Combining Video and Wireless Signals for Enhanced Audience Analysis

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Keywords: Multi-modal Analysis, Person Analysis, Wireless Detection, Computer Vision, Audience Engagement.

Abstract: We present a system for audience engagement measurement which combines wireless and vision-based detection techniques. The system is able to detect the position and the movements of the audience during a live event with rapidly varying illumination. At the heart of the paper is an approach to use a wireless-based person detection and tracking system to guide the preprocessing of the frames which are fed to the CNN performing person analysis. We show that the hybrid system performs better than standard vision-based approaches and can be successfully deployed in environments with challenging illumination conditions.

1 INTRODUCTION

The entertainment industry has gone through a huge development in the recent years, in large part due to the implementation of entertainment services on internet as well as the migration of services to the web. This transition has brought more users to the platforms (Deloitte, 2018), enhanced the user engagement and increased exponentially the data collected from the people using the service. Such data can be used for increasing revenues (Granados, 2018) (for example through better advertising via user profiling), but it can also be used as a tool to improve the service.

Technological evolution, especially in recent years, has been the main factor leading to the changes in the entertainment sector. For traditional shows (such as live concerts) it is rarely the case that the events are available to the online audience. The addition of online audience (and interaction) to an event provides the event organizers with a huge amount of data which is usually not obtainable during in-person only events (Mitchell, 2014). As this information is valuable, more and more companies and event organizers are interested in extracting such data also from analyzing the audience during live events, usually using computer vision techniques or feedback data from social media.

This paper describes a proof-of-concept system used to run person analysis during live events and measure how much the audience is involved and interested in the event. Most of the metrics used to estimate the user engagement (such as gaze detection, emotion analysis, person location or activity recognition) rely on the accurate detection of a person face and body as well as tracking its movements over time. For this reason in this work we developed methods for accurately localize and track people during live events, in challenging illumination conditions that make it hard for existing implementations to work correctly.

Computer vision-based localization techniques are usually implemented using convolutional neural networks (CNNs) (Razavian et al., 2014). These tools, although powerful, have two shortcomings: they need big training datasets and they usually perform poorly on data points outside the domain of the training dataset. This means that a network trained on a specific task doesn’t usually generalize to data coming from different environments, thus requiring further training and the application of domain adaptation techniques.

One example where existing network architectures will fail is in a live-event scenario, where the objective is to detect people faces and track the pose and the movements of the audience. Existing architectures are not designed or trained using images with poor illumination conditions and do not consider the possibility that the illumination (due to moving lights in the scenario) could change abruptly in the same image.

A possible solution to these problems is to use another source of information, for example localization based on wireless signals such as Wi-Fi or Bluetooth, to steer the pre-processing of the data fed into the neural network so that it could provide higher accuracy results without requiring any domain adaptation.
The main contribution of this paper is the implementation of a hybrid system which uses computer vision and wireless signal analysis techniques for detection and tracking of people in live events. The use of a hybrid approach, apart from providing more user information, allows higher detection and tracking accuracy than using the two methods separately with the same dataset. Furthermore, the system is robust to sudden illumination changes and noisy environments, without requiring additional training, opening the possibility to use standard dataset and adapt the input to that dataset using preprocessing techniques.

The code of the system and the data used during the experiments are available on Github 1.

2 RELATED WORK

2.1 Vision-based Human Analysis

The detection of people in still images and video has long been one of the most studied problems in computer vision. Prior to the advent of deep learning based techniques, the standard approach was to create a human model using image keypoints and descriptors, for example Haar cascades methods (Lienhart and Maydt, 2003), Support Vector Machines (Bourdev and Malik, 2010; Malisiewicz et al., 2011) or Histogram of oriented gradients (Dalal and Triggs, 2005).

