

# Vehicle Pair Activity Classification using QTC and Long Short Term Memory Neural Network

Rahulan Radhakrishnan<sup>a</sup> and Alaa Alzoubi<sup>b</sup>

*School of Computing, The University of Buckingham, Buckingham, U.K.*

**Keywords:** Vehicle Activity Classification, Qualitative Trajectory Calculus, Long-Short Term Memory Neural Network, Automatic LSTM Architecture Design, Bayesian Optimisation.

**Abstract:** The automated recognition of vehicle interaction is crucial for self-driving, collision avoidance and security surveillance applications. In this paper, we present a novel Long-Short Term Memory Neural Network (LSTM) based method for vehicle trajectory classification. We use Qualitative Trajectory Calculus (QTC) to represent the relative motion between a pair of vehicles. The spatio-temporal features of the interacting vehicles are captured as a sequence of QTC states and then encoded using one hot vector representation. Then, we develop an LSTM network to classify QTC trajectories that represent vehicle pairwise activities. Most of the high performing LSTM models are manually designed and require expertise in hyperparameter configuration. We adapt Bayesian Optimisation method to find an optimal LSTM architecture for classifying QTC trajectories of vehicle interaction. We evaluated our method on three different datasets comprising 7257 trajectories of 9 unique vehicle activities in different traffic scenarios. We demonstrate that our proposed method outperforms the state-of-the-art techniques. Further, we evaluated our approach with a combined dataset of the three datasets and achieved an error rate of no more than 1.79%. Though, our work mainly focuses on vehicle trajectories, the proposed method is generic and can be used on pairwise analysis of other interacting objects.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Analysing the interaction between vehicles is imperative in safety critical tasks such as autonomous vehicle driving. Dangerous road events such as vehicle overtaking and collisions can be avoided if the behaviours of the surrounding vehicles are captured accurately. Vehicle activity recognition task aims to classify the actions of one or more vehicles by analysing their temporal sequence of observations. Potential collisions can be avoided or minimised by recognising the behaviour that a vehicle is in (or about to enter) beforehand (Ohn-Bar and Trivedi, 2016). A vehicle can have complex motion behaviours either on its own (single activity) or with another vehicle (pair or group activity) (Ni et al., 2009) or with stationary obstacles (e.g. stalled vehicles). In the context of activity classification task, two key approaches for trajectory representation have been presented: quantitative and qualitative methods. Numerous studies have been conducted using quantitative method where

real values of the features are directly used to represent the trajectories (Khosroshahi et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2013; Deo et al., 2018). On the other hand, qualitative methods have shown high performance for activity classification applications such as vehicle trajectory analysis (AlZoubi et al., 2017; AlZoubi and Nam, 2019). It has motivated the researchers to investigate qualitative representations with deep learning methods for vehicle trajectory analysis. Qualitative methods (e.g. QTC (Van de Weghe, 2004)) abstract the real values of the trajectories, use symbolic representation, are computationally less expensive, and more human understandable than quantitative methods.

Many previous studies on both single and multiple vehicle activity classification and prediction have deployed different techniques such as Bayesian Networks (Lefèvre et al., 2011) and Hidden Markov Models (Berndt and Dietmayer, 2009; Deo et al., 2018; Framing et al., 2018). However, the emergence of LSTM as a powerful method to handle temporal data with long term dependencies has increased the interest on using such technique for vehicle activity

<sup>a</sup> <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4113-3710>

<sup>b</sup> <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1167-170X>

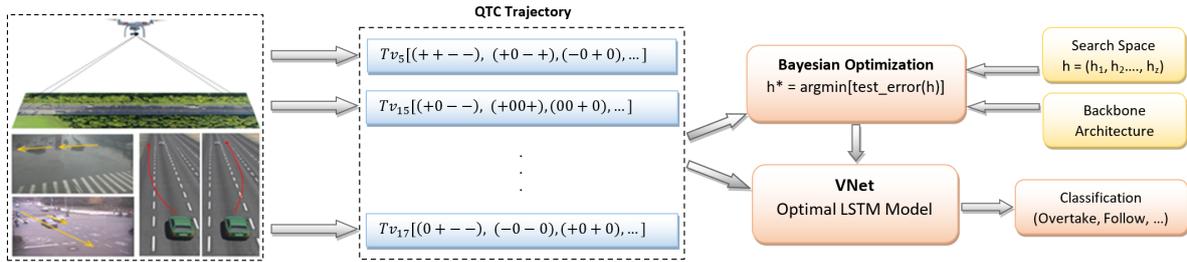


Figure 1: Our Proposed Method.

classification task. Recently, few studies have been proposed on using a manually designed LSTM with quantitative methods to classify multiple vehicles activities (Khosroshahi et al., 2016). However, incorporating qualitative features with LSTM for vehicle activity analysis still remains to be an open investigation area. On the other hand, the manual design of LSTM architectures has several limitations: 1) trial-and-error approach is time-consuming and requires architectural domain expertise; 2) this might result in building an architecture that is limited to the expert previous knowledge; and 3) error prone. In addition, LSTM architecture has a complex structure including gates and memory cells to store long term dependencies of sequential data. Thus, it requires a methodical way of tuning its hyperparameters to get the optimal architecture rather than using manual designing or brute force methods such as Grid Search and Random Search. Bayesian Optimisation has been used for optimising LSTM networks in applications such as image caption generation (Snoek et al., 2015) and forecasting (Yang et al., 2019). Such optimiser can be adapted to design the LSTM architectures for vehicle trajectory classification task.

In this paper, we present our method for vehicle pair activity classification based on QTC and LSTM. Our method consists of three main stages, initially we deploy QTC to represent the relative motion between the vehicles symbolically. Then, we transform this representation into a two-dimensional matrix using one-hot vectors. In the second stage, we employ Bayesian Optimisation approach to search for a generic optimal Bi-LSTM architecture (to which we refer as LSTM in this paper) for vehicle activity classification. Both model accuracy and complexity were used as criteria in our architecture selection policy. Finally, the optimal LSTM architecture was used to build LSTM model (called VNet) for vehicle pair activity recognition. Our approach was evaluated with three publicly available datasets of vehicle interaction. The results show that our proposed method outperforms all the existing methods. Figure 1 shows an overview of the main components of our method. Our

approach is the first to use QTC with LSTM for pair-wise vehicle activity classification.

The key contributions of this paper include: (1) We propose a new method for pair-wise vehicle activity classification based on QTC and LSTM network; (2) We adopt Bayesian Optimisation method to find an optimal LSTM architecture for vehicle activity classification with less human intervention in the architectural and modelling design, and low risk of model generalisation error; (3) we evidence the overall generality of our method with evaluations on three vehicle interaction datasets. We show experimentally that our proposed VNet model outperforms existing state-of-the-art methods such as (AlZoubi and Nam, 2019; AlZoubi et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2010; Ni et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2008).

