FAST PROTOTYPING OF EMBEDDED IMAGE PROCESSING APPLICATION ON HOMOGENOUS SYSTEM

A Parallel Particle Filter Tracking Method on Homogeneous Network of Communicating Processors (HNCP)

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Abstract: This article discusses the design of an application specific MP-SoC (Multi-Processors System on Chip) architecture dedicated to face tracking algorithm. The proposed algorithm tracks a Region-Of-Interest (ROI) by determining the similarity measures between the reference and the target frames. In our approach, this measure is the estimation of the Kullback-Leibler divergence from the K-nearest neighbor (KNN) framework. The metric between pixels is an Euclidean norm in a joint geometric and radiometric space. The adopted measure allows us to check if the regions have similar colors and also if these colors appear at the same location. Considering the necessary computation amounts, we propose a parallel hardware implementation of the developed algorithm on MP-SoC architecture. Creating multiple processors in one system is hard for software developers using traditional hardware design approaches due to the complexity to design software models suitable for such FPGA implementations. In order to deal with this problem, we have introduced a CubeGen tool to avoid fastidious manual editing operations for the designer. This new methodology enables us to instantiate a generic Homogeneous Network of Communicating Processors (called HNCP) tailored for our targeted application. Our implementations are demonstrated using the Xilinx FPGA chip XC6VLX240T.

1 INTRODUCTION

We will provide a brief introduction to particle filters (PFs), as their application and implementation is the focus of this article.

In most of the application, prior knowledge about the phenomenon being modeled is available. This knowledge allows us to formulate bayesian models. Within this setting, we used the Monte-Carlo simulation methods (particle filtering) in order to implement the bayesian framework (Chen, 2003). PFs are Bayesian in nature and their goal is to find an approximation to the posterior density of the states of interest (e.g. position of a moving object in tracking) based on observations corrupted by additive gaussian white noise which are inputs to the filter. This is done using the principle of Importance Sampling (IS) whereby, multiple copies (particles) of the variable of interest are drawn from a known density (Importance Function (IF)), each one associated with a weight that signifies the quality of that specific particle based on the received observations. An estimation of the variable of interest is obtained by the weighted sum of all the particles.

The main objective of particle filtering (Maskell and Gordon, 2001) is to track a variable of interest as its evolves over time, typically with nonlinear models and non-gaussian noises. Consequently, they have been used in a wide variety of real-time applications including tracking. Tracking is a process measurement to sequentially estimate hidden states \( s_t \) from all the available measurements \( z_t \) (observations). An efficient and robust tracking of objects in complex environments is important for a variety of applications relying on tracking including surveillance and monitoring (Xinyu and Baoxin, 2005), autonomous driving (Petrovskaya and Thrun, 2009), medical imaging (De Bruijne and Nielsen, 2004) or robotics. Depending on the state-space model proposed, the complexity is related to the prediction of M sampled particles and weight evaluation stage.

The proposed algorithm considered in our approach, uses a Gaussian approximation to the full-posterior as the importance function. Also, we pro-
pose to compute the Kullback-Leibler distance using the KNN framework to evaluate likelihood that further increases the complexity of the algorithm. To sum up, the proposed particle filter algorithm consists of an initialization of the template model and a sequential Monte Carlo implementation of a Bayesian filtering for the stochastic tracking system.

Translating an algorithm for real-time implementation requires making specific choices so that the design meets the constraints. Some of the main constraints are speed of execution, power dissipation, accuracy of the results, cost and time involved in the implementation. Dedicated hardware implementation may be useful for high speed processing but it does not offer the flexibility and programmability required for system evolution. Applications with stringent resource-consumption and runtime constraints are increasingly resorting to MP-SoC architectures. Generally, the MP-SoC architecture has become a solution for designing embedded systems dedicated to applications that require intensive computations. In the MP-SoC architecture, the mapping of software tasks to hardware resources is important since it affects the degree of parallelism among multiple processors and the utilization of hardware resources.

Except for the state estimate and initialization stage, processing of individual particles can be done in parallel. With regard to the latter, we applied our design technique to implement the proposed face tracking algorithm on the homogeneous MP-SoC architecture (Sieler et al., 2010). This parallel architecture contains multiple homogenous processors, memory blocks, DMA (Direct memory access) and several I/O resources in the same chip. In addition, it can be beneficial to take advantage of the parallelism, low cost, and low power consumption offered by FPGAs.

