

# A Diffusion Dimensionality Reduction Approach to Background Subtraction in Video Sequences

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**Abstract:** Identifying moving objects in a video sequence is a fundamental and critical task in many computer-vision applications. A common approach performs background subtraction, which identifies moving objects as the portion of a video frame that differs significantly from a background model. An effective background subtraction algorithm has to be robust to changes in the background and it should avoid detecting non-stationary background objects such as moving leaves, rain, snow, and shadows. In addition, the internal background model should quickly respond to changes in background such as objects that stop or start moving. We present a new algorithm for background subtraction in video sequences which are captured by a stationary camera. Our approach processes the video sequence as a 3D cube where time forms the third axis. The background is identified by first applying the *Diffusion Bases* (DB) dimensionality reduction algorithm to the time axis and then by applying an iterative method to extract the background.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Automatic identification of people, objects, or events of interest are common tasks that can be found in video surveillance systems, tracking systems, games, etc. Typically, these systems are equipped with stationary cameras, that are directed at offices, parking lots, playgrounds, fences together with computer systems that process the video data. Human operators or other processing elements are notified about salient events. In addition to the obvious security applications, video surveillance technology has been proposed to measure traffic flow, compile consumer demographics in shopping malls and amusement parks, and count endangered species to name a few.

Usually, the events of interest are part of the foreground of the video sequence and therefore background subtraction is in many cases a preliminary step that is applied to facilitate the identification of the events. The difficulty in background subtraction is not to differentiate, but to maintain the background model, its representation and its associated statistics. In particular, capturing the background in frames where the background can change over time. These changes can be moving trees, rain, snow, sprinklers, fountains, video screens (billboards), to name a few. Other forms of changes

are weather changes like rain and snow, illumination changes like turning on and off the light in a room and changes in daylight. We refer to this background type as *dynamic background* while a background that has slight or no changes at all is referred to as *static background*. In this paper, we present a new method that falls into the latter category. The main steps of the algorithm are:

- Identification of the background by applying the DB algorithm (Schclar and Averbuch, 2015).
- Subtract the background from the input sequence.
- Threshold the subtracted sequence.
- Detect the foreground objects by applying *depth first search* (DFS).

The rest of this paper is organized as follows: In section 2, related algorithms for background subtraction are presented. In section 3, we describe the DB algorithm. The proposed algorithm is described in section 4. In section 5, we present preliminary results that were obtained by the proposed algorithms. We conclude in Section 6 and provide future research options.

## 2 RELATED WORK

Background subtraction is a widely used approach for detection of moving objects in video sequences. This approach detects moving objects by differentiating between the current frame and a reference frame, often called the background frame, or background model. The background frame should not contain moving objects. In addition, it must be regularly updated in order to adapt to varying conditions such as illumination and geometry changes. This section provides a review of some state-of-the-art background subtraction techniques. These techniques range from simple approaches, aiming to maximize speed and minimizing the memory requirements, to more sophisticated approaches, aiming to achieve the highest possible accuracy under any possible circumstances. The goal of these approaches is to run in real-time. We focus on methods that share the resemble the proposed algorithm in space and time complexity, however, additional references can be found in (Collins et al., 2000; Piccardi, 2004; Macivor, 2000; Bouwmans, 2014; Bouwmans et al., 2017).

Lo and Velastin (Lo and Velastin, 2001) proposed to use the median value of the last  $n$  frames as the background model. This provides an adequate background model even if the  $n$  frames are subsampled with respect to the original frame rate by a factor of ten (Cucchiara et al., 2003). The median filter is computed on a special set of values that contains the last  $n$  subsampled frames and the last computed median value. This combination increases the stability of the background model.

In (Wren et al., 1997) an individual background model is constructed at each pixel location  $(i, j)$  by fitting a Gaussian probability density function (pdf) to the last  $n$  pixels. These models are updated via running average given each new frame that arrives. This method has a very low memory requirement.

