UMVpose++: Unsupervised Multi-View Multi-Person 3D Pose Estimation Using Ground Point Matching

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Abstract: We present UMVpose++ to address the problem of 3D pose estimation of multiple persons in a multi-view scenario. Different from the most recent state-of-the-art methods, which are based on supervised techniques, our work does not need labeled data to perform 3D pose estimation. Furthermore, generating 3D annotations is costly and has a high probability of containing errors. Our approach uses a plane sweep method to generate the 3D pose estimation. We define one view as the target and the remainder as reference views. We estimate the depth of each 2D skeleton in the target view to obtain our 3D poses. Instead of comparing them with ground truth poses, we project the estimated 3D poses onto the reference views, and we compare the 2D projections with the 2D poses obtained using an off-the-shelf method. 2D poses of the same pedestrian obtained from the target and reference views must be matched to allow comparison. By performing a matching process based on ground points, we identify the corresponding 2D poses and compare them with our respective projections. Furthermore, we propose a new reprojection loss based on the smooth L_1 norm. We evaluated our proposed method on the publicly available Campus dataset. As a result, we obtained better accuracy than state-of-the-art unsupervised methods, achieving 0.5% points above the best geometric method. Furthermore, we outperform some state-of-the-art supervised methods, and our results are comparable with the best-supervised method, achieving only 0.2% points below.

1 INTRODUCTION

3D human pose estimation is an active research area in computer vision. Over the last decade, several methods have been proposed for human 3D pose estimation from single or multiple views, with compelling results. 3D poses are beneficial and can be used in several applications: augmented reality, surveillance systems, and intelligent sports. When we talk about 3D pose estimation, we can consider several kinds of scenarios: one-view one-person, oneview multi-person, and multi-view multi-person. In this paper, we focus our attention on the case of a multi-view, multi-person scenario; that is, we have more than one camera, and we estimate the 3D pose of more than one person captured by these cameras. One advantage of having a multi-view configuration is avoiding ambiguities when using only one camera to get 3D poses from 2D data.

Considering the multi-view multi-person scenario, the literature has different approaches, starting with geometric methods (Belagiannis et al., 2014a), (Belagiannis et al., 2015), (Belagiannis et al., 2014b), (Dong et al., 2019) and now achieving the state-ofthe-art with supervised techniques using neural networks (Huang et al., 2020), (Lin and Lee, 2021), (Tu et al., 2020). Methods that follow the first approach use the 3D pictorial structure (3DPS) method such as (Belagiannis et al., 2014a), (Belagiannis et al., 2015), (Belagiannis et al., 2014b). Improvements were made by (Dong et al., 2019) in the Mypose method; however, the supervised techniques based on neural networks (Huang et al., 2020), (Lin and Lee, 2021), (Tu et al., 2020) came to achieve the top and outperformed the geometric methods. Starting with a

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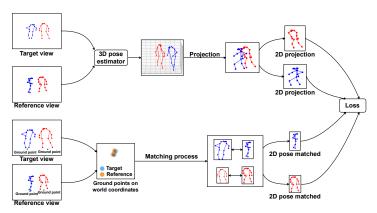


Figure 1: We have a well-defined target and reference views. Using the 2D poses estimated in each view, we generate a 3D pose estimation as in (Lin and Lee, 2021). Each 3D skeleton is projected onto the reference view, and we compare it with the matched 2D poses. These matching 2D poses are obtained using ground points. For each 2D pose, we have ground points associated and utilizing a homography matrix as in (Lima et al., 2021), we project these points onto world coordinates. Taking the Euclidean distance, we build a cost matrix used on the Hungarian Algorithm to perform the matching. With the 2D poses matched, we compare them with a smooth L_1 loss (Girshick, 2015).

simple neural structure, (Huang et al., 2020) outperformed the best geometric method - Mvpose (Dong et al., 2019). The VoxelPose work (Tu et al., 2020) uses 3D CNNs with an approach focusing on directly generating a 3D space with the skeletons instead of estimating 2D poses and, based on these 2D skeletons estimating the 3D pose. VoxelPose improved compared with (Huang et al., 2020); however, 3D CNNs have a high computational cost. *Lin & Lee* (Lin and Lee, 2021) brought the plane sweep approach and achieved the state-of-the-art. Furthermore, the computational cost was highly reduced compared with VoxelPose.

