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A Framework for Automated Traffic Safety Analysis from Video Using Modern Computer Vision

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1 **A FRAMEWORK FOR AUTOMATED TRAFFIC SAFETY ANALYSIS FROM VIDEO**
2 **USING MODERN COMPUTER VISION**

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1 ABSTRACT

2 Traffic surveillance and monitoring are gaining a lot of attention as a result of an increase of
3 vehicles on the road and a desire to minimize accidents. In order to minimize accidents and near-
4 accidents, it is important to be able to judge the safety of a traffic environment. It is possible to
5 perform traffic analysis using large quantities of video data. Computer vision is a great tool for
6 reducing the data, so that only sequences of interest are further analyzed. In this paper, we propose
7 a cross-disciplinary framework for performing automated traffic analysis, from both a computer
8 vision researcher's and traffic researcher's point-of-view. Furthermore, we present STRUDL, an
9 open-source implementation of this framework, that computes trajectories of road users, which we
10 use to automatically find sequences containing critical events of vehicles and vulnerable road users
11 in an traffic intersection, which is an otherwise time-consuming task.

12

13 *Keywords:* Computer vision, data reduction, computer aided analysis, deep learning, surveillance,
14 tracking, detection, traffic analysis

1 INTRODUCTION

2 In 2017 more than 25,000 people died and approximately 135,000 people were seriously injured
 3 on the roads in the European Union (EU) (1). While the numbers are still very high, both injuries
 4 and fatalities have been decreasing for decades. Paradoxically, road safety experts worry about the
 5 problem of “too few crashes”, referring to the difficulties using the traditional safety diagnosing
 6 methods as crash counts registered at individual sites become very low (2)(3). The situation is
 7 aggravated by the unresolved problems of crash under-reporting, scarce information about the
 8 crash details and conditions in standard police reports and the general retro-active nature of the
 9 crash analysis (before safety problem can be diagnosed, it has to manifest itself in form of crashes
 10 with people killed or injured).

11 An alternative or a complementary approach to crash analysis is to use surrogate measures
 12 of safety (SMoS). The method rests on the assumption of a continuous relation between the severity
 13 of events in traffic and their frequency (4), visualized in Figure 1. The fatal and injury crashes are
 14 the most severe events and occur relatively seldom, while the events of “normal” severity can be
 15 observed in hundreds or thousands every day. The SMoS are normally derived from non-crash
 16 events that are close enough to crashes on the severity scale to possess sufficient similarities and
 17 thus be relevant for the safety, but much more frequent compared the actual crashes.

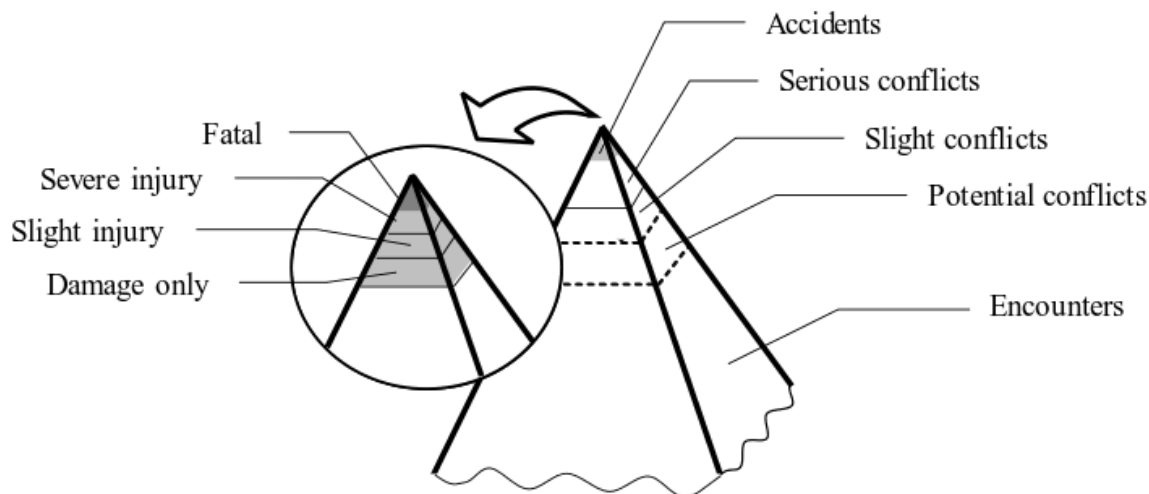


FIGURE 1: "Safety pyramid", adopted from (4).

