# Extracting Dynamics from Multi-dimensional Time-evolving Data using a Bag of Higher-order Linear Dynamical Systems

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- Keywords: Linear Dynamical Systems, Human Action Recognition, Dynamic Texture Analysis, Higher Order Decomposition.
- Abstract: In this paper we address the problem of extracting dynamics from multi-dimensional time-evolving data. To this end, we propose a linear dynamical model (LDS), which is based on the higher order decomposition of the observation data. In this way, we are able to extract a new descriptor for analyzing data of multiple elements coming from of the same or different data sources. Each sequence of data is modeled as a collection of higher order LDS descriptors (h-LDSs), which are estimated in equally sized temporal segments of data. Finally, each sequence is represented as a term frequency histogram following a bag-of-systems approach, in which h-LDSs are used as feature descriptors. For evaluating the performance of the proposed methodology to extract dynamics from time evolving multidimensional data and using them for classification purposes in various applications, in this paper we consider two different cases: dynamic texture analysis and human motion recognition. Experimental results with two datasets for dynamic texture analysis and two datasets for human action recognition demonstrate the great potential of the proposed method.

## **1** INTRODUCTION

Machine learning problems often involve sequences of real-valued multivariate observations. To model the statistical properties of such data, it is assumed that each observation is correlated to the value of an underlying latent variable that is evolving over the course of the sequence. If the state is real-valued and the noise terms are assumed to be Gaussian, the model is called a linear dynamical system (LDS) (Boots, 2009). Thus, a linear dynamical system is associated with a first order ARMA process with white zero means IID Gaussian input (Doretto et al., 2003). Linear dynamical systems are an important tool for modeling time series in engineering, controls and economics, as well as the physical and social sciences and they have been successfully used in the past for various vision tasks such as: dynamic texture analysis, synthesis, segmentation, registration and categorization (Soatto et al., 2001). They have also been employed for the categorization of video sequences in multimedia databases and more recently in human action recognition tasks.

More specifically, in the field of video categorization a lot of methods have adopted LDSs

focusing mainly on the definition of a suitable distance or kernel between the model parameters of two dynamical systems (Doretto et al., 2003); (Chan and Vasconcelos, 2005); (Chan and Vasconcelos, 2007); (Vishwanathan et al., 2007). In addition, Turaga et al., (2011) showed that the parameters of linear dynamic models are finite dimensional linear subspaces that can be described using the unified framework of Grassmann and Stiefel manifolds and supervised proposed algorithms for and unsupervised clustering for activity recognition, face recognition and video clustering. More recently, a new method was introduced by Ravichandran et al., (2013) aiming to model video sequences with a collection of LDSs, which are then used as features in a bag of systems approach, while Luo et al., proposed the modelling of motion dynamics with robust LDSs using the model parameters as motion descriptors.

Nevertheless, a limitation of linear dynamical systems is that they exploit information from only one element, i.e., channel, thus, in the case of multidimensional data the concatenation of different components into one single element is required. To this end, in this paper we propose a more efficient

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way to model dynamics by taking advantage of the multidimensionality of data. More specifically, we present a higher-order LDS model in order to extract a new descriptor for analyzing data coming from multiple elements, e.g., channels in the case of video sequences or joint coordinates in the case of skeleton animation data. The proposed model is based on the higher order decomposition of the multidimensional data and enables the analysis of dynamic time-series using information from the same or different data sources, e.g., colour visible range cameras, infrared sensors of various spectral ranges, or even synthesized images.

The proposed h-LDS descriptors are estimated in equally sized temporal segments, while a bag of systems approach is adopted, in which the h-LDSs are used as feature descriptors. For the formation of the codebook, a k-medoids (Kaufman and Rousseeuw, 1987) classification method is applied, where the K codewords correspond to K representative higher order LDSs. Each data sequence is then represented as a Term Frequency (TF) histogram of the predefined codeword of h-LDSs and is provided to a SVM classifier.

For evaluating the performance of the proposed methodology to extract dynamics from time series and using them for classification, in this paper we deal with the problems of dynamic texture analysis and human action recognition.

## 2 HIGHER-ORDER LINEAR DYNAMICAL ANALYSIS

#### 2.1 Estimation of the h-LDS Descriptor

As was mentioned above a linear dynamical system is associated with a first order ARMA process with white zero mean IID Gaussian input. More specifically, the stochastic modeling of both dynamics and appearance is encoded by two stochastic processes, in which dynamics are represented as a time-evolving hidden state process  $x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and observed data  $y(t) \in \mathbb{R}^d$  as a linear function of the state vector:

$$x(t+1) = Ax(t) + Bv(t) \tag{1}$$

$$y(t) = \bar{y} + Cx(t) + w(t) \tag{2}$$

where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is the transition matrix of the hidden state (*n* is the dimension of hidden state with  $n \le d$ ), while  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n}$  is the mapping matrix of the hidden state to the output of the system. The quantities w(t) and Bv(t) are the measurement and

process noise respectively, with  $w(t) \sim N(0,R)$  and  $Bv(t) \sim N(0,Q)$ . The main advantage of the LDS descriptor M = (A, C), is that it contains both the appearance information of the data segment, which is modeled by C, and its dynamics that are represented by A.