## 2 BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Qualitative Trajectory Calculus

Qualitative Trajectory Calculus (QTC) is a method to represent an interaction between two moving objects in a symbolic way (Van de Weghe, 2004). QTC consists of six codes representing four features of a relative interaction: distance ( $C1, C2$ ), speed ( $C3$ ), side ( $C4, C5$ ) and angle ( $C6$ ). These codes are represented using three symbols: “-”, “0” and “+”. Given the positions of two moving objects ( $O_1$  and  $O_2$ ):

- $C1$ : distance of  $O_1$  with respect to  $O_2$ : “-” indicates decrease, “+” indicates increase, and “0” indicates no change;
- $C2$ : distance of  $O_2$  with respect to  $O_1$ ;
- $C3$ : relative speed of  $O_1$  with respect to  $O_2$  at time  $t$ ;
- $C4$ : shifting of  $O_1$  with respect to the reference line  $Li$  that connects the two objects: “-” if it moves to the left, “+” if it moves to the right, and “0” if it moves along  $Li$  or stationary;

- C5: shifting of  $O_2$  with respect to  $L_i$ ;
- C6: the angles ( $e$ ) between the velocity vectors of the objects and vector  $L_i$ : “-” if  $e_1 < e_2$ , “+” if  $e_1 > e_2$  and “0” if  $e_1 = e_2$ .

Two main variants of QTC have been proposed: Double Cross QTC ( $QTC_C$  - uses C1, C2, C3 and C4) and Full QTC ( $QTC_{Full}$  - uses all six codes). There are 81 ( $3^4$ ) possible states for  $QTC_C$  to represent the interaction in a trajectory. Even though there are 729 ( $3^6$ ) possible combinations of states for  $QTC_{Full}$ , only 305 states are possible in real life interaction (Van de Weghe, 2004). For example, one object cannot move faster than the other object when both of them are stationary (0, 0, 0, 0, +, 0). Lately, QTC has shown to be outperforming the quantitative methods as an adequate trajectory representation for vehicle activity analysis task (AlZoubi and Nam, 2019; AlZoubi et al., 2017).

## 2.2 Long Short-Term Memory

Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) is an architecture used in the field of deep learning for classifying and predicting time series data (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997), and represents the state-of-the-art method for analysing sequential data. LSTM cell consists of a memory cell and three gates namely forget gate, input gate and output gate. This architecture allows these cells to capture and store long term dependencies in lengthy sequential data (Yu et al., 2019). In recent years, deep learning neural networks, in particular LSTM networks, have showed outstanding performance in a variety of sequential data recognition and prediction applications such as human trajectory prediction (Alahi et al., 2016; Xue et al., 2018), time series forecasting and classification (Siami-Namini et al., 2019; Karim et al., 2017), natural language modelling (Sundermeyer et al., 2012), sequence labelling (Reimers and Gurevych, 2017) and speech synthesis (Fan et al., 2014). Bidirectional LSTM (Bi-LSTM) is a variant of LSTM which contains two LSTM layers where one of them learns the sequential data in forward direction and the other learns it from the backward direction (Graves et al., 2013). It performs better than its unidirectional variant since it gets access to both past and future information simultaneously (Siami-Namini et al., 2019). Thus, we use the bidirectional variant of the LSTM in our approach. Developing LSTM classifiers for a specific task (or application) involves designing of network architecture and training parameters. Two main approaches are followed for LSTM architecture designing: manually designed (or handcraft) architectures and automatically searched architectures. How-

ever, manual designing of LSTM architecture of many hyperparameters requires expertise and time. It might result in complex architectures and increase the risk of model overfitting.

## 2.3 Bayesian Optimisation

Deep learning methods (e.g. Deep Convolutional Neural Networks and Long Short-Term Memory) have exhibited high performance in image classification and sequential data analysis for various applications. However, most of these CNNs and LSTMs architectures have been designed and optimized manually. On the other hand, Neural Architecture Search (NAS) and Hyperparameter Optimisation (HPO) are two different approaches to perform architecture search and both have significant overlaps (Elsken et al., 2019). NAS and advanced NAS (Efficient Neural Architecture Search - ENAS) approaches are mainly used to build architectures of DCNN for image classification task. ENAS has shown to be successful in different image classification tasks such as medical image classification (Ahmed et al., 2020) and object recognition in natural images (Pham et al., 2018).

Bayesian Optimisation is one of the recent development in optimising deep learning hyperparameters including Deep Convolutional Neural Networks (DCNN) and LSTM. Unlike ENAS, Bayesian Optimisation accounts for modelling-hyperparameters (e.g. mini-batch size, number of epochs). Bayesian Optimisation works under the principle of Bayes theorem using two key elements: Acquisition Function and Surrogate Model. The acquisition function determines the next point of the search by calculating the utility of different points in the search space. Expected Improvement is a type of the acquisition function which considers both mean and variance of the posterior model while selecting the next hyperparameter setting (Frazier, 2018). It provides the blend of both exploration and exploitation which ensures the optimiser does not settle for a local optima (Gelbart et al., 2014). The surrogate model updates itself after each iteration by fitting the newly observed point of the objective function using Gaussian Process. Few attempts have been made to use this method to find optimal LSTM architectures (Snoek et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2019; Kaselimi et al., 2019). However, no LSTMs have been designed and optimised automatically for pair vehicle activity classification task.

## 2.4 Vehicle Trajectory Analysis

Methods for vehicle trajectory analysis can be grouped into three categories: single-vehicle activities (Khosroshahi et al., 2016; Zyner et al., 2018; Althé and de La Fortelle, 2017), pair vehicle activities (AlZoubi et al., 2017; AlZoubi and Nam., 2019; AlZoubi and Nam, 2019; Zhou et al., 2008), and group vehicle activities (Deo and Trivedi, 2018; Lin et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2017), and a review is provided in (Ahmed et al., 2018). The spatio-temporal representation of motion information is the first step in the trajectory analysis. Both quantitative (Khosroshahi et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2013; Deo et al., 2018) and qualitative (AlZoubi et al., 2017; AlZoubi and Nam., 2019; AlZoubi and Nam, 2019) methods were used to encode vehicle activities successfully. Khosroshahi et al. (Khosroshahi et al., 2016) and Philips et al. (Phillips et al., 2017) presented manually designed LSTM networks with quantitative features (linear and angular changes) to classify single vehicle activities at intersections. Both studies demonstrated the importance of finding the optimal LSTM hyperparameters such as the number of LSTM layers and the number of neurons per layer in achieving higher accuracy. Zyner et al. conducted a similar study in maneuver classification of single vehicle activities in an unsignalised intersection using  $x, y$  position coordinates, heading angle and speed as quantitative input features (Zyner et al., 2018). Studies of Lin et al. (Lin et al., 2013) and Deo et al. (Deo and Trivedi, 2018; Deo et al., 2018) focus on classifying pair-wise vehicle activities. Lin et al. (Lin et al., 2013) used a surveillance camera dataset and showed that their heat map representation of vehicle trajectories can achieve a classification error rate as low as 4.2%. A Hidden Markov Model (HMM) based classification method was developed by (Deo et al., 2018) using  $x, y$  ground plane coordinates and instantaneous velocities in the  $x$  and  $y$  directions as features to classify pair vehicle maneuvers on a highway. Their HMM model achieved a classification accuracy of 87.19%. The first method on pair activity classification was presented by Zhou et al. using causality and feedback ratio (Zhou et al., 2008). However, it was developed for human pair activity classification. They used Support Vector Machine (SVM) as their classifier and achieved 92.1% accuracy in classifying human pair activities. This method has also been used by Lin et al. (Lin et al., 2013) for vehicle activity classification.

