A Multi Patch Warping Approach for Improved Stereo Block Matching

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Abstract: Stereo cameras are a suitable solution for reconstructing the 3D information of the observed scenes, and, because of their low price and ease to set up and operate, they can be used in a wide area of applications, ranging from autonomous driving to advanced driver assistance systems or robotics. Due to the high quality of the results, energy based reconstruction methods like semi global matching have gained a lot of popularity in recent years. The disadvantages of semi global matching are the large memory footprint and the high computational complexity. In contrast, window based matching methods have a lower complexity, and are leaner with respect to the memory consumption. The downside of block matching methods is that they are more error prone, especially on surfaces which are not parallel to the image plane. In this paper we present a novel block matching scheme that improves the quality of local stereo correspondence algorithms. The first contribution of the paper consists in an original method for reliably reconstructing the environment on slanted surfaces. The second contribution consists in the creation of set of local constraints that filter out possible outlier disparity values. The third and final contribution consists in the creation of a refinement technique which improves the resulted disparity map. The proposed stereo correspondence approach has been validated on the KITTI stereo dataset.

1 INTRODUCTION

Stereo correspondence is one of the most researched topics in computer vision. Using a pair of cameras for estimating depth information remains a popular choice mainly because of the low cost of the sensor, and the high quality and density of the output, comparable to the laser scanner technology (Penner et al., 2015), (Antunes et al., 2012). The principle of 3D reconstruction from stereo image pairs is the triangulation, which means finding the 3D point where the rays passing through the pixels corresponding to the same object in the two images intersect. In practice, the images are rectified in such a way that the corresponding points are on the same line, and the only difference between position of an object in the left and right image is in the column coordinate. This difference (or offset) is called disparity (d) and it is inversely proportional to the object depth (Z), as described by equation 1. The term B refers to the baseline of the stereo system and f represents the focal length, in pixels, of the rectified images.

$$=\frac{Bf}{Z}$$
 (1)

Due to an increasing number of applications ranging from Advanced Driving Assistance Systems (ADAS), Autonomous Driving or Biometry (Huang et al., 2002), (Yasir Mohd Mustafah, December 2012), (Einecke and Eggert, 2014) requiring accurate 3D information, a wide variety of stereovision methods have been developed. Current state-of-the-art approaches may be classified in two main categories: global and local stereo correspondence algorithms (also called block matching algorithms). The global stereo correspondence algorithms usually try to minimize an energy function. These algorithms can be based on belief-propagation (Yang et al., 2009), dynamic programming (Hirschmuller, 2005), or graph-cut techniques (Kolmogorov and Zabih, 2002). The drawback of these methods consists in the large memory consumption and high running time. The semi-global matching (SGM) algorithm (Hirschmuller, 2005) is a subclass of the global optimization methods and, compared to the global approaches, it has a simpler energy function to

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minimize, thus requiring less computational complexity and producing good quality results. For this reason SGM has attracted a lot of attention in the automotive field over the years. Using modern GPUs, SGM can be parallelized to run in real time (Haller and Nedevschi, 2010); however, optimizations using this hardware acceleration method are very power demanding and the memory footprint remains very high. In block matching algorithms (BM) the pixels from one image are compared with the ones from the second image and there is no energy minimization constraint. Since single pixel matching can be erroneous, the correspondence is done using rectangular windows called blocks. Mainly due to their simple computational scheme, block matching algorithms run in less time without the need of hardware acceleration, and require less memory. The drawback of these algorithms is that they produce lower quality disparity maps.

