Regional SVM Classifiers with a Spatial Model for Object Detection

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Abstract: This paper presents regional Support Vector Machine (SVM) classifiers with a spatial model for object detection. The conventional SVM maps all the features of training examples into a feature space, treats these features individually, and ignores the spatial relationship of the features. The regional SVMs with a spatial model we propose in this paper take into account a 3-dimentional relationship of features. One-dimensional relationship is incorporated into the regional SVMs. The other two-dimensional relationship is the pairwise relationship of regional SVM classifiers acting on features, and is modelled by a simple conditional random field (CRF). The object detection system based on the regional SVM classifiers with the spatial model is demonstrated on several public datasets, and the performance is compared with that of other object detection algorithms.

1 INTRODUCTION

Detecting an object of a category is very challenging in the computer vision area due to the significant changes in object color, illumination, viewpoint, large intra-class variability in shape, appearance, pose, and complex background clutter and occlusions. As it is one of the most significant tasks in this field, it has been studied by many researchers for decades, and many successful results have been reported. A detector that localizes objects in an image was realized by some learning algorithms in many studies. The learning method used in object detection can be a boosting algorithm (Alexe et al., 2010), a Support Vector Machine (SVM) (Scholkopf and Smola, 2002), a transformation of any of them (Opelt et al., 2006) or a combination of some of them (Song et al., 2011). In this paper, we propose the multiple regional SVM classifiers to enhance the performance of the SVM classifier and focus on modelling the spatial relationship of these regional SVM classifiers.

The spatial relationship has been taken into consideration in many works. In (Tagare et al., 1995), the spatial relation of similar patches was described, and a model of the spatial relation between parts was learnt in (Kumar and Hebert, 2006, David J. Crandall, 2006, David Crandall, 2006). The spatial relationship along z axis is encoded by the regional SVM classifiers, and the spatial relationship along axis x and axis y is delineated by the spatial model.

Figure 1: Spatial relationship. View the cell features of training examples in a 3D space. The spatial relationship along z axis is encoded by the regional SVM classifiers, and the spatial relationship along axis x and axis y is delineated by the spatial model.
Others encoded the spatial relationship in a graphical model such as the Bayesian model (Bogdan et al., 2010), a pictorial structure (Fischler and Elschlager, 1973), a tree model (Long (Leo) Zhu, 2010), etc. Most of these approaches require the association of a label to a part in order to learn the model, and it becomes unsound if some of the parts are missing or undetected. In addition, sometimes good part structures should be carefully selected (Felzenszwalb et al., 2010). In contrast, we explore the spatial relationship of regional SVM classifiers acting on cell features, which is a lower level description compared with the part description, and it requires no labels of parts.

We describe the spatial relationship in Fig. 1. Assume the cell features (split training examples into cells) for training are viewed in a 3D space, the spatial relationship along the axis z is incorporated into the regional SVM classifiers, and the spatial relationship along the axis x and axis y (or on the x-y plane) is described as a pairwise relationship of regional SVM classifiers modelled by a simple conditional random field (CRF).

The contributions of this paper include: 1) construction of regional SVM classifiers to boost the performance of SVM classifier; 2) modelling of the pairwise relationship of regional SVM classifiers by CRF. The conventional SVM training maps all the features of positive and negative training images into a feature space and finds a decision plane. In contrast, we build several regional SVMs, and the training data for each SVM are the features from different instances at the same location. The number of regional SVMs is determined by the number of cells in one instance. The training time of multiple regional SVMs is largely decreased compared with that of the conventional SVM, and above all, regional SVM classifiers improve the performance because each regional SVM classifier encloses a spatial relationship among examples.

The rest of the paper is arranged as follows. The regional SVMs are described in Section 2, and the spatial model based on CRF that expresses the pairwise relationship of regional SVM classifiers is illustrated in Section 3. Experiments and discussions are presented in Section 4, and conclusions follow in Section 5.