Methods that obtain the best results use supervised learning to train the network. However, the need for annotated data creates several practical limitations because of the cost of getting these 3D annotations. Our work aims for an unsupervised approach, which alleviates the need to use labeled data in the training process. Instead of comparing the 3D pose with the annotated ground truth, we compute a loss considering the projected 2D pose in a reference view and the matched 2D pose related to that projected pose. This process is generated along with the training, and to perform this calculation, we only need the camera parameters and an off-the-shelf 2D pose detector. Compared with geometric methods, we also do not need to follow defined steps such as (1) 2D pose estimation, (2) matching between the 2D poses estimated in each view, and (3) triangulation or the 3DPS approach to estimate the 3D pose based on the detected 2D poses. Our proposed method uses an end-to-end solution (Lin and Lee, 2021) to obtain the 3D pose, in which the input of our neural network is a matrix score obtained using the plane sweep approach. To calculate the reprojection error, we perform matching to select the 2D poses that will be compared with the 2D projection of the estimated 3D pose. Our matching process uses ground points as in (Lima et al., 2021). We project these ground points onto world coordinates and use Hungarian matching to obtain the correspondences between the estimated target and reference 2D poses.

Using (Lin and Lee, 2021), we can estimate the 3D poses with an end-to-end solution. First, however, we need to perform some steps in parallel, such as: taking the 2D poses in each view, calculating the respective ground points, projecting them onto the ground plane, using Hungarian matching, and comparing the 2D poses.

We propose an unsupervised approach to estimate the 3D poses of multiple persons in a multi-view scenario. The key points of our work are:

- We propose a new matching process using ground points and a new loss function to optimize the neural network using plane sweep pose.
- We do not need labeled data for 3D pose estimation.
- We achieve state-of-the-art PCP measure when compared with the best geometric methods as (Belagiannis et al., 2014a), (Belagiannis et al., 2015), (Belagiannis et al., 2014b), (Dong et al., 2019). All these approaches do not need to use labeled data, and we outperform them. Furthermore, the proposed method outperforms the existing unsupervised approach (UMVpose). We also exceed some of the best-supervised techniques, and our results are comparable to those from the best-supervised process (Lin and Lee, 2021).

2 RELATED WORK

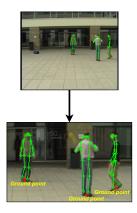


Figure 2: We assign a ground point to each 2D pose. We obtain this ground point as described in (Lima et al., 2021). We estimate a bounding box for each 2D pose and build a line between the ankles. So we take the middle point and apply an offset in the direction of the ground. Our goal is to represent each person by this point. Therefore the ground points are our reference to match the 2D skeletons of the target and reference views.

This section briefly discusses multi-view multiperson methods based on geometric, supervised, and unsupervised approaches.

2.1 Multi-View Multi-Person Geometric Methods

The first works about 3D pose estimation of multiple persons in a multi-view scenario were geometricbased methods without using neural networks. The technique in (Belagiannis et al., 2014a), for example, detects 2D poses, obtains a reduced state space using triangulation, and uses a 3DPS model in this reduced state space to estimate the 3D pose. Similarly, (Belagiannis et al., 2014b) also has a 3DPS approach, but now the 3DPS model is temporally consistent, so they can track the individual and reduce the state space, making the inference faster. The same authors in (Belagiannis et al., 2015) make improvements compared with (Belagiannis et al., 2014b). The earlier work (Belagiannis et al., 2014b) defined a body part as a limb, considering its orientation and position, while (Belagiannis et al., 2015) reduced the parameterization of the body part to consider only the 3D position. The translation and rotation information is implicitly encoded in a factor graph, facilitating the inference task. The Mvpose approach in (Dong et al., 2019), similarly to (Belagiannis et al., 2015), obtains a state-space using triangulation based on 2D detections from a multi-view scenario. Mypose has a well-defined pipeline, starting with 2D detections

and making a cluster of the 2D detections of each person. After that, they reconstruct the 3D position. Besides epipolar distance, Mvpose also uses a personreidentification method to help the clustering process using a multi-way matching with cycle consistency. Mvpose has the best PCP compared with the others and was outperformed only by supervised methods.

Our method uses deep learning. However, we do not need 3D-labeled data. Instead, we can perform a reprojection error loss using geometric techniques, avoiding the 3D comparison between the inference and annotated ground truth. Furthermore, we outperform these methods.