In order to cope with rapid changes in the background, a multi-valued background model was suggested in (Stauffer and Grimson, 1999). In this model, the probability of observing a certain pixel  $x$  at time  $t$  is represented by a mixture of  $k$  Gaussian distributions. Each of the  $k$  Gaussian distributions describe only one of the observable background or foreground objects.

A Kernel Density Estimation (KDE) of the buffer of the last  $n$  background values is used in (Elgammal et al., 2000). The KDE guarantees a smooth, continuous version of the histogram of the most recent values that are classified as background values. This histogram is used to approximate the background pdf.

Mean-shift vector techniques have proved to be an effective tool for solving a variety of pattern recognition problems e.g. tracking and segmentation ((Comaniciu, 2003)). One of the main advantages of these techniques is their ability to directly detect the main modes of the pdf while making very few assumptions. Unfortunately, the computational cost of this approach is very high. As such, it cannot be applied in a straightforward manner to model background pdfs at the pixel level, however, in (Piccardi and Jan, 2004; Han et al., 2004) this is mitigated by using optimization.

Seki et al. (Seki et al., 2003) use spatial co-occurrences of image variations. They assume that neighboring blocks of pixels that belong to the background should have similar variations over time. This method divides each frame to distinct blocks of  $N \times N$  pixels where each block is regarded as an  $N^2$ -component vector. This trades-off resolution with high speed and better stability. During the learning phase, a certain number of samples is acquired at a set of points, for each block. The temporal average is computed and the differences between the samples and the average, called the *image variations*, are calculated. Then the  $N^2 \times N^2$  covariance matrix is computed with respect to the average. An eigenvector transformation is applied to reduce the dimensions of the image variations.

This approach is based on an eigen decomposition of the whole image (Oliver et al., 2000). During a learning phase, samples of  $n$  images are acquired. The average image is then computed and subtracted from all the images. The covariance matrix is computed and the best eigenvectors are stored in an eigenvector matrix. For each frame  $I$ , a classification phase is executed:  $I$  is projected onto the eigenspace and then projected back onto the image space. The output is the background frame, which does not contain any small moving objects. A threshold is applied to the difference between  $I$  and the background frame.

## 3 THE DB ALGORITHM

Dimensionality reduction techniques represent high-dimensional datasets using a small number features while preserving the information that is conveyed by the original data. This information is mostly inherent in the geometrical structure of the dataset. Therefore, most dimensionality reduction methods embed the original dataset in a low dimensional space with minimal distortion to the original structure. Classic dimensionality reduction techniques such as Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Classical

Multidimensional Scaling (MDS) are simple to implement and can be efficiently computed. However, they guarantee to discover the true structure of a data set only when the data set lies on or near a linear manifold of the high-dimensional input space ((Mardia et al., 1979)). These methods are highly sensitive to noise and outliers since they take into account the distances between *all* pairs of points. Furthermore, PCA and MDS fail to detect non-linear structures.

A different and more effective dimensionality reduction approach considers for each point only the distances to its *closest* neighboring points in the data set. These so called *local methods* successfully embed the high dimensional data into an Euclidean space of substantially smaller dimension while preserving the geometry of the data set even when the data set lies in a non-linear manifold. The global geometry is preserved by maintaining the local neighborhood geometry of each point in the data set. Dimensionality reduction methods that employ this approach include Local Linear Embedding (LLE) (Roweis and Saul, 2000), ISOMAP (Tenenbaum et al., 2000), Laplacian Eigenmaps (Belkin and Niyogi, 2003) and Hessian Eigenmaps (Donoho and Grimes, 2003), to name a few. Another algorithm that falls into this category is *Diffusion Maps* (Coifman and Lafon, 2006; Schclar, 2008). Diffusion Maps preserves the random walk distance in the high dimensional space. This distance is more robust to noise since it averages all the paths between a pair of points.