Unlike quantitative methods, only few studies have been conducted on qualitative features for vehicle trajectory analysis. Initial investigation on qualitative methods were conducted by (AlZoubi et al.,

2017). They deployed QTC as the qualitative feature extraction technique. AlZoubi et al. used the Surveillance Camera dataset which was previously used in the heat map based vehicle trajectory classification algorithm (Lin et al., 2013) and reduced the classification error rate up to 3.44%. Hence, showed that their QTC method outperforms the quantitative heat map method for classification of vehicle trajectories. Further, they expanded their study and developed a DCNN method (TrajNet) to classify QTC sequences and achieved a reduced classification error rate of 1.16% from the same dataset (AlZoubi and Nam, 2019). TrajNet maps the QTC trajectory into image texture and uses transfer learning with AlexNet CNN model for activity classification. The same authors also developed a simulation dataset with three classes including collision scenarios (AlZoubi and Nam, 2019). However, none of the aforementioned techniques have investigated the incorporation of QTC and LSTM to solve this problem. It is worth mentioning that one attempt was made to use both QTC and manually designed LSTM architecture for gaming application (Panzner and Cimiano, 2016). The architecture contains a single LSTM layer with 128 hidden units without any dropout. This study showed the potential of using QTC with manually designed LSTM. However, LSTM is yet to be used with qualitative features such as QTC in the context of vehicle trajectory analysis.

We adopt the quantitative methods (AlZoubi et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2010; Ni et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2008) and the qualitative method (AlZoubi and Nam, 2019) as benchmark techniques for our study, against which we evaluate our work. In addition, we also compare the performance of the manually designed LSTM architecture in (Panzner and Cimiano, 2016) against our optimised LSTM architecture.

## 3 PROPOSED METHOD

The proposed method comprises of three main components: 1) Representing pair-wise vehicle movements as QTC trajectory sequences; 2) Searching for optimal LSTM architecture using Bayesian Optimisation method; and 3) Developing LSTM model (VNet) for classifying QTC trajectories of interacting vehicles. Our method for classifying vehicle trajectories involves generation of QTC trajectories, automatic designing of LSTM architecture with optimised modelling hyperparameters, learned from the data, and accounts for significant differences in sequence length and interaction complexity. As presented in Section 4,

our method generalises across three different vehicle interaction datasets, and enables us to consistently outperform state-of-the-art vehicle pair-activity analysis methods.

### 3.1 QTC Trajectory Generation and Representation

The 2D position coordinates  $x; y$  are used to represent the relative motion between two vehicles, and encode their interaction as a trajectory of *QTC* states. In this study, we use both *QTC<sub>C</sub>* and *QTC<sub>Full</sub>* variants derived directly using the vehicle centre position coordinates.

*Definition:* Given two interacting vehicles with their  $x; y$  position coordinates during the time interval  $t_1$  to  $t_k$ , the trajectories of the two vehicles are defined as:

$$V1_i = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_t, y_t), \dots, (x_k, y_k)\};$$

$$V2_i = \{(x'_1, y'_1), \dots, (x'_t, y'_t), \dots, (x'_k, y'_k)\}.$$

where  $(x_t, y_t)$  is the position coordinates of the first interacting vehicle at time  $t$ ,  $(x'_t, y'_t)$  is the position coordinates of the second, and  $k$  is the total number of time steps in the trajectories. The pair-wise trajectory is defined as a sequence of corresponding *QTC* states:  $Tv_i = \{S_1, \dots, S_R, \dots, S_N\}$ , where  $S_R$  is the *QTC* state representation of the relative movement of the two vehicles between time  $t$  and  $t + 1$  in trajectory  $Tv_i$  and  $N$  is the number of *QTC* observations ( $N = k - 1$ ) in  $Tv_i$ . Due to the limited computational resources, we used *QTC<sub>C</sub>* variant for the architecture search and modelling as described in Section 3.2, while *QTC<sub>Full</sub>* was only used for modelling.

**QTC Trajectory to One Hot Vector Representation:** The trajectory  $Tv_i$  is a time varying, one dimensional sequence of *QTC* states and it is represented as a sequence of characters  $Ch_i = \{Ch_1, \dots, Ch_R, \dots, Ch_N\}$  in a text format. This text format only provides the presence of a *QTC* state (Character) at a particular time. Thus, it loses the information of *QTC* states which are absent in that time frame. To capture this high level information, the *QTC* sequence of characters ( $Ch_i$ ) were translated into numerical format using One Hot encoding without losing its location information. Thus, the one hot vector representation of trajectory  $Tv_i$  provides a 2D matrix ( $Mv_i$ ) of size  $(Q * N)$ ; where  $Q$  is the number of possible *QTC* states and  $N$  is the number of observations in  $Tv_i$ . This matrix is used as the sequential input for the LSTM model presented in Section 3.2.

### 3.2 Vehicle Activity Classification

In this section, we present the formulation of our LSTM architecture with *QTC* trajectories for vehicle

activity classification. Gaining inspiration from automatic network search, we aim to take advantage of Bayesian Optimisation method which is a powerful technique to optimise deep learning hyperparameters. First, we define an LSTM backbone architecture and targeted hyperparameter search space. Then, we employ Bayesian Optimisation to find the optimal architecture and training parameters for accurate vehicle activity classification.

#### 3.2.1 Backbone Architecture Design and Search Space

Bayesian Optimisation requires a definition of initial backbone architecture and the trainable hyperparameters. We designed a backbone architecture consisting six layers: Sequence Input Layer (*SI*), Bi-directional LSTM Layer (*LSTM*), Dropout Layer (*DL*), Fully Connected Layer (*FL*), SoftMax Layer (*SM*), and Classification Layer (*OL*) in sequential order as shown in Figure 2. Based on the pair-wise vehicle trajectory representation (one hot vector) in Section 3.1, an input layer was defined with size  $(Q * N)$ . This was followed by  $L$  number of (Bi-LSTM + Dropout) Layer Pairs where  $m$  is the number of hidden units of the Bi-LSTM Layer and  $p$  is the dropout percentage of the dropout layer. Values of  $L$ ,  $m$  and  $p$  were determined by the Bayesian Optimisation algorithm. Our method identify the values of  $m$  and  $p$  for each  $L$  (i.e. if we have two layers  $L = 2$ ,  $m$  and  $p$  values of each layer are estimated:  $(m_1, m_2), (p_1, p_2)$ ). Then, a fully connected layer was added based on the number of vehicle activity classes  $C$  in the dataset. Finally, a softmax layer and classification output layer were incorporated to match the number of classes  $C$ . The softmax layer produces a probability distribution over all the class labels. The output of the softmax layer is passed to a classification layer which computes the cross-entropy loss of each class to measure the performance of the classification.