The design and implementation of a real-time object tracking algorithm on a FPGA focuses on minimizing resource utilization to allow functionality of the application that uses the tracking information to be added. We then propose a FPGA implementation to evaluate real-time performance of the developed algorithm. The details of this implementation are provided in section 4.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the theory behind the PFs and the survey of existing related efforts. In Section 3, we briefly describe and present the face tracking algorithm with particle filter framework, including face model, dynamic model and observation model. Section 4 is mainly concerned with outlining our proposed design flow for implementing the developed image processing application. Evaluation of resource utilization and latency of the two parallel schemes on FPGA platform to speed up the tracking process is presented in section 5. Section 6 concludes the paper.

2 STATE OF THE ART

Sequential Monte Carlo (SMC) (Diaconis, 2003) methods are a set of simulation based methods which provide a convenient and attractive approach to computing the posterior distribution. Therefore, SMC methods are very flexible, easy to implement, parallelizable and applicable in very general settings. Several closely related algorithms under the names of bootstrap filters, the Sampling Importance Resampling Filter (SIRF), condensation, particle filters, Monte Carlo filters, Sequential Importance Sampling (SIS) and interacting particle approximation have appeared in several research fields. The problem encountered by the SIS is that, as time increases, the distribution of the importance weights becomes more and more skewed. Practically, after a few time steps, most particles have negligible weights. To avoid this degeneracy, the key idea of SIR (Bootstrap filter) is to eliminate or replicate particles depending on their importance weight (Particles with high weight are selected more and more often, others die out slowly).

PFs (Maskell and Gordon, 2001) are used to perform filtering for dynamic state-space problem that can be described as a sequential representation (system transition equation and observation equation). State-space model depends on physics of this problem.

In most practical scenarios, these models are nonlinear and the densities involved are non-Gaussian. PFs are used to estimate states of a nonlinear, non-Gaussian state space model. Traditional filters like the Extended Kalman Filter (Greg and Gary, 1995), extension of Kalman filter, are known to find an optimal solution for the recursive problem if state and/or measurement models are nonlinear, and state and measurement noises are non-Gaussian.

In our implementation, we choose to use the problem modeled as Markovian nonlinear and non-Gaussian state space. Often, in practical operations, a large number of particles need to be used for computing estimates of the desired state. Hence for meeting speed requirements of real time applications, it is necessary to have high throughput designs with ability to process a larger number of particles in a given time. Parallelizability is the key to high throughput design for PFs, as this enables simultaneous processing of particles.

In the digital implementation of PFs algorithms, the choices available are to either use a digital sig-
nal processor (DSP), a field-programmable gate array (FPGA) or an application specific IC (ASIC).

Recently, many approaches on the hardware implementation of particle filters have drawn attention (Bolić et al., 2004), resulting in an FPGA prototype for a particle filter algorithm. As part of that effort, the authors have developed an architecture for a digital hardware implementation of particle filters along with efficient resampling algorithms. Their initial attempt was evaluated on TI TMS320C54x DSP for bearings-only tracker algorithm. With \( M = 2000 \) particles, on a single state-of-the-art DSP, yielded speeds of up to 500Hz for SIRF. By using a Xilinx Virtex II Pro FPGA, they achieved a maximum sampling frequency of 50 kHz for a similar application. This later led to an application specific integrated circuit (ASIC) implementation for realizing certain stages in the particle filter algorithm.

The successful implementation of this kind of image processing algorithm illustrates that the digital signal processing required for high rate sensing application can be efficiently implemented on FPGA hardware (Xilinx Spartan-II XC2S200) (Bolić et al., 2004).

In parallel implementations, propagation and weight calculation for different particles are independent and each requires \( M \) iterations for one PF recursion. The resampling, which is inherently sequential, has been modified in order to allow for parallel implementation. As resampling requires all particle weights to be available; complete parallelization of the particle filter algorithm is difficult. Efficient methods to address this in hardware can be found in (Bolić, 2004). More recently, a Single Instruction Multiple Data (SIMD) architecture that uses \( N \) processors to process \( M \) particles for particle filters has been presented in (Medeiros et al., 2008). Other interesting implementation strategy was done using General Purpose Graphical Processing Units (GP-GPUs). In (Liu et al., 2010), the authors explored the implementation of multi-cue based face tracking algorithm on dedicated processors and demonstrated the efficiency of two parallel computing techniques (one is multicore based parallel algorithm with a MapReduce thread model and the other is GPU based speedup approach).

For human tracking according to (Anastasios and Nikolaou, 2012), they apply the Service Oriented (SOA) Architecture framework for scheduling complex industrial workflows in particular a real-time self-initialized human tracking based on Particle Filter under complex observation conditions. During the exploration of the unknown environment, the tracker position maintains a set of hypotheses with regard to the last position of the tracked object and the different objects around it that have similar colors and shapes. The input for updating the tracker position comes from the various sensors cameras distributed placed in critical parts of the industries (Nissan Iberica Automobile Construction company). Moreover, the estimate of the position of the tracked object can be updated based on the dataset collected up to that point in time.