2 REGIONAL SVM CLASSIFIERS

We will first give the main idea of the regional SVMs in Section 2.1. The prediction using the learned regional SVM classifiers is illustrated in Section 2.2.
2.1 Definition of Regional SVMs

The regional SVMs are constructed by multiple local SVMs, each encoding the patterns of features from different spatial districts. The features from different images with the same relative location are collected for each individual SVM of regional SVMs. The feature utilized here is cell-based features (such as HOG (Dalal and Triggs, 2005, Felzenszwalb et al., 2008) or LBP (Ojala et al., 1996), that is, several features can be extracted from a single image. The number of SVMs in the regional SVMs is the number of cell features in one single image. The implementation for an individual SVM of regional SVMs is the same as that for the conventional SVM.

Assume we have \( n \) positive images and \( n \) negative images, denoted by \( \{P_1, P_2, ..., P_n\} \) and \( \{N_1, N_2, ..., N_n\} \), respectively. We also assume there are \( m \) features extracted from one image. Features for the \( i \)-th positive image and the \( j \)-th negative image are described by \( \{X_{i1}, X_{i2}, ..., X_{im}\} \) and \( \{X_{j1}, X_{j2}, ..., X_{jm}\} \), respectively.

The conventional SVM maps all the features of positive and negative images into a feature space, and then the conventional SVM model is trained using the feature set \( \{X_{ij} | i \in [1, n], j \in [1, m]\} \). The regional SVMs we propose train \( m \) SVMs (as shown in Fig. 2). Each SVM of regional SVMs delineates the characteristics of the object with different spatial locations. The training set for the \( i \)-th SVM (\( i = 1, ..., m \)) is defined as \( \{X_{i1}, X_{i2}, ..., X_{in}, X_{i1}, X_{i2}, ..., X_{in}\} \).

The union of the training data of all the regional SVMs is the same with the training data of the conventional SVM, but the patterns for each SVM of the regional SVMs are reconstituted. To train each individual SVM of the regional SVMs, the LibSVM (Chang and Lin, 2011) is employed in our program.

2.2 Prediction of Regional SVM Classifiers

The prediction of the regional SVMs for a detection window is reached by all the SVM models constructed in the training of regional SVMs. The relative location of each feature in the detection window can be perceived, and as we denote the features in the detection window by \( \{x_1^{dw}, x_2^{dw}, ..., x_m^{dw}\} \), the subscripts \( 1, 2, ..., m \) indicate the relative location of features in the current window. The decision on the detection window is made with Eq. (1), which suggests that the detection window contains an object if the confidence is positive; otherwise, the detection window is determined to be a non-object window.

\[
\text{confidences}_i = \sum_{l=1}^{m} \text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(x_i^{dw}) + b^l) = \sum_{l=1}^{m} \text{sgn}(\sum_{j=1}^{s} y_j^l \alpha_j K(x_i^{dw}, x_j^{dw}) + b^l)
\]

where \( y_j^l, \alpha_j, K(x_i^{dw}, x_j^{dw}) \) are parameters of the \( l \)-th SVM model in the regional SVMs. \( s \) indicates the number of support vectors and \( K \) is the kernel function, we use the linear kernel in the program.

We can see from Eq. (1) that the prediction of a detection window in the regional SVMs is associated with both the relative location of the feature to be tested in the detection window and the regional SVM classifier, as each cell feature of the detection window is estimated by the corresponding regional SVM classifier. In other words, if the same feature has different locations in different windows, the prediction result of the feature in different windows could also be different.

3 A SPATIAL MODEL BASED ON CRF

In this section, we introduce the spatial model that encodes the pairwise relationship (spatial relationship along axes x and y in Fig. 1) of regional SVM classifiers acting on features. The spatial model is built based on the CRF (Koller and Friedman, 2009) and predicts a binary label \( Y \) that suggests the category of a detection window, given an observed feature vector \( X \). The pairwise relationship is incorporated in the feature vector \( X \).