18 While the idea has been known for decades (5)(6)(7), the lack of an efficient tool to reliably
 19 and accurately measure SMoS hindered the method from being used on a large scale. Previously,
 20 human observers were tasked to detect, classify and record the relevant events, all in real-time
 21 while being in the traffic environment. The high costs of using human observers, as well as some
 22 doubts in their reliability were too discouraging.

23 Automated tools like computer vision are about to change the situation. It is already a very
 24 common practice in safety studies based on SMoS to use video recordings either as a comple-
 25 mentary documentation for field observations or as a main data source (8). With a proper camera
 26 perspective and resolution, the measurements of road user positions and speeds taken from video
 27 can be very accurate (9). Fully automated tools able to detect and track road users in video do

1 already exist and are used (10) (11) (12). The general concepts of such tools are illustrated in
 2 Figure 2. The next challenge is to make the computer vision algorithms more stable while pro-
 3 cessing longer video sequences that include less favourable conditions such as congested traffic,
 4 precipitation, twilight and night, etc. (13) while making them more practically usable for traffic
 5 research.

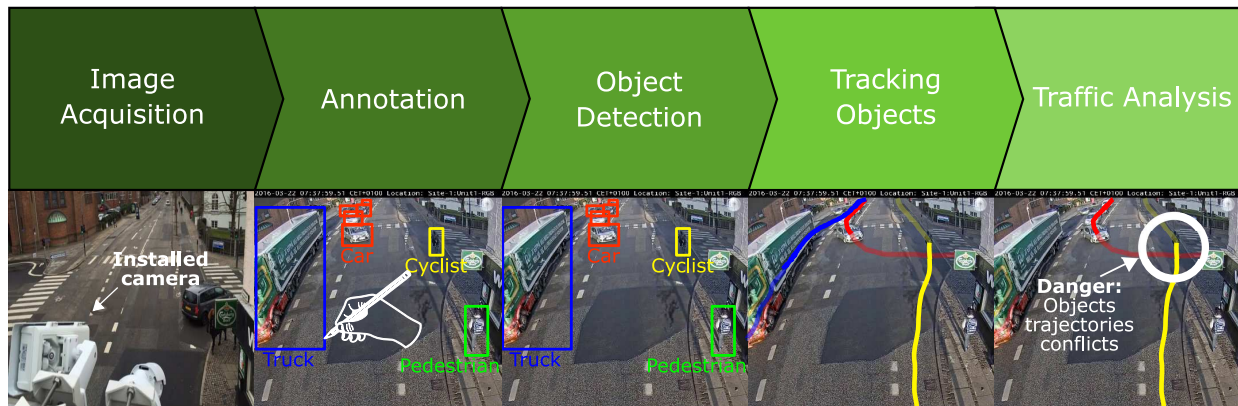


FIGURE 2: General concept for automated traffic analysis. Videos are captured via installed cameras. Humans then annotate some images with bounding boxes, used to train an object detector, which is then run on all the collected videos. The detected objects are then tracked across time, to generate trajectories which can be analyzed to find times of interest or computing SMOs.

6 Traffic safety and computer vision are two different worlds and the communication between
 7 the researchers of these two domains is not always straightforward. The following list summarizes
 8 the specific “expectations” from the traffic side that has to be taken into consideration while devel-
 9 oping a computer vision tool:

- 10 • Majority of the indicators suggested to measure the severity of a traffic event are based
 11 on temporal and spatial proximity of the road users. Thus, the most important data to
 12 extract from video are the positions and speeds of the road users, complemented with at
 13 least rough estimate of their type and size.
- 14 • Traffic analysis requires measurements related to the road surface (e.g. speed is to be
 15 measured in meters per second rather than pixels per frame) requiring an accurate cali-
 16 bration model.
- 17 • Though more frequent than crashes, the events used to calculate SMOs are still relatively
 18 rare. Depending on the definition of SMOs chosen, the observation period necessary to
 19 collect a sufficient number of the relevant events might vary from 8-10 hours to several
 20 weeks.
- 21 • The observation period is limited in time, making it common to use temporary installa-
 22 tions for the recording equipment but not for the analysis. This put less constraints on the
 23 complexity of the video analysis algorithms as they can be processed off-line.
- 24 • Traffic environment is a public space and special rules to how the data collected should
 25 be handled apply. Ideally, some pre-processing should be done during the recording such
 26 the images are cleared from the sensitive information while keeping the relevant data.