3 FACE TRACKING WITH PARTICLE FILTER

3.1 Particle Filter

Our goal is to track the face through a sequence of video. Tracking objects in video involves the modeling of non-linear and non-gaussian systems. The particle filter can be employed by using a probabilistic framework which formulates tracking problems as a Hidden Markov Model (HMM).

The state of face at time \( t \) is donated \( s_t \), which represents an observed state (hidden position) of the object, and its history is \( S = \{s_1, ..., s_t\} \). Similarly, the temporal data sequence (images) features at time \( t \) is \( z_t \) with history is \( Z = \{z_1, ..., z_t\} \).

From a Bayesian perspective, the tracking problem is to recursively compute the posterior state-density \( p(s_t | z_t) \) of the state \( s_t \) at time \( t \), taking different values, given the data \( z_0t \) up to time \( t \) (using the process density \( p(s_t | s_{t-1}) \) and the observation density \( p(z_t | s_t) \)). To sum up, the model is described by:

- \( p(s_0) \) for \( t = 0 \)
- \( p(s_t | s_{t-1}) \) for \( t > 0 \)
- \( p(z_t | s_t) \) for \( t > 0 \)

Given the face model, the tracking algorithm consists of four main steps:

1) Sampling step. Generation of new particles, in which \( M \) particles \( s^m_t \) for \( m = \{1, ..., M\} \) are generated from old sample set \( s^m_{t-1} \) using an importance function

\[
\tilde{s}^m_t \approx \pi(s_t | s^m_{t-1}, z_t)
\]  

(1)

2) Weight measurement, assigns importance weights \( \omega^m_t \) for each newly generated samples based on the received observation. This step is the most computationally intensive and generally involves the computation of transcendental trigonometric and exponential functions.

\[
\tilde{\omega}^m_t \propto \omega^m_{t-1} \frac{p(z_t | s^m_t) p(s_t | s^m_{t-1})}{\pi(s^m_t | s^m_{t-1}, z^m_{t-1})}
\]  

(2)

3) State estimation obtains the final state vector of face by newly generated samples and its weights
4) Resampling step where the input is an array of the weights of the particles and the output is an array of indices of which particles are going to propagate forward. The first three steps form the particle filter Sequential Importance Sampling (SIS) filter. The filter that performs all the four operations is the Sample Importance Resampling Filter (SIRF).

3.2 Tracking Application

The application is based on skin color detection which is performed on the input image. A particle filter is applied then for tracking the image position \( s_t \) of the region of interest (the face).

3.2.1 Skin Detection using Color

In the following, we present a conceptually simple approach for face detection. Skin color (Vezhnevets et al., 2003) is a distinguishing feature of human faces. In a controlled environment, the skin detection can be efficient to locate faces in images. The first step of the proposed algorithm is to detect the human face in the first frame. Since we are interested in tracking, we assume that the target object has been detected using an intuitive method to find a rectangular region of the face. The skin detection technique is summarized in figure 1. This method used the thresholding of RGB color space for skin detection, segmentation technique and region labeling in order to separate the face region. The detected object becomes reference template for the first frame and it is updated in every frame.

![Image](image_url)

**Figure 1:** Face detection using skin color.

3.2.2 Color based Tracking Approach

We want to apply a particle filter in a color model based framework. This system depends on the deterministic search of a window (particle), whose color content matches a reference color model. To model the target using color information, we pick M rectangular regions \( \{s_0^m, ..., s_m^m\} \) within the object to be tracked. Each rectangle \( s_0^m \) is represented by the mean \((h, s, v)\) color of the pixels within region \( s_0^m \) (other color spaces can be considered similarly). Since we use the SIRF for our implementation, we obtain the optimal Importance distribution which is given by:

\[
\pi_t(s_t|a_{t-1}, z_t) = p(s_t|s_{t-1}^m, z_t) \tag{3}
\]

Consequently, the recurrence relations (1) and (2) are simplified and formed the basis for the optimal Bayesian solution:

- For the \( m^{th} \) sample

\[
s_t^m \approx p(s_t|s_{t-1}^m) \tag{4}
\]

- For the \( m^{th} \) sample, the weight assignment equation is:

\[
\omega_t^m = \omega_{t-1}^m p(z_t|s_t^m) \tag{5}
\]

Figure 2 outlines an iteration of the particle filter algorithm. The performance of the filter has been tested on a rolling ball sequence. The actual frame (example we take here frame 2) of the sequence is loaded and M samples are taken using \((x, y)\) position of upper-left corner stored in each particle.

