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Contents

Human-Computer Interaction

A Two-Step Methodology for Human Pose Estimation Increasing the Accuracy and Reducing the Amount of Learning Samples Dramatically . . .	3
<i>Samir Azrou, Sébastien Piérard, Pierre Geurts, and Marc Van Droogenbroeck</i>	
Body Related Occupancy Maps for Human Action Recognition	15
<i>Sanne Roegiers, Gianni Allebosch, Peter Veelaert, and Wilfried Philips</i>	
Facial Expression Recognition Using Local Region Specific Dense Optical Flow and LBP Features	28
<i>Deepak Ghimire, Sang Hyun Park, and Mi Jin Kim</i>	
Fully Automated Facial Expression Recognition Using 3D Morphable Model and Mesh-Local Binary Pattern	39
<i>Hela Bejaoui, Haythem Ghazouani, and Walid Barhoumi</i>	
Real Time Continuous Tracking of Dynamic Hand Gestures on a Mobile GPU	51
<i>Robert Prior, David Capson, and Alexandra Branzan Albu</i>	
Multi-camera Finger Tracking and 3D Trajectory Reconstruction for HCI Studies	63
<i>Vadim Lyubanenko, Toni Kuronen, Tuomas Eerola, Lasse Lensu, Heikki Kälviäinen, and Jukka Häkkinen</i>	
Full Screen Touch Detection for the Virtual Touch Screen	75
<i>Katsuto Nakajima and Takafumi Igarashi</i>	

Classification and Recognition

Optimal Tiling Strategy for Memory Bandwidth Reduction for CNNs	89
<i>Leonardo Cecconi, Sander Smets, Luca Benini, and Marian Verhelst</i>	
Statistical Radial Binary Patterns (SRBP) for Bark Texture Identification	101
<i>Safia Boudra, Itheri Yahiaoui, and Ali Behloul</i>	
Object Tracking Using Deep Convolutional Neural Networks and Visual Appearance Models	114
<i>Bogdan Mocanu, Ruxandra Tapu, and Titus Zaharia</i>	

Sensing Forest for Pattern Recognition 126
Irina Burciu, Thomas Martinetz, and Erhardt Barth

Analysis of Skeletal Shape Trajectories for Person Re-Identification 138
Amani Elaoud, Walid Barhoumi, Hassen Drira, and Ezzeddine Zagrouba

Deep Learning on Underwater Marine Object Detection: A Survey 150
Md. Moniruzzaman, Syed Mohammed Shamsul Islam, Mohammed Bennamoun, and Paul Lavery

A Novel and Accurate Local 3D Representation for Face Recognition 161
Soumaya Mathlouthi, Majdi Jribi, and Faouzi Ghorbel

Human Face Detection Improvement Using Incremental Learning Based on Low Variance Directions 170
Takoua Kefi, Riadh Ksantini, Mohamed Bécha Kaâniche, and Adel Bouhoula

Multi-view Pose Estimation with Flexible Mixtures-of-Parts 180
Emre Dogan, Gonen Eren, Christian Wolf, Eric Lombardi, and Atilla Baskurt

Shearlet-Based Region Map Guidance for Improving Hyperspectral Image Classification 191
Mariam Zaouali, Sonia Bouzidi, and Ezzeddine Zagrouba

Evaluation of Dimensionality Reduction Methods for Remote Sensing Images Using Classification and 3D Visualization 203
Andreea Griparis, Daniela Faur, and Mihai Datcu

Towards Condition Analysis for Machine Vision Based Traffic Sign Inventory 212
Petri Hienonen, Lasse Lensu, Markus Melander, and Heikki Kälviäinen

Learning Siamese Features for Finger Spelling Recognition 225
Bogdan Kwolek and Shinji Sako

AMD Classification in Choroidal OCT Using Hierarchical Texton Mining 237
Dafydd Ravenscroft, Jingjing Deng, Xianghua Xie, Louise Terry, Tom H. Margrain, Rachel V. North, and Ashley Wood

Prostate Size Inference from Abdominal Ultrasound Images with Patch Based Prior Information 249
Nur Banu Albayrak, Emrah Yildirim, and Yusuf Sinan Akgul

Navigation, Mapping, Robotics and Transports

Omnidirectional Localization in vSLAM with Uncertainty Propagation and Bayesian Regression 263
David Valiente, Óscar Reinoso, Arturo Gil, Luis Payá, and Mónica Ballesta

Visual Localization Based on Place Recognition Using Multi-feature Combination (D- λ LBP++HOG). 275
Yongliang Qiao, Cindy Cappelle, Tao Yang, and Yassine Ruichek

Homography-Based Navigation System for Unmanned Aerial Vehicles 288
Abdulla Al-Kaff, Arturo de La Escalera, and José María Armingol