27 Current frameworks trying to bridge the gap between traffic research and computer vision
 28 are all based on more traditional computer vision approaches (14)(15)(16)(17)(18)(19). The tra-

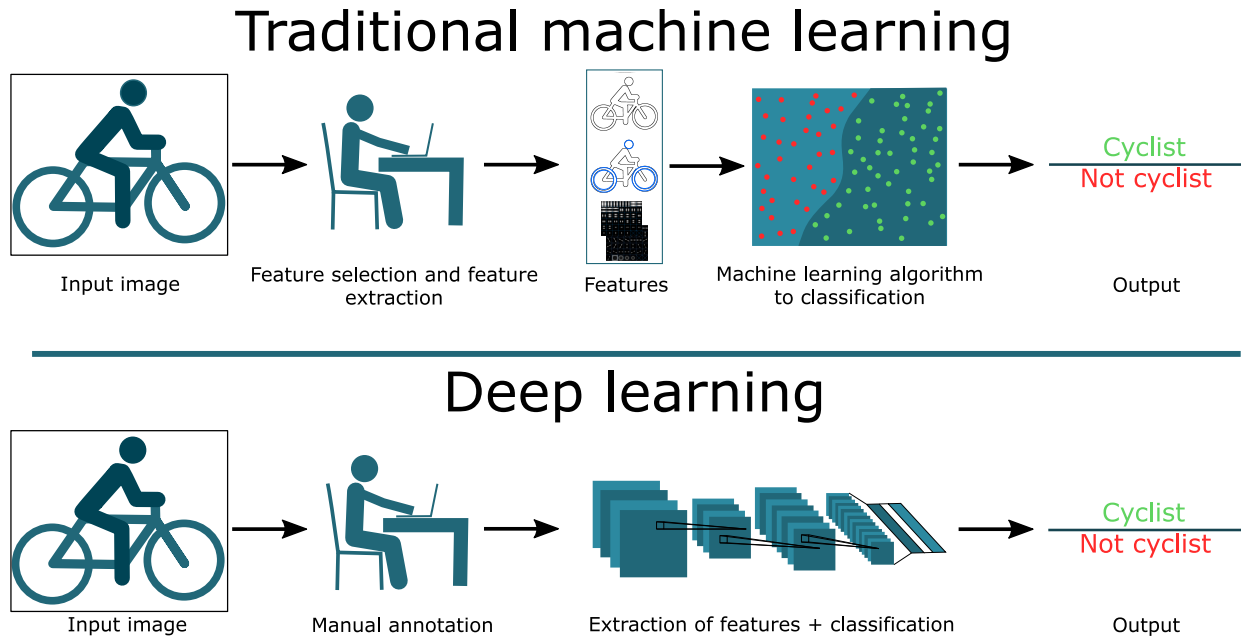


FIGURE 3: Simplified comparison of traditional machine learning approach and deep learning approach for cyclist detection. Note that manual annotations are generally faster and require less specialized knowledge than in traditional machine learning approaches.

1 ditional approach involve looking for movement in the image or calculating the foreground image
 2 which depending on the scene, tells something about the moving objects or foreground objects.
 3 To classify the objects, distinctive features, e.g. width, height, color, etc. are used to separate the
 4 localized objects. The features varies a lot from object to object, so the used features chosen for
 5 classification varies correspondingly, but are in this case always manually selected. A traditional
 6 machine learning algorithm will then examine all the selected features and maximize the distinc-
 7 tion between each of the object's subset of features with the purpose of classifying them. This
 8 traditional workflow is illustrated in the upper half of Figure 3.

9 Computer vision have generally seen a tremendous boost as a result of past decade's hard-
 10 ware improvements, in particular the graphical processing units (GPU) improvements, which have
 11 lead to a large use of the well-performing data-driven methods. A very popular data-driven method
 12 is deep learning(20)(21), which is based upon artificial neural networks, which to some extent is
 13 an imitation of the human brain. In a computer vision perspective, deep learning is a sub-field of
 14 the aforementioned machine learning. It differs from traditional machine learning as it does not
 15 require manually selected features. Deep learning is able to learn features that represents a given
 16 object automatically from large quantities of annotated data, which is illustrated in Figure 2 and
 17 the lower part of Figure 3.

18 In this paper, we investigate and propose a general data-driven framework to help and ease
 19 the cross-disciplinary communication of going from capturing video sequences and automate the
 20 traffic analysis generation using deep learning. Furthermore, we present an open-source imple-
 21 mentation of the introduced framework.