In the case of multidimensional data, observations can be represented by a tensor  $Y \in$  $R^{d_1xd_2x...d_n}$  of order *n*, where  $d_1, d_2,...,d_n$  are integer numbers indicating the number of elements in each dimension. For instance, if we consider a colour video sequence of F frames, the order of tensor Y (in the rest of the paper the term 'tensor' is used to indicate a matrix of order higher than two) is four, where  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  indicate the width and height of the image respectively,  $d_3$  is the number of image elements ( $d_3=3$ ) and  $d_4$  is the number of frames. In order to estimate the matrices A and C containing the dynamics and appearance information respectively (see Figure 1), we need to decompose the n-order tensor Y, so that the columns of the mapping matrix C are orthonormal (Doretto et al., 2003).



Figure 1: A graphical representation of the h-LDS model.

To satisfy the aforementioned requirement, we use the HOSVD (Kuo, 2013), which is a generalization of the singular value decomposition for higher order tensors. More specifically, we first subtract from Y the temporal data average  $\overline{Y}$  in order to construct a zero mean matrix in the time axis, where the temporal average is computed as:

$$\bar{Y} = \frac{1}{F} \sum_{t=1}^{F} Y_{d_1, d_2, \dots, d_{n-1}, t}$$
(3)

and then we decompose tensor *Y* as follows:

$$Y = S \times_1 U^{(1)} \times_2 U^{(2)} \dots \times_n U^{(n)}$$
(4)

where  $U^{(1)}, U^{(2)}, \dots, U^{(n)}$  are orthogonal matrices containing the orthonormal vectors spanning the column space of the i-mode matrix unfolding  $Y_{(i)}$  and

×<sub>i</sub> denotes the i-mode product between a tensor and a matrix (Kuo, 2013), with i=1,2...n. Since, the choice of matrices A, C and Q in equations (1) and (2) is not unique, in the sense that there are infinitely many such matrices that give rise to exactly the same sample paths starting from suitable initial conditions (Doretto et al., 2003), we can consider  $C=U^{(n)}$ , where  $U^{(n)}$  is an orthogonal matrix and

$$X = S \times_1 U^{(1)} \times_2 U^{(2)} \dots \times_{n-1} U^{(n-1)}$$
(5)

Hence, equation (4) can be reformulated as follows:

$$Y = X \times_n C \tag{6}$$

The n-mode product of tensor  $X \in R^{d1xd2x...dn}$  with matrix  $C \in R^{dnxdn}$  can be defined as:

$$Y = X \times_n C \Leftrightarrow Y_{(n)} = CX_{(n)} \tag{7}$$

The transition matrix *A*, containing the dynamics of the multidimensional data, can then be easily computed by using least squares:

$$A = X_2 X_1^T (X_1 X_1^T)^{-1}$$
(8)

where the matrices  $X_1 = [x(1), x(2), ..., x(F-1)]$  and  $X_2 = [x(2), x(3), ..., x(F)]$  are formed from the unfolding  $X_{(n)}$  of tensor X along the  $n^{th}$  dimension.

## 2.2 Codebook Creation and Classification

For the formation of the codebook, *k*-medoids clustering is applied, however, before that we need to define a similarity metric between two descriptors  $M_1 = (A_1, C_1)$  and  $M_2 = (A_2, C_2)$  that will be applicable to the non-Euclidean space of h-LDSs.

Since h-LDS descriptor consists of a pair of twodimensional matrices, we can easily use as a similarity metric the Martin distance between  $M_h^1$ and  $M_h^2$ :

$$D_{M_h}(M_h^1, M_h^2)^2 = -\ln \prod_i \cos^2 \theta_i$$
 (9)

where  $\theta_i$  are the subspace angles (Cock and Moor, 2002) between the two models. The cosine of  $\theta_i$  can be calculated as the square root of the i-th eigenvalue of the matrix  $P_{11}^{-1}P_{12}P_{22}^{-1}P_{21}$ :

$$\cos^2 \theta_i = i_{th} eigenvalue(P_{11}^{-1} P_{12} P_{22}^{-1} P_{21})$$
(10)

where the estimation of matrix

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} P_{11} & P_{12} \\ P_{21} & P_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

is performed by solving the Lyapunov equation  $A^{T}PA - P = -C^{T}C$ , where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & 0 \\ 0 & A_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } C = \begin{bmatrix} C_1 & C_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

The codebook can then be created by using h-LDS as feature descriptors. Specifically, the training dataset of the h-LDS descriptors is fed into k-medoids algorithm for the creation of a codebook of K codewords corresponding to K representative h-LDSs, as shown in Figure 2. Finally, each data segment is then represented as a Term Frequency (TF) histogram of the predefined codeword of h-LDSs.