Robust Tracking in Weakly Dynamic Scenes 301
Trevor Gee, Rui Gong, Patrice Delmas, and Georgy Gimel'farb

Texturizing and Refinement of 3D City Models with Mobile Devices 313
Ralf Gutbell, Hannes Kuehnel, and Arjan Kuijper

Image Classification for Ground Traversability Estimation in Robotics. 325
R. Omar Chavez-Garcia, Jérôme Guzzi, Luca M. Gambardella, and Alessandro Giusti

InSAR Coherence-Dependent Fuzzy C-Means Flood Mapping Using Particle Swarm Optimization. 337
Chayma Chaabani and Riadh Abdelfattah

Monitoring and Evaluation of Flooded Areas Based on Fused Texture Descriptors. 349
Loretta Ichim and Dan Popescu

Video Processing and Retrieval

Anomaly Detection in Crowded Scenarios Using Local and Global Gaussian Mixture Models 363
Adrián Tomé and Luis Salgado

JND-Guided Perceptual Pre-filtering for HEVC Compression of UHD TV Video Contents 375
Eloïse Vidal, François-Xavier Coudoux, Patrick Corlay, and Christine Guillemot

Visual versus Textual Embedding for Video Retrieval 386
Danny Francis, Paul Pidou, Bernard Merialdo, and Benoît Huet

Handling Noisy Labels in Gaze-Based CBIR System. 396
Stéphanie Lopez, Arnaud Revel, Diane Lingrand, and Frédéric Precioso

Extracting Relevant Features from Videos for a Robust Smoke Detection.	406
<i>Olfa Besbes and Amel Benazza-Benyahia</i>	
Images Annotation Extension Based on User Feedback	418
<i>Abdessalem Bouzaïeni and Salvatore Tabbone</i>	
A Domain Independent Approach to Video Summarization	431
<i>Amanda Dash and Alexandra Branzan Albu</i>	
Is a Memoryless Motion Detection Truly Relevant for Background Generation with LaBGen?	443
<i>Benjamin Laugraud and Marc Van Droogenbroeck</i>	
Large-Scale Camera Network Topology Estimation by Lighting Variation	455
<i>Michael Zhu, Anthony Dick, and Anton van den Hengel</i>	
Counting Large Flocks of Birds Using Videos Acquired with Hand-Held Devices	468
<i>Amanda Dash and Alexandra Branzan Albu</i>	
Fast Ground Detection for Range Cameras on Road Surfaces Using a Three-Step Segmentation	479
<i>Izaak Van Crombrugge, Ibrahim Ben Azza, Rudi Penne, Gregory Van Barel, and Steve Vanlanduit</i>	
Security, Forensics, Surveillance	
A Robust Video Watermarking for Real-Time Application	493
<i>Ines Bayoudh, Saoussen Ben Jabra, and Ezzeddine Zagrouba</i>	
Multi-object Tracking Using Compressive Sensing Features in Markov Decision Process.	505
<i>Tao Yang, Cindy Cappelle, Yassine Ruichek, and Mohammed El Bagdouri</i>	
Face Detection in Thermal Infrared Images: A Comparison of Algorithm- and Machine-Learning-Based Approaches.	518
<i>Marcin Kopaczka, Jan Nestler, and Dorit Merhof</i>	
Cell-Based Approach for 3D Reconstruction from Incomplete Silhouettes	530
<i>Maarten Stembrouck, Peter Velaert, David Van Hamme, Dimitri Van Cauwelaert, and Wilfried Philips</i>	
Sliding Window Based Micro-expression Spotting: A Benchmark	542
<i>Thuong-Khanh Tran, Xiaopeng Hong, and Guoying Zhao</i>	
Bimodal Person Re-identification in Multi-camera System	554
<i>Hazar Mliki, Mariem Naffeti, and Emna Fendri</i>	

Image Processing

Adding GLCM Texture Analysis to a Combined Watershed Transform and Graph Cut Model for Image Segmentation 569
Kauê T.N. Duarte, Marco A.G. de Carvalho, and Paulo S. Martins

Background Subtraction with Multispectral Images Using Codebook Algorithm 581
Rongrong Liu, Yassine Ruichek, and Mohammed El Bagdouri

Image Ridge Denoising Using No-Reference Metric 591
Nikolay Mamaev, Dmitry Yurin, and Andrey Krylov

A CSF-Based Preprocessing Method for Image Deblurring. 602
Maria Carmela Basile, Vittoria Bruni, and Domenico Vitulano

Data Augmentation for Plant Classification. 615
Porntiwa Pawara, Emmanuel Okafor, Lambert Schomaker, and Marco Wiering

Vision Based Lidar Segmentation for Scan Matching and Camera Fusion. 627
Gabriel Burtin, Patrick Bonnin, and Florent Malartre

