

A Framework for 3D Object Identification and Tracking

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Abstract: In this paper we present a framework for the estimation of the pose of an object in 3D space: from the detection and subsequent recognition from a 3D point-cloud, to tracking in the 2D camera plane. The detection process proposes a way to remove redundant features, which leads to significant computational savings without affecting identification performance. The tracking process introduces a method that is less sensitive to outliers and is able to perform in soft real-time. We present preliminary results that illustrate the effectiveness of the approach both in terms of accuracy and computational speed.

1 INTRODUCTION

The identification and subsequent relative pose tracking of objects in 3D space (6 degrees of freedom) is an important problem in service robotics. Recently, several software solutions have become available; e.g. the case of ViSP¹ and BLORT².

In ViSP, recognition is not taken into account. This is the case with earlier works (Harris, 1992; Koller et al., 1993), the refinement of the estimated object pose does not consider evaluation and/or prediction of hypothesised object poses. In BLORT, recognition and multiple pose hypotheses is considered via probabilistic frameworks; for example, in (Azad et al., 2011; Choi and Christensen, 2012). However, it assumes good pose priors which may lead to losing track of the object.

In recent past, Drost *et al.* (Drost et al., 2010) proposed an efficient approach for detecting and subsequent tracking. Given an object model, a description is extracted using point pair features, thus encoding the geometric relation between oriented point pairs. The method is robust to sensor noise and outperforms other feature-based state-of-the-art methods like Spin Images (Johnson and Hebert, 1999) and Tensors (Mian et al., 2006), in terms of robustness to occlusion and clutter.

Tracking on a 2D camera plane can be performed faster than those required in 3D space. Recently available low-cost range sensors (e.g. Kinect) can be used

in such a way. However, for not affecting accuracy, the pose hypotheses space is an important issue to explore. This comes alongside the use of generated model feature points which can reduce perspective-point ambiguities in data association (Puppili and Calway, 2006). Thus, issues that need addressing for efficient tracking are:

- reliably detect the object in question and identify their model equivalent;
- by tracking the object, estimate and refine its pose;
- suitable for online applications.

In this paper we introduce an approach under which an object is recognized and its (initial) pose is estimated through an acquired 3D point cloud (Section 3). Identification and initial pose estimation is achieved via a fast extension (Figueiredo et al., 2013) of Drost *et al.* (Drost et al., 2010) algorithm (Section 3). These serve as inputs to the tracking of the 6DoF pose on the 2D camera plane using multiple hypotheses (Chliveros et al., 2013) (Section 4). Preliminary results for the described methods, are presented in Section 5. Finally, some concluding remarks and future work is provided in Section 6.

2 HYPOTHESES SPACE

As previously mentioned, the hypotheses space from known 3D models is an important aspect for accuracy and error compensation. We generate a representative search space over rotations ($\alpha_x + \delta\alpha_x, \alpha_y + \delta\alpha_y, \alpha_z +$

¹<http://www.irisa.fr/lagadic/visp/visp.html>

²<http://users.acin.tuwien.ac.at/mzillich/?site=4>

$\delta\alpha_z$). The term $\delta\alpha$ can be assigned as dictated by a number of increment steps (N) over the full rotation range $(0, \pi)$ of the corresponding axis.

In the detection process case (see Section 3), all retrieved pose hypotheses whose position and orientation do not differ more than a predefined threshold are clustered together (Section 3.3).

Note that in order to deal with symmetry, before clustering, we collapse all redundant hypotheses to a single pose. This additional step removes the rotational component around the object axis of symmetry, ensuring that all redundant poses are gathered in the same cluster. Thus, the process allocates less resources, reduces the number of computations and becomes more stable.

In the tracking process case (see Section 4), new hypotheses are generated only when the error of the error minimisation step (see Section 4.2) exceeds a predefined threshold. However, the generation of hypotheses is dictated within a short-term window. That is to say, all pose hypotheses between all frames within said time window are used as constraints in the generation of new pose candidates. New pose candidates are randomly sampled around the median of the time-window retrieved poses (i.e. converged solution of the minimisation step).

The uncertainty of tracking pose candidates is also handled in Section 4.1. This is performed via a time-window and is depicted by the covariance matrix \mathbf{S}_{p_i} . In Section 4.2, the covariance matrix is updated, by means of compensating re-projection errors (see Section 4.2) (Haralick, 1994; Lourakis, 2010).

