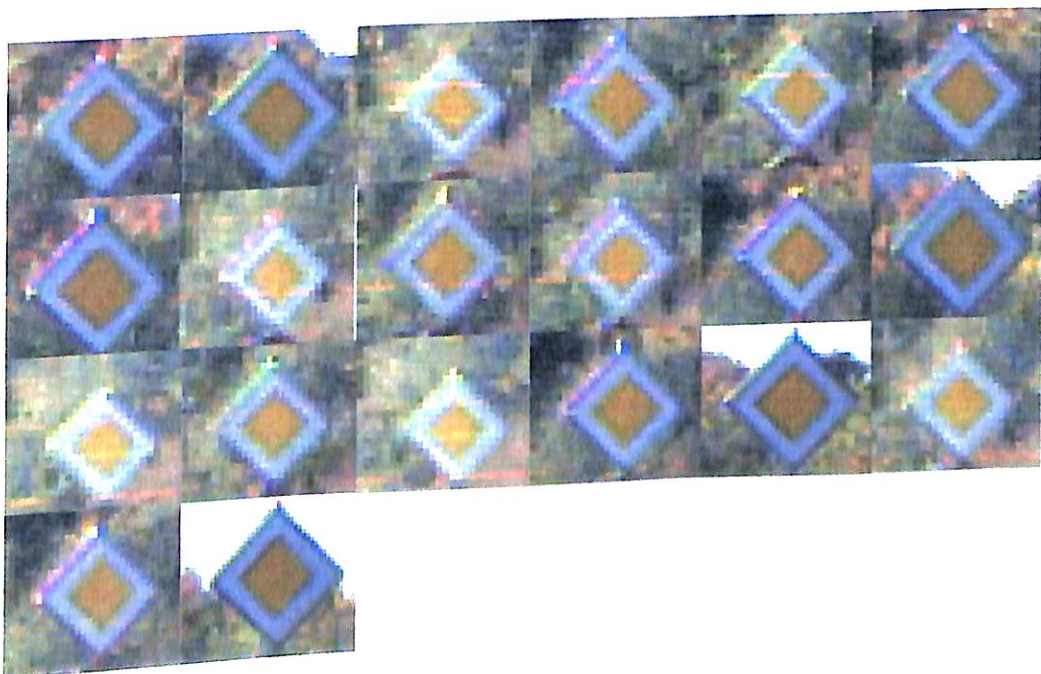


Figure 12 – postivie samples

3.7.2. NegativeImages

Also called background images. We need to collect negative images that does not contain objects of interest, e.g., faces to train haarcascade classifier. It contains various places which does not contain signs.

```
find negative -name '*.jpg' > negative.dat
```