Proposal of Segmentation Method Adapted to the Infrared Sensor. 639
Félix Polla, Kamal Boudjelaba, Bruno Emile, and H el ene Laurent

Detection and Tracking of the Pores of the Lamina Cribrosa in Three Dimensional SD-OCT Data 651
Florence Rossant, Kate Grieve, St ephanie Zwillingner, and Michel Paques

Leaves Segmentation in 3D Point Cloud 664
William G elard, Ariane Herbulot, Michel Devy, Philippe Debaeke, Ryan F. McCormick, Sandra K. Truong, and John Mullet

Relative Camera Pose Estimation Using Convolutional Neural Networks 675
Iaroslav Melekhov, Juha Ylioinas, Juho Kannala, and Esa Rahtu

Shape Acquisition System Using an Handheld Line Laser Pointer Without Markers. 688
Jae-Hean Kim, Hyun Kang, Jin Sung Choi, and Chang Joon Park

3D Visualization of Radioactive Sources by Combining Depth Maps Generated from a Stereo Radiation Detection Device. 701
Pathum Rathnayaka, Seung-Hae Baek, and Soon-Yong Park

Filling Missing Parts of a 3D Mesh by Fusion of Incomplete 3D Data. 711
Laszlo Kormoczi and Zoltan Kato

An Efficient Descriptor Based on Radial Line Integration
for Fast Non-invariant Matching and Registration of Microscopy Images 723
Anders Hast, Gustaf Kylberg, and Ida-Maria Sintorn

3D Shape from SEM Image Using Improved Fast Marching Method. 735
Lei Huang, Yuji Iwahori, Aili Wang, and M.K. Bhuyan

An Enhanced Multi-label Random Walk for Biomedical Image
Segmentation Using Statistical Seed Generation 748
Ang Bian, Aaron Scherzinger, and Xiaoyi Jiang

Author Index 761

Omnidirectional Localization in vSLAM with Uncertainty Propagation and Bayesian Regression

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Abstract. This article presents a visual localization technique based solely on the use of omnidirectional images, within the framework of mobile robotics. The proposal makes use of the epipolar constraint, adapted to the omnidirectional reference, in order to deal with matching point detection, which ultimately determines a motion transformation for localizing the robot. The principal contributions lay on the propagation of the current uncertainty to the matching. Besides, a Bayesian regression technique is also implemented, in order to reinforce the robustness. As a result, we provide a reliable adaptive matching, which proves its stability and consistency against non-linear and dynamic effects affecting the image frame, and consequently the final application. In particular, the search for matching points is highly reduced, thus aiding in the search and avoiding false correspondences. The final outcome is reflected by real data experiments, which confirm the benefit of these contributions, and also test the suitability of the localization when it is embedded on a vSLAM application.

Keywords: Omnidirectional images · Visual SLAM · Feature matching · Visual localization

1 Introduction

On mobile robotics, Simultaneous Localization and Mapping (SLAM) represents a crucial aspect. Such paradigm implies a simultaneous estimation of the map and the localization of the robot. This fact entails a real challenge when it comes to complexity, due to the incremental nature of the procedure, which is normally affected by non-linear inputs and noise, that gravely compromise the convergence of a sensitive system.

Under such circumstances, different research has been conducted. It is worth highlighting the evolution on the use of different kind of acquisition sensors. Initially, laser [14] and sonar [13] were widely acknowledged. However, more recently, there have been an incipient use of visual sensors like digital cameras,

which have emerged as one of the most reliable tools for gathering information of the environment. Comparing to former sensors, they become a promising alternative due to their low cost, lightness, low consumption, precision and efficiency to process visual data. Amongst others, omnidirectional cameras are remarkable for their capability to acquire large scenes on an only image, thanks to their large field of view. Different approaches have concentrated on computer vision techniques by using single cameras with visual encoding of 3D landmarks [11]; stereo-structure [6]; and omnidirectional cameras [4, 16]. Specially, many contributions support matching systems relying on the image side [20], but also on the mapping side [2].

In this paper we also rely on the potentials of the matching in order to map visual information along different scenes during navigation tasks. Nonetheless, in contrast to general matching, we emphasize on the target application feedback. Dealing with a vSLAM approach implies that huge efforts have to be addressed to the management of the uncertainty and convergence [10, 21]. That is the main reason why we intend to assess these variables, and use them as feedback to refine the standard matching, and thus the final estimation. Our approach seeks a more robust model which dynamically adapts to the current deviations in the system in terms of uncertainty. Therefore, we propose a robot localization model, which is solely based on omnidirectional images. In particular, we reinforce the matching process by means of the propagation of the current uncertainty of the system. We also introduce a Bayesian regression technique [17] so as to obtain a sensor data distribution [7], that allows to predict the probability of appearance of matching points. Synthesizing, the system operates as follows:

- Image acquisition at each SLAM iteration.
- Movement prediction (SLAM) and uncertainty propagation to the current image.
- Omnidirectional epipolarity determination on the second image frame.
- Global Bayesian inference for weighting and refining the final robust and reliable matching.