3 OBJECT DETECTION

An object description suitable for object identification and pose estimation is created through the analysis of all possible permutations of surflet pairs. The basic units to describe surface shape are surflets (Wahl et al., 2003) $\mathbf{s} = (\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{n})$, where \mathbf{p} represents sample points in the surface and \mathbf{n} are the associated surface normals.

We consider rotationally symmetric objects, where shape is invariant to rotations around a given axis. We assume that the Z axis of the object's reference frame is the axis of symmetry and the X-Y-Z Euler representation. We search for surflet pairs whose aligning transformation is very close in translation, roll and pitch. Similar surflet pairs are collapsed into the same feature.

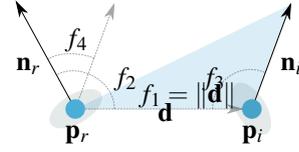


Figure 1: Point Pair Feature.

3.1 Detection process

The identification process consists of matching surflet pairs (s_r^s, s_i^s) from a scene, to surflet pairs (s_r^m, s_i^m) extracted from a database of model objects.

For s_r and s_i being two surflets, the Point Pair Feature (PPF) $\mathbf{F} \in F \subset \mathbb{R}^4$ is defined as a 4-tuple composed by the distance between the reference \mathbf{p}_r , and secondary points \mathbf{p}_i , as well as the angle between the normal of the reference point \mathbf{n}_r and the vector $\mathbf{d} = |\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{p}_r|$, the angle between the normal of the secondary point \mathbf{n}_i and \mathbf{d} and, finally, the angle between \mathbf{n}_r and \mathbf{n}_i as illustrated in Fig. 1.

This could be formally described by

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{F} &= \text{PPF}(s_r, s_i) = (f_1, f_2, f_3, f_4) \\ &= (\|\mathbf{d}\|, \angle(\mathbf{n}_r, \mathbf{d}), \angle(\mathbf{n}_i, \mathbf{d}), \angle(\mathbf{n}_r, \mathbf{n}_i)) \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

3.2 Initial Pose Estimation

A set of reference surflets on the scene $R_s \subset S$ is uniformly sampled from S and each of them is paired with all the other surflets on the scene. The number of reference points is given by $|R_s| = \xi|S|$ where $\xi \in [0, 1]$ is the reference points sampling ratio control parameter.

For each scene surflet pair $(s_r^s, s_i^s) \in S^2$, $\text{PPF}(s_r^s, s_i^s)$ is computed and set of similar model surflet pairs is retrieved from the hash table. From every match between a scene surflet pair $(s_r^s, s_i^s) \in S^2$ and a model surflet pair $(s_r^m, s_i^m) \in M^2$, one is able to compute the rigid transformation that aligns the matched model with the scene. This is done first by computing the transformations $\mathbf{T}_{m \rightarrow g}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{s \rightarrow g}$ that align s_r^m and s_r^s , respectively, to the object reference coordinate frame x axis, and secondly by computing the rotation α around the x axis that aligns \mathbf{p}_i^m with \mathbf{p}_i^s . The transformation that aligns the model with the scene is then computed considering the ensuing expression:

$$\mathbf{T}_{m \rightarrow s} = \mathbf{T}_{s \rightarrow g}^{-1} \mathbf{R}(\alpha) \mathbf{T}_{m \rightarrow g} \quad (2)$$

The transformations $\mathbf{T}_{m \rightarrow g}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{s \rightarrow g}$ translate \mathbf{p}_r^m and \mathbf{p}_r^s , respectively, to the reference coordinate frame origin and rotates their normals \mathbf{n}_r^m and \mathbf{n}_r^s onto the x axis. After applying these two transformations, \mathbf{p}_i^m and \mathbf{p}_i^s are still misaligned. The transformation $\mathbf{R}(\alpha)$

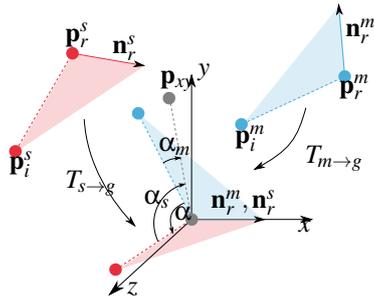


Figure 2: Pose acquisition by surflet pair alignment.

applies the final rotation needed to align these two points. The previous reasoning is depicted in Fig. 2.

The transformation expressed in eq. (2) can be parametrized by a surflet on the model and a rotation angle α . In (Drost et al., 2010), this pair (s_r^m, α) is mentioned as the *local coordinates* of the model with respect to reference point s_r^s .