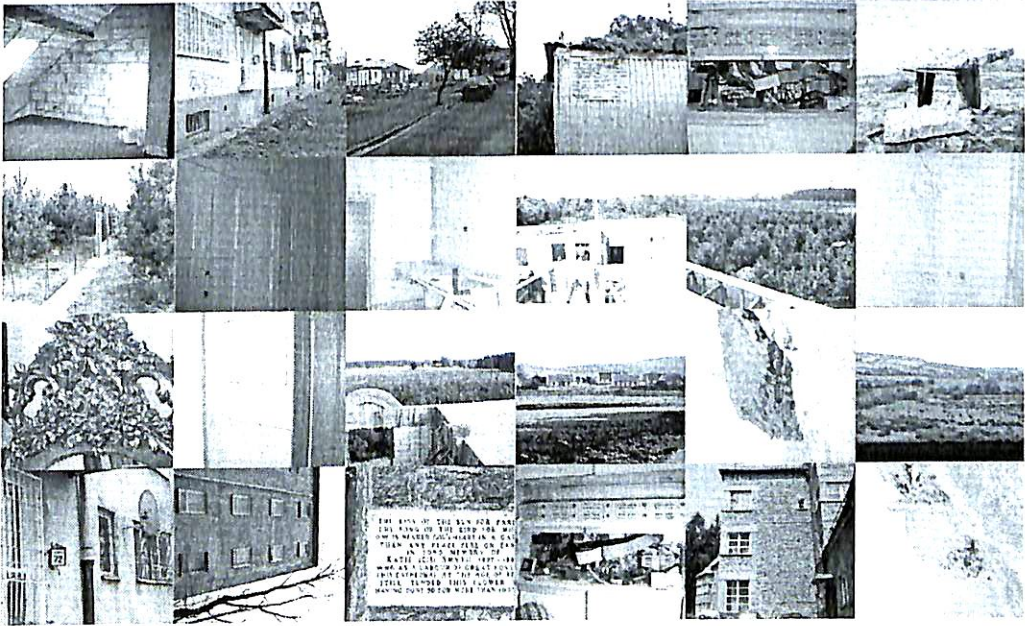


Figure 13 –negative samples

3.7.3. Create Samples

This is a list of options, but there are mainly four functions and the meanings of options become different in different functions. It confuses us.

```
Usage: ./createsamples
```

```
[-info<description_file_name>]
```

```
[-img <image_file_name>]
```

```
[-vec<vec_file_name>]
```

```
[-bg <background_file_name>]
```

```

[-num <number_of_samples = 1000>]

[-bgcolor <background_color = 0>]

[-inv] [-randinv] [-bgthresh<background_color_threshold
= 80>]

[-maxidev <max_intensity_deviation = 40>]

[-maxxangle<max_x_rotation_angle = 1.100000>]

[-maxyangle<max_y_rotation_angle = 1.100000>]

[-maxzangle<max_z_rotation_angle = 0.500000>]

[-show [<scale = 4.000000>]]

[-w <sample_width = 24>]

[-h<sample_height = 24>]

```

For example,

```

$ createsamples -info samples.dat -vec samples.vec -w 20 -h 20

```

This generates samples without applying distortions. You may think this function as a file format conversion function.

The format of the <description_file_of_samples> is as follows:

```

[filename] [# of objects] [[xy widthheight] [... 2nd object] ...]
[filename] [# of objects] [[xy widthheight] [... 2nd object] ...]
[filename] [# of objects] [[xy widthheight] [... 2nd object] ...]

```

```
H:\training>opencv_createsamples -info positive.dat -
vec positive.vec -h 20 -w 20
Info file name: positive.dat
Img file name: (NULL)
Vec file name: positive.vec
BG file name: (NULL)
Num: 1000
BG color: 0
BG threshold: 80
Invert: FALSE
Max intensity deviation: 40
Maxxangle: 1.1
Maxyangle: 1.1
Maxzangle: 0.5
Showsamples: FALSE
Width: 20
Height: 20
Createtrainingsamplesfromimagescollection...
positive.dat(701) : parseerrorDone. Created 700 samples
```

5.5.2. CascadeTraining

```
H:\training>opencv_traincascaded
Usage: opencv_traincascaded
-data<cascade_dir_name>
-vec<vec_file_name>
-bg <background_file_name>
[-numPos <number_of_positive_samples = 2000>]
[-numNeg <number_of_negative_samples = 1000>]
[-numStages <number_of_stages = 20>]
```

```

[-
precalcValBufSize<precalculated_vals_buffer_size_in_Mb =
256>]
[-
precalcIdxBufSize<precalculated_idx_buffer_size_in_Mb =
256>]
[-baseFormatSave]
--cascadeParams--
[-stageType<BOOST(default)>]
[-featureType<{HAAR(default), LBP, HOG}>]
[-w <sampleWidth = 24>]
[-h<sampleHeight = 24>]
--boostParams--
[-bt <{DAB, RAB, LB, GAB(default)}>]
[-minHitRate<min_hit_rate> = 0.995>]
[-maxFalseAlarmRate<max_false_alarm_rate = 0.5>]
[-weightTrimRate<weight_trim_rate = 0.95>]
[-maxDepth<max_depth_of_weak_tree = 1>]
[-maxWeakCount <max_weak_tree_count = 100>]
--haarFeatureParams--
[-mode<BASIC(default) | CORE | ALL
--lbpFeatureParams--
--HOGFeatureParams--