The remainder is: Sect. 2 presents the general characteristics of the omnidirectional system and the implemented epipolarity adaption to the omnidirectional geometry. Section 3 comprises the implementation of the omnidirectional visual localization. The propagation of uncertainty and regression inference are also highlighted within the contribution of the adaptive matching. Section 4 provides an overview to the view-based SLAM approach, with the omnidirectional localization embedded; Sect. 5 presents the real data results which assess the validity of the approach and the benefits of the research contributions; Sect. 6 exposes the main conclusions extracted from this work.

2 Omnidirectional Vision System

The vision system consists of a catadioptric set, conformed by an hyperbolic mirror jointly assembled with a CCD camera, as shown in Fig. 1, where the real



Fig. 1. Real equipment: (a) Pioneer P3-AT mounted with omnidirectional camera, internal odometer and laser range finder; (b) CCD FireWire DMK21BF04; (c) Eizho Wide 70 Mirror.

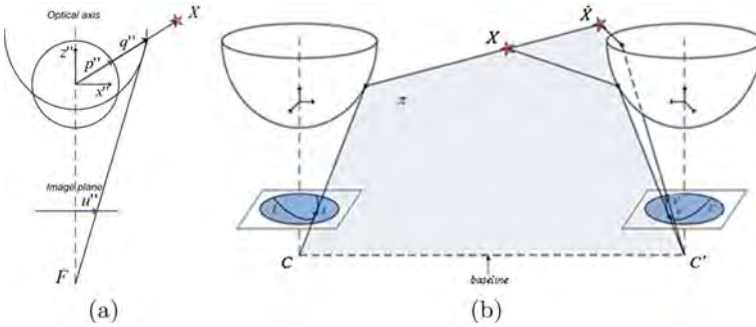


Fig. 2. (a) Mapping of a scene point to the image plane; (b) epipolar constraint adaptation to the omnidirectional geometry.

robotic system is also presented. The image generation is reproduced in Fig. 2. Note that the center of projection coincides with the focus of the hyperboloid. This coincidence represents the basis for the camera to focalize the 3D scene on the image frame.

Figure 2(a) shows how a scene point X directs $p'' = (x''^T, z'')$ in the same direction as q , which is projected to u'' on the image plane, being collinear to x'' . Notice that the central sphere unifies the notation of the projection vectors for normalization purposes, as per calibration, regardless the characteristics of the mirror and its non-linearities. Thus the mapping of a 3D point onto the image plane is depicted, and analytically expressed as follows [9]:

$$\lambda p'' = \lambda \left[a_0 + a_2 \|u''\|^2 + \dots + a_n \|u''\|^n \right] = PX \tag{1}$$

where $P \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 4}$ is the projection matrix, denoted as $P = [R|T]$, with R a rotation matrix $\in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ and T a translation $\in \mathbb{R}^3$ between camera and global reference system. The Taylor expansion refers to the particular projection model for each mirror, which is experimentally estimated by a calibration toolbox [18].

2.1 Epipolarity Definitions

The epipolar constraint [9] becomes a fundamental tool in order get motion recovery and therefore, for the computation of visual localization. The nature of our omnidirectional system forced us to redesign the planar epipolar constraint to the geometry of our camera system. This allows us to propose advanced techniques in terms of feature detection between two omnidirectional images, and likewise between two poses of the robot so as to localize it. To that purpose it is necessary to introduce the essential matrix, $E_{3 \times 3}$ [15], and its relation with two matched points between images, x and x' . By means of a given calibration, the corresponding points can be normalized to \hat{x} and \hat{x}' :

$$\hat{x}'^T E \hat{x} = 0 \quad (2)$$

Finally, the elements in E entail a decomposition: $R_{3 \times 3}$ and $T = [t_x, t_y, t_z]$, as a general rotation and translation, through the skew symmetric $[T]_x$ [9]. In consequence, a 2D movement $\in XY$, and angular movement (β, ϕ) , between two poses of the robot, can be recovered up to scale factor, from:

$$E = [T]_x R = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \sin(\phi) \\ 0 & 0 & -\cos(\phi) \\ \sin(\beta - \phi) & \cos(\beta - \phi) & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

Such adaption to the omnidirectional geometry is expressed in Fig. 2(b). The projection of X on two image references, x and x' , is determined by the epipolar plane, π , and both camera centers C and C' . An essential aspect is associated to l and l' , as the epipolar lines which define the geometric place for matching points to lay on. This is crucial for us to design an advanced visual matching, which ultimately returns potential data for a robust localization.