One of the reasons for which block matching fails to reconstruct certain surfaces is that it generally assumes the same disparity across the matching window, and consequently it considers that the scene consists of frontally viewed planes which are perpendicular to the camera's optical axis. This assumption does not hold for the scenes observed by ground vehicles or robots, since the surfaces and the objects on the road can have many degrees of orientation. A lot of research has been done in order to tackle the shortcomings of block matching that affect the quality of disparity maps, while maintaining the low memory footprint and high running speed of these algorithms. Our method improves the quality of the stereo reconstruction on tilted surfaces by using several oriented matching blocks and constraining the winner disparity by means of two flags. We also introduce a refinement strategy that filters small errors. The remainder of the paper is structured as follows: in the next section we present the state of the art advancements for stereo correspondence block matching algorithms, in section three we illustrate the paper's main section contributions, the fourth contains experimental results and implementation details, and finally we end with the conclusions and further work section.

2 RELATED WORK

Local stereo correspondence algorithms work by creating finite support regions (usually called blocks) around each interest point, and finding the correspondence between these blocks in the left and right images, by searching on the epipolar lines. These methods are based on a matching metric (Scharstein and Szeliski, 2002) and usually apply different forms of aggregation for smoothing. The common matching metrics are the sum of absolute differences (SAD), the sum of squared differences (SSD), the rank transform (RT), the census transform (CT), or the normalized cross correlation (NCC). Due to their low complexity requirements, block matching methods are viable solutions for embedded applications. A hardware solution implemented by the TYZX Company is presented in (Woodfill et al., 2006). This method uses an ASIC and a FPGA device in order to compute in real time the BM stereo correspondence using the census transform.

Modern approaches that tackle the problem of surface orientation are presented in (Muresan et al., 2015), (Ranft et al., 2014), (Einecke and Eggert, 2013) and (Einecke and Eggert, 2014). In (Muresan et al., 2015) the authors create a new matching score by shifting each individual row of the matching descriptor in order to get the best matching score between two features. A penalty is incorporated in the matching score in case the best score does not come from a fronto-parallel surface. In (Ranft et al., 2014) the authors perform multiple operations of sheering and scaling to the original images and compute multiple block matching on the obtained images in order to capture different surface orientations. The final disparity map is obtained after fusing the individual block matching results. In (Einecke and Eggert, 2013) the authors perform a linear image warping in order to capture the expected disparity for the ground plane and in (Einecke and Eggert, 2014) the authors perform an oriented block matching aggregation. The authors use different penalties in case the best matching score does not come from a frontally viewed plane. The penalties are not encapsulated in the final matching value. The method presented in (Einecke and Eggert, 2015) uses matching blocks of different shapes and sizes in order to eliminate the effect caused by non-frontal surfaces. This method of aggregation manages to diminish the bloating effect caused by the usage of large aggregation blocks and also reduce the noise caused by small matching blocks.

3 PROPOSED SOLUTION

One of the reasons block matching stereo fails to reconstruct certain surfaces is because of the inherent assumption that the 3D depth of all the features within a matching block is the same. In this section, we present an improvement of BM stereo in the presence of slanted surfaces. Our method (Slanted Block Matching - SBM) captures the orientation of surfaces by warping the matching descriptor block. This operation is performed very fast using a set of lookup tables. After the matching operation has been performed the obtained values are aggregated using blocks of different shapes and sizes, which will help reduce the errors introduced by the single pixel matching.

Mainly due to the fact that when we are computing the matching descriptors we are not considering how surfaces may be oriented, we can introduce matching errors. These errors are aggregated in the following stages of the stereo pipeline and lead, in the end, to a deteriorated disparity map. In order to further reduce possible outliers, we restrict each generated disparity value by using a set of local constraints. The final map is refined by removing all the small speckles resulted from erroneous matching.