```

```

H:\training>opencv_traincascaded -datacascade -
vecpositive.vec -bg negative.dat -numPos 500 -numNeg 700
-numStages 5 -featureType LBP -w 20 -h 20 -modeALL

```

PARAMETERS:

```

cascadeDirName: cascade
vecFileName: positive.vec

```

```

bgFileName: negative.dat
numPos: 500
numNeg: 700
numStages: 5
precalcValBufSize [Mb] : 256
precalcIdxBufSize [Mb] : 256
stageType: BOOST
featureType: LBP
sampleWidth: 20
sampleHeight: 20
boostType: GAB
minHitRate: 0.995
maxFalseAlarmRate: 0.5
weightTrimRate: 0.95
maxDepth: 1
maxWeakCount: 100

```

==== TRAINING 0-stage =====

<BEGIN

```

POS count : consumed    500 : 500
NEG count : acceptanceRatio    700 : 1
Precalculation time: 0.928

```

N	HR	FA
1	1	1
2	0.996	0.04

END>

==== TRAINING 1-stage ====

<BEGIN

POS count : consumed 500 : 502

NEG count : acceptanceRatio 700 : 0.185185

Precalculation time: 0.931

```
+-----+-----+-----+
| N | HR | FA |
+-----+-----+-----+
| 1 | 1 | 1 |
+-----+-----+-----+
| 2 | 1 | 0.09 |
+-----+-----+-----+
```

END>

==== TRAINING 2-stage ====

<BEGIN

POS count : consumed 500 : 502

NEG count : acceptanceRatio 700 : 0.0590369

Precalculation time: 0.932

```
+-----+-----+-----+
| N | HR | FA |
+-----+-----+-----+
| 1 | 1 | 1 |
+-----+-----+-----+
| 2 | 0.998 | 0.121429 |
+-----+-----+-----+
```

END>

==== TRAINING 3-stage ====

<BEGIN

POS count : consumed 500 : 503

NEG count : acceptanceRatio 700 : 0.0226537

Precalculation time: 0.928

```
+-----+-----+-----+
|  N  |    HR  |    FA  |
+-----+-----+-----+
|  1  |    1  |    1  |
+-----+-----+-----+
|  2  |    1  | 0.114286 |
+-----+-----+-----+
```

END>

==== TRAINING 4-stage ====

<BEGIN

POS count : consumed 500 : 503

NEG count : acceptanceRatio 700 : 0.00519211

Precalculation time: 0.932

```
+-----+-----+-----+
|  N  |    HR  |    FA  |
+-----+-----+-----+
|  1  |    1  |    1  |
+-----+-----+-----+
|  2  | 0.996 | 0.138571 |
+-----+-----+-----+
```

END>

==== TRAINING 5-stage ====

<BEGIN

POS count : consumed 500 : 505

```

+-----+-----+-----+
|    1 |           1 |           1 |
+-----+-----+-----+
|    2 |    0.996 | 0.185714 |
+-----+-----+-----+

```

END>

Stages 0-4 are loaded

After this training we will get cascade.xml file, which contains all training data in it.

We will use it further work with opencv android.

5.6. Android Project

Android application uses opencv 2.4.5 version for android. For the base i took face detection example, it is very similar to my application. At first time i use java code for camera detection, but it was too slow, and i managed to write native code which implements camera view. As it was expected, performance grew up very high it was approximately 10-20 fps.