2.2 Multi-View Multi-Person Supervised Methods

Among the state-of-the-art supervised methods, we have the (Huang et al., 2020), (Lin and Lee, 2021), and (Tu et al., 2020) approaches. The process by (Huang et al., 2020) is the first to achieve state-of-theart neural networks. It is also established with welldefined steps, starting with 2D detections, generating a cluster of the detections obtained by each different view. VoxelPose (Tu et al., 2020) needs a well-defined pipeline as (Huang et al., 2020). Instead, they work directly on 3D space, avoiding problems generated by noisy 2D detections. They use a Cuboid Proposal Network (CPN) approach to localize all people and a Pose Regression Network (PRN) to make the 3D estimation. VoxelPose is robust to occlusions. However, it needs 3D CNNs, making this a highly costly process. PlaneSweepPose (Lin and Lee, 2021) outperforms VoxelPose (Tu et al., 2020), achieving stateof-the-art, and it also inspired our work. Its approach is faster than VoxelPose and is an end-to-end solution based on the back-projection process. They build a solution on a scenario captured by multiple cameras. They generate a scoring matrix that is the input to the neural network. In (Lin and Lee, 2021), we also have a coarse-to-fine process since they estimate the person's position and, after that, the joint position.

Compared with these methods, we do not use 3D labeled data to perform 3D pose estimation. Using reprojection error, we have a new loss. The loss compares the 2D pose projected onto the reference view with the matched 2D pose using a smooth L_1 norm (Girshick, 2015). We also propose a matching process using ground points (Lima et al., 2021) instead of the back-projection approach as in (de França Silva et al., 2022).

2.3 Multi-View Multi-Person Unsupervised Methods

Besides works that are fully geometric or based on deep learning, there is the UMVpose technique (de França Silva et al., 2022). Using a deep learning approach, (de França Silva et al., 2022) uses geometric methods to replace the loss, comparing 2D poses instead of 3D labels.

In (de França Silva et al., 2022), they use (Lin and Lee, 2021) plane sweep stereo method. This method establishes target and reference views and performs 2D pose estimations in each view. They use the plane sweep stereo algorithm to generate a scoring matrix related to the cross-view consistency among the views. In this manner, they obtain the person-level and joint-relative level depth; combining these values, they can estimate the 3D pose.

As we have mentioned before, the (de França Silva et al., 2022) uses (Lin and Lee, 2021) plane sweep stereo method. This work defines target and reference views related to the multi-view scenario. They consider each view the target and make the 3D estimation under that view. Finally, the estimated 3D poses (related to each view) are fused and taken to the same global coordinate space.

The (de França Silva et al., 2022) uses reprojection error as a new loss, avoiding the comparison of 3D poses, as they compare 2D poses obtained along with training. Using PlaneSweepPose (Lin and Lee, 2021), they get a 3D pose, so instead of comparing this 3D pose with the ground truth, they project them onto 2D poses and compare them with matched 2D poses. Therefore, 3D ground truth is not used, and they can perform training with an unsupervised approach. The advantages of our method are the use of other losses when comparing the 2D poses and a more robust matching algorithm, thus way outperforming UMVpose. In (de França Silva et al., 2022), they use back projection in the matching process, generating 3D poses from the 2D poses in the target view, while we compare only one point (the ground point) to perform matching. Furthermore, using our approach with smooth L1 loss, we can outperform the MSE loss used in (de França Silva et al., 2022).

Considering unsupervised methods, we also have unsupervised 3D pose estimation on multi-view scenarios as (Sun et al., 2021). These works experiment on the Human3.6M (Ionescu et al., 2013) dataset and are a one-person method, different from (de França Silva et al., 2022).

3 UMVpose++



Figure 3: The matching process occurs using ground points. Each person has a ground point, and it is projected onto world coordinates. Next, we measure the distance between these points to obtain a cost matrix. Finally, we use the Hungarian algorithm to perform matching between target and reference views based on our cost matrix.

UMVpose++ is an improved version of UMVpose (de França Silva et al., 2022). Similar to UMVpose, the goal of UMVpose++ is to learn to estimate the 3D poses of multiple persons from multi-view images in an unsupervised manner. As in UMVpose, we aim to generate a 3D pose using the plane sweep stereo approach as in (Lin and Lee, 2021). We then project the 3D pose estimated onto one of the reference views and compare the projection with the matched 2D pose as described in Figure 1. However, differently from UMVpose, we do the matching between the target and reference views using a different approach based on ground points attached to each person (Lima et al., 2021). Instead of back-projection, we estimate the 2D ground points related to each person's 2D pose, project these points onto world points with a homography matrix, and use the Hungarian algorithm to match the poses based on the distances between the ground points.