The *Diffusion Bases* (Schclar and Averbuch, 2015) dimensionality algorithm is dual to the Diffusion Maps (Coifman and Lafon, 2006; Schclar, 2008) algorithm in the sense that it explores the non-linear variability among the *coordinates* of the original data. Both algorithms share a graph Laplacian construction, however, the Diffusion Bases algorithm uses the Laplacian eigenvectors as an orthonormal system on which it projects the original data. The Diffusion Bases algorithm has been successfully applied for the segmentation of hyper-spectral images (Schclar and Averbuch, 2017b; Schclar and Averbuch, 2017a) as well as for the detection of anomalies and sub-pixel segments in hyper-spectral images (Schclar and Averbuch, 2019) and is described in the following.

Let  $\Omega = \{x_i\}_{i=1}^m, x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , be a data set and let  $x_i(j)$  denote the  $j^{th}$  coordinate of  $x_i, 1 \leq j \leq n$ . We define the vector  $y_j = (x_1(j), \dots, x_m(j))$  as the vector whose components are composed of the  $j^{th}$  coordinate of all the points in  $\Omega$ . The Diffusion Bases algorithm consists of the following steps:

- Construct the data set  $\Omega' = \{y_j\}_{j=1}^n$
- Build a non-directed graph  $G$  whose vertices correspond to  $\Omega'$  with a non-negative and fast-decaying weight function  $w_\epsilon$  that corresponds to the *local* point-wise similarity between the points in  $\Omega'$ . By fast decay we mean that given a scale parameter  $\epsilon > 0$  we have  $w_\epsilon(y_i, y_j) \rightarrow 0$  when  $\|y_i - y_j\| \gg \epsilon$  and  $w_\epsilon(y_i, y_j) \rightarrow 1$  when  $\|y_i - y_j\| \ll \epsilon$ . One of the common choices for  $w_\epsilon$  is

$$w_\epsilon(y_i, y_j) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|y_i - y_j\|^2}{\epsilon}\right) \quad (1)$$

where  $\epsilon$  defines a notion of neighborhood by defining a  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood for every point  $y_i$ .

- Construction of a random walk on the graph  $G$  via a Markov transition matrix  $P$ .  $P$  is the row-stochastic version of  $w_\epsilon$  which is derived by dividing each row of  $w_\epsilon$  by its sum ( $P$  and the graph Laplacian  $I - P$  (see (Chung, 1997)) share the same eigenvectors).
- Perform an eigen decomposition of  $P$  to produce the left and the right eigenvectors of  $P$ :  $\{\Psi_k\}_{k=1, \dots, n}$  and  $\{\xi_k\}_{k=1, \dots, n}$ , respectively. Let  $\{\lambda_k\}_{k=1, \dots, n}$  be the eigenvalues of  $P$  where  $|\lambda_1| \geq |\lambda_2| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_n|$ .
- The right eigenvectors of  $P$  constitute an orthonormal basis  $\{\xi_k\}_{k=1, \dots, n}, \xi_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . These eigenvectors capture the *non-linear* coordinate-wise variability of the original data.
- Next, we use the spectral decay property of the spectral decomposition to extract only the first  $\eta$  eigenvectors  $H = \{\xi_k\}_{k=1, \dots, \eta}$ , which contain the *non-linear* directions with the highest variability of the coordinates of the original data set  $\Omega$ . A method for choosing  $\eta$  is described in (Schclar and Averbuch, 2015).
- We project the original data  $\Omega$  onto the basis  $H$ . Let  $\Omega_H$  be the set of these projections:  $\Omega_H = \{g_i\}_{i=1}^m, g_i \in \mathbb{R}^\eta$ , where  $g_i = (x_i \cdot \xi_1, \dots, x_i \cdot \xi_\eta), i = 1, \dots, m$  and  $\cdot$  denotes the inner product operator.  $\Omega_H$  contains the coordinates of the original points in the orthonormal system whose axes are given by  $H$ . Alternatively,  $\Omega_H$  can be interpreted in the following way: the coordinates of  $g_i$  contain the correlation between  $x_i$  and the directions given by the vectors in  $H$ .