In recent years, thanks to the availability of datasets such as ImageNet (Deng et al., 2009) or Microsoft COCO (Lin et al., 2014) and the increase of computational CPU and GPU power, convolutional neural networks became the standard tool used for objects detection and tracking. The architectures most commonly used for this task are R-CNN and its evolutions (Girshick et al., 2014; Girshick, 2015; Ren et al., 2015), You Only Look Once (YOLO) (Redmon et al., 2016; Redmon and Farhadi, 2018) or Single Shot multibox Detector (SSD) (Liu et al., 2016). More advanced architectures can provide a pixel-level segmentation of the person detected (He et al., 2017), while others detect the position of the joints in order to estimate the person pose (Sun et al., 2019; Cao et al., 2018; Su et al., 2019; Chang et al., 2018). Such algorithms rely on datasets specifically created for the task such as MPII Human Pose (Andriluka et al., 2014) and Leeds Sports Pose (Johnson and Everingham, 2010).

2.2 Wireless-based Human Analysis

The standard approach for detecting and tracking people using wireless signals is to rely on the Wi-Fi and Bluetooth signals provided by a smartphone or other wireless capable devices carried by the user. One of the possible approaches relies on RSSI fingerprinting (Yiu et al., 2017), where the communication signal strength is used to determine the distance of the device from the receptor. In order to obtain a reliable position trilateration must be used, combining the data from several receptors (Oguejiofor et al., 2013). Other approaches rely on wireless time of flight (Lanzisera et al., 2011), which uses the time between the emission and reception to determine the distance between the devices and from that infer the persons position. Another technique is the wireless angle of arrival (Peng and Sichitu, 2007; Gupta and Kar, 2015), where an antenna array measures the angle of arrival of the signal instead of the ToF. In this case the angle from the device to the receptor is calculated by having an antenna array as receptor and with the difference on the reception time between each of the antennas the angle of the signal can be calculated, and with trilateration the position can be approximated. A technique that does not need the person to carry a device is the ones used in WI-SEE and WI-VI (K.Nanani and M V V Prasad, 2013), where the shape of objects in the room is computed by analyzing the reflection of the Wi-Fi waves, and uses those to detect the position of the persons.

2.3 Audience Engagement Systems

As mentioned in section 1 most of the engagement systems are designed for online events because in those cases the infrastructure necessary is already available. Systems for online learning (Meyer, 2014; Khalil and Ebner, 2017), social media (Schivinski et al., 2016) or news (Bodd, 2018) already implement tools for measuring user engagement. In the case of live events the infrastructure and the system have to be built separately, although some interactions can be created with electronic devices such as lights or screens. Most current engagement systems depends on the usage of an external device to provide the information about the engagement. One example of engagement system is the glisser app (Glisser webpage, 2019), in which the event manager can implement questionnaires, slide sharing or a Twitter wall. In this case only the information that the person writes in the app is considered as engagement. Another approach to have a more truthful information has been the usage of electroencephalograms to measure the signals.

produced in the brain as in the engageMeter (Hassib et al., 2017). Such systems are not very suitable to be used in events such as concerts where multiple people are moving and user engagement has to be measured in an indirect way.

2.4 Multi-modal Systems.

The usage of different techniques and methods together has been used for many years in the development of new systems to improve the final results. In the detection field this type of systems has been used in recent years for autonomous vehicles (Asvadi et al., 2018), combining a CNN and Lidar, person detection systems (Spinello et al., 2008), which uses laser and camera data, and some datasets has been created for this type of systems such as a fall detection (Martínez-Villaseñor et al., 2019), which combines information from video and wearable sensors.