In the first iteration, this sampling is randomly generated from a uniform posterior probability density. In a measurement process, M windows are captured from the image using the coordinates given by the previous sampling stage. Particle weights computation is based on the distinctive features that can be followed from frame to frame around the region of interest instead of performing an exhaustive search over the whole image. In order to improve weights computation, we have chosen to get an estimation of the Kullback-Leibler divergence from the \( K^{th} \) Nearest Neighbor (KNN). The particle with the maximum weight \( s_{\text{max}}^m \) is selected as best candidate for the state of the system in the iteration. In order to track moving objects efficiently, we perform a resampling stage (see Figure 2) evaluating previous particle weights
and concentrating particles around the most probable states, discarding those with lower weights. A detailed description of the particle filter algorithm is presented in the following sections.

3.2.3 Face Model

We are used a rectangle region to describe face features for tracking. In our methods, the face model is defined by:

\[ P_t = \alpha_xP_x + \alpha_yP_y + \alpha_bP_b + \alpha_rP_r + \alpha_sP_s \]  

(6)

where \( \alpha_x, \alpha_y, \alpha_b \), and \( \alpha_r \) are the confidence values of the 2D position \((x, y)\) and color space \((H, S, V)\) respectively. The values can be determined empirically by human. The combination of the color information and the evolution of the 2D position achieve excellent performance in term of speed and accuracy.

To define the problem of tracking, we consider that the state sequence \( s_t \) of a target given by: \( s_t = \{X_t, Y_t, W, H\} \) where \( s_t \) is a rectangle which represents the region-of-interest (RoI), where \( (X_t, Y_t) \) is the position of upper-left corner of the rectangle and \( W, H \) are the width and the height of the rectangle respectively. For subsequent frames, the tracking algorithm confines its search space to an area centered on the location found in the previous frame. The implementation details are described in the following section.

3.2.4 Evolution and Observation Model

We consider a dynamic system represented by the stochastic process \( s_t \), whose temporal evolution is given by the state equation as shown in equation (8) (Face dynamics are modeled as a first order process, as shown in equation):

\[ s_t = s_{t-1} + \Omega_{t-1} \]  

(7)

where \( \Omega_{t-1} \) indicates the Gaussian noises.

Since we use the SIRF for our implementation, the observation model is performed to measure the weight for all the newly generated samples (which includes two given information based on color features and movement features). We want to estimate the state vector \( s_t \) at discrete times with the help of system observations which are realizations of the stochastic process \( z_t \) governed by the measurement equation. The observations are available at discrete times according to:

\[ p(z_t | s_t) \propto \exp(-\mu D_{KL}) \]  

(8)

where \( D_{KL} \) is the Kullback-Leibler divergence between the reference and the target frames. The aim of the likelihood distribution \( p(z_t | s_t) \) is to determine in successive frames the region which best matches, in terms of a similarity measure.

3.2.5 The \( K^{th} \) Nearest Neighbor (KNN)

Classically, distance can be a distance between color histograms or, similarly, probability density functions (PDFs). For example, the Bhattacharya distance was used for tracking (Johncy Rani and Suja Priyadarsini, 2010). Another widely used similarity measure is the Kullback-Leibler distance (Boltz et al., 2009):

\[ D_{KL}(R, T) = \int_R f_R(s) \log \left( \frac{f_R(s)}{f_K(s)} \right) ds \]  

(9)

Distance (10) can be decomposed as follows:

\[ D_{KL}(R, T) = \int_R f_R(s) \log \left( \frac{f_R(s)}{f_K(s)} \right) ds \]  

(10)

\[ = -H(T) + H_X(T, R) \]

where \( H \) is the differential entropy and \( H_X \) is the cross entropy, also called relative entropy or likelihood.

In our approach, the reference frame and target frame from the video frames are selected first. Then the particular Region-of-Interest (RoI) is selected from the reference frame and the (\( Y, U, V \)) color feature was extracted. Then, the colour and the geometric features are extracted from the target frame. Finally, the Kullback-Leibler Divergence is used for finding the similarity measure between the reference and the target frames.