Cascade files, images, and audio notification of signs were placed into assets folder in project and loaded like this:

```

// load cascade file
String [] cascadeFiles = assetManager.list(CASCADE_DIR);
for(String s : cascadeFiles){
    Log.i("Raw Asset: ", s);
    InputStream is = assetManager.open(CASCADE_DIR+File.separator+s);
    File cascadeDir = getDir(CASCADE_DIR, Context.MODE_PRIVATE);
    File mCascadeFile = new File(cascadeDir, s);
    FileOutputStream os = new FileOutputStream(mCascadeFile);
    byte[] buffer = new byte[4096];
    int bytesRead2;
    while ((bytesRead2 = is.read(buffer)) != -1) {
        os.write(buffer, 0, bytesRead2);
    }
    is.close();
    os.close();
    DetectionBasedTracker cc = new DetectionBasedTracker(mCascadeFile.getAbsolutePath(), 0);
    cascades.put(cc, s);
    cascadeDir.delete();
}

```

Detection phase was in native side for better performance of mobile phone. It written in on C++ code, using C++ library of opencv 2.4.5. Native C++ is located in jni folder.

```
JNIEXPORT void JNICALL Java_kz_balancy_leadmyway_DetectionBasedTracker_nativeDetect
(JNIEnv * jenv, jclass, jlong thiz, jlong imageGray, jlong faces){
LOGD("Java_kz_balancy_leadmyway_DetectionBasedTracker_nativeDetect enter");
try{
    vector<Rect> RectFaces;
    ((DetectionBasedTracker *)thiz)->process(((Mat *)imageGray));
    ((DetectionBasedTracker *)thiz)->getObjects(RectFaces);
    vector_Rect_to_Mat(RectFaces, *((Mat *)faces));
} catch(cv::Exception& e){
    LOGD("nativeCreateObject caught cv::Exception: %s", e.what());
    jclass je = jenv->FindClass("org/opencv/core/CvException");
    if(!je) {
        je = jenv->FindClass("java/lang/Exception");
    }
    jenv->ThrowNew(je, e.what());
} catch (...){
    LOGD("nativeDetect caught unknown exception");
    jclass je = jenv->FindClass("java/lang/Exception");
    jenv->ThrowNew(je, "Unknown exception in JNI code
{highgui::VideoCapture_n_1VideoCapture__()}");
}
LOGD("Java_kz_balancy_leadmyway_DetectionBasedTracker_nativeDetect exit");
}
```

5.7.REAL – TIME TESTING

After training some signs samples. I make my application run. It was wonderful how to recognize the signs. I make linear layout for left bar to show current recognized sign and some voice notification. Voice notification is because the driver can't always look to phone it rather be good if there will be some voice notifications. So here are some examples how it recognizes the signs.