## 4 THE STATIC BACKGROUND SUBTRACTION ALGORITHM USING DB (SBSDB)

The SBSDB algorithm (Schclar, 2009; Dushnik et al., 2013) identifies the static background, subtracts it from the video sequence and constructs a binary mask to describe the foreground and background. The input to the algorithm is a gray-level video sequence. The algorithm produces a binary mask for each video frame.

### 4.1 Off-line Algorithm for Capturing Static Background

In order to capture the static background of a scene, we reduce the dimensionality of the input sequence by applying the DB algorithm. The input to the algorithm consists of  $n$  frames that form a data cube. Formally, let  $D_n = \{s_{i,j}^t, i, j = 1, \dots, N, t = 1, \dots, n\}$  be the input data cube of  $n$  frames each of size  $N \times N$  where  $s_{i,j}^t$  is the pixel at position  $(i, j)$  in the video frame at time  $t$ . We define the vector  $U_{i,j} = (s_{i,j}^1, \dots, s_{i,j}^n)$  to be the values of the  $(i, j)^{th}$  coordinate at all the  $n$  frames in  $D_n$ . This vector is referred to as a *hyper-pixel*. Let  $\Omega_n = \{U_{i,j}\}, i, j = 1, \dots, N$  be the set of all hyper-pixels. We define  $F_t = (s_{1,1}^t, \dots, s_{N,N}^t)$  to be a 1-D vector representing the video frame at time  $t$ . We refer to  $F_t$  as a frame-vector. Let  $\Omega'_n = \{F_t\}_{t=1}^n$  be the set of all frame-vectors.

We apply the DB algorithm to  $\Omega_n$  to produce  $\Omega_H$ . The output is the projection of every hyper-pixel on the diffusion basis which embeds the original data  $D_n$  into the reduced space of dimension  $\eta$ . The first vector of  $\Omega_H$  represents the background of the input frames. Let  $bg_V = (x_1, \dots, x_{N^2})$  be this vector. We reshape  $bg_V$  into the matrix  $bg_M = (x_{i,j}), i, j = 1, \dots, N$ . Then, we normalize the values in  $bg_M$  to be between 0 to 255. The normalized background is denoted by  $\widehat{bg}_M$ .

### 4.2 On-line Algorithm for Capturing a Static Background

In order to make the algorithm suitable for on-line applications, the incoming video sequence is processed by using a *sliding window* of size  $m$ . Thus, the number of frames that are input to the algorithm is  $m$ . We denote by  $W_i = (s_i, \dots, s_{i+m-1})$  the sliding window starting at frame  $i$ . We seek to minimize  $m$  in order to have low memory consumption and obtain a faster result from the algorithm while producing a

good approximation of the background. We found empirically that the algorithm produces good results for values of  $m$  as low as  $m = 5, 6$  and  $7$ . The delay of 5 to 7 frames is negligible and renders the algorithm to be suitable for on-line applications.

Let  $S = (s_1, \dots, s_m, s_{m+1}, \dots, s_n)$  be the input video sequence. We apply the algorithm that is described in section 4.1 to every sliding window. The output is a sequence of background frames

$$\widehat{BG} = \left( (\widehat{bg}_M)_1, \dots, (\widehat{bg}_M)_m, (\widehat{bg}_M)_{m+1}, \dots, (\widehat{bg}_M)_n \right) \quad (2)$$

where  $(\widehat{bg}_M)_i$  is the background that corresponds to frame  $s_i$ . The backgrounds of the last  $m - 1$  frames -  $(\widehat{bg}_M)_{n-m+2}$  to  $(\widehat{bg}_M)_n$  - are equal to  $(\widehat{bg}_M)_{n-m+1}$ . Figure 1 describes how the sliding window is shifted.