3.1 Matching Descriptors

In our work we have used binary descriptors. Our motivation for choosing such features is that they are usually easier to compute, they are invariant to additive and multiplicative offsets in image intensity values, and the time needed to compute these descriptors is relatively small. For this reason, in our work we have chosen a 7x9 weighted center symmetric census approach. The center symmetric census, expressed by equation (2), has a higher robustness against noise than the classical census transform, which is based on comparisons which all involve the central pixel of the mask, due to the fact that a noisy pixel will have only a local effect, and will not compromise the whole metric. Furthermore, after each comparison, instead of recording just one bit, which is the result of the comparison, we are memorizing two bits. By using two bits we are able to better weight the certainty of the comparison. In case the compared pixel is much smaller or much larger than the value with which we are comparing, we are storing the value of the comparison two times whereas if the compared value is situated in an interval with respect to the value with which we are comparing we are storing the value of 01. This has the advantage that if in the other image the comparison result will be certain the effect of the Hamming distance on the two images would not have an effect as damaging to the final result as the classical approaches. The analytical expression of the modified

center symmetric census (MCST_CENSUS) can be seen in equation (3).

$$MCST_CENSUS(u,v) = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sum_{j=0}^{M} \varepsilon(I(u_i,v_j),I(u_{N-i},v_{M-j-i})) \oplus \sum_{j=0}^{M/2} \varepsilon(I(u_{N/2},v_j),I(u_{N/2},v_{M-j-i}))$$
(2)

$$\varepsilon(X,Y) = \begin{cases} 00, X - t \ge Y \\ 01, X - t < Y \text{ AND } X + t \ge Y \\ 11, X + t < Y \end{cases}$$
(3)

In equation (2), N and M denote the size of the descriptor patch, and the \oplus sign denotes the bitwise concatenation operation. In equation (3), t represents a small intensity threshold, with which we usually compensate small variations in intensity. In our solution the value of t has been set to 1.

In order to capture the geometry of slanted surfaces, seven lookup tables have been created for the right descriptor image, representing several degrees of tilting for the descriptor block. Since the derivative of the position (offset), for each pixel is kept in the lookup table, computing all seven right descriptor images is done concurrently, which is very fast. An intuitive depiction of the slanted descriptor windows is illustrated in figure 1.



Figure 1: Tilted Modified Center Symmetric Census descriptor blocks.

The seven lookup tables were created on an experimental basis. Initially we created multiple tables with various degrees of inclination and we gradually eliminated the lookup tables that did not seem to offer any kind of improvement to the final result, taking as reference the KITTI 2012 dataset.



Figure 2: Intuitive illustration of a 3x3 lookup table for frontal (left) and slanted (right) situations.

An intuitive example of a lookup table for a 3x3 patch is presented in figure 2. Each position records the offset with respect to the center pixel, the first element represents the offset with respect to the row while the second records the offset with respect to the column. In our case, seven 7x9 lookup tables were created, using the modified weighted center symmetric census descriptor. Six of the seven tables correspond to the slanted surface scenario, and one corresponds to the frontal surface scenario.

3.2 Shifted Window Hamming Distance Computation

When using binary descriptors, the matching cost for a specific position is usually computed using the Hamming distance. Classically, given a pixel in the left image, a search for a pixel with similar appearance is carried out in the right image, on the corresponding epipolar line over a number of candidate positions (also called disparities). The winning disparity represents the position where we find the minimum Hamming distance.

Instead of searching for the minimum Hamming distance between a feature in the left image and one in the right image over multiple disparities, our system searches for the best matching feature for the left pixel in all seven right descriptor images over multiple disparities. The best matching score will be determined by the minimum Hamming distance value between the score obtained for the fronto-parallel case and the slanted blocks cases, to which we add a small penalty. The value of the penalty that yields the best results with respect to the stereo benchmark is 2, and was determined experimentally. Analytical representations of the mentioned operations are depicted in equations (4), (5) and (6).

$$SI(i, j,d) = \sum_{k=1}^{6} Min(Hamming(IL(i, j), SRI_{k}(i, j, d)))^{(4)}$$

Frontal(i, j, d) = Hamming(IL(i, j), FPRI(i, j, d)) (5)

$$FS(i,j,d)=Min(Frontal(i,j,d),PS(i,j,d)+Penalty)$$
 (6)