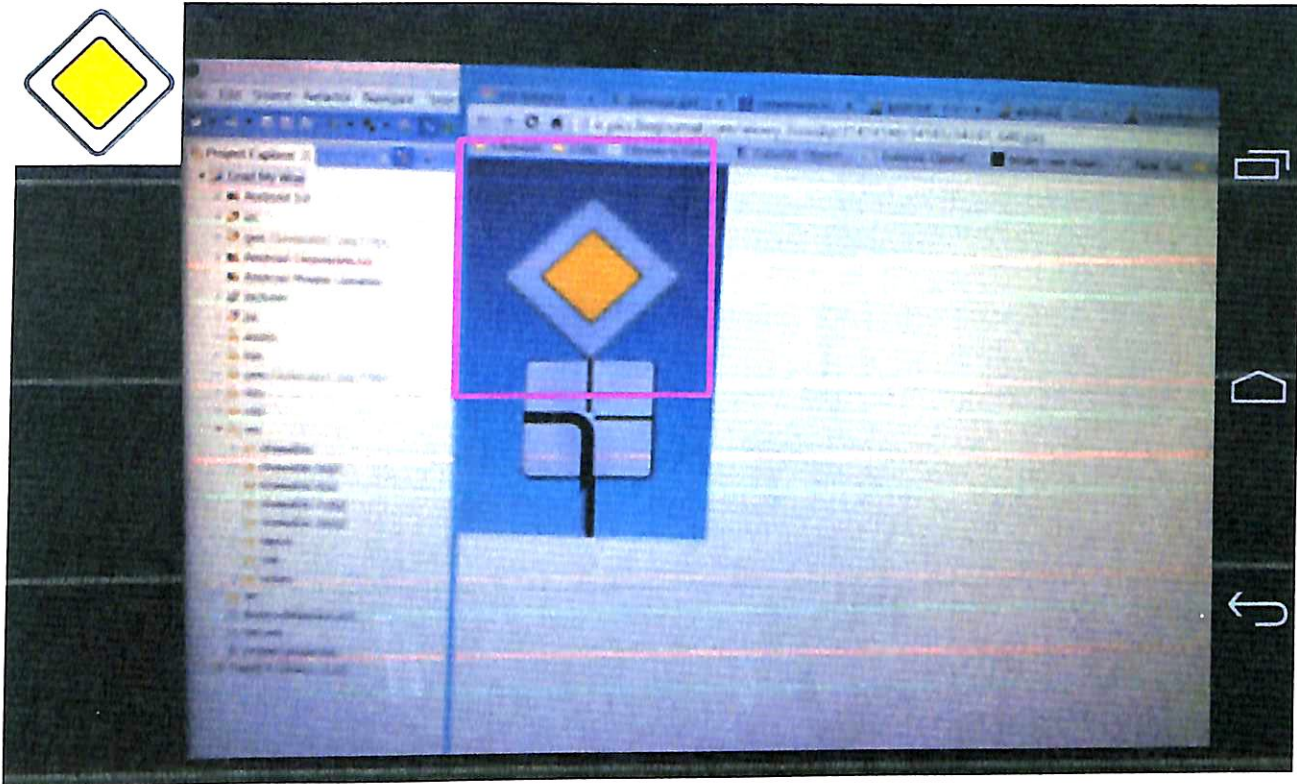


Figure 14 – main road recognized

Here my phone recognized main road sign. And draw some rectangular stroke in order to show what it recognize.



Figure 15 – Traffic sign

Here it recognizes the Give way. By the way, its not complete project. So there were some bugs while recognizing signs. Some time it just not recognize, some times it recognize something that is not what i want.

The solution to this is more and more positive samples. This samples are need to traing a lot. The more positiive samples we have, the more presize it will recognize the sings.

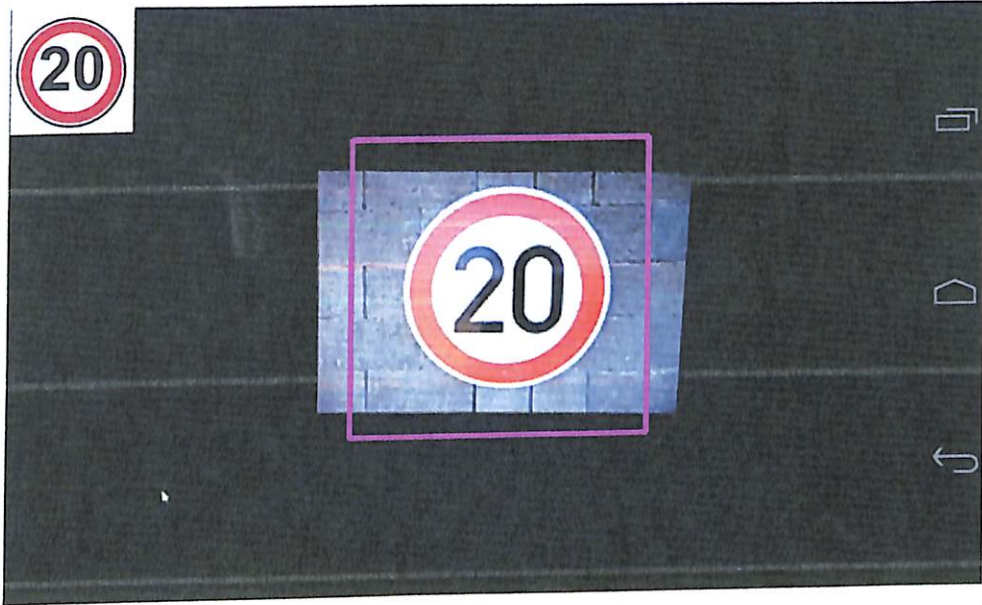


Figure 16 – 20km

CONCLUSION

Throughout the past academic year the developer has put his efforts into this application, which is not finished but has made some important steps forward. At this moment the project is not in an ideal form but developers plan to keep improving it until the final presentation.