The model we employ in our formulation is a simple CRF. The conditional probability \( P(Y|X) \) is formulated by Eq. (2) and \( \theta \) is the parameter we want to estimate.

\[
P(Y|X) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^T X}}
\]

The parameter estimation approach we use to learn the model of the conditional probability \( P(Y|X) \) is the maximum likelihood estimation.
Figure 3: Pairwise relationship of regional SVM classifiers acting on cell features.

Assume that the training dataset is denoted by \( D_0 = \{(x_c, y_c), 1 \leq c \leq C_0\} \), given \( C_0 \) training examples, in the learning process, we need to estimate \( \theta^* \) that minimizes the negative log likelihood of the training data \( L_2 \)-regularization expressed in Eq. (3).

\[
\theta^* = \arg \min_{\theta} \sum_{c=1}^{C_0} \log(P(y_c | x_c; \theta)) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \theta_i^2
\]

(3)

Our learning problem is transformed to an optimization problem, and to perform this optimization, the stochastic gradient descent algorithm (Koller and Friedman, 2009) is utilized. The update rule is presented in Eq. (4).

\[
\theta = \theta - \alpha_i \nabla_{\theta} \left[ -\sum_{c=1}^{C_0} \log(P(y_c | x_c; \theta)) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \theta_i^2 \right]
\]

\[
= \theta - \alpha_i \left[ -\sum_{c=1}^{C_0} \log(1 + e^{\theta_i x_c}) + \log(1 + e^{-\theta_i x_c}) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \theta_i^2 \right]
\]

\[
= \theta - \alpha_i \left[ \frac{1}{1 + e^{\theta_i x_c}} - y_c \right] \quad \text{and} \quad \theta \leftarrow \theta + \alpha_i \theta_i^2
\]

(4)

To this point, we explained the parameter estimation process of our spatial model, and the only thing we have not yet reported is how to express the feature \( x_c \). The feature \( x_c \) in our spatial model is required to enclose the pairwise relationship of regional CRF classifiers acting on cell features in one detection window or one training example (we will call it the specified window hereafter). It is defined as a row of confidences that the regional SVM classifiers predict on each cell feature in the specified window, so the feature \( x_c \) represents the specified window. Since the number of the regional SVM classifiers (denoted by \( m \)) is equal to the number of cell features defined in a specified window, the feature \( x_c \) for the specified window has a size of \( m \times m \) to describe the pairwise relationship between regional SVM classifiers acting on cell features (as shown in Fig. 3). We use \( SVM_i(w^i, b_i) \) to denote the \( i^{th} \) SVM of the regional SVM classifiers, and represent the feature of the \( i^{th} \) cell of the specified window as \( x_{cj} \), and assume there are \( m \) cells in one specified window. A feature matrix \( X_{cj} \), which has the size of \( m \times m \), can be calculated by Eq. (5). The feature \( x_c \) of our spatial model is gained by reshaping matrix \( X_{cj} \) to a row vector.

\[
X_{cj} = \text{confidence}(SVM_i(cell_j))
\]

(5)

After learning all the parameters of the spatial model, a prediction approach is required in order to make a decision on a new feature \( x_{new} \). We judge the new feature as positive if the possibility of \( Y=1 \) is larger than the possibility of \( Y=0 \); otherwise, the new feature is settled as negative. The verdict rule is articulated by Eq. (6) and the derivation of this verdict rule is explained in Eq. (7).

\[
y_{new} = \text{sign}(1 - e^{-\theta x_{new}})
\]

(6)

\[
P(Y_{new} = 1 | x_{new}) > P(Y_{new} = 0 | x_{new}) \Rightarrow 1 - e^{-\theta x_{new}} > 0
\]

(7)

4 EXPERIMENTS

Two kinds of experiments are reported in this section. The comparison between the regional SVMs and the SVM is demonstrated with experiments in Section 4.1. The experiments for the spatial model and detecting objects in images are revealed in Section 4.2. All of the experiments are executed on an Intel(R) i5 2.80GHz desktop computer.