The sliding window facilitates a faster execution time of the DB algorithm. Specifically, the weight function  $w_\epsilon$  (Eq. 1) is not recalculated for all the frames in the sliding window. Instead,  $w_\epsilon$  is only updated according to the new frame that enters the sliding window and the one that exits the sliding window.

### 4.3 The SBSDB Algorithm

The SBSDB on-line algorithm captures the background of each sliding window according to section 4.2. Then it subtracts the background from the input sequence and thresholds the output to get the background binary mask.

Let  $S = (s_1, \dots, s_n)$  be the input sequence. For each frame  $s_i \in S, i = 1, \dots, n$ , we do the following:

- Let  $W_i = (s_i, \dots, s_{i+m-1})$  be the sliding window starting at frame  $s_i$ . The on-line algorithm for capturing the background (section 4.2) is applied to  $W_i$ . The output is the background frame  $(\widehat{bg}_M)_i$ .
- The SBSDB algorithm subtracts  $(\widehat{bg}_M)_i$  from the original input frame by  $\bar{s}_i = s_i - (\widehat{bg}_M)_i$ . Then, each pixel in  $\bar{s}_i$  that has a negative value is set to 0.
- A threshold is applied to  $\bar{s}_i$ . The calculation of the threshold is described in section 4.4. A binary mask is constructed in which 0 is assigned to the background pixels and 1 is assigned to the foreground pixels.

### 4.4 Threshold Computation for a Gray Scale Input

The threshold  $\tau$  is used to separate between background and foreground pixels. It is calculated in the last step of the SBSDB algorithm. Usually, the

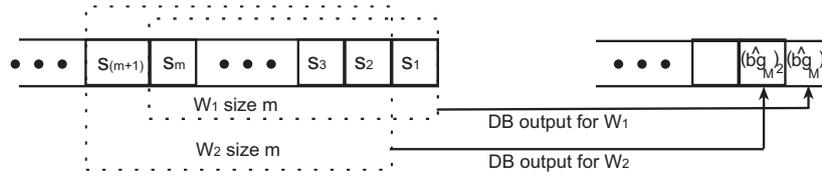


Figure 1: Illustration of how the sliding window is shifted.  $W_1 = (s_1, \dots, s_m)$  is the sliding window for  $s_1$ .  $W_2 = (s_2, \dots, s_{m+1})$  is the sliding window for  $s_2$ , etc. The backgrounds of  $s_i$  and  $s_{i+1}$  are denoted by  $(\widehat{bg}_M)_i$  and  $(\widehat{bg}_M)_{i+1}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n - m + 1$ , respectively.

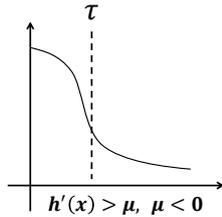


Figure 2: An example how to find the threshold value  $\tau$  in a given histogram  $h$ .  $\tau$  is set to  $x$  since at  $x$  we have  $h'(x) < \mu$ .

histogram of a frame after subtraction will be high at small values and low at high values. The SBSDB algorithm smooths the histogram in order to compute the threshold value accurately.

Let  $h$  be the histogram of a frame and let  $\mu < 0$  be a given parameter which provides a threshold for the slope of  $h$ .  $\mu$  is chosen to be the magnitude of the slope where  $h$  becomes moderate. We scan  $h$  from its global maximum to the minimum. We set the threshold  $\tau$  to the smallest value  $x$  that satisfies  $h'(x) > \mu$  where  $h'(x)$  is the first derivative of  $h$  at point  $x$ , i.e. the slope of  $h$  at point  $x$ . The background/foreground classification of the pixels in the input frame  $\tilde{s}_i$  is determined according to  $\tau$ . Specifically, a binary mask  $\tilde{s}_i$  is constructed as follows:

$$\tilde{s}_i(k, l) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \tilde{s}_i(k, l) < \tau \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad k, l = 1, \dots, N$$

Fig. 2 illustrates how to find the threshold.