In the above equations we denote by SI the slanted image pixel score, which represents the minimum score obtained for all six slanted right images (SRI). By Frontal we represent the score obtained for the fronto-parallel case for a pixel at position i, j having a disparity d. FPRI represents the fronto-parallel right image. The final result of our algorithm for a pixel at position i, j having the disparity d is denoted by FS(i,j,d) and it is obtained by taking the minimal value between the frontal score and the score for slanted images at which we add a small penalty. We are adding the small penalty because, similarly to the work presented in (Hirschmuller, 2005), we are trying to favour frontal surfaces. The final value FS is stored in a cost volume C (p,d) where p represents the pixel position and d is the corresponding disparity (7).

$$C(p,d) = FS(p,d) \tag{7}$$

After computing the Hamming distance, a multi block aggregation is performed on the cost volume in order to filter out possible outliers and reduce the bloating effect of the resulted disparity map. The aggregation scheme is similar to the one presented in (Einecke and Eggert, 2015), improved by adapting the matching blocks experimentally. The block sizes used have the sizes: 1x155, 155x1, 17x17 and 7x7. By A we are denoting the aggregated value and the aggregation scheme is presented in (8).

$$A = \max\left(val_{1x155}, val_{155x1}\right) val_{17x17} val_{7x7} \tag{8}$$

By *val_{blockSize}* we denote the value obtained by summing the individual values within a block for one of the specified sizes.

3.3 Winner Takes All

In the winner takes all stage of the stereo correspondence pipeline, the index of minimum value is chosen from the computed cost volume C, for a certain pixel position p, as expressed by equation (9).

$$D(p) = \operatorname{argmin}_{d} (C(p,d)) \tag{9}$$

The disparity map obtained through stereo correspondence can also be deteriorated by several external factors, such as reflectance, lack of texture, repetitive patterns etc. For this reason we impose several constraints on the created cost volume in the winner takes all stage, such that erroneous results can be filtered out or at least reduced. In order to successfully select a disparity value, all imposed constraints have to be satisfied.

To carry out this task the first step is to find for each position the first three minimal values.

The first constraint used refers to the identification of un-textured surfaces from the cost volume. For this scenario we verify if the three best detected local minima values are equal. Intuitively, we have illustrated this phenomenon in figure 3 and equation 10.

$$Periodicity = \begin{cases} 1, min1 = min2 \ AND \ min1 = min3 \\ 0, otherwise \end{cases}$$
(10)



Figure 3: Graphical representation of the periodicity phenomenon. With blue we highlight the position of three possible minima values.

The second constraint is offering us a measure of trust regarding the generated disparity value. This confidence constraint is computed by using the smallest three values in the cost volume for a pixel position p, and finding if the ratio between the third smallest value and the smallest value is less than a confidence threshold. The analytical expression depicting the usage of the confidence constraint is illustrated in equation 11. The confidence threshold has been set experimentally to 15.

$$ConfidenceFlag = \begin{cases} 1, \frac{min3}{min1} \leq ConfidenceThreshold\\ 0, otherwise \end{cases}$$
(11)

In order to improve the precision of the detection, sub- pixel interpolation is applied. For this step we have used the symmetric V method, presented in (Haller and Nedevschi, 2012). The sub pixel interpolation is computed as:

$$Disp_{find} = Disp_{integer} + \begin{cases} 0.5 - 0.25 \cdot \left(\frac{(M_3 - M_1)^2}{(M_2 - M_1)^2} + \frac{M_3 - M_1}{M_2 - M_1} \right) & , if M_2 > M_3 \\ - \left(0.5 - 0.25 \cdot \left(\frac{(M_2 - M_1)^2}{(M_3 - M_1)^2} + \frac{M_2 - M_1}{M_3 - M_1} \right) \right), if M_2 \le M_3 \end{cases}$$
(12)

The values M_1 , M_2 , M_3 correspond to the winning disparity and its neighbouring values. In order to reduce small matching errors, a refinement stage is applied to the disparity map.