4.1 Performance Comparison between Regional SVMs and the Conventional SVM

The performance of regional SVMs and the SVM (Hsu et al., 2003) is estimated and compared on two public datasets, MIT pedestrian dataset and UIUC Image Database for Car Detection. Two kinds of widely used features are involved, and the training is executed in a 5-fold cross validation, so the final accuracy is the average accuracy of the five runs.

Experimental setting. The HOG feature is employed in the experiment on the MIT pedestrian dataset. The cell size of the HOG feature is 8*8 pixels. We operate the LBP feature in the experiment of the UIUC Image Database for Car Detection. Two kinds of widely used features are involved, and the training is executed in a 5-fold cross validation, so the final accuracy is the average accuracy of the five runs.

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Experimental setting. The HOG feature is employed in the experiment on the MIT pedestrian dataset. The cell size of the HOG feature is 8*8 pixels. We operate the LBP feature in the experiment of the UIUC Image Database for Car Detection, and the cell size of the LBP feature is defined as 16*16 pixels. The CRF based spatial model is not used in this experiment for a fair comparison.
Table 1: Comparison results between regional SVMs and the SVM on the MIT Pedestrian Dataset for human detection.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MIT pedestrian dataset</th>
<th>5-fold cross validation</th>
<th>HOG feature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SVM</td>
<td>Regional SVMs</td>
<td>SVM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000 examples</td>
<td>800 examples</td>
<td>600 examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVM acc</td>
<td>0.6241</td>
<td>0.7528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>4931 s</td>
<td>29.41 s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVM acc</td>
<td>0.6256</td>
<td>0.7487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>3151 s</td>
<td>22.49 s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVM acc</td>
<td>0.7431</td>
<td>0.6185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>7210 s</td>
<td>15.51 s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVM acc</td>
<td>0.6185</td>
<td>0.7307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>4380 s</td>
<td>7.672 s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVM acc</td>
<td>0.6210</td>
<td>0.6342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>1107 s</td>
<td>3.566 s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The bold number indicates the best performance.

Table 2: Comparison results between regional SVMs and the SVM on the UIUC Image Database for car detection.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UIUC Image Database for Car Detection</th>
<th>5-fold cross validation</th>
<th>LBP feature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SVM</td>
<td>Regional SVMs</td>
<td>SVM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000 examples</td>
<td>800 examples</td>
<td>600 examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVM acc</td>
<td>0.6837</td>
<td>0.7464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>286.6 s</td>
<td>20.44 s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVM acc</td>
<td>0.6848</td>
<td>0.7389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>180.5 s</td>
<td>14.01 s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVM acc</td>
<td>0.7368</td>
<td>0.6998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>101.5 s</td>
<td>7.394 s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVM acc</td>
<td>0.6998</td>
<td>0.7435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>43.38 s</td>
<td>3.640 s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVM acc</td>
<td>0.7154</td>
<td>0.7154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>9.723 s</td>
<td>1.258 s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The bold number indicates the best performance.

Figure 4: Comparisons of several shots that are processed by our object detection system with and without the spatial model on the UIUC Car Dataset. Top row: Results of our object detection system without the spatial model. Bottom row: Results of our object detection system with the spatial model.

Table 1 epitomizes the accuracy and time cost of two methods testing on the MIT Pedestrian Dataset. We see that the accuracy of the regional SVM classifiers is improved by at least 10%, compared with the results processed by the SVM. The performance is enhanced a little in the experiment of 200 examples, but not as much as the other experiments with more examples, because of the limited number of training samples. Generally, for the regional SVMs, the more training examples used in the experiment, the better the accuracy performance. The computational time we reveal in the table contains the training time and predicting time for five runs of cross validations. It is clear from Table 1 that the training of regional SVMs is dozens of times faster than that of the SVM despite of the number of training examples that are used. Table 2 discloses the results on the UIUC Image Database. With the results of Table 2, a similar conclusion can be reached. To summarize, the regional SVMs is superior to the SVM algorithm on both the accuracy performance and time performance.