In this paper, we propose to compute the Kullback-Leibler distance between high-dimensional PDFs using the \( K^{th} \) Nearest Neighbor framework (KNN). Since the Kullback-Leibler is a distance, the KNN-based expression of the Kullback-Leibler distance proposed for RoI tracking is the difference between a cross entropy and differential entropy (Bolić, 2004)(see Eq. (11)); the KNN estimate of this distance is given by:

\[ D_{KL}(T, R) = H_{KNN}(T, R) - H_{KNN}(T) \]

\[ = \log \left( \frac{|R|}{|T| - 1} \right) + \frac{d}{|T|} \sum_{s \in T} \log \left( \frac{\rho(s)^T}{\rho(s)^R} \right) \]  

(11)

where \( \rho(s)^T \) is the distance to the \( K^{th} \) nearest neighbor of \( s \) in \( R \) and \( T \) respectively excluding the sample located at \( s \) if any.
3.2.6 Systematic Resampling in SIR

The particles are resampled to generate an un-weighted particle set according to their importance weights to avoid degeneracy. This is done by multiplying or discarding particles with respect to high or low importance weights to obtain a predefined number of particles.

Standard algorithms used for resampling such as residual resampling (RR), branching corrections (Crisan et al., 1999), systematic resampling (SR) (Bolić, 2004)...The proposed algorithm in this paper uses the systematic resampling algorithm. This is the most commonly used resampling algorithm for PFs (Maskell and Gordon, 2001). The Resampled particles are drawn proportional to this distribution to replace the original set. The SR concept for a PF that uses 5 particles is shown in figure 3. First the cumulative sum of weights (CSW) of sampled particles is computed. Then, as shown on the y axis of the graph, a function u(m) called the resampling function is systematically updated and compared with the CSW of the particles. The corresponding particles are replicated to form the resampled set which for this case is \{x(0),x(0),x(3),x(3),x(3)\}. This method eliminates particles with low weight and keeps more particles in more probable regions.

3.3 The Proposed Particle Filter Algorithm

Initialization. For most object tracking system, initialization algorithm is only performed at the beginning of tracking which is an independent process from the tracking process. In this tracking system, we have developed an algorithm which will be introduced to achieve automatic initialization and the face detected is used as the reference face model. We assume in our approach the image to be recorded with stationary camera.

Algorithm Description. We can now specify the algorithm in detail as fellows. The face tracking algorithm is separated into two main stages: automatic initialization and particle filter tracking. The principle of the proposed algorithm is described in detail bellow.

1. Initialization (automatic)
   Reference face template updating.

2. Particle filter tracking:
   Using cumulative measurement up to time \( t \), \( Z = (z_1...z_t) \), our aim is to estimate \([x_t^m,\omega_t^m]_{m=0}^M = \text{Function}(\{z_1^m,\omega_1^m\}_{t=1}^M \})

   - Simulate \( M \) independent and identically distributed random samples (Randomly chosen particles to represent posterior distribution by generating a random number \( \delta_s \in [-0.5,0.5] \). \( \delta_s \in [0.5,0.5] \) uniformly distributed).
   \([x_s^m,\omega_s^m]_{m=0}^M \) (where \( \omega_s^m \) are the associated weights and \( M \) is the number of particles). Given the observed data \( z_t \) at \( t \), for each particle \( m = 0...M \) do:
     - Calculate face model.
     - Calculate Euclidean distance between the sample feature vector \( P_t \) and the reference feature vector \( P_r \).
     - Calculate Kullback-Leibler distance.
     - Weight measurement: For the \( m^{th} \), we obtain its weights \( \omega_t^m \) by a Kullback-Leibler similarity function as shown in Equation (10).
       So we obtain the final weight for the \( m^{th} \) as:
       \( \omega_t^m \approx \exp(-\mu D_k) \)

3. Estimating state parameters at time step: calculate mean position of each target using a weighted average of the particles.

4. Resampling step \([x_s^m,\omega_s^m]_{m=0}^M \) to obtain new set of particles \([x_t^m,\omega_t^m]_{m=0}^M \) (using the above-mentioned resampling algorithm).

4 Parallel Particle Filter Algorithm

4.1 Homogeneous Network of Communicating Processors

Due to the increasing complexity of MPSoC architectures, software and hardware designers as well as system architects are facing completely new challenges. Optimization of interconnects among processors and memories becomes important as multiple processors and memories can be integrated on a MPSoC since
it may target multiple objectives: application performance, power consumption/energy, temperature, small chip area, etc. Consequently, high performance embedded design must aim to obtain an ideal balance between hardware constraints and performance constraints. As well, developing processors network systems tailored to a particular application domain is critical and design-time consuming in order to achieve high performance customized solutions. The effectiveness of such approaches largely depends on the availability of an ad hoc design methodology. Our goal was to limit the phase of architecture exploration in order to reduce design time and to allow fast prototyping.