The selection of suitable hyperparameter search space for building LSTM network plays a major role in the model performance. We defined six hyperparameters for tuning our LSTM for vehicle trajectory classification. The search space boundaries of the identified optimisable hyperparameters are:  $L = \{1, 2, 3\}$ ,  $m = [8 - 512]$ ,  $p = \{0, 25, 50, 75\}\%$ , Epochs ( $Epo$ ) =  $[1 - 400]$ , Minibatch Size ( $MB$ ) =  $\{2, 4, 8, 16\}$ , Optimiser ( $Opt$ ) =  $\{SGDM, Adam, RMSprop\}$ . The search space (values, boundaries and categories) of the above mentioned hyperparameters were selected based on two criteria: the best performing hyperparameters of previous studies (Reimers and Gurevych, 2017) and suitability for our vehicle's activity classification task.

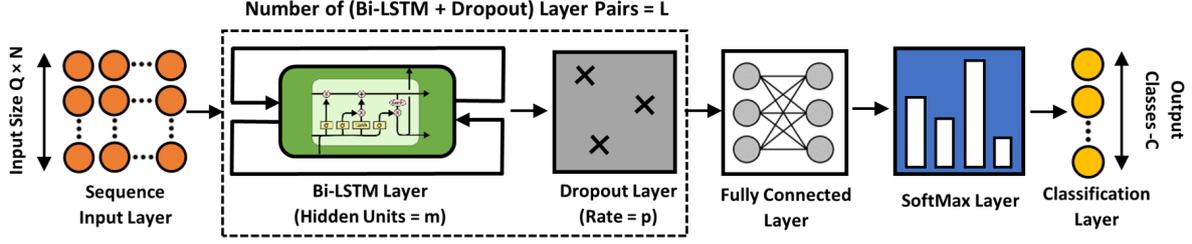


Figure 2: Proposed LSTM Backbone Architecture.

### 3.2.2 Automatic Architecture Search

Given the backbone architecture and the search space hyperparameters  $h$ , we use Bayesian Optimisation method to find the optimal values of  $L, m, p, Epo, MB$ , and  $Opt$ . Thus,  $h = \{h_1, \dots, h_j, \dots, h_z\}$  where  $h_j$  is the value of optimisable hyperparameter  $j$  in hyperparameter setting  $h$  and  $z$  is the total number of hyperparameters that are being optimised (in this case  $z = 6$ ). Firstly, we define the objective function  $f(h)$  which we want the Bayesian Optimiser to minimize. The objective function,  $f(h)$  is defined as the classification error rate of the test set when modelling the backbone architecture with hyperparameter setting  $h$ :

$$f(h) = \text{Classification Error}(h) \quad (1)$$

Number of seed points ( $r$ ) that the Bayesian Optimiser uses to create the surrogate model was set to 4 and the number of search iterations was selected as 30. Those values were selected empirically. Number of seed points defines the number of points that the Bayesian Optimiser examines before starting the search process. Bayesian Optimiser uses those 4 seed points to build the surrogate model and then iterates 30 times to select the optimal architecture. Initially, Bayesian Optimiser randomly selects 4 sets of hyperparameter settings as the initial seed points and models the backbone architecture using each of those four settings. Then, it calculates the test error rate of those four models to create the surrogate model  $G(h)$ . Gaussian Process Model (Regression) is used to construct the surrogate model. After creating the surrogate model, Bayesian Optimiser selects a new hyperparameter setting using an acquisition function. We use the acquisition function *Expected Improvement*  $EI(h)$  which selects the next hyperparameter setting as the one that has the highest expected improvement over the current best observed point (lowest classification error) of the objective function. The Expected Improvement for hyperparameter setting  $h$  is,

$$EI(h) = \mathbf{E}(\max(f^*(h) - G(h), 0)) \quad (2)$$

where  $G(h)$  is the current posterior distribution of the surrogate model and  $f^*(h)$  is best observed point of

---

Algorithm 1: Bayesian Optimisation.

---

**Input:** Hyperparameter Search Space  $h$

**Input:** Objective Function  $f(h)$

**Input:** Max No of Evaluation  $n_{max}$

**Input:** Initial Seed Points  $r$

**Output:** Optimal hyperparameter setting  $h^*$

**Output:** Classification Error of Optimal hyperparameter setting  $d^*$

**Select:** initial hyperparameter settings  $h_0 \in h$  for  $r$  number of points

**Evaluate:** the initial classification error  $d_0 = f(h_0)$

Set  $h^* = h_0$  and  $d^* = d_0$

**for**  $n = 1$  to  $n_{max}$  **do**

**Select:** a new hyperparameter configuration  $h_n \in h$  by optimising the acquisition function  $D(h_n)$

$$h_n = \text{argmax}(D(h_n))$$

where,

$$D(h_n) = EI(h_n) = \mathbf{E}(\max(f^*(h) - G(h_n), 0))$$

**Evaluate:**  $f$  for  $h_n$  to obtain the classification error  $d_n = f(h_n)$  for hyperparameter setting  $h_n$

**Update:** the surrogate model

**if**  $d_n < d^*$  **then**  $h^* = h_n$  and  $d^* = d_n$

**end if**

**end for**

**Output:**  $h^*$  and  $d^*$

---

the objective function so far. The  $h$  which maximizes the acquisition function is evaluated next and the surrogate model gets updated with this newly evaluated point. This process repeats until a fixed number of iterations ( $n_{max} = 30$  iterations). Algorithm 1 elaborates this process in detail.

### 3.2.3 Optimal Architecture Selection and Modelling

We used two real-world datasets to identify a generic optimal architecture for vehicle activity classification. As described in Section 4, each vehicle trajectory dataset was split into 5 groups (5-folds cross vali-

ation). The selection of the optimal architecture was carried out under two stages: initially within the dataset and then between the datasets. In the first stage, we generated 150 LSTM architectures per dataset (i.e. 30 architectures per fold) using Bayesian Optimisation. We defined two selection criteria: 1) low classification error; and 2) low architecture complexity. First, from each dataset, the architectures which provide the lowest classification error on the test set were selected from each fold. Then, the best architecture of each fold was selected by comparing their complexities. Complexity of the architecture is determined by the total number of trainable parameters (T.P). Our proposed architecture consists trainable parameters from Bi-LSTM layer and Fully Connected layer which can be calculated using equation 3.

$$T.P = 2(4m(Q + m + 1)) + C(2m + 1) \quad (3)$$

where 4 represents the 4 activation function unit equations of the LSTM cell and 2 represents the Bi-LSTM variant of the LSTM. The first stage of selection results in the best 5 architectures from each dataset. In the second stage, we compare the similarities of the best architectures between the datasets. We use a simple similarity measure which is determined by how identical (or similar) the values of hyperparameters ( $L$ ,  $m$  and  $p$ ) are between two architectures from the two datasets. Using this similarity measure, we identify a generic optimal architecture suitable for vehicle activities observed from different settings. Our motivation behind this approach of searching for optimal architectures from two datasets separately was identifying one generic architecture applicable for different vehicle activity datasets as illustrated in Section 4.

Given the one hot vector representation of pair vehicle trajectories and the optimal architecture, we build VNet models for different activity classification. The fully connected layer of the optimal architecture was updated according to the number of classes  $C$  in the dataset.