Our method also uses reprojection error as in (de França Silva et al., 2022), but now, besides a new matching process, we also propose a new loss. Differently from (de França Silva et al., 2022), which uses the MSE loss, we propose to use the smooth L_1 loss to optimize the network. Although the MSE loss is a typical approach when we have 2D poses, as we can see in works such as (Li et al., 2021); for our neural network smooth L_1 loss is a better option.

Other works such as (Brynte and Kahl, 2020) also use smooth L_1 loss to calculate the reprojection error. The neural structure in (Lin and Lee, 2021) uses smooth L_1 loss for comparing depths instead of 2D positions. The smooth L_1 loss in our 2D comparisons significantly improved the results.

This matching process is used only during training. With the trained model, we can make 3D inferences using the neural network provided by (Lin and Lee, 2021).

3.1 Reprojection Error

In this section, we briefly review the concept of reprojection error (Hartley and Zisserman, 2003). We use this error to compute our loss by comparing 2D poses during the training process. The reprojection error will allow us to train without using 3D annotated ground truth.

Using (Lin and Lee, 2021), we estimate a 3D pose for each 2D pose on the target view. Each estimated 3D pose is projected onto the reference views so that the 3D pose becomes a 2D pose. Then, we compare these projected poses with the related 2D pose of the respective reference view obtained from the matching process. We calculate the comparison using a smooth L_1 norm defined in our loss.

This way, we can claim that the reprojection error is the process of projecting a 3D point onto an image and comparing the position of the projected point with the measured position of that point in the image.

3.2 Matching Process

This section describes how to perform the matching process using ground points. We emphasize that this matching process is used only in the training process. We do not need to use matching in the inference.

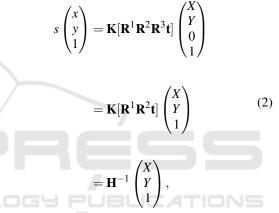
We do unsupervised 3D pose estimation using reprojection error as in (de França Silva et al., 2022). However, we perform the matching process using ground points instead of back-projection matching. The goal of the matching process is to identify the 2D pose in a reference view related to the projected 2D pose obtained from the 3D pose estimation. Therefore, the matching process is crucial. Comparing the correct 2D poses makes our loss coherent in the training process for estimating an accurate 3D pose.

The matching process is performed by using ground points as defined in (Lima et al., 2021) and illustrated in Figure 2. The ground point is first obtained from the 2D pose. A line is built between the right and left ankle joints, so we take the middle point on this line, and, using an offset δ , we gener-

ate our ground point. This offset is obtained using the 2D skeleton. With the 2D pose, we take the highest and lowest value of x and y coordinates; in this manner, we have the dimensions of our bounding box as in (Xiu et al., 2018). With the estimated bounding box, we get the maximum y value of the bounding box $(bb_{y_{max}})$ and the highest y value between the right (ra_y) and left (la_y) ankle joints, and finally compute δ as follows:

$$\delta = bb_{y_{max}} - max(la_y, ra_y). \tag{1}$$

The cameras on the Campus dataset are all calibrated. These 2D ground points are in the ground plane; therefore, their Z world coordinate is zero, and we project these points onto the world coordinate system using a homography matrix **H** as in (Lima et al., 2021):



where **K** is the intrinsic parameters matrix, and the extrinsic parameters matrix is $[\mathbf{R}|\mathbf{t}]$. The coordinates (X,Y) are related to the world ground points, and (x,y) are image points. The \mathbf{R}^i is the i-th column of R.

We take a pair of views and project the 2D ground points of each view onto world coordinates, as we see in Figure 3. We take the Euclidean distance between each ground point on world coordinates and build a cost matrix. Each row on this cost matrix corresponds to the Euclidean distance between the ground point in the world coordinates of one person on the target view and all the ground points of the people on a given reference view. In this manner each element of the cost matrix is given by $d_{(target_{person_i}, reference_{person_j})}$,

where d is the distance between the ground points in world coordinates of two persons in given views. Using the Hungarian algorithm (Kuhn, 1955), we can get the matching positions. Instead of using back projection, we now have a new matching process. This new method is more robust than back projection because we only compare one point instead of all the joints of a 2D pose. We also do not need to make several 3D projections of all 2D points. We only need to project the ground point in world coordinates. Another reason the new method is more robust than back projection is that back projection may generate false matchings when there is no match in the reference view for a given pedestrian in the target view. The cost matrix is as follows:

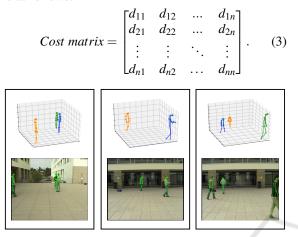


Figure 4: Some examples of our 3D pose estimation on Campus Dataset. We provide many results showing the 2D skeleton estimated and the corresponding 3D pose. These examples allow us to do a qualitative analysis of our results.