Our research interests are based mainly on fast prototyping tools which enable the parallelization of real-time signal and image algorithms in a homogeneous communicating processor network. In this paper, we propose a new optimized design methodology under performance constraints. Based on Multi-Processors concept, our approach proposes an original design flow for the fast prototyping of image processing on a MP-SoC architecture. Our HNCP methodology is based on two essential concepts. First, it consists in the derivation of a generic architecture based on a HNCP (Homogeneous Network of Communicating Processors). The second feature, parallelization of the sequential code on the different soft-core performed using specific communication functions based on Parallel Skeleton concept, such as data, task and flow parallel skeletons. We believe that our methodology provides several benefits such as improving parallelism of tasks (or data), fast and valid mapping of software models to hardware architecture.

4.1.1 The Proposed Multi-processors System on Chip Design Methodology

The proposed methodology presents a generic MP-SoC design flow dedicated to the fast prototyping of complex image processing. This approach is based on concepts of HNCP and parallel programming with the use of specific communication functions. In the following, we present the generic HNCP architecture and how to configure it.

The HNCP (Homogeneous Network of Communicating Processors). Different models of parallel architecture exist, we choose the MIMD-DM model (Multiple Instruction Multiple Data with Distributed Memory). Communications between processors are done using the message passing communication model. We chose this architecture because of its ability to execute a large range of parallel scheme efficiently (data and task parallelism, pipeline). The interconnection network is a static network with regular hypercube topology. This hypercube topology eases scalability (when the number of processors is doubled, the maximum distance D between two processors and the number of links per node only increases by 1) and routing which can be calculated using a simple combinatorial function.

This architecture is homogeneous. As seen from the figure 4, each node comprises the same identical components (soft processor, with local memory for application software and data storage, and a communication device). All components can be chosen inside a library of available custom components or commercial IP. Depending on the application, an architecture derived from the generic architecture may differ from another through the different options and parameters relating to the processor (optional arithmetic units, implementation options), to the memory (amount of local memory, size of potential buffers) and to the interconnection network (type of link between processor, number of nodes).

Architecture Generation and HNCP Configuration Via CubeGen Tool. In order to reduce the time and effort needed to design a network of communicating processors, we have developed a tool called CubeGen (see figure 4). It enables to automate the configuration file creation dedicated to the Embedded Development Kit (EDK) of Xilinx company. This .mhs file contains the description of the system with the connection between the different IPs. The designer has to specify, via a graphical interface, the different parameters chosen for the network: network dimension, MicroBlaze parametrization, memory size allocated to each processor, type of communication link and use or not of the special IP for I/O (VHDL block designed to control the I/O directly from the video flow).

CubeGen automates the high level description of the HNCP in few seconds. The designer launches the synthesis of the system with specific target to check if this configuration of the HNCP can be implemented. This methodology matches perfectly with the concept of fast prototyping on SoPC. The designer obtains quickly an architecture tailored for the target application. Moreover, CubeGen provides a well-suited library (regarding architecture configuration choice) of specific lightweight communication functions that facilitate conversion from sequential algorithm to a parallel C code.

Proposed Design Flow. The proposed design flow (as shown in figure 5) takes as input a sequential algorithm (written in C Code). Thanks to a CubeGen tool, an Homogeneous Network of Communicating Processors (HNCP) is automatically generated using
Parallelization process is based on the main idea that most of parallel applications were built upon a limited number of recurring schemes of parallelization (called parallel skeletons). As we already mentioned, the proposed CubeGen tool generates specific lightweight communication functions that are tuned to the network configuration (number of processors, communication links, parallelization scheme...). With these communication functions, designer can convert sequential algorithm into a parallel C code. Thus the whole system is instantiated on SoPC Xilinx platform (ISE/EDK tools). If HW architecture does not meet area constraints, a first loop enables to re-configure the HNCP thanks to CubeGen. Otherwise, the whole system (SW and HW) can be tested on board or simulated (using abstraction models for co-simulation). If this final system does meet timing constraints, refining can be done on parallel code or/and on architecture configuration in order to converge to a satisfying solution.

4.1.2 Parallel Programming

Today’s challenge is to provide high-level programming concepts without sacrificing efficiency. However, the programming level is still rather low and programmers have to manage low level communication problems such as deadlocks. Moreover, the program is split into a set of processes which are assigned to the different processors. As described in previous section, the proposed approach tries to increase the abstraction level of parallel programming and to overcome the mentioned issues. The designer can define easily and quickly a suited HNCP for the application but software development still remains to program the different softcores. In order to tackle parallel programming and communications aspects, we have developed a set of specific skeletons and the associated communication functions. They suit perfectly to the network topology and ease the designer works (abstraction level). From a specific network configuration (size of hypercube an communication links), a library of functions are automatically generated by CubeGen (see figure 5) for all skeletons. The mapping and the scheduling of the skeletons are static and are realized during the compilation. In this paper, we investigate the approach of parallelization Farm scheme.