The purpose of the project is to add essential features that can increase safety for drivers, passengers and other members of the public. Therefore it would be beneficial to finish and keep improving the project in future. So this project could be considered as a pioneer in the traffic sign detection field. While designing and implementing this application, the developer has gained a valuable experience and knowledge in image analysis and image processing. The project has covered many different fields like Android application development, Hough transform implementation, different types of edge detection, pattern recognition and of course testing of the application.

So far, the application works well on the hand phone. It can detect standard traffic sign during day time. If mobiles are equipped with faster processor and larger amounts of memory, the application might work on the car with additional web camera attached to the front of the car. It is possible to implement the project using other programming language for faster running, or use other more efficient image processing technique that uses less CPU resources and memory to make the project work faster.

Also, it is planned to work on time calculation and prediction of time that the next signal will light up. It is not useful to use fixed timing because the pattern of signals and time of the signals can be different in different countries, cities and even streets, but we could make adaptive or learning systems.

REFERENCES

1. ImageProcessing And Pattern Recognition Fundamentals and Techniques Frank Y. Shih, 2010.
2. О состоянии учета дорожно-транспортных происшествий за 4 месяца 2013 года -<http://goo.gl/AgUAb>, 17 may 2013.
3. Digital Picture Processing, Azriel Rosenfeld and Avinash K.,AcademicPress, 1982.
4. Robot Vision, Berthold Klaus Paul Horn,MITPress. 1986
5. DominantLocal Binary Patternsfor Texture Classification , LiaoS.,LawM.W.K. andChungA.C.S., 2009.
6. Dynamic Texture RecognitionUsingLocal Binary Patternswith an Applicationto Facial Expressions, Zhao, G. AndPietikäinenM.,IEEETrans. Pattern Analysis and MachineIntelligence, 2007.
7. Local Gabor Binary Pattern Histogram Sequence (LGBPHS), Zhang, W., Shan, S., Gao, W., Chen, X. And Zhang H.,A Novel Non-statistical Model for Face Representation and Recognition. In Proc. TenthIEEEInternational Conferenceon Computer Vision, 2005.
8. Lipreading with Local Spatiotemporal Descriptors, Zhao, G., Barnard, M. And Pietikäinen, M., IEEETrans. Multimedia, 2009.
9. Overview Of Image Processing, K.M.M. Rao,Deputy Director,NRSA,Hyderabad-500 037, 2006.
10. Image processing, http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Image_processing
11. Feature extraction, http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Feature_extraction
12. Local binary patterns, http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Local_binary_patterns
13. Tinku Acharya and Ajoy K. Ray (2006). Image Processing - Principles and Applications. Wiley InterScience.
14. Wilhelm Burger and Mark J. Burge (2007). Digital Image Processing: An Algorithmic Approach Using Java. Springer. ISBN 1-84628-379-5 and ISBN 3-540-30940-3 Check |isbn= value (help).