4.2 Object Detection in Images

The object detection experiments are first executed on the UIUC Image Database for Car Detection, which contains training images, single-scale test images, and multi-scale test images. Since multi-scale test images are more difficult than the single-scale test images, we use the single-scale test images as the validation dataset and examine our algorithm on the multi-scale test images. The feature we use to represent images is a 31-dimensional HOG feature, and we employ a pyramid framework to detect multiple scales of objects. The confidences gauged by regional SVMs and the spatial model are fused by the weighted average, and the weights are reckoned on the validation dataset. The training process is
performed twice to explore hard negative examples. In the first iteration, cropped training images with a fixed size are used to train initial regional SVMs, and then hard negative examples are explored by detecting the original training negative files rather than cropped training negative examples (Felzenszwalb et al., 2010). The hard negative examples are added to the negative training set to conduct the second round of training. The process of detecting objects using our proposed algorithm consists of four steps (given a test image): 1) pyramid feature extraction; 2) predictions by regional SVMs; 3) confidences estimated by the spatial model; 4) non-maximum suppression. The non-maximum suppression is employed to deal with the situation in which multiple overlapping detections for each instance of an object are obtained. The bounding box with the highest confidence is reported among bounding boxes overlapping at least 50%.

Fig. 4 presents comparisons of several shots that are processed by our object detection system with and without the spatial model. It is clear that the spatial model greatly improves the performance. The performance on the entire dataset is assessed by the precision, recall and F-measure of the testing results, and Table 3 presents the results of ours compared with the Neighborhood Suppression Algorithm (NSA) and the Repeated Part Elimination Algorithm (RPEA) of (Agarwal et al., 2004), which have also evaluated the performance on the multi-scale test images of the UIUC Database. The results of Table 3 demonstrate that our algorithm achieves a performance (F-measure) that is almost 20% better than the performance of the NSA and RPEA. Note that the best F-measure of these two algorithms reported in (Agarwal et al., 2004) is referred to in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NSA</th>
<th>RPEA</th>
<th>Ours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>38.85%</td>
<td>39.57%</td>
<td>66.91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precision</td>
<td>49.09%</td>
<td>49.55%</td>
<td>60.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-measure</td>
<td>43.37%</td>
<td>44.00%</td>
<td>63.27%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We also evaluate our proposed algorithm on the Caltech Airplanes dataset consisting 1074 images, which are divided into a training set (500 images), a validation set (74 images) and a test set (500 images). The training process is similar to that applied on the Car Dataset and the performance is evaluated by the precision-recall curve (Everingham and Zisserman, 2007) as shown in Fig. 5 (some of the detection results are shown in Fig. 6). The comparison methods include the SVM method that employs the HOG feature and part-based algorithm (Felzenszwalb et al., 2010), and our algorithm gives the best average precision (AP) (Everingham and Zisserman, 2007) and a relatively better performance.

5 CONCLUSIONS

This paper presents the regional SVM classifiers with a spatial model to describe the 3D (axes x, y, z in Fig. 1) spatial relationship of features, which is ignored by the conventional SVM. Regional SVM classifiers encode the spatial relationship along axis z, and the spatial model incorporates the spatial relationship along axes x and y. We demonstrate regional SVM classifiers with the spatial model using diversified features in various categories, and the experiments establish that the regional SVM classifiers do enhance the performance of the SVM classifier and the spatial model improves the performance of the object detection system. The experiments on the benchmark datasets show that our system has a relatively better performance compared with other object detection algorithms.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Figure 6: Results on the Caltech Airplanes dataset. Top row: processed by the conventional SVM; Middle row: processed by the part-based algorithm (Felzenszwalb et al., 2010); Bottom row: processed by our algorithm.

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