3 METHODS

3.1 CNN-based Detection and Tracking

The standard approach for detecting and tracking people (for example in audience monitoring or surveillance applications) involves using one or multiple cameras to record the room and locate the people position. The reference used for our work is (Papandreou et al., 2018), a person detection technique which also performs pose estimation and instance segmentation, and provides good accuracy results in densely packed scenes (i.e. with more than 30 people). Our implementation is a modified version of (Wightman, 2018). Our modifications are mostly related to performance improvement and the addition of several methods for preprocessing, selecting which joints to detect, selecting which parts of the image to process and adding a tracking module. Our implementation includes also a module for gaze detection based on (Wang and Sung, 2002), since gaze information is very valuable for audience monitoring applications. The gaze detection is combined with the position obtained to determine if the person is looking at the show or not and with that determine the engagement of the person.

The dataset used for training this CNN is COCO, which contains more than 200K labeled images without preprocessing, although not all them are contain people in different positions and places, with normal illumination conditions, with annotation of the different joints and face parts.

(a) Good illumination and positioning

(b) Illumination changing and strange positioning

Figure 1: Pose and person detection under different illumination conditions.

The implementation in (Wightman, 2018) shows a steep decline in the accuracy of detections when the illumination conditions of the scene are not represented in the training set. An example of such performance decay can be seen in Fig. 1, where the detection is perfect in the upper figure, while in the bottom image a very small percentage of the people gets detected. This is caused by not having the network trained with all the possible illumination conditions, which can be very difficult to be predicted beforehand for a live event such as a concert.

Comparing the two images in Fig. 1 it can be easily seen that the main difference between them is the illumination conditions as the image with higher accuracy has higher brightness and contrast than the one with bad conditions. In audience monitoring applications (such as during live events) it is highly likely that the illumination conditions vary over time, and often different parts of the scene have different brightness and contrast. In this case any person detection algorithm is doomed to fail unless the input frames are pre-processed so that they provide the same illumination conditions across the whole image as well as over time. Section 3.3 describes in detail how our implementation chooses the parameters used to pre-process the input frames before feeding them to the neural network.

3.2 Wireless Data

Nowadays every person carries at least one device capable of receiving wireless signals such as Wi-Fi or Bluetooth most of the time inside their pockets. This types of signals have been used to locate devices for quite a long time (Altini et al., 2010; K.Nanani and M V V Prasad, 2013; Dari et al., 2018) because the low difficulty in its implementation.
The process of locating a device, whether it is connected or not to the same network as the tracking device, is based on the basic connection handshake from both Wi-Fi and Bluetooth, in which a valid MAC address must be transmitted. In the first messages of the handshake the device transmits a MAC address (although as we will explain later it does not need to be the real MAC address) in order to exchange the necessary information for the connection. The power of the signal received by the tracker can then be used to estimate the distance between the tracker and the device.

If three or more trackers are used, then the position of the device can be calculated using trilateration or triangulation position techniques. The process for the localization can be seen in Fig. 2a, where the persons position is approximated by four trackers (AP). Our implementation is based on Find3 (Schollz, 2019), with some modifications to allow device filtering and techniques to deal with devices performing MAC randomization.

As the system detects any kind of wireless device and not just mobile phones, a significant number of false positives can appear. To reduce that number we implemented a filter that discards all the devices outside the zone of interest and the ones not detected by a minimum number of trackers. Another filter eliminates the devices with MAC address of brands that do not produce mobile phone devices, based on the list provided in the IEEE website (IEEE MAC OUI registries, 2019).

Recent mobile operating system (from iOS 8 and Android 10), implement a feature called MAC randomization where, whenever the device is asked to transmit the MAC address before establishing a connection to the network, it will transmit a false MAC address. This false MAC is totally random in iOS devices while in Android devices it is chosen from a known range. This feature makes it harder to track the devices when they are not in the same network as the tracker, and it can cause iOS devices to be filtered without processing. If the device is connected to the network the tracker knows the real MAC of the device, and both the position and the movement are tracked, allowing for higher accuracy in the measurements.

As the position computed by using wireless signals is inherently an approximate calculation, we do not provide the accurate position but rather the zone in which the device is. The way the room is split into different zones is arbitrary and is decided before running the experiments. The number of zones is also independent from the number of trackers used, i.e. 3 trackers could be used to distinguish the position of a device between 5 different zones.