- 15.R. Fisher, K (2002). Springer. ISBN 3-540-67754-2. Missing or empty `|title=` (help)
- 16.Tim Morris (2004). Computer Vision and Image Processing. Palgrave Macmillan. ISBN 0-333-99451-5.
- 17.Tony F. Chan and Jackie (Jianhong) Shen (2005). Image Processing and Analysis - Variational, PDE, Wavelet, and Stochastic Methods. Society of Industrial and Applied Mathematics. ISBN 0-89871-589-X.
- 18.Milan Sonka, Vaclav Hlavac and Roger Boyle (1999). Image Processing, Analysis, and Machine Vision. PWS Publishing. ISBN 0-534-95393-X.
- 19.Chris Solomon and Toby Breckon (2010). Fundamentals of Digital Image Processing: A Practical Approach with Exp. in Matlab. Wiley-Blackwell. ISBN 978-0470844731.
- 20.DC. He and L. Wang (1990), "Texture Unit, Texture Spectrum, And Texture Analysis", Geoscience and Remote Sensing, IEEE Transactions on, vol. 28, pp. 509 - 512.
- 21.L. Wang and DC. He (1990), "Texture Classification Using Texture Spectrum", Pattern Recognition, Vol. 23, No. 8, pp. 905 - 910.
- 22.T. Ojala, M. Pietikäinen, and D. Harwood (1994), "Performance evaluation of texture measures with classification based on Kullback discrimination of distributions", Proceedings of the 12th IAPR International Conference on Pattern Recognition (ICPR 1994), vol. 1, pp. 582 - 585.
- 23.T. Ojala, M. Pietikäinen, and D. Harwood (1996), "A Comparative Study of Texture Measures with Classification Based on Feature Distributions", Pattern Recognition, vol. 29, pp. 51-59.
- 24."An HOG-LBP Human Detector with Partial Occlusion Handling", Xiaoyu Wang, Tony X. Han, Shuicheng Yan, ICCV 2009
- 25."The Android mascot was not always a little green guy". NBC News, Rosa Golijan.
- 26."Original Android Logo Was A Truly Frightening Robot". Huffington Post, Betsy Isaacsen, January 4, 2013.

27. Blok, Irina. "Android Logo". Retrieved 5 April 2013.
28. "Android Code Analysis". Retrieved June 6, 2012.
29. "MIPS gets sweet with Honeycomb". Eetimes.com. Retrieved 2012-02-20.
30. a b Shah, Agam (December 1, 2011). "Google's Android 4.0 ported to x86 processors". Computerworld. International Data Group. Retrieved 2012-02-20.
31. a b "Android OS for i.MX Applications Processors Product Summary Page". freescale Inc.
32. "Licenses". Android Open Source Project. Open Handset Alliance. Retrieved 2012-09-09.
33. Chris Welch (2013-04-16). "Before it took over smartphones, Android was originally destined for cameras". The Verge. Retrieved 2013-05-01.
34. Vance, Ashlee (27 July 2011). "Steve Perlman's Wireless Fix". Bloomberg Businessweek. Bloomberg. Retrieved 3 November 2012.
35. Block, Ryan (August 28, 2007). "Google is working on a mobile OS, and it's due out shortly". Engadget. Retrieved 2012-02-17.
36. Claburn, Thomas (September 19, 2007). "Google's Secret Patent Portfolio Predicts gPhone". InformationWeek. Retrieved 2012-02-17.[dead link]
37. Reinhard Klette, Karsten Schluens and Andreas Koschan (1998). *Computer Vision – Three-Dimensional Data from Images*. Springer, Singapore. ISBN 981-3083-71-9.
38. Bernd Jähne (2002). *Digital Image Processing*. Springer. ISBN 3-540-67754-2.
39. Gérard Medioni and Sing Bing Kang (2004). *Emerging Topics in Computer Vision*. Prentice Hall. ISBN 0-13-101366-1.
40. Nikos Paragios and Yunmei Chen and Olivier Faugeras (2005). *Handbook of Mathematical Models in Computer Vision*. Springer. ISBN 0-387-26371-3.
41. Wilhelm Burger and Mark J. Burge (2007). *Digital Image Processing: An Algorithmic Approach Using Java*. Springer. ISBN 1-84628-379-5.
42. Pedram Azad, Tilo Gockel, Rüdiger Dillmann (2008). *Computer Vision – Principles and Practice*. Elektor International Media BV. ISBN 0-905705-71-8.