**Figure 5: The proposed design flow.**

**Parallel Skeleton Farm.** In practice, we generate...
M number of particle in the region of high interest (i.e. around the Region of Interest RoI) for each iteration. This search window is variable from one frame to another. Therefore, we will focus to implement our tracking algorithm using dynamic data with the enhanced Farm skeleton provided by our skeleton library. Farm skeleton may use either a static load distribution or a dynamic load distribution (Poldner and Kuchen, 2008). Since our approach is based on regular homogeneous architecture, we are interested to the case where the master sends new data to any slave whenever his previous work is completed. It consists of a master entity and multiple workers. In a dynamic data parallel implementation, the master decomposes the input data in smaller independent datasets and sends them to each worker. Workers process the data and send their result to the master which merges them to get the final result as depicted in figure 6.

![Farm skeleton](image)

Figure 6: Farm skeleton.

Our skeleton library offers a pre-implemented function dedicated to farm implementation for initialisation (init-farm), synchronisation (synchro) and work distribution (farm) as depicted below. The designer can use directly these functions to shorten parallel programming.

```c
init_farm(); //Initialization
synchro(); //the master node sends synchronization pulses to slave nodes to wake up.
while(proc_retour < Nb_max_of_Data)
    //number of data to be sent is Nb_max_of_Data.
    microblaze_disable_interrupts();
    if(image_comp > 0)
        image_maitre=image_comp;
    if(image_maitre==image_comp)
        image_comp--;
    microblaze_enable_interrupts();
    //Block the send or the receive until
    //the slave executes the task and delivers the result
    //back to the master.
    compute _function_master
    //The master itself process the next data.
    microblaze_disable_interrupts();
    //Wait for the request to send or to receive.
    farm();
    //Receive/send incoming data(outgoing data
```

4.2 Parallel Particle Filter Algorithm on HNCP

In our implementation of face tracking algorithm, several independent parallel data (particles) are generated. A straight-forward method to apply the farm skeleton with this specific application is to associate a work element for each generated particle since all the particles are independents.

In this way, the remaining sequential algorithm part in the parallel algorithm (sample generation and resampling steps) represents a minor part of the processing time in the sequential implementation (see section V) thus allowing an efficient parallel implementation according the Amadahl’s law which is a model for the relationship between the expected speedup of parallelized implementations of an algorithm relative to the sequential algorithm.

The application is distributed over different processors as defined. Master process is mapped as one processor and farmer processes are mapped on the remaining processors. Each worker process executes the same processing code on the different data. In other words, the master process generates a sequence of inputs (particles) and assigns each of them to one of several slaves. Each worker handles one particle at a time $t$, and it does this in parallel to all the other workers which produces a sequence of outputs(weights).

The proposed algorithm is executed in N processors. Since M particles are generated and because the processing time is regular, each worker eventually process $M/N$ sample. Each processor calculates the weights measurements for one sample, including three measurements from face model, Kullback-Leibler distance and weight importance. One can see in figure 7 the parallel tracking algorithm scheme using Farm skeleton. Finally, the sample weights from all processors are collected and the sample parameter with maximum weight is selected to be the final estimation for the target face. Resampling requires knowledge of sum of all particle weights. Hence it cannot begin before the weights of all the particles have been calculated.

Figure 8 shows the whole application steps of the face detection and tracking methods (including the automatic skin detection step) of the FPGA implementation. The skin detection is delivered sequentially by the master processor. The advantage of the hardware implementation of this type of detector is that it entails very small amounts of memory (mainly the 128 bytes for the BRAM) and it gives sensible re-
5.1 Results

In this section, we present the results of the implementation and a comparison of the proposed architectures instantiated using CubeGen tool.

5.1.1 Sequential Implementation

We aim to demonstrate and evaluate the implementation of the proposed algorithm by tracking through video-sequence of a human-centered environment. The timing performances of the tracking algorithm were measured by processing an input image of size 384*288 pixels.

For implementation of particle filter, M samples randomly generated consisting of rectangular regions are taken from the input image (Figure 9). So each particle \( m \) carries information of \( \{x_m^t, y_m^t\} \) subwindow coordinates \( m = 0 \ldots M \) and a weight between the target color window in the current frame and the reference color window. The color window with the maximum weight \( s_m^t \) is chosen as best candidate for the face. In our experiments under sequential mode, the number of search window (particles) is set to 100 in order to be better concentrated around the true state. The size of the search window (face) \( H_{Particle} \times W_{Particle} \) varies among different video sequence. We made several experiments on sequential implementation. All these experiments have been done on a standard 3 GHz PC with 3 GB RAM. Table 1 shows the execution time required for each processing step of the algorithm and the number of search windows used. The execution time is the time it takes for processing a single frame. For the sequential implementation on FPGA platform, Table 2 shows the statistics of proposed face detection and tracking algorithm on one MicroBlaze as soft-processor in our network.