We compute the position of the mobile devices using an algorithm which compares the measurements from each tracker with the measurement obtained from known devices in the room, called reference devices. Using reference devices allows the system to be robust to the changes in the electromagnetic field that can happen inside the room.

3.3 Hybridization

Once the results from vision and wireless based detection systems are available, the hybridization step is responsible to process and combine both in order to obtain a higher accuracy. The main idea is that the data provided by the wireless person detection system can represent a rough estimation of the number of people in the scene and, comparing it with the previous result from the vision system, it can steer the pre-processing of the frames to improve the subsequent vision-based detection and tracking results of the system.
Consider for example the bottom image in Fig. 1, in this case the wireless detection system could estimate that there are more than 30 people in the range of the router, while the vision-based system only detects 3 people (due to poor illumination condition, varying image contrast in different region of the image, etc.). The work-flow of the hybridization is summed up in Fig. 3.

Apart from the detection and the tracking data from both systems, the hybridization system takes as input a function which maps the 3D regions in which the wireless detection splits the room and the 2D regions in the camera frames where the pre-processing will be applied.

### 3.3.1 Preprocessing

The aim of the pre-processing is twofold, as it should both speed-up the detection times and modify the input images with the aim of maximizing the detection accuracy.

The preprocessing performed is composed by several steps. First, the image is cropped to remove the parts of the frame where no person could appear (see Fig. 4 for an example). The cropping process is performed manually, as it depends on the camera positioning, and it is a one-time operation which is then applied to every frame of the video. This improves the performance since there is a lower quantity of pixels to evaluate and the neural network is able to process more frames in a single pass. Then, the input frame is divided into different slices. Fig. 5 shows an example where the input frame, after cropping, is split into six parts. Each slice will be then pre-processed separately by applying different brightness and contrast changes. In this way the system is able to cope with the fact that different parts of the frame may have different color and brightness statistics. There is a 5% overlap between each slice (represented by the orange lines in Fig. 5) to counter the fact that people moving in the scene from one slice to the adjacent one may be lost when crossing from one slice to the other. The way the frame is split into different slices depends on the camera position as well as on the geometry of the regions identified by the wireless detection system.

The processing of each slice is done by applying contrast stretching using the CLAHE transformation (Pizer et al., 1990), followed later by Gamma correction (Richter et al., 2009) to reduce or increase the number of bits of luminance and so dynamically increase or decrease the processing power needed. The parameters used for performing CLAHE and gamma correction are dynamically chosen by comparing the detection results of the wireless and vision-based system.

### 3.3.2 Tracking Strategies

In order to speed-up the processing times of the vision system, the detection step is performed once every 10 frames, while in the remaining frames people are only tracked using MedianFlow (Kalal et al., 2010).

To avoid tracking false detections indefinitely, the tracking is periodically reset, while correct assign-
ments keep being tracked by performing a simple nearest-neighbor assignment from previous frames. Fig. 6 shows a visualization of the tracking of a person's face: the green rectangle shows the current position of the face, while a curve shows the path followed by the face center. The most recent positions (the latest 20 frames) are drawn in blue, while older positions are shown in green and, for positions older than 50 frames, in red.

The wireless detection system does not implement a tracking mechanism, but data from previous measurement is used to increase the robustness of the detection mechanisms. Previous measurements are exponentially weighted, with a higher weight associated to more recent measures.

### 3.3.3 Zone Relation

The wireless method divides the room in several zones, while the computer vision method divides the frame in several slices. In the tests we performed, we used three zones for the wireless system and six for the computer vision one. Before the processing starts, a function maps the zones from the camera to a zone in the 3D space. The mapping is not perfect but, as the precision of the wireless technique is in the range of centimeters, the relation does not need to be exact.