The SBSDB algorithm can be executed in parallel in a very simple manner. First, the data cube  $D_n = \{s_{i,j}^t, i, j = 1, \dots, N, t = 1, \dots, n\}$  is decomposed into  $c \times d$  overlapping data cubes  $\{\beta_{k,l}\}_{k=1, \dots, c, l=1, \dots, d}$  where  $\beta_{k,l} = \{s_{i,j}^t, i = i_k, \dots, (i_{k+1} - 1), j = j_l, \dots, (j_{l+1} - 1), t = 1, \dots, n\}$ . Next, the SBSDB algorithm is applied to each individual block. This step can run in parallel. The final result of the algorithm is constructed by placing each block at its original location in  $D_n$ . The result for pixels that lie in overlapping areas between adjacent blocks is obtained by applying a logical OR operation to the corresponding blocks results.

## 5 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

We apply the SBSDB algorithm to an AVI video sequence that consists of 190 gray scale frames of size  $256 \times 256$ . The video sequence was captured by a stationary camera and its frame rate is 15 fps. The video sequence shows moving cars over a static background. We apply the sequential version of the algorithm where the size of the sliding window is set to 5 and reduced the dimensionality to 1. We also apply the parallel version of the algorithm where the video sequence is divided to four blocks in a  $2 \times 2$  formation. The overlapping size between two (either horizontally or vertically) adjacent blocks is set to 20 pixels and the size of the sliding window is set to 10. The values of the parameters were found empirically. Let  $s$  be a test frame and let  $W_s$  be the sliding window starting at  $s$ . In Fig. 3 we show the frames that  $W_s$  contains. The output of the SBSDB algorithm for  $s$  is shown in Fig. 4. The background is subtracted accurately and the moving cars are clearly classified as the foreground. Moreover, the algorithm successfully detects small foreground objects such as the moving arms of the pedestrian that is walking on the left sidewalk.

## 6 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

We introduced in this work an algorithm for automatic background subtraction of video sequences with static background. The algorithm captures the background by reducing the dimensionality of the input via the Diffusion Bases algorithm. The SBSDB algorithm can be applied on-line. The algorithm accurately models the background of the input video sequences.

The performance of the proposed algorithm can be enhanced by improving the accuracy of the threshold values. Furthermore, it is necessary to develop a data-driven method for automatic computation of  $\mu$ , which is used in the threshold



Figure 3: The frames that  $W_s$  contains. The test frame  $s$  is at the top-left corner. The frames are ordered from top-left to bottom-right.

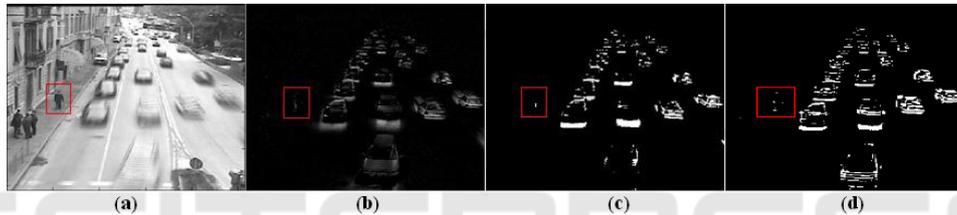


Figure 4: Results of the SBSDB algorithm when applied to the sliding window in Fig. 3. (a) The background for the test frame  $s$ . (b) The test frame  $s$  after the subtraction of the background. (c) The binary mask output of the sequential algorithm for the test frame  $s$ . (d) The binary mask output for the test frame  $s$  from the parallel version of the algorithm.

computation (sections 4.4). Additionally, the proposed algorithms can be useful to achieve low-bit rate video compression for transmission of rich multimedia content. The captured background can be transmitted once followed by the detected segmented objects. Furthermore, the authors are in the final stages of extending the proposed algorithm to handle video sequences that contain non-static background. Lastly, another extension that is currently being developed to handle video sequences that are captured by non-stationary cameras. This application is becoming more and more important given the increasing utilization of drones.

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