Contrarily to traditional stereo-planar applications [3, 19], here epipolar lines transform into ellipses as a result of the intersection of π with the hyperbolic mirror of the camera. In this sense, different contributions will be presented in the following sections, so as to come up with a robust visual localization, sustained by uncertainty propagation and bayesian techniques, with their basis relying on this epipolar adaption.

3 Omnidirectional Visual Localization

Our visual localization approach is sustained by the epipolar adaption presented above. As shown in (3), two poses of the robot can be solely related by matching points in two omnidirectional images acquired at such poses. That is, a motion transformation defined by an angular movement. Figure 3 synthesizes such image-to-pose equivalence in terms of movement. Therefore, a clear inference from (2) can be noted. Then, the localization between poses, Fig. 3(a), is transferred to a visual problem in Fig. 3(b).

On the analytical side, (2) can be posed as a linear system:

$$D_i e_i = [x_0 z_1 \ y_0 z_1 \ z_0 x_1 \ z_0 y_1] [e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4]^T, \forall i \in [1, \dots, N] \quad (4)$$

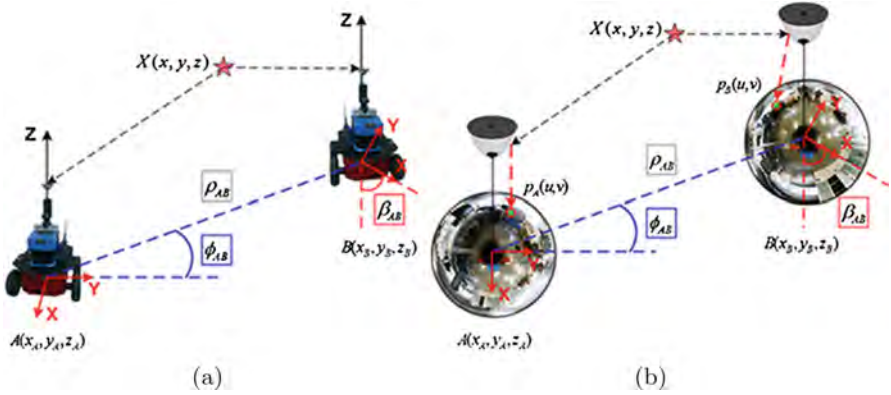


Fig. 3. Omnidirectional visual localization between poses A and B . (a) Robot reference system; (b) camera reference system. Projections, $p_A(u, v)$ and $p_B(u, v)$, are indicated.

where $\hat{x} = (x_0, y_0, z_0)$ and $\hat{x}' = (x_1, y_1, z_1)$ represent two matched points between image poses, and e_i the estimation terms in E , which encode the localization measures (β, ϕ). It is worth noting the low number of matching points needed, $N_{min} = 4$, for retrieving a motion estimation, since D_{Nx4} .

Finally [9] states the fundamentals for a Single Value Decomposition (SVD) of (3), which produces a quaternion set of solutions (β, ϕ), as two rotations and translations:

$$\phi = atan \frac{-e_1}{e_2}; \quad \beta = atan \frac{e_3}{e_4} + atan \frac{-e_1}{e_2} \quad (5)$$

$$t_{x1} = [\cos \phi, \sin \phi, 0]; \quad t_{x2} = t_{x1} + \pi; \quad R_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \beta & -\sin \beta & 0 \\ \sin \beta & \cos \beta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}; \quad R_2 = R_\pi R_1 \quad (6)$$

3.1 Uncertainty Propagation

Once the fundamentals for the omnidirectional localization have been described, now it necessary to detail the uncertainty propagation implementation. The aim is to enhance the matching by providing this process with the capability to adapt dynamically to the current noise of the system, and therefore to the associated uncertainty, at t . The final output, as a main contribution, is the reduction of the search area for matchings on the pixel side. To that end, the epipolar constraint, is again invoked (2). Particularly, current inconsistencies in the system, represented by uncertainty, are propagated through such constraint, which now accepts a dynamic threshold, $\delta(\hat{z}_t)$:

$$x^T \hat{E} x < \delta(\hat{z}_t) \quad (7)$$

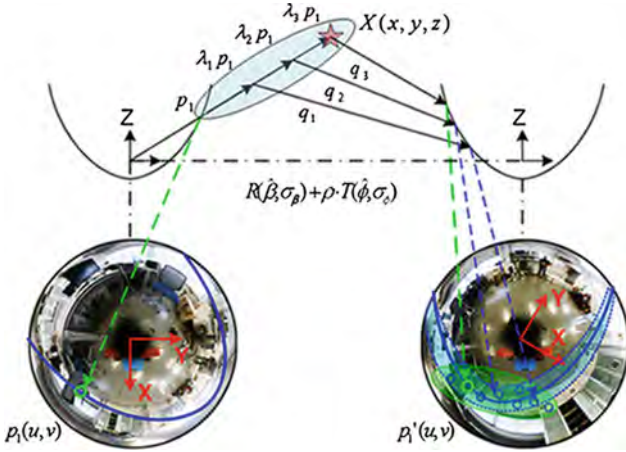


Fig. 4. Adaptive matching. p_1 establishes the multi-scaled distribution, $\lambda_i p_1$. q_i projects onto the second image by means of $R \sim N(\hat{\beta}, \sigma_\beta)$, and $T \sim N(\hat{\phi}, \sigma_\phi)$, (8). The result is a reduced search area (green). Epipolar curve transforms into an elliptic area (blue) due to the uncertainty propagation on (7). (Color figure online)