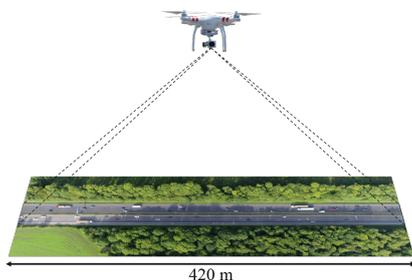


Figure 3: Example of Moving Vehicles Captured from a Drone Camera for HighD Dataset (Krajewski et al., 2018).

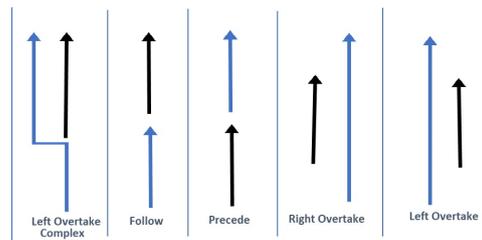


Figure 4: Example Pair-wise Manoeuvres of HighD dataset (Krajewski et al., 2018).

## 4 DATASETS AND EXPERIMENTS

This section presents three publicly available vehicle interaction datasets and comparative experiments to evaluate the effectiveness of our method. All experiments were conducted on an Intel Core i7 laptop, CPU@1.80GHz with 8.0GB RAM. All three datasets were captured in different settings and consist of different types of vehicle interactions. Further, we developed a challenging fourth dataset which combined all three datasets to evaluate our generic LSTM model. Finally, we evaluated an existing manually designed LSTM developed for QTC to determine the importance of incorporating automatic optimisation of LSTM architecture for vehicles activity analysis domain.

**Dataset 1: Highway Drone Dataset:** Highway Drone (HighD) Dataset is a dataset of vehicle trajectories recorded using a drone (Krajewski et al., 2018). Figure 3 shows the placement of the drone camera in the data collection region. The dataset consists trajectories of more than 110,500 vehicles with their  $x, y$  position coordinates at each timestamp. Five unique vehicle pair activities (Follow, Precede, Left Overtake, Left Overtake (Complex) and Right Overtake) were extracted from the dataset as illustrated in Figure 4. Follow and Precede are defined as Eco vehicle is followed or preceded by another vehicle. Similarly, Left Overtake and Right Overtake are annotated as Eco vehicle is overtaken by another vehicle on the left or right lane. Left Overtake (Complex) is a combination of two behaviours. Initially, the Eco vehicle is followed by another vehicle on the same lane and then it is successfully overtaken by that vehicle using the left lane. 6805 trajectories (1361 trajectories per class) were selected from the dataset in order to avoid imbalance between the classes and due to the limited computational resource to model the LSTM network. The dataset has sequences in varying lengths from 11-1911 timesteps. Among the 6805 trajectories, 500 (100 trajectories per class) were used for searching



Figure 5: Example Pair-wise Manoeuvres of Traffic Dataset (Lin et al., 2013).

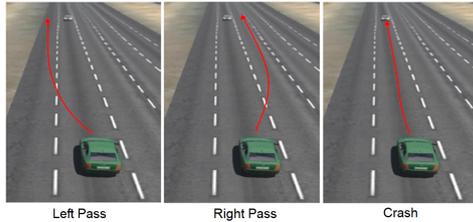


Figure 6: Example Pair-wise Manoeuvres of VOI dataset (Alzoubi and Nam, 2018).

the optimal architecture. On the other hand, 5000 trajectories were selected from the 6805 and used for modelling, and the remaining 1805 trajectories were kept unseen for external testing.

**Dataset 2: Traffic Dataset:** The traffic dataset was generated by extracting position coordinates of vehicles from 20 surveillance videos (Lin et al., 2013). The videos are recorded from a road junction using different surveillance cameras as shown in figure 5. The dataset contains 175 trajectories of pair vehicles in the form of  $x, y$  positions where each trajectory has a length of 20 time steps. It has five unique vehicle pair activities namely Turn, Follow, Pass, Overtake and Both Turn as shown in Figure 5, and each activity has 35 trajectories in the dataset.

**Dataset 3: Vehicle Obstacle Interaction Dataset:** Vehicle Obstacle Interaction (VOI) dataset is obtained through a simulation environment, and it mainly focuses on close proximity manoeuvrings and rare events for which there are not enough real-life data such as crash (AlZoubi. and Nam., 2019). The dataset contains 277 pair vehicle trajectories, in the form of  $x, y$  positions, representing three classes which are Left Pass (104 trajectories), Right Pass (106 trajectories) and Crash (67 trajectories) as shown in Figure 6. The pair trajectories has lengths ranging from 10 to 71 time steps. Left Pass and Right Pass are defined as vehicle successfully passing an obstacle on the left or right, respectively. Crash is defined as the collision of moving vehicle with an obstacle.

**Dataset 4: Combined Dataset:** Combined dataset is constructed by combining the three above mentioned datasets with careful consideration in preserving their ground truths while merging and splitting the common classes. Thus, this fourth dataset contains 952

trajectories with 9 classes: Follow (135), Left Pass (138), Right Pass (107), Turn (35), Both Turn (35), Crash (67), Preceding (100), Right Overtake (135) and Left Overtake (200). The definition of this classes remains the same as their original.

#### 4.1 LSTM Architecture Optimisation

To find the optimal hyperparameters of our proposed backbone LSTM architecture, we perform Bayesian Optimisation on the two real world datasets (Highway Drone and Traffic datasets). Firstly, both datasets were divided into 5 non-overlapping folds of training and testing (5-fold cross validation protocol). In addition, the optimisable hyperparameters and their search space (Section 3.2.1) were provided as input for the optimiser. The error rate of the test set of each fold has been determined as the objective function. 150 search iterations (30 iterations per fold) were performed individually on both datasets. Our selection method (Section 3.2.3) was used to identify the optimal and generic architecture. The architectures with the lowest testing error rate in each fold were selected. HighD Dataset provided 47 architectures with highest testing accuracy. On the other hand, the Traffic dataset provided only 6 architectures with highest testing accuracy. Since there were numerous architectures that achieved the highest fold wise accuracy, we compared their architecture complexity to select the best one from each fold. The summary of the best models of HighD and Traffic datasets from each fold are presented in Table 1. The selected architectures of Models 2, 3 and 4 provided the best classification accuracy and the best class wise standard deviation among the five models of HighD dataset. Model 2 provided the best accuracy (93.88%) for Traffic dataset. Our aim was to find a single optimal architecture for vehicle activity classification from both datasets. Thus, we compared the similarities of the best performing architectures of both the datasets. Model 2 of both datasets have produced exactly the same LSTM architecture with slight differences in the mini batch size and number of epochs. Those two architectures share the same  $L, m$  and  $p$  hyperparameters. Therefore, we selected this architecture as our generic optimal architecture. We used

Table 1: Summary of the Best Performing Architectures: D.S - Dataset, Arc - Architecture Acc - Accuracy, S.D - Class-wise Standard Deviation, T.Par - Trainable Parameters, Opt - Optimiser, L - Number of (Bi-LSTM + Dropout) Layer Pairs, m - Number of Hidden Units, p - Dropout Percentage, MB - Mini Batch Size, Epo - Number of Epochs.