3.3 Voting Scheme

This method uses a voting scheme similar to the GHT for pose estimation. For each scene reference surflet, a two-dimensional accumulator array that represents the discrete space of local coordinates is created. The number of rows, N_m , is the same as the number of model sample surflets $|M|$, and the number of columns N_{angle} is equal to the number of sample steps of the rotation angle α .

A vote is placed in an accumulator array. The position index corresponding to the local coordinates (s_r^m, α) is incremented by 1. After pairing s_r^s with all s_i^s , the highest peak (the position with more votes) in the accumulator corresponds to the optimal local coordinate.

4 TRACKING PROCESS

Given the detected model recognised by the detection process (Section 3.1) and the initial estimated pose (Section 3.2), the tracking process in the 2D camera frame can be instantiated.

For any pose s from a known model m_i we extract the 3D-to-2D projected feature model points \hat{m}_i . The set of model points are matched with image observed feature points \hat{p}_j . This is performed by employing a nearest neighbour search by overlaying in the 2D camera frame a uniform grid.

We query for each model feature points \hat{m}_i and find the Euclidean distance for given image observed feature points \hat{p}_j . The image observed feature points are produced from the contour and edges of the

model, as per method described in (Baltzakis and Argyros, 2009) and further extended in (Pateraki et al., 2013).

The overall treatment of feature points (from extraction to association) is much faster than other methods for associating contour points and has the additional benefit of finding intersections in relatively difficult to observe edges. The alternative of finding approximate nearest neighbours (Muja and Lowe, 2009) would be computationally more expensive (Franklin, 2006). Uniform structures, which are optimized for metrics in the Euclidean space \mathbb{E}^2 , force query times to be limited to $O(N)$. Furthermore, this design choice is not sensitive to noise and is capable of point locations inclusion in planar graphs.

4.1 Pose Estimation

Our object pose estimation can be performed via point correspondences \mathbb{C} found between $\mathbb{P} = \{\hat{p}_j\}$ and $\mathbb{M} = \{\hat{m}_i\}$ from an Iterative Closest Point (ICP) algorithm. However, in the presence of noise and artifacts resulting, for example, from a cluttered background, the ICP process can rapidly deteriorate.

This is not the case when using the Least Trimmed Squares (LTS) estimator (Rousseeuw, 1984) in ICP (TrICP; (Chetverikov et al., 2005)), since it allows for the two point sets to contain unequal number of points ($i \neq j$) and a percentage of points is offered in a ‘trimming’ operation. The best possible alignment between data / model sets is found by ‘sifting’ (e.g. sorting) through nearest-neighbour combinations and ‘trimming’ (e.g. discarding) the less significant pairs (but not exceeding 50%). This is in an attempt to find the subset with lowest sum of individual Mahalanobis distances, defined as

$$d_{ij}^2 = (\hat{m}_i - \hat{p}_j)^T (\mathbf{S}_{m_i} + \mathbf{S}_{p_j})^{-1} (\hat{m}_i - \hat{p}_j) \quad (3)$$

where \mathbf{S}_{m_i} is the covariance, thus the uncertainty, on the position of point feature \hat{m}_i ; and respectively for \mathbf{S}_{p_j} of \hat{p}_j , which depends on ‘outliers’ and thus the feature space.

It should be noted that in practice the (robust) LTS estimator and trimming does not guarantee the absence of outliers. Thus, we apply a non-linear refinement after the TrICP step to ensure that the influence of outliers is further reduced; similarly to (Koller et al., 1993; Fitzgibbon, 2003; Chliveros et al., 2013).

4.2 Error Minimisation

This minimisation step is performed in an effort to reduce the pose estimation errors that may arise from

outliers and abrupt camera motion, but more importantly in order to initiate the generation of new pose candidates; i.e. take into account issues of re-initialisation.

The objective function can be formulated as a sum of squares of a large number of nonlinear real-valued factors:

$$\hat{\mathbf{s}}_t = \underset{\mathbf{s}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n \|\mathbf{p}_i - f(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{m}_i)\|^2 \quad (4)$$

where $f(\cdot)$ is the function that projects the 3D model points to the image plane, according to the parametrised pose \mathbf{s} , at translational terms (r_x, r_y, r_z) , and rotational terms $(\alpha_x, \alpha_y, \alpha_z)$.