Note that this threshold depends on a predicted observation movement, $\hat{z}_t = (\hat{\beta}, \hat{\phi})$, as provided by a general vSLAM approach, which is implicitly related to the corresponding uncertainty of the system.

The innovation measured between consecutive states of the vSLAM system, S_t , represents a powerful tool to establish σ values for \hat{z}_t by means of a predicted rotation, R , and translation, T :

$$S_t = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_\phi^2 & \sigma_{\phi\beta} \\ \sigma_{\beta\phi} & \sigma_\beta^2 \end{bmatrix}; \quad R \sim N(\hat{\beta}, \sigma_\beta); \quad T \sim N(\hat{\phi}, \sigma_\phi) \quad (8)$$

This fact means that a predicted matching can be determined on the second image frame, even though when no feature detector has been used on the second frame. A gaussian multi-scale distribution, $\lambda_i p_1$, is generated on the first image frame, and then propagated on the second, q_i , by considering the uncertainty, (7), and the predicted movement (8). Figure 4 depicts the entire procedure for this adaptive matching, which eventually produces a reduced area where candidate matching points are found, rather than a global search over the entire image. The topology of the new search area corresponds to the reshaping of the epipolar constraint, which now transforms into a surface due to the effects of $\delta(\hat{z}_t)$. The ultimate stage involves a visual descriptor comparison, being $d_i(x)$ and $d'_j(x')$ the visual descriptors of two points in the first and second image respectively. Finally, a Mahalanobis metric (χ) is computed over them, so as to get an accepted visual distance in order to assume two feature points as a valid pair of matching points:

$$\|d_i(x) - d'_j(x')\| \leq \chi[\dim(z_t)] \quad (9)$$

3.2 Bayesian Regression

Having described the enhanced matching with uncertainty propagation, here we include a Bayesian regression technique such as Gaussian Processes (GP) [17] in order to obtain a sensor data distribution for the matching on the omnidirectional frame. GP is an advantageous regression technique since they do not need to extract conventional relations between inputs and outputs, contrarily to traditional inference. A GP produces a matching data distribution, which can be mapped onto a global reference system. This information is very useful in order to refine the search area for matching points. A GP, denoted as $f(x)$, is constituted by its mean, $m(x)$, covariance $k(x, x')$, and training and test input vectors, x and x' respectively.

$$f(x) \sim \mathcal{GP}[m(x), k(x, x')] \quad (10)$$

Assuming that the GP output provides the probability distribution of our matching, now we can fuse this probability with an information metric into the entire process, so as to reinforce the procedure and to reduce even more the matching detection area. This provides a reliable refinement feedback. In terms of the selected metric, we chose an information-based one [12], Kullback-Leibler divergence (KL):

$$KL(F_1 \parallel F_2) = \sum_{i=1}^k F_1(i) \log \frac{F_1(i)}{F_2(i)} \quad (11)$$

We pursue the assessment of the fluctuation in the position of the matching points on the global system. Under this situation, KL can measure such variations between matching points detected on a previous pair of images, F_1 , and the new matching points on the next pair F_2 . The value of KL encodes relevant variations on the position of the matching points along the navigation of the vehicle. The higher KL value, the newer visual information detected by the robot. Therefore, the candidate matchings, can also be weighted by such metric, which determines the probability areas were a corresponding point is more likely to be found. The graphical result for this probability distribution is presented in Fig. 5, where two consecutive pair of images are compared by being passed through the adaptive matching process, already described in the previous section, and now fused with the GP regression.

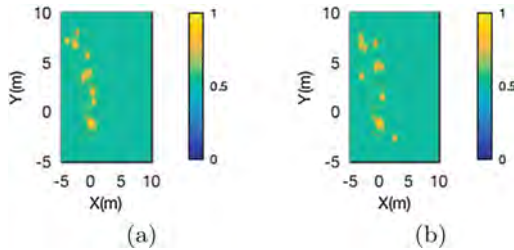


Fig. 5. Sensor data information distribution. Probability of matching point position, detected between two images, (a) and (b), corresponding to two poses of the robot.