22 The contributions of this paper are thus two-fold:

- 23 • Introducing and defining a data-driven cross-disciplinary framework for performing au-

1 tomated traffic analysis, from video acquisition to traffic analysis.

2 • An implementation of this framework that can detect, classify, track, and create a traffic
3 analysis of data from an intersection.

4 Our implementation is released as open source and is available here: <https://github.com/ahrnbon/strudl>. This program is designed to be easy to use for traffic researchers, without
5 extensive knowledge in computer vision.
6

7 **RELATED WORK**

8 In this section, we present recent and relevant work done related to defining a cross-disciplinary
9 framework for easing collaborations between traffic researchers and computer vision researchers.
10 The section will be split into 2 parts: a part containing general established frameworks followed
11 by relevant work and applications where computer vision has aided traffic researchers.

12 **General frameworks**

13 From a computer vision perspective, several frameworks have been proposed to fit the develop-
14 ment of most general computer vision systems. In (14), a general framework is defined which is
15 applicable for most systems working with video. The framework consists of the following blocks:
16 camera, image acquisition, pre-processing, segmentation, representation, and classification. Given
17 a set of images acquired with one or several cameras, it is possible to classify e.g. objects and ac-
18 tions, by the use of various mathematical operations. In (15) a video-based system for automated
19 pedestrian conflict analysis is introduced following 5 basic components: video pre-processing, fea-
20 ture processing, grouping, high-level object processing, and information extraction. Compared to
21 (14), these components are more angled towards a high-level information extraction which can be
22 considered more applicable for a traffic researcher.

23 In (16) a comprehensive review of computer vision techniques used for analysis in urban
24 traffic is presented. They propose two different approaches to automated traffic analysis. Both
25 of them takes an input frame as starting point, but differ in structure by one being a top-down
26 approach and the other a bottom-up approach. The top-down approach consist of estimating the
27 foreground of the frame, e.g. by frame differentiation (17). A grouping of connected foreground
28 pixels is done, e.g. connected component analysis, which constitutes the objects. These objects
29 are classified (18), which can be based on heuristically predefined rules or by use of training data.
30 Finally, tracking translate the objects into spatial-temporal domain, which provides the user with
31 object trajectories (19). As described in (16), the top-down approach analyzes the objects as a
32 whole, whereas the bottom-up approach takes its starting point in using smaller patches of the
33 image to detect a part of the objects, e.g. scale invariant feature transform (22) and histogram
34 of oriented gradients (23). The detected parts of the objects are afterwards grouped together to
35 form an object constituting the object detection step. Object detection can be extended with a
36 classification step, where the individual object is assigned to a specific class label. Finally, the
37 objects is tracked with the purpose of creating object trajectories.

38 The available cross-disciplinary frameworks are in general feature-based and model-based,
39 which have been very common prior to the hardware improvements made the past decade. GPUs
40 in particular have made training of complex artificial neural networks possible. The artificial neu-
41 ral network is inspired by the neural networks found in the human brain. The recent trend in
42 computer vision is the usage of artificial neural networks, often referred to as deep learning, to do
43 object detection by learning and adjusting the parameters and weights in the network by expos-

1 ing it to large quantities of annotated data. Generally, deep learning is outperforming traditional
2 methods by a large margin (20, 21). The current available cross-disciplinary frameworks do not
3 use deep learning, making our proposed framework the first to take advantage of this significant
4 improvement in technology.

5 **Automated video-based traffic applications**

6 The related video-based traffic applications are split into two categories, which are object detecting
7 and conflict-based data reduction.

8 *Object counting*

9 Object counting in relation to the traffic domain primarily consists of firstly detecting and classi-
10 fying the object of interest, e.g. cars, trucks, pedestrians and cyclists, followed by tracking them
11 to prevent counting the same object multiple times and to cope with potential occlusion. A lot
12 of work has been done in especially detecting and classifying objects, in (24) they build upon the
13 well-known Haar-like features (25), which have traditionally been used for single-frame detection.
14 By computing such features in temporal space, the motion can be estimated by comparing the ab-
15 solute differences between the values in the spatial-temporal domain. Detecting and classifying
16 objects have traditionally been based upon the RGB modality. In relation to traffic analysis, this
17 can cause challenges as RGB is vulnerable to changing weather and light conditions. To make a
18 system more robust, the thermal modality can be introduced to complement the RGB camera, in a
19 so-called multi-modal setup (13). In (26), object classification is done based on images captured
20 from multiple visual traffic surveillance sensors, providing a multi-view setup which is less prone
21 to occlusion.