| D.S     | Arc      | Acc(%)        | S.D          | T.Par        | Opt         | L        | m         | p          | MB       | Epo        |
|---------|----------|---------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|----------|-----------|------------|----------|------------|
| HighD   | 1        | 99.00         | 2.24         | 9149         | RMSprop     | 1        | 12        | 25%        | 8        | 23         |
|         | <b>2</b> | <b>100.00</b> | <b>0.00</b>  | <b>93097</b> | <b>sgdm</b> | <b>1</b> | <b>74</b> | <b>50%</b> | <b>8</b> | <b>232</b> |
|         | 3        | 100.00        | 0.00         | 184909       | adam        | 1        | 116       | 0%         | 8        | 381        |
|         | 4        | 100.00        | 0.00         | 36865        | sgdm        | 1        | 38        | 50%        | 8        | 165        |
|         | 5        | 99.00         | 2.24         | 23819        | sgdm        | 1        | 27        | 0%         | 16       | 379        |
| Traffic | 1        | 91.84         | 11.25        | 35749        | sgdm        | 1        | 37        | 25%        | 8        | 283        |
|         | <b>2</b> | <b>93.88</b>  | <b>11.25</b> | <b>93395</b> | <b>sgdm</b> | <b>1</b> | <b>74</b> | <b>50%</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>376</b> |
|         | 3        | 89.80         | 10.81        | 28465        | sgdm        | 1        | 31        | 75%        | 4        | 372        |
|         | 4        | 91.84         | 11.25        | 187909       | sgdm        | 1        | 117       | 75%        | 8        | 395        |
|         | 5        | 85.71         | 31.94        | 5879         | sgdm        | 1        | 8         | 50%        | 8        | 69         |

the modelling-hyperparameters ( $Epo$ ,  $MB$  and  $Opt$ ) of Model 2 of HighD dataset to model our VNet classification models since HighD dataset is more challenging and 25 times larger than the Traffic dataset and it has a trajectory length range from 11-1911.

## 4.2 Evaluation of the Optimal Architecture

In this section, we evaluated the selected optimal architecture (Section 4.1) using all three datasets as well as the combined dataset. To determine the classification error rates using our method, we used 5-fold cross validation. On each iteration, we split the one hot vector representation of the trajectories extracted from the dataset into training and testing sets at ratio of 80% to 20%, for each class. The training sets were used to parametrise our LSTM network. The test set was then classified by our trained VNet models.

### 4.2.1 Classification of Highway Drone Dataset

Using the one hot vector representations of the 5000 trajectories extracted from HighD dataset, the VNet model was able to classify the HighD dataset with an average accuracy of 99.80% (std=0.35%) on the 5 folds during the modelling. We evaluated the model using both  $QTC$  and  $QTC_{Full}$  and it achieved the same results. Further, we tested the 5 trained VNet models on the 1805 trajectories of unseen dataset, achieving an average accuracy of 99.87% (std=0.29%). Even though only 10% of the whole dataset was used to find the optimal architecture, our VNet models maintained a high performance and generalised on unseen datasets. It also shows the power of  $QTC$  in representing pair activity trajectories. For comparative purposes, we have used the DCNN-QTC ('TrajNet') (AlZoubi and Nam, 2019) as a benchmark qualitative method, which has itself been shown to

outperform other qualitative and quantitative methods (AlZoubi et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2010; Ni et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2008). Using the same HighD dataset split, our VNet achieved a higher accuracy against TrajNet which achieved an average accuracy of 98.60% on 5-fold cross validation and 98.98% on unseen test set. The difference in accuracy of our VNet model and TrajNet is 1.2% in 5-fold modelling. However, this 1.2% accounts for 60 trajectories in the HighD dataset. Our VNet model was able to correctly classify 60 more trajectories than TrajNet. Especially, VNet performs better than TrajNet when classifying simple and complex activities of similar behaviours (Left Overtake and Left Overtake Complex) (Table 2). Thus, it shows the superiority of our model statistically in such critical application. Further, our method shows relatively high consistency among the 5 models by providing lower standard deviation in both modelling and external testing. Table 2 shows the performance of both VNet and TrajNet on the internal and unseen HighD datasets.

Table 2: Comparison between Our Proposed Method with State-of-the-art TrajNet Method on HighD Dataset: Ave. Acc. - Average Accuracy, S.D - Standard Deviation.

| Model                 | Modelling     |               | External Testing |               |
|-----------------------|---------------|---------------|------------------|---------------|
|                       | VNet          | Trajnet       | VNet             | Trajnet       |
| Follow                | 99.80%        | 98.00%        | 100%             | 99.34%        |
| Left Overtake         | 100%          | 97.00%        | 100%             | 97.40%        |
| Left Overtake Complex | 99.20%        | 98.00%        | 99.36%           | 98.44%        |
| Preceding             | 100%          | 100%          | 100%             | 99.90%        |
| Right Overtake        | 100%          | 100%          | 100%             | 99.76%        |
| <b>Ave Acc.</b>       | <b>99.80%</b> | <b>98.60%</b> | <b>99.87%</b>    | <b>98.98%</b> |
| <b>S.D</b>            | <b>0.35%</b>  | <b>1.34%</b>  | <b>0.29%</b>     | <b>1.05%</b>  |

Table 3: Average Classification Accuracy of Different Algorithms on the Traffic Dataset.

| Type             | VNet          | (AlZoubi and Nam, 2019) | (AlZoubi et al., 2017) | (Lin et al., 2013) | (Zhou et al., 2008) | (Ni et al., 2009) | (Lin et al., 2010) |
|------------------|---------------|-------------------------|------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| Turn             | 100%          | 97.10%                  | 97.10%                 | 97.10%             | 98.00%              | 83.10%            | 89.30%             |
| Follow           | 100%          | 100%                    | 94.30%                 | 88.60%             | 77.10%              | 61.90%            | 84.60%             |
| Pass             | 100%          | 100%                    | 100%                   | 100%               | 88.30%              | 82.40%            | 84.50%             |
| Bothturn         | 97.14%        | 100%                    | 97.10%                 | 97.10%             | 98.80%              | 97.10%            | 95.80%             |
| Overtake         | 97.14%        | 97.10%                  | 94.30%                 | 94.30%             | 52.90%              | 38.30%            | 63.40%             |
| <b>Ave. Acc.</b> | <b>98.86%</b> | <b>98.84%</b>           | <b>96.56%</b>          | <b>95.42%</b>      | <b>83.02%</b>       | <b>72.76%</b>     | <b>83.52%</b>      |

#### 4.2.2 Classification of Traffic Dataset

We have conducted similar classification experiments using the traffic activity dataset presented in (Lin et al., 2013). The optimal architecture was evaluated using 5-folds cross validation using both  $QTC_C$  and  $QTC_{Full}$  and the model achieved an average accuracy of 98.86% (std=1.56%). 5-folds cross validation protocol guarantees that every trajectory in the dataset is tested at least once. Table 3 shows the performance comparison of our VNet against state-of-the-art approaches on this dataset (AlZoubi and Nam, 2019; AlZoubi et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2010; Ni et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2008). Our method outperformed all six quantitative and qualitative methods by achieving the lowest classification error rate of 1.14%.