Equation 4 describes a non-linear minimisation problem which can be solved via the Levenberg-Marquardt (LM) algorithm. The Jacobians required by LM were formulated analytically by performing symbolic differentiation of the objective function.

5 RESULTS

To evaluate the accuracy and speed of the proposed methods we have employed a set of tests first for the detection accuracy and then for the tracking performance. As previously mentioned, the detection process outputs the object model ID and its initial pose, and the tracking process begins by accepting these as inputs.

Evaluation of Detection

To evaluate the performance gains of the proposed strategies to handle rotationally symmetries efficiently, in the presence of noisy visual sensors, we created an experimental scenario similar to the one referred in (Drost et al., 2010). In this experimental scenario the models library comprises only one model at a time and we generated 200 synthetic scenes containing a single instance of a given model from the ROS household objects library (see (Ciocarlie,)), on a random pose. Before the down-sampling step, each scene was corrupted by different levels of additive Gaussian noise, with standard deviation σ proportional to the model diameter $\operatorname{diam}(M)$. By using synthetically generated scenes, we were able to compare the algorithm pose results with a known ground truth.

During identification we select 5% of the scene points as reference points by setting ξ to 0.05. A higher percentage would increase the robustness to noise but also the recognition runtime. A recovered pose was considered to be correct if the error relative to the ground truth pose was smaller than

$\operatorname{diam}(M)/10$ for the position and 12 for the orientation. We considered three different pose thresholds (ϕ_{th} and t_{th}) to jointly represent features considered redundant. Figure 3 shows recognition performance results and speed gains for all the considered models and thresholds. When t_{th} and ϕ_{th} are both set to 0 (blue markers), no features are jointly represented. Therefore the computational savings are only due to collapsing of pose hypotheses around the axis of rotational symmetry, during the pose clustering step. As we increase the pose thresholds t_{th} and ϕ_{th} , we are able to jointly represent more features and hence have computational savings not only on the clustering but also on the matching step.

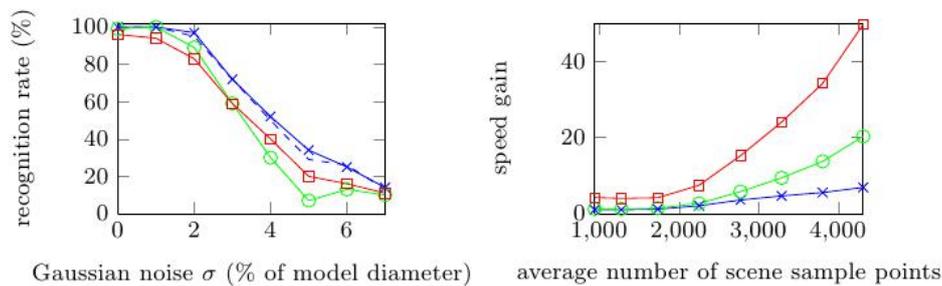
For the tests with the cup model and pose thresholds set to $t_{\text{th}} = 0.025$ and $\phi_{\text{th}} = 6^\circ$ (red markers), we were able to discard 93.17% surflet pairs during the creation of the model description, and reduce the number of computations during pose detection. As shown in Figure 3, the recognition rate drops slightly for high levels of noise due to sampling effects, but the recognition time performance increases significantly. For $|S| \approx 5000$, our method achieves identification in time 300 times faster than (Drost et al., 2010). However, the number of jointly represented surflet pairs depends heavily on the object geometric configuration. For objects whose shape has a smaller radius relative to the axis of symmetry, and also lower surflet density on the surface, less performance gains can be achieved. For the tests comprising the champagne glass model we were only able to discard 55.33% surflet pairs (with $t_{\text{th}} = 0.025$ and $\phi_{\text{th}} = 6^\circ$) during the creation of the model description, and achieve no more than 3.5 times speed improvements during recognition relatively to (Drost et al., 2010).

Overall, we were able to obtain major improvements on recognition speed. The latter does not have significant cost on recognition performance.