3.3 Loss Function

Considering the neural network structure in (Lin and Lee, 2021), we keep the same structure and propose a new loss. Our goal is to use reprojection errors to avoid the need for 3D labeled data. With the matched poses and the 2D projections obtained from the estimated 3D pose, it is now possible to compare them and define a loss without using ground truth information. Differently from UMVpose (de França Silva et al., 2022), we propose to use the smooth L_1 loss instead of the MSE loss.

Losses that consist in comparing 2D poses generally use MSE loss as in (Li et al., 2021). However, works as (Brynte and Kahl, 2020) use smooth L_1 loss to calculate the reprojection error, and besides that, the neural network in (Lin and Lee, 2021) also use smooth L_1 loss.

The definition of the smooth L_1 loss is

$$\operatorname{smooth}_{L_1}(x) = \begin{cases} 0.5x^2 & \text{if } |x| < 1\\ |x| - 0.5 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Using the smooth L_1 loss in our scenario is similar to applying an M-estimator function such as the Huber one when computing the reprojection error. This contributes to making our approach more robust to outliers. We also experimented with the Kullback-Leibler loss regularizer and AdaBelief as an optimizer. Table 1: Comparing PCP on Campus Dataset of our method with the one from UMVpose (de França Silva et al., 2022).

Method	Actor1	Actor2	Actor3	Average
Silva et al. with				
Adam		0.7.1		
(MSE loss)	78.0	85.1	83.0	82.0
Silva et al. with				
Adabelief	000	070	00 0	01.2
(MSE loss)	96.9	87.8	88.9	91.2
Silva et al. with				
Adabelief and				
KL regularizer	02.2	000	00.4	00.0
(MSE loss)	93.3	86.8	89.4	89.8
Silva et al. with				
Adam	00 6	00.7	00.0	065
$(\text{Smooth } L_1 \text{ loss})$	98.6	92.7	98.3	96.5
Silva et al. with				
Adabelief	00.0	00.0	00.0	06.4
(Smooth L_1 loss)	98.2	92.9	98.2	96.4
Silva et al. with				
Adabelief and				
KL regularizer	07.4	02.5	00 (06.0
$(\text{Smooth } L_1 \text{ loss})$	97.4	92.5	98.6	96.2
Ours with Adam				
and ground				
points matching	98.4	93.4	98.6	96.8

In (Lin and Lee, 2021), they have two losses, one for the person position and the other for the joint position. Person position is related to the center hip joint, that is, a single point. However, joint loss is about all person's joints. We propose reprojection error to compute these losses instead of comparing the estimation with the 3D ground truth. This way, we have a pose loss (person position) and a joint loss (joint position). These losses are related to different neural networks: the person-level depth regression network and the joint-level depth regression network, as demonstrated in (Lin and Lee, 2021). The pose loss is defined as

$$\mathcal{L}_{pose} = \sum_{r=0}^{R} \frac{1}{P} \sum_{i=1}^{P} || position_r(i)_{proj} - position_r(i)_{ref} ||_{s1}.$$
(4)

In Equation 4, *P* is the number of individuals in our target view, $position_r(i)_{proj}$ is our projected pose, and $position_r(i)_{ref}$ is the matched pose in the reference view obtained using ground point matching. The *R* value is the number of reference views. The *s*1 index is related to the Smooth L_1 loss. The joint loss is given by

$$\mathcal{L}_{joint} = \sum_{r=0}^{R} \frac{1}{P} \sum_{i=1}^{P} \sum_{j=1}^{J} ||joint_{r,j}(i)_{proj} - joint_{r,j}(i)_{ref}||_{s1},$$
(5)

where J is the total number of joints, $joint_{r,j}(i)_{proj}$ is a joint projected onto the respective reference view, and $joint_{r,j}(i)_{ref}$ is a joint from the matched 2D pose in the reference view. The *s*1 index designates that the loss uses Smooth L_1 loss.