3.4 Winner Takes All

By using refinement steps we hope to eliminate remaining outliers, and obtain a better disparity map. The first step consist of a background fill in stage, which is performed in case of occlusions (Zbontar and LeCun, 2015) and left-right (LR) check. The analytical expressions for determining the condition under which a certain disparity falls in (correct, mismatch and occlusions) are described in equation (13). Depending on this condition we know if refinement is necessary or what refinement steps we should apply. For example if the result of the condition is mismatch we should apply a background fill in, and in case of occlusion we should discard the disparity value leaving an unreconstructed space.

$$Condition = \begin{cases} correct, if \left| d - D^{R}(pd) \right| < 1 \text{ for } d = D^{L}(p) \\ missmatch, if \left| d - D^{R}(pd) \right| < 1 \text{ for any other } d \end{cases}$$
(13)
occlusion, otherwise

In order to eliminate the remaining speckles caused by incorrect matches, a new speckle removal technique is presented. Classical speckle removal techniques, based on region growing, tend to remove speckles smaller than a predefined size, but do nothing if the size of the speckle exceeds the imposed limit. In our approach, even if the speckle has a larger size, an erosion step is applied, reducing the size of the error.

The first step of the refinement stage consists in segmentation. For segmentation, two disparity threshold values are used, a strong threshold value (T2) and a weak threshold value (T1). Using the strong and weak thresholds two segmentation limits are created (an upper threshold limit and a lower threshold limit). The disparity values that fall between these limits are considered in the segmentation region. Considering that v is the current disparity value the upper and lower limits are computed as shown by equation (14).

$$lower = v - T1$$

$$upper = v + T2$$
(14)

By using the two thresholds, we ensure that the segmentation is robust even at object boundaries. The threshold T1 has a smaller value than T2. After this procedure a closing morphological operation with a kernel of 11x11 is performed on the segmented region. In case the detected region is a small speckle, it will get filtered out by the erosion in the closing operation. The final result is appended in the filtered disparity map. A fill operation is carried out in order to eliminate the holes caused by the closing operation. For every pixel we are searching on all eight directions until we find the closest two disparity values with minimum difference. The search is carried out over a number of k positions.

The final step in our refinement scheme consists in a 1x9 and 9x1 median filter that removes any remaining noise. The values for the weak and strong thresholds for our application are 3 and 1 and the searching distance for the fill stage is 49 pixels. No background interpolation step has been implemented in our solution, therefore the final map density will be less than 100%.

4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

For evaluating our block matching approach we used the online KITTI benchmark (Geiger et al., 2013). This stereo dataset comprises road scenes and traffic scenarios. We tested our results against classical methods using multiple stereo cost functions, such as census 7x9, modified census transform, sparse census, and weighted center symmetric census. We have also displayed the ranking of our method with respect to the state of the art methods on the KITTI site. In all the methods displayed in table I, a multi block aggregation was used, along with the proposed refinement functions. The differences in quality are caused by the LUT based warping method of computing the descriptor. The density percentage comparison against the classical methods is computed using the training set with the publicly available ground truth. Table I illustrates the comparison with classical rectangular descriptor based solutions.

The system on which we implemented our method contains an Intel I5-2500 CPU with 3 GHz frequency. No hardware acceleration methods have been used. Open MP has been used to parallelize some small parts of the code. The error threshold used in our evaluation is 2px.

Table 1: Evaluation with respect to the classical cost functions using KITTI Data-Set.