Figure 2: h-LDS codebook creation and classification.

## **3 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS**

For evaluating the performance of the proposed methodology to extract dynamics from time evolving multidimensional data and using them for classification, in this paper we consider two different applications: i) dynamic texture analysis and ii) human motion recognition. In the former case, the proposed high order LDS descriptor is used to model the temporal evolution of pixels intensities, while in the latter the evolution of skeleton joints positions during the performance of a motion is considered as a multidimensional time series.

#### 3.1 Dynamic Texture Analysis

In this section we present experimental results using two video datasets for dynamic texture analysis. More specifically the first dataset (Dimitropoulos et al., 2015) contains videos with flame and flamecolored objects, while the second one contains videos with smoke and non-smoke frames (Barmpoutis et al., 2014). In both cases, each frame of the video sequence is divided into image patches of size 16x16, which is a typical approach in videobased fire detection systems and then a preprocessing step is applied aiming to identify candidate image patches i.e., patches containing a sufficient number of flame or smoke colored moving pixels. To this end, we initially apply an Adaptive Median algorithm (McFarlane and Schofield, 1995), (Dimitropoulos et al., 2012), which is fast and very efficient algorithm for detecting moving pixels, and then we use a fire probability model (Dimitropoulos et al., 2015) or a HSV smoke color model (Avgerinakis et al., 2012) to identify candidate flame or smoke image patches respectively.



Figure 3: Comparison of LDS and h-LDS with grayscale, RGB and RGBH data using the dataset containing flame and flame colored objects.



Figure 4: Comparison of LDS and h-LDS with grayscale, RGB and RGBH data using the dataset containing smoke and smoke colored objects.

For each candidate image patch we estimate a h-LDS descriptor using a temporal length of 16 frames. In addition, for the classification of each frame, we create histogram representations corresponding to the sub-sequences of T previous frames (in our experiments T=100). In the experimental results, we estimated the number of correctly detected frames out of the total number of frames in each dataset. As can be seen in Figures 3 and 4, the proposed descriptor outperforms standard LDSs in both cases i.e., flame and smoke identification respectively. In order to validate the performance of both descriptors with a different number of elements, apart from the use of grayscale and RGB data (i.e., three elements), we also created a fourth channel by visualizing the feature space of HOG descriptor as in (Vondrick et al., 2013) (i.e., RGBH data). Especially in the case of smoke, the fourth channel seems to improve significantly the results, while LDS descriptor does not seem to change significantly its detection rate.

## 3.2 Human Action Recognition

In this section we deal with the problem of human action recognition in game-like applications. More specifically, for capturing the human motion, depth sensors are used, while the evolution of skeleton joints positions during the performance of a motion is considered as a multidimensional time series. To extract the dynamics of the body motion, we segment the multidimensional signal into equally sized elementary segments using a sliding time window of 16 frames. In this way we accomplish a better representation of human motion, instead of using the whole non-linear sequence of data, as each elementary segment can be efficiently modelled by a linear dynamical system.

Experimental results with two datasets for human action recognition show that the proposed method outperforms the different variants of LDSs on the recognition task of body motion. More specifically, for the validation of the proposed method we created a new Kinect gesture dataset consisting of 360 motions, while we also used a well-known dataset such as MSRC-12 (Fothergill et al., 2012). More specifically the new dataset contains 6 actions (bend forward, left kick, right kick, raise hands, hand wave, push with hands) performed by 6 subjects, each repeated 10 times (360 motions in total) and the Microsoft Research Cambridge-12 Kinect gesture data set (MSRC-12) comprises of 594 sequences collected from 30 people performing 12 gestures. The MSRC-12 dataset is partitioned along different methods of instruction given to the subjects such as text and video. We used the part of the dataset where video only instructions were given. Both datasets contain tracks of 20 skeleton joint position coordinates estimated using the Kinect Pose Estimation pipeline.



Figure 5: Comparison of LDS and H-LDS descriptor performance on our dataset.



Figure 6: Comparison of LDS and H-LDS descriptor performance on MSRC-12 dataset.

As seen in Figures 5 and 6 the histogram of LDSs offer an improvement in classification results compared to using a single descriptor for the whole motion. Additionally, the h-LDS descriptor clearly outperforms the simple LDS descriptor in each case. This extends to the case of histogram of LDSs, where the same behavior can be observed.

## 4 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we introduced a higher order linear dynamical systems (h-LDS) descriptor for extracting dynamics from multidimensional time evolving data. By applying higher order decomposition in the observation data, we showed that we can achieve higher detection rates than standard linear dynamical systems both in the case of dynamic texture analysis and human action recognition. In the future, we are planning to use data from different sources, e.g., multispectral imaging in the case of flame detection or skeletal data and depth data in the case of human action recognition.

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