#### 4.2.3 Classification of VOI Dataset

Classifying very dangerous vehicle interactions is crucial for collision avoidance and security surveillance applications. Therefore, to gain traction as a mainstream analysis technique, we evaluated our method on the publicly available VOI dataset (Alzoubi and Nam, 2018) of crash behaviours. Using 5-folds cross validation, our VNet model achieved a high average accuracy with 0% error rate which is similar to TrajNet (AlZoubi and Nam, 2019). Both  $QTC_C$  and  $QTC_{Full}$  achieved the same results. Despite the optimal architecture was designed from different vehicle datasets, our VNet generalized and achieved a high performance on the VOI dataset.

#### 4.2.4 Classification of Combined Dataset

Our main motivation is a generic supervised analysis for vehicle interactions. The combined dataset is challenging, as it contains simple and compound activities and with various lengths. We split the 952 trajectories into training and testing sets at ratio of 80% to 20%, for each class. The training sets were used to parametrise our network and the test set was then classified by our trained VNet model. Our VNet achieved

an average accuracy of 98.21% on the 5 folds which shows how well our optimal architecture is generalised across different and challenging datasets. For comparative purposes, we have used TrajNet (AlZoubi and Nam, 2019) as a benchmark qualitative method. Using the same 5-fold split, our VNet model outperforms TrajNet (Accuracy = 98.10%). Similar to Experiment 4.2.1, TrajNet struggles to distinguish between similar activities of the same side such as (Left Overtake, Left Pass) and (Right Overtake, Right Pass). VNet clearly outperforms TrajNet in those four activities by classifying them with an average accuracy of 99.52% compared to TrajNet's 98.24%. Thus, both Experiment 4.2.1 and 4.2.4 show that VNet performs better than TrajNet in distinguishing closely matched behaviours such as Left Overtake, Left Overtake Complex and Left Pass.

#### 4.2.5 Manual vs Automatic LSTM Architecture Design

Sections 4.2.1 - 4.2.4 have shown that our method outperformed existing quantitative and qualitative methods evaluated on different and challenging datasets. To the best of our knowledge, no existing LSTM architecture has been designed (manually or automatically) for vehicle pair activity classification. In order to evaluate the performance of our auto-optimised LSTM architecture, we used the manually designed LSTM architecture developed for QTC features in (Panzner and Cimiano, 2016) as a benchmark.

Using the same evaluation protocol, the models of manually designed architecture achieved average accuracies of 89.12%, 72%, 21.30%, and 26.79% on VOI, Traffic, HighD, and Combined datasets, respectively. The low performance of these models is a results of poor LSTM architecture design. This shows that careful architecture design and parameter selection is very crucial for a successful vehicle activity classification model. Table 4 shows the results of the model (Panzner and Cimiano, 2016) compared against state-of-the-art TrajNet (AlZoubi and Nam, 2019) model and our VNet model. Our VNet model

Table 4: Average Classification Accuracy of Manually Designed LSTM (Handcrafted) (Panzner and Cimiano, 2016), TrajNet (AlZoubi and Nam, 2019) and Our VNet across all the datasets: H.LSTM - Handcrafted LSTM, Comb. - Combined Dataset.

| Method  | HighD  | Traffic | VOI    | Comb.  |
|---------|--------|---------|--------|--------|
| H. LSTM | 21.30% | 72.00%  | 89.12% | 26.79% |
| TrajNet | 98.60% | 98.84%  | 100%   | 98.10% |
| VNet    | 99.80% | 98.86%  | 100%   | 98.21% |

outperforms existing methods including the manually optimised LSTM across all the datasets.

## 5 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we proposed a novel method for vehicle activity classification using QTC and LSTM. We used a qualitative feature representation method QTC to represent the relative motion between two objects. We then encoded the QTC sequences into a two-dimensional matrix using one-hot vectors. Our results show how efficiently our representation has abstracted the features from real valued trajectories. Subsequently, we presented a method to efficiently find an optimal LSTM architecture using Bayesian Optimization for accurate analysis of vehicle activities. Our contribution is not only restricted to producing an optimal architecture for vehicle activity classification. We also have presented a way to select the optimal architecture for LSTM using Bayesian Optimization. Thus, the approach can be used for other activity classification applications as well. Our method has been evaluated on three completely different datasets recorded from different types of sources: a static camera, a drone camera and a simulator. We compared our method against the state-of-the-art qualitative (AlZoubi and Nam, 2019; AlZoubi et al., 2017) and quantitative (Lin et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2008; Ni et al., 2009; Lin et al., 2010) methods. The results of the combined dataset (98.21% accuracy) evidently show that our approach is a generalised solution for vehicle activity classification.

Future self-driving technologies can be benefited with our approach to tackle path planning and safety related issues. Intrigued by the results, we intend to extend our work by investigating on quantitative features to use with our auto-optimised LSTM. It will lay the foundation to evaluate both qualitative and quantitative approaches with deep neural networks under the same experimental framework. We evaluated our method on a large dataset (HighD) with 6805 trajectories, however, both Traffic (175) and VOI (277) datasets are relatively small. Trajectories of Traffic

dataset (Lin et al., 2013) are also limited to a fixed length of 20 timesteps. Further, other potential interactions such as chasing, collision of two moving vehicles are not present in the datasets we have. Thus, we hope to include these kinds of interactions in future. In addition, we also plan to evaluate other sequential modeling methods such as transformers, causal and dilated convolutional neural networks.

## REFERENCES

- Ahmed, M., Du, H., and AlZoubi, A. (2020). An enas based approach for constructing deep learning models for breast cancer recognition from ultrasound images. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2005.13695*.
- Ahmed, S. A., Dogra, D. P., Kar, S., and Roy, P. P. (2018). Trajectory-based surveillance analysis: A survey. *IEEE Transactions on Circuits and Systems for Video Technology*, 29(7):1985–1997.
- Alahi, A., Goel, K., Ramanathan, V., Robicquet, A., Fei-Fei, L., and Savarese, S. (2016). Social lstm: Human trajectory prediction in crowded spaces. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 961–971.
- Althé, F. and de La Fortelle, A. (2017). An lstm network for highway trajectory prediction. In *2017 IEEE 20th International Conference on Intelligent Transportation Systems (ITSC)*, pages 353–359.
- AlZoubi, A., Al-Diri, B., Pike, T., Kleinhappel, T., and Dickinson, P. (2017). Pair-activity analysis from video using qualitative trajectory calculus. *IEEE Transactions on Circuits and Systems for Video Technology*, 28(8):1850–1863.
- Alzoubi, A. and Nam, D. (2018). Vehicle Obstacle Interaction Dataset (VOIDataset).
- AlZoubi, A. and Nam, D. (2019). Vehicle activity recognition using dcnn. In *International Joint Conference on Computer Vision, Imaging and Computer Graphics*, pages 566–588. Springer.
- AlZoubi, A. and Nam, D. (2019). Vehicle activity recognition using mapped qtc trajectories. In *Proceedings of the 14th International Joint Conference on Computer Vision, Imaging and Computer Graphics Theory and Applications - Volume 5: VISAPP*, pages 27–38. INSTICC, SciTePress.
- Berndt, H. and Dietmayer, K. (2009). Driver intention inference with vehicle onboard sensors. In *2009 IEEE international conference on vehicular electronics and safety (ICVES)*, pages 102–107. IEEE.
- Deo, N., Rangesh, A., and Trivedi, M. M. (2018). How would surround vehicles move? a unified framework for maneuver classification and motion prediction. *IEEE Transactions on Intelligent Vehicles*, 3(2):129–140.
- Deo, N. and Trivedi, M. M. (2018). Multi-modal trajectory prediction of surrounding vehicles with maneuver based lstms. In *2018 IEEE Intelligent Vehicles Symposium (IV)*, pages 1179–1184. IEEE.