The number of zones in the wireless method depend on the accuracy needed and conditions of the room, such as size and shape. It is possible to have a different number of zones and trackers, as in our testing where we used 2 trackers for 3 zones.

Depending on how the image is split, it may happen that if the person is very close to the camera, or the person does not wear his device, the computer vision system detects one person in one zone while the wireless method detects it in another. Some of that issues can be avoided with a good camera positioning, which is at a medium distance from the people and at a height of 2.5 meters approximately. If the camera cannot be moved, the detection difference between the methods can be changed. This difference compares the total detections between the methods and in the case that is greater than a threshold the preprocessing conditions (gamma and contrast), are changed.

### 4 RESULTS

We conducted fifteen tests in a controlled environment, changing the following variables:

- Number of people on camera: controls the number of people that can be seen in the image retrieved from the camera. This variable can take the values from four to eleven in the test. It has been included to see if the system loses precision when increasing the number of people in the room.

- Separation between the people: controls the distance between the people in the room. It is treated as a binary variable as people could be either close (distance is less than 30 cm) or separated (distance is greater than 70 cm). This variable has been included to see the impact of occlusions in the vision-based system and to measure the reliability of the tracking system.

- Wi-Fi connection: controls if the mobile device of the people are connected to the same network as the scanning devices, allowing the system to know the real MAC address of the device and to retrieve more data from it.

- Illumination: controls the state of the lights on the room, either turned on or changing over time. This variable has been included to see if both the pre-processing with segmentation and the hybrid approach can reduce the effect of the change of illumination in the computer vision techniques.

- Number of people moving: controls the quantity of people moving from one zone to another. This variable is expressed in percentage of the total people in the image.

Table 1 shows the different conditions under which the fifteen tests were ran.

In order to simplify the testing and the further proving of results, we ran the test in offline mode, that is we first recorded the electromagnetic environment and the room with the camera, and then later we processed the data. The video was taken in two modalities, a low-quality one (360p resolution, 10 fps and 400 kbps bitrate) and a high-quality one (1080p, 10 fps and 5 Mbps) to compare security camera quality to consumer grade cameras. Each test lasted five minutes, both for video and recording of the electromagnetic environment. As expected, using low quality videos the detection rate decreases, having more false detections and less people detected. Strangely, we noticed that double detections, person being detected two times in the same frame were more probable with the high quality video. This double detections happens when the system does not detect that two detected joints are from the same person and attributes them to different people, by supposing that
Table 1: Test variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>People</th>
<th>Separation</th>
<th>Wi-Fi</th>
<th>Lights</th>
<th>People moving</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30 cm</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Turn on</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30 cm</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Turn on</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30 cm</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Changing</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>70 cm</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Changing</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>70 cm</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Turn on</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30 cm</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Changing</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30 cm</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Turn on</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>70 cm</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Changing</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30 cm</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Changing</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30 cm</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Turn on</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>70 cm</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Changing</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>70 cm</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Turn on</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>70 cm</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Changing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>70 cm</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Turn on</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30 cm</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Turn on</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

the rest of the person is not detected because is being covered.

The tests measured the following:

- True positive detections: measures the number of persons correctly detected at each frame. This variable is related to the maximum number of people that the system is able to track.

- Number of false detections: measures false detection at each frame. This variable will take into account both the false negatives (missing detections) and the false positives (detecting a person when it is not there, or detecting the same person twice).

- Tracking: This variable takes into account the movement of the people across different zones in the room and their location. This variable will measure if the system can track the movement of a person through the time.

- Processing time: This variable analyses the average time that is necessary for the processing of a frame in the video.

In Fig. 7 we show the average (per frame) percentage of people detected on the videos in each of the tests, while in Fig. 8 we report the average number of false detections, both for the low and high bitrate videos.

Fig. 7a shows that, for the low-quality video, the hybrid approach in most cases performs better than the vision-only system (and in two cases correctly detects all the people in the scene), while in three cases it shows the same performance. Fig. 8a shows a strong improvement in terms of false detections across almost every test, and no false detections at all in one case.