3.3 System Operation

The overall system operation, comprising all the presented contributions is depicted in Fig. 6, where the work flow is: (i) image acquisition; (ii) multi-scaled distribution (scaling factor); (iii) predicted movement and uncertainty propagation; (iv) Bayesian inference to weight the final matched points.

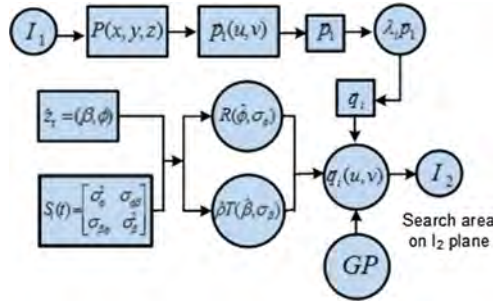


Fig. 6. System operation sustained by the proposed contributions.

4 Omnidirectional Localization on vSLAM

This section briefly introduces the final application where the omnidirectional localization is embedded. It consists of a view-based SLAM approach, which is synthesized in Fig. 7. The key aspect lies on a dual 2D-3D map composed by a reduced set of omnidirectional views acquired at different poses, $x_n = (x, y, \theta)_n^T$, along the path of the robot. Each n view compresses the visual information of an area of the environment by means of a set of SURF feature points [1]. The

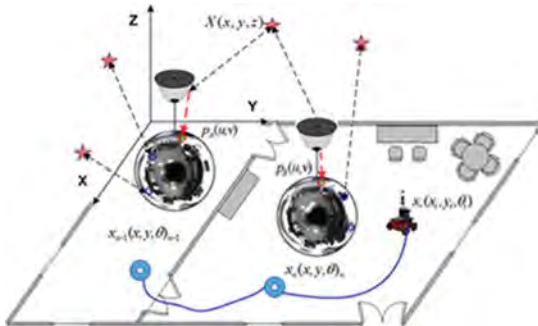


Fig. 7. Dual 2D-3D. Information is encoded on the 2D image plane by feature points on each view, x_n . The re-estimation of x_n implies the whole re-estimation of the map.

current pose of the robot at t is expressed as $x_r = (x_t, y_t, \theta_t)^T$. Therefore, the state vector comprises x_r and x_n , with the following 2D structure:

$$x_v(t) = [x_r \ x_1 \ \cdots \ x_n \ \cdots \ x_N]^T \quad (12)$$

with each view $n \in [1, \dots, N]$. Then the state vector encodes a map constituted by a total number of N views.

The information is compressed on the 2D image frame by feature points. However, they express the same information that 3D landmark-based approaches [5, 8]. Now it is not necessary to re-estimate the 3D pose of every landmark in the environment. Here, the single re-estimation of a view, as part of $x_v(t)$, already implies the whole re-estimation of the map, being now much simpler. It is worth noticing that each x_n accounts for the visual encoding of a specific area of the environment, so that the robot can always localize itself. Finally, this vSLAM approach is subdivided into three main stages: (i) initialization of views in the map; (ii) observation model measurement; (iii) data association. Dealing with localization makes us only focus on (ii), since it provides the localization of the robot within the current estimated map.

4.1 Observation Model

Similarly to Sect. 2, the observation measurements expresses the motion transformation between two images (β, ϕ) , and so does between two poses of the robot. Transferring this localization relation into the robot reference system, leads to the following structure, where is worth noting the $z_{t,n}$ corresponds to the application of the presented contributions for omnidirectional localization in Sect. 3.

$$z_{t,n} = \begin{pmatrix} \phi \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \arctan\left(\frac{y_n - y_t}{x_n - x_t}\right) - \theta_t \\ \theta_n - \theta_t \end{pmatrix} \quad (13)$$

5 Results

This section provides a further insight into the contributions presented in this work. Here, real data experiments have been conducted in order to show the benefits of this proposal for omnidirectional localization. Besides, the performance of a vSLAM has been also analyzed, when the omnidirectional localization is embedded. The equipment was presented in Sect. 2 and Fig. 1 (2×1.7 Ghz/2 Gb RAM). The real dataset comprises indoor office and laboratory-like spaces [16] (1238 images/123.8m path).