4 EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

This section presents the 3D pose estimation experiments as illustrated in Figure 4. First, we generate the 3D pose of multiple persons in a multi-view scenario. Then, we perform the training process using a public dataset, and the metric evaluated is the Percentage of Correctly estimated Parts (PCP) (Wang et al., 2021). Finally, we evaluate our method by comparing its PCP with the ones from previous works (geometric and neural network approaches).

4.1 Dataset

The dataset used was the Campus dataset¹ (Belagiannis et al., 2014a), and the 2D poses were estimated using HR-Net (Sun et al., 2019), which is pre-trained on the MS-COCO dataset (Lin et al., 2014), and the 2D pose has 17 joints. The Campus is one of the most used datasets in works about the multi-view, multiperson scenario. This dataset was used by the geometric and supervised methods to which we compared our results. The Campus is an outdoor dataset with mainly three actors. It was obtained with three cameras capturing three persons interacting with each other. The 3D ground truth annotations are incomplete, so we use synthesized 3D MoCap poses as in (Lin and Lee, 2021) to perform our training. As in previous works (Dong et al., 2019), (Huang et al., 2020), (Tu et al., 2020), the evaluation is performed on frames 350-470 and 650-750.

4.2 Metrics

The evaluation metric used is the PCP. This is the metric that other works used, so to be fair in our comparison we also use this metric. PCP (Wang et al., 2021) is given by

$$\frac{||s_n - \hat{s}_n|| + ||e_n - \hat{e}_n||}{2} \le \alpha ||s_n - e_n||, \qquad (6)$$

where s_n and e_n are the start and end coordinates of ground truth *n*-th body part, \hat{s}_n and \hat{e}_n are the corresponding estimations, and α is a given threshold parameter, in our case $\alpha = 0.5$.

4.3 Comparison with UMVpose

Considering the updates in our UMVpose++, we perform experiments comparing it with original UMVpose (de França Silva et al., 2022). We also evaluate UMVpose using a smooth L_1 loss. Table 2: Comparing PCP on Campus Dataset with the stateof-the-art.

Method	Actor1	Actor2	Actor3	Average
Belagiannis				
et al., 2014a	82.0	72.4	73.7	75.8
Belagiannis	000			
et al., 2014b	83.0	73.0	78.0	78.0
Belagiannis	02.5		04.4	04.5
et al., 2015	93.5	75.7	84.4	84.5
Ershadi-Nasab et al., 2018	94.2	92.9	84.6	90.6
Dong	94.2	92.9	04.0	90.0
et al., 2019	97.6	93.3	98.0	96.3
de França Silva				
et al., 2022	96.9	87.8	88.9	91.2
Ours	98.4	93.4	98.6	96.8
Huang				
et al., 2020	98.0	94.8	97.4	96.7
Tu				
et al., 2020	97.6	93.8	98.8	96.7
Lin and Lee,	00.4	00.7	00.0	07.0
2021	98.4	93.7	99.0	97.0

Using ground point matching and smooth L_1 loss instead of MSE loss, we obtain better results than (de França Silva et al., 2022) as we see in Table 1.

Keeping the back-projection matching and changing only the loss function, we got expressive improvements in the PCP values. However, back-projection is a complex manner of matching between target and reference views and may also generate incorrect matches. Therefore, we change the matching for using ground points. As a result, the ground point matching with the Adam optimizer outperforms the back-projection matching on average and in all actors.

4.4 Comparison with State-of-the-Art

We show Table 2 comparing UMVpose++ with all other methods. We divided the table into two parts: the first part contains unsupervised/geometric methods, and the second part includes supervised methods. We outperform all the unsupervised methods with our approach using ground points in the matching process and smooth L_1 reprojection error loss. We outperform on average and also in all the actors.

Compared to the supervised methods, we outperform (Huang et al., 2020) and (Tu et al., 2020) on average, being below (Lin and Lee, 2021) only. Moreover, considering that (Huang et al., 2020) and (Tu et al., 2020) need 3D annotations, our method has an impressive advantage.

5 CONCLUSION

In this work, we build a solution with an unsupervised approach using a simpler and more robust matching

¹https://campar.in.tum.de/Chair/MultiHumanPose

process. By using ground points, we do not need to make 3D back-projections to perform the matching, and by comparing only one point per person, we can obtain the corresponding poses in two views. Besides that, instead of comparing the 2D poses with MSE, we use a smooth L_1 loss. The results show a huge potential for using unsupervised losses instead of supervised ones based on 3D annotations. In future work, we intend to do experiments on more datasets and to refine the loss using other regularizers such as Jensen-Shanon (Fuglede and Topsoe, 2004).

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