Hence, the parallel implementation of the developed resampling algorithm is vital to the development of faster and more efficient real-time particle filters.

5.1.2 Parallel Implementation

We would like to make a comparison in terms of number of particles and the speedup. In order to investi-
Table 1: Timing results /OS Windows XP 32 bits (384*288 pixels).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Samples</th>
<th>100</th>
<th>50</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time of detection</td>
<td>3.6ms</td>
<td>3.6ms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time (each sample)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generate Sample</td>
<td>10μs</td>
<td>10μs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>140μs</td>
<td>140μs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight</td>
<td>445μs</td>
<td>445μs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time of tracking</td>
<td>65ms</td>
<td>35ms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time of resampling</td>
<td>180μs</td>
<td>180μs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Timing results /HNCP with 1 processor (256*192 pixels).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Samples</th>
<th>15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time of detection</td>
<td>8.7ms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time of tracking</td>
<td>150ms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time of Resampling</td>
<td>44ms</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

gate the performance with different sizes of network, we set the particle number to 45 particle and the computing core from 1 to 16 (dimension of HNCP $D=1...4$ i.e. $2^D$ nodes). One can often expect and frequently achieve an improvement in performance by using far more particles. The performance figure is shown in figure 10. The computing result is from one person (one face) in the investigate frame. In each experiment, we vary the number of particles evaluations that can be processed in real-time with different sizes of HNCP. We have taken the following measures to show the variation caused by using different particle number.

The performance of the proposed resampling algorithms is rarely close to the theoretical speedup. This can be seen from figure 11. The time of latency in the developed algorithm depends on the number of particles $M$.

Figure 12 summarizes the total utilization of the proposed architectures. The entire SIR along with the computational units of sampling and importance was implemented on Xilinx Virtex 6 XC6VLX240T board.

5.2 Results Analysis

Our results show that it is possible to achieve real-time tracking even operating at relatively low clock frequencies (using the platform XC6VLX240T-1FFG1156 FPGA running at 200 MHz). From figure 11, we can observe that effectively the number of particle $M$ increases with the size of HNCP architecture. There is significant gain in increasing the level of parallelism when $M/N$ becomes small. As can be seen from the timing figure, the resampling step is a bottleneck in the SIRF execution as it cannot be parallelizable with other operations. Regarding the computation times, it should be mentioned that the proposed tracking algorithm requires more than 93% of the total execution time according to the table 2 without the resampling and the detection steps.

The time of resampling (including the time needed to select the location of target as a particle with maximum weight) use less than 7% of the execution time so does not significantly affect the total time of execution with respect to the table 2. Consequently, it is possible to implement the major bottleneck of the algorithm (the computation of the color histograms and, the particle weights) in a parallel manner suitable for our HNCP architecture, but also that the non-parallelizable steps can be implemented efficiently.

The experimental results demonstrate that the parallel Farm scheme can achieve a good speedup compared
to the corresponding sequential algorithms. Furthermore, as resampling is applied at every iteration of the proposed algorithm, this can evaluating previous particle weights. The final goal of this parallel implementation is to develop algorithms and architectures that can reach the minimum execution time.

6 CONCLUSIONS

In this work, we have designed and implemented a preliminary real time particle filter algorithm that makes use of our MP-SOC architecture (HNCP) to execute the algorithms main performance bottleneck. Our strategy uses specific communication functions based on our Parallel skeleton library for reducing the computational efforts generated by the sequential evaluation (Particle weights computation). Our experiments on different video sequences showed that search of Region of Interest (ROI) are accelerated in order to achieve real-time tracking with relatively small number of particles. The experiment results show that the method can get a good effect and speedup. This allows us to propose a particle filter framwork for fast face tracking to achieve real time performance using our HNCP architecture. As future work, the research goal concerns the algorithm implementation in a manner suitable for an FPGA-based intelligent camera. In particular, we aim to develop a robust self-localization approach for mobile robot equipped with our architecture of a smart camera based on Xilinx FPGA (camera with sensors for high resolution image acquisition equipped with HNCP architecture). Therefore, it seems important to find a properly way to report results of applying particle filters to providing a mobile robot with autonomous capabilities.

REFERENCES