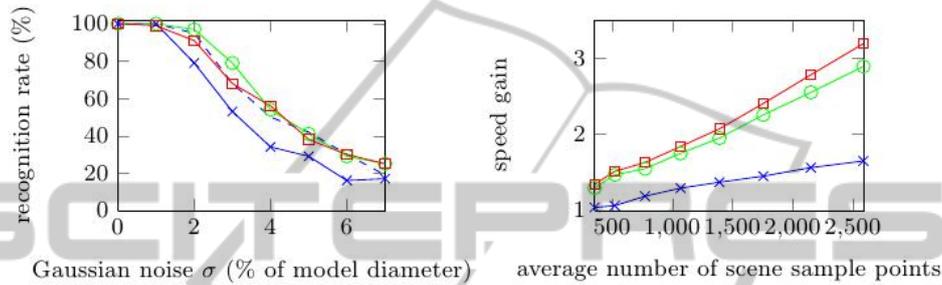
Evaluation of Tracking

In Table 1, quantitative analysis of our tracking approach in a ‘cup’ (as a recognised) model sequence is provided. As a reference method, we have used the default particle filter implementation of BLORT’s software implementation. The experiments performed provide representative cases for the max number of hypotheses (depicted as ‘max hyp: n ’) and for corresponding number of minimisation iterations allowed (depicted as ‘LM iter’).

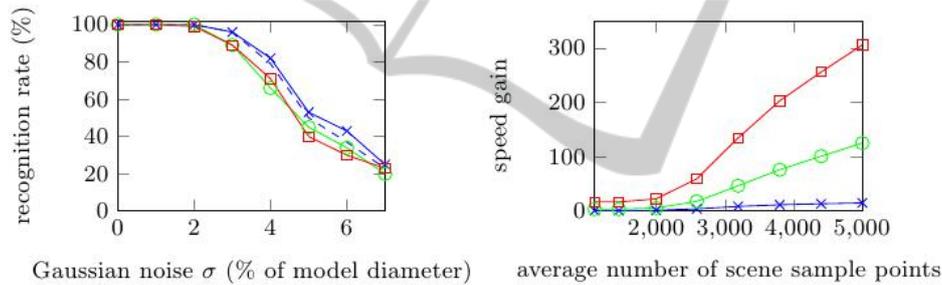
The results of Table 1, illustrate that ‘growth time’ dependence for tracking the 6DoF pose of an object is somewhat predictable and comparable in performance to that of BLORT. It seems that the higher



(a) Coke can model.



(b) Champagne glass model.



(c) Cup model.

Figure 3: Comparison results of our approach (continuous lines) against the original method of Drost *et al.* (dashed lines), with $\xi = 0.05$; Left: Recognition rate (%). Right: Time performance gain $\frac{\text{Drost et al. runtime}}{\text{Our runtime}}$. Parameters: $t_{th} = 0, \phi_{th} = 0^\circ$ (blue markers), $t_{th} = 0.005, \phi_{th} = 1.2^\circ$ (green markers), $t_{th} = 0.025, \phi_{th} = 6^\circ$ (red markers).

the number of max hypotheses the higher the step increase in terms of computational runtime. We note that our implementation does not utilise hardware acceleration. Optimisations are performed with respect to custom matrix and array operations (based on uBLAS and Lapack libraries). For completeness we also report the computational time required by each method.

Overall, our method is close to BLORT and for this test case, it is applicable for on-line applications.

6 CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this paper we have suggested the use of a recognition method that uses its output as an input to a pose

tracking process. The savings in computational speed do not affect recognition rates and tracking performance. For the tests performed and results presented, the combination of these two methods supports suitability for online applications.

In future works we intent to perform further tests on the framework's accuracy (e.g. environmental conditions). We also aim to exploring the effect certain robot grasping strategies may have (e.g. object coming out of the field of view).

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Table 1: Results on MH3DOT tuning versus performance and accuracy. A ‘cup’ sequence and model is used with (partial) ground truth data. As a reference for these test results we use the BLORT software implementation.

			Total Error (952 frames)				Time
			Roll	Pitch	Yaw	Scale	(msec)
BLORT	(max = 100)		11.1	11.7	3.5	2.3	141
MH3DOT	(LM iter = 10)	max hyp: n = 20	14.4	12.9	7.1	2.4	97
		max hyp: n = 30	11.2	11.9	5.2	2.2	122
		max hyp: n = 50	2.8	5.8	2.4	1.9	158
		max hyp: n = 100	2.8	5.8	2.3	1.9	225
MH3DOT	(LM iter = 20)	max hyp: n = 20	13.9	11.5	6.5	2.1	103
		max hyp: n = 30	9.8	7.7	4.4	1.9	179
		max hyp: n = 50	2.7	5.8	2.3	1.8	254
		max hyp: n = 100	2.7	5.6	2.3	1.8	335

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