- Elsken, T., Metzen, J. H., and Hutter, F. (2019). Neural architecture search: A survey. *The Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 20(1):1997–2017.
- Fan, Y., Qian, Y., Xie, F.-L., and Soong, F. K. (2014). Tts synthesis with bidirectional lstm based recurrent neural networks. In *Fifteenth annual conference of the international speech communication association*.
- Framing, C.-E., Heßeler, F.-J., and Abel, D. (2018). Infrastructure-based vehicle maneuver estimation with intersection-specific models. In *2018 26th Mediterranean Conference on Control and Automation (MED)*, pages 253–258. IEEE.
- Frazier, P. I. (2018). A tutorial on bayesian optimization.
- Gelbart, M. A., Snoek, J., and Adams, R. P. (2014). Bayesian optimization with unknown constraints.
- Graves, A., Mohamed, A.-r., and Hinton, G. (2013). Speech recognition with deep recurrent neural networks. In *2013 IEEE international conference on acoustics, speech and signal processing*, pages 6645–6649. Ieee.
- Hochreiter, S. and Schmidhuber, J. (1997). Long short-term memory. *Neural computation*, 9(8):1735–1780.
- Karim, F., Majumdar, S., Darabi, H., and Chen, S. (2017). Lstm fully convolutional networks for time series classification. *IEEE access*, 6:1662–1669.
- Kaselimi, M., Doulamis, N., Doulamis, A., Voulodimos, A., and Protopapadakis, E. (2019). Bayesian-optimized bidirectional lstm regression model for non-intrusive load monitoring. In *ICASSP 2019-2019 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP)*, pages 2747–2751. IEEE.
- Khosroshahi, A., Ohn-Bar, E., and Trivedi, M. M. (2016). Surround vehicles trajectory analysis with recurrent neural networks. In *2016 IEEE 19th International Conference on Intelligent Transportation Systems (ITSC)*, pages 2267–2272. IEEE.
- Kim, B., Kang, C. M., Kim, J., Lee, S. H., Chung, C. C., and Choi, J. W. (2017). Probabilistic vehicle trajectory prediction over occupancy grid map via recurrent neural network. In *2017 IEEE 20th International Conference on Intelligent Transportation Systems (ITSC)*, pages 399–404.
- Krajewski, R., Bock, J., Kloeker, L., and Eckstein, L. (2018). The highd dataset: A drone dataset of naturalistic vehicle trajectories on german highways for validation of highly automated driving systems. In *2018 IEEE 21st International Conference on Intelligent Transportation Systems (ITSC)*.
- Lefèvre, S., Laugier, C., and Ibañez-Guzmán, J. (2011). Exploiting map information for driver intention estimation at road intersections. In *2011 IEEE Intelligent Vehicles Symposium (IV)*, pages 583–588. IEEE.
- Lin, W., Chu, H., Wu, J., Sheng, B., and Chen, Z. (2013). A heat-map-based algorithm for recognizing group activities in videos. *IEEE Transactions on Circuits and Systems for Video Technology*, 23(11):1980–1992.
- Lin, W., Sun, M.-T., Poovendran, R., and Zhang, Z. (2010). Group event detection with a varying number of group members for video surveillance. *IEEE Transactions on Circuits and Systems for Video Technology*, 20(8):1057–1067.
- Ni, B., Yan, S., and Kassim, A. (2009). Recognizing human group activities with localized causalities. In *2009 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 1470–1477. IEEE.
- Ohn-Bar, E. and Trivedi, M. M. (2016). Looking at humans in the age of self-driving and highly automated vehicles. *IEEE Transactions on Intelligent Vehicles*, 1(1):90–104.
- Panzner, M. and Cimiano, P. (2016). Comparing hidden markov models and long short term memory neural networks for learning action representations. In *International Workshop on Machine Learning, Optimization, and Big Data*, pages 94–105. Springer.
- Pham, H., Guan, M., Zoph, B., Le, Q., and Dean, J. (2018). Efficient neural architecture search via parameters sharing. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 4095–4104. PMLR.
- Phillips, D. J., Wheeler, T. A., and Kochenderfer, M. J. (2017). Generalizable intention prediction of human drivers at intersections. In *2017 IEEE Intelligent Vehicles Symposium (IV)*, pages 1665–1670.
- Reimers, N. and Gurevych, I. (2017). Optimal hyperparameters for deep lstm-networks for sequence labeling tasks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1707.06799*.
- Siemi-Namini, S., Tavakoli, N., and Namin, A. S. (2019). The performance of lstm and bilstm in forecasting time series. In *2019 IEEE International Conference on Big Data (Big Data)*, pages 3285–3292. IEEE.
- Snoek, J., Rippel, O., Swersky, K., Kiros, R., Satish, N., Sundaram, N., Patwary, M., Prabhat, M., and Adams, R. (2015). Scalable bayesian optimization using deep neural networks. In *International conference on machine learning*, pages 2171–2180. PMLR.
- Sundermeyer, M., Schlüter, R., and Ney, H. (2012). Lstm neural networks for language modeling. In *Thirteenth annual conference of the international speech communication association*.
- Van de Weghe, N. (2004). *Representing and reasoning about moving objects: A qualitative approach*. PhD thesis, Ghent University.
- Xue, H., Huynh, D. Q., and Reynolds, M. (2018). Sslstm: A hierarchical lstm model for pedestrian trajectory prediction. In *2018 IEEE Winter Conference on Applications of Computer Vision (WACV)*, pages 1186–1194. IEEE.
- Yang, T., Li, B., and Xun, Q. (2019). Lstm-attention-embedding model-based day-ahead prediction of photovoltaic power output using bayesian optimization. *IEEE Access*, 7:171471–171484.
- Yu, Y., Si, X., Hu, C., and Zhang, J. (2019). A review of recurrent neural networks: Lstm cells and network architectures. *Neural computation*, 31(7):1235–1270.
- Zhou, Y., Yan, S., and Huang, T. S. (2008). Pair-activity classification by bi-trajectories analysis. In *2008 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 1–8. IEEE.
- Zyner, A., Worrall, S., and Nebot, E. (2018). A recurrent neural network solution for predicting driver intention at unsignalized intersections. *IEEE Robotics and Automation Letters*, 3(3):1759–1764.