Similar conclusions can be drawn when analyzing the results on the high-quality video. Fig. 7b shows that the hybrid system improves over the vision-only method and in 11 cases, reaching 100% detection rate. Fig. 8b shows a similar trend: with the exceptions of tests #4 and #15 (where one of the participants is detected twice by the system), the false detections are lower when using the hybrid approach.
We measure the quality of the tracking using the tracking length metric (Čehovin et al., 2016). In Fig. 9 we show the tracking length when using the hybrid approach (red) and the vision-only based system. The tracking length is fairly consistent across the different tests, and the results clearly show that the hybrid approach improves over the vision-only system, with an approximate gain of 25%.

Fig. 10 to Fig. 13 show some examples of the difference in detection and tracking quality between the vision-only system and the hybrid one according to different metrics:

- Tracking performance - Fig. 10 shows that the movement of the person is recorded for much longer time when using the hybrid approach.
- Number of detections - Fig. 11 shows how the hybrid approach is able to detect more people and how the vision-only approach may fail, by detecting a group of people as a single person.
- False and double detections - Fig. 12 shows that the double detection of the person does not take place on the hybrid method.
- Body parts detections - Fig. 13 shows that, even if both methods fail to detect the person, the hybrid method is able to detect at least some body parts

We measured the difference in processing time between the hybrid system and the computer vision only technique. The results, displayed in the table 2, show that the hybrid approach is marginally slower than the vision-only based method. Performance were measured on an Intel i5 PC with 16Gb of RAM and a Nvidia 1080 GPU, taking the average over 20 runs.

Finally, we also measured the ability of the system to determine the location of the people in the different zones of the room. We measured the average number of people in each zone across every test video, and compared it to the localization results when using only the vision system, only the Wi-Fi method, or the hybrid approach. As detailed in Table 3, the hybrid approach is the one that matches the ground truth data more closely.
Table 2: Average processing times over 20 runs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality</th>
<th>CV-Only (fps)</th>
<th>Hybrid (fps)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>2.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Average number of people detected per zone, using CV-only, Wi-Fi only, hybrid methods and ground truth.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>CV</th>
<th>Wi-Fi</th>
<th>Hybrid</th>
<th>GT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

We have developed a hybrid system with better location, detection and tracking accuracy than systems using only computer vision or wireless techniques, with only slightly worse performances in terms of processing times. Such improvements are more noticeable for the first experiment, conducted in a controlled environment, while the second test, run in a concert hall with many more people and harder lighting conditions, shows an increment in accuracy compared to single modality techniques, but the system detection results are still quite far from the ground truth.

There is a difference also on the quantity of information obtained by the method, as the metrics of the hybrid method are far greater in number and giving a higher quality information. Some of the metrics as the number of people in the room are validated by being detected by two different methods instead of just one.

Compared to the computer vision-only method, our hybrid approach is able to detect people facing backwards, and has a much lower number of false detections. Thanks to the pre-processing step, the hybrid approach guarantees longer tracking times and better tracking quality.

The hybrid system could be improved in terms of both performance and functionalities. Performance-wise, gains could be obtained by switching to better models (for the vision part) or by implementing improved methods for localization via wireless signals, beyond the nearest-neighbor approach currently used. Tracking could significantly improve by using face-identification techniques which allow to resume tracking after occlusions. This improvement in performance will pursue the objective of having the objective of a real time system. Regarding functionalities, one obvious improvement is to increase the amount of information extracted, for example the system could run emotion analysis (which correlates directly with user engagement) or action recognition. More interestingly, new functionalities can be added by strengthening the interaction between the vision and wireless systems: for example, the hybrid implementation could use the data from the camera to tweak the parameters used to perform wireless localization, or to reshape the zones of interest based on people movements.

REFERENCES