5.1 Omnidirectional Localization Results

Firstly, we present results solely based on the proposed omnidirectional localization aiming at validation. Figure 8 presents performance results comparing a standard omnidirectional localization and the proposed in this work (average

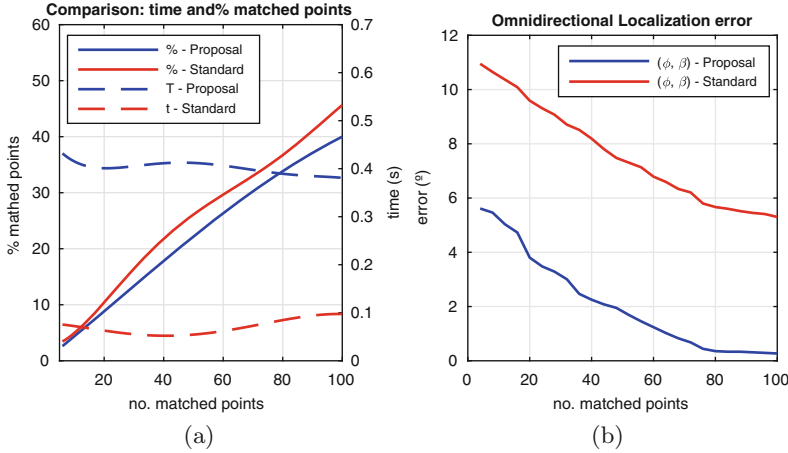


Fig. 8. Omnidirectional localization results. (a) % matched points and time consumption with total number of matched points. (b) Localization error.

values over 100 times execution). Figure 8(a) compares the % matched points out of the total feature points in two images (Y-left-axis), time consumed (Y-right-axis), and the total number of matched points (X-axis). Note the reduction ($\sim 9\%$) with the proposed approach, which corresponds to a great false positive reduction, since the delimited search area on the image. Obviously, this comes at a cost of computation. Nonetheless, the consumption proves to be stable and acceptable for real time, regardless the number of matchings. Secondly, Fig. 8(b) shows a comparison of accuracy, in terms of angular error. The presented approach proves to outperform standard omnidirectional localization ($\sim 10\%$ average). These measurements shows the average error on the estimated localization (β, ϕ) , (13). Note that 10% of angular improvement implies higher accuracy on the XY-coordinates, due to the parallax effect. Therefore, subtle improvements on the angular localization may be enough to ensure convergence on a generic vSLAM application.

5.2 vSLAM Results

Then it is necessary to test the approach when operating in vSLAM. Consequently, we conducted a real experiment in a sub-environment within [16]. The observation measurement $z_{t,n}$ (13), now embeds the proposed omnidirectional localization. Figure 9 shows real data results obtained in a 20×20 m scenario. Figure 9(a) demonstrates that the proposed vSLAM approach, outperforms a standard one in terms of accuracy. This is a reliable proof to confirm that subtle variations on the accuracy of the localization may cause the final estimation to diverge. Besides, Fig. 9(b) presents average error results (RMSE), when the number of matching is varied. These results confirm that a tradeoff setup with low number of matching points may produce a well-balanced and feasible estimation.

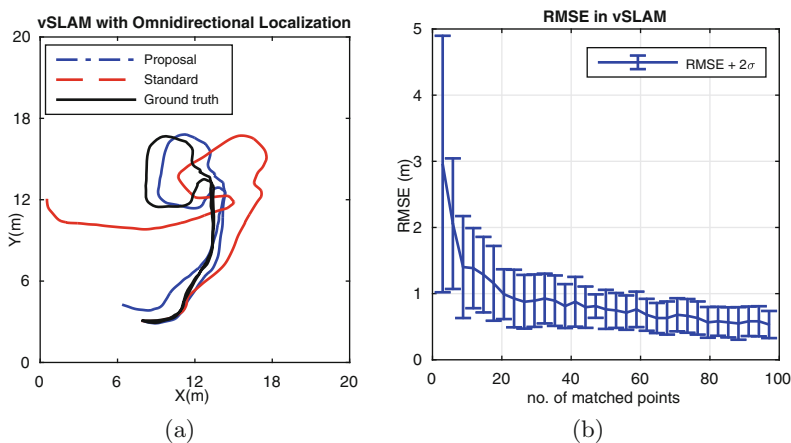


Fig. 9. Real data vSLAM results. (a) Estimation with the proposed approach (blue), standard (red), and ground truth (dark). (b) RMSE (m) with the number of matchings. (Color figure online)

6 Conclusions

This article proposes a robust visual localization, based on omnidirectional images, for mobile robotics. The main contribution consists of an advantageous matching which dynamically adapts to the changing uncertainty circumstances in the system. Besides, GPs have been introduced to infer a sensor data distribution. In particular, we have produced a probability distribution for the location of matching points. Overall, we have devised a reliable approach which reduces considerably the search area for matching points. Moreover, an adaption of the epipolar constraint has been designed in order to fulfill the omnidirectional geometry. All contributions have been jointly implemented so as to test the validity and feasibility of the omnidirectional localization over real data experiments, in vSLAM. A certain computation effort is needed, however the benefits reveal a valuable false positive avoidance ($\sim 9\%$) and a reinforcement of the localization accuracy ($\sim 10\%$). These values are referred to angular localization, fact that makes XY-localization more precise, due to the parallax effect. In vSLAM, such $\%$ of improvement implies a great step forward in order to ensure convergence on the estimation at each t .

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