Method	Density	Out-All error
Census	99.67 %	11.865 %
WCS-CENSUS	99.98 %	11.24 %
МСТ	99.68 %	11.21 %
SBM	99.97 %	8.785 %
Sparse Census	99.51 %	13.29 %

Figure 5 illustrates the results of the matching in comparison with the 7x9 Census approach. The top image represents the intensity image from the KITTI dataset, the second image represents the result of the census approach and the bottom image depicts the result of our algorithm. It can be seen that our method is able to better reconstruct the slanted surface in the right side of the image. In figure 6 we illustrate yet another situation in which our proposed solution outperforms the classical approach. The top image

represents the left intensity image, the second image represents the result of the sparse census method and the last image is the image obtained with our algorithm. In the sparse census method every second pixel is skipped therefore resulting a sparse descriptor pattern, not dense like in the case of 7x9 census. The same aggregation scheme is employed in all tested images.



Figure 4: The top image is the left intensity image, second image depicts the disparity map using the census approach, while the last image is the image obtained with our algorithm.



Figure 5: The bottom image is the result of SBM, the second image depicts the disparity map using a sparse census descriptor and the first image represents the left intensity image.

Table 2 shows a snapshot of the comparison with other methods present in the KITTI dataset from 2016. This overview shows that our local stereo correspondence method achieves good results, even surpassing some semi global approaches. The error metric shown is out all, the percentage of erroneous pixels out of all the pixels in the image, including the occluded ones.

Table 2: Comparison with existing methods from the KITTI benchmark.

Position	Method	Density	Out-All error
32	wSGM	97.03 %	8.72 %
33	AARBM	85.80 %	8.70 %
34	DispNetC	100 %	8.11 %
35	SBM	99.97 %	8.75 %
36	AABM	100 %	8.77 %
37	rSGM	97.22 %	9.24 %

The running time of our algorithm is 0.3s per frame on the KITTI data set images sizes. The method runs faster when we are reducing the image sizes. The proposed implementation can be accelerated in order to achieve a higher running time. The improvement of the time was not in the scope of the paper, as the current work was focused so far only on improving the quality of the stereo matching results.

The justification of the low memory consumption is that the algorithm does not need the entire disparity space to make optimizations in the cost volume; also, we do not need to remember any past result when generating the current disparity result. The only additional memory necessary in comparison to the classical BM methods is the one required for memorizing the seven (1 frontal and six slanted) weighted center symmetric census descriptor images for the right intensity image. There is a linear dependency between the amount of the memory used depends and the size of the input images.



Figure 6: Rotation to the right of the 3D projected points in PCL.



Figure 7: Rotation to the left of the 3D points.

Another good way of evaluating the quality of a stereo algorithm would be to visually evaluate the 3D points form the disparity map. In case there are errors we would see spikes coming out of the image, or large unreconstructed regions. We acquired a synchronized pair of images from a set of Manta cameras. We rectified them, applied our algorithm and projected the 3D points using point cloud library. The result of our algorithm can be seen in figure 6 and figure 7. We have rotated the scene and took two snapshots in order to illustrate how the scene can be viewed from two vintage points.

5 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we have presented a novel BM method that improves the quality of the standard local stereo correspondence methods, while keeping the lean properties of the algorithm. The basic idea behind our method is to use several descriptor images for the right intensity image, each representing the result of applying a slanted center symmetric descriptor and keeping the best matching score over a number of disparities. In our approach we try to favor frontal surfaces, and so we include a small penalty each time the best cost comes from a slanted descriptor. By tilting the matching descriptor we ensure that the errors created by the perspective effect or due to slanted surfaces are not aggregated to lead to erroneous results. Furthermore, we try to reduce errors by imposing a set of local constraints when generating a winning disparity. Finally we filter erroneous speckles, obtaining an improved disparity map. We did extensive tests on the KITTI dataset in order to prove that our solution leads to improved results with respect to classical and state of the art stereo methods. We have also projected the disparity points in order to make a visual evaluation of the 3D reconstructed region.

Further development directions include improving the running time of our algorithm, and the implementation of the solution on a low cost embedded platform. We will also continue with the search for improving the quality of the stereo matching results, by verifying the relation between block sizes, camera parameters and the used descriptor, since variations in any of these three parameters forces us to change the settings of the algorithm.

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