22 As previously mentioned, the recent years of object detection has followed the hardware
23 improvements, leading to a large use of the well-performing deep learning methods (20). Most
24 of the object detectors using deep learning methods, e.g. convolutional neural networks (CNN),
25 relies on supervised learning, meaning that large quantities of annotated data is needed to train the
26 CNN (27, 28). In (29) a CNN was applied to the popular ImageNet Large-Scale Visual Recogni-
27 tion Challenge, which is a popular object recognition benchmark containing 1.2 million training
28 images, 50,000 validation images, and 150,000 testing images. The CNN nearly halved the top-5
29 error rate of object recognition generated from traditional computer vision methods (21).

30 In general, for most of the aforementioned methods, the found objects can be tracked by
31 using nearest neighbour, Kanade-Lucas-Tomasi feature tracker (15, 30, 31), or by the use of more
32 complex feature based methods such as a Kalman filter (32) or Hungarian tracking (33), which
33 have proven quite useful in a wide variety of applications.

34 *Conflict-based data reduction*

35 Computer vision software can greatly speed-up the process of reducing a captured video dataset to
36 only the sequences of interest, as manually analyzing large quantities of data is a time-consuming
37 task. In (15) pedestrians and motorized traffics are detected, tracked and classified, and then used
38 to identify critical events in the video. The critical events are in (15) defined as "*any event that*
39 *involves a crossing pedestrian and a conflicting vehicle in which there exists a conceivable chain*
40 *of events that could lead to a collision between these road users*", resulting in all the detected
41 objects intersecting trajectories triggering an important event, which is similar to the illustration to
42 the traffic analysis step in figure 2. All the triggered events can be split into a subset of important

1 conflict indicators: Time-to-Collision, Post-Encroachment Time, Gap Time, and Deceleration-to-
2 Safety Time, which can be used to measure the severity of the event.

3 In (34, 35) the human-in-the-loop framework is further cultivated as a graphical user in-
4 terface is developed to enable traffic researchers to utilize computer vision methods. The traffic
5 researchers can annotate areas of interest on the input video, which are triggered by activity. Com-
6 bining multiple of these annotated areas in a timed logic, e.g. potential conflict between cyclist
7 and a right-turning vehicle, can then be used to trigger an interesting event flag.

8 To the best of our knowledge, our proposed framework is the first cross-disciplinary frame-
9 work to use modern deep learning for data reduction in traffic surveillance, with an open source
10 and free implementation designed to be used by traffic researchers with limited knowledge of deep
11 learning and computer vision.

12 **FRAMEWORK OVERVIEW**

13 In order for a data reduction framework for traffic surveillance to be useful in practise, it needs
14 to be general enough to be able to handle different kinds of queries and criteria. A single cross-
15 disciplinary computer vision framework can work for multiple applications, as the main steps that
16 need to be performed are typically the same. The proposed framework in this paper takes its
17 spawn in a top-down approach, as presented in (16), and some of the general concepts presented
18 in (14, 15). In Figure 4, the proposed framework is illustrated in a block flow diagram. Each block
19 forms the structure for the following of this section and will thus be described accordingly.

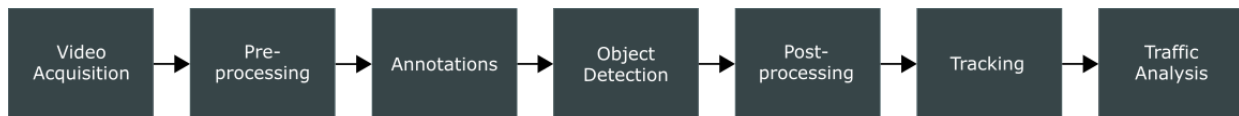


FIGURE 4: The proposed cross-disciplinary framework for automated traffic analysis. While Video Acquisition and Traffic Analysis can be considered to belong to the field of traffic research, the remaining central blocks belong to the field of computer vision.

20 **Video Acquisition**

21 The first step in the general framework, seen in figure 4, is video acquisition. In this step the
22 primary goal is to acquire video data to the pipeline. Essential considerations to do this is presented
23 in the following subsection.

24 *Modalities*

25 The most common sensor for acquiring video data is a traditional RGB camera, which is similar
26 to the human eye making the videos easy to interpret and work with. As mentioned in the related
27 work, other options include using a thermal camera, which during the last decade have seen a price
28 reduction making it feasible to use in traffic surveillance applications (36). A thermal camera is a
29 passive sensor that captures the infrared radiation emitted by all objects, which can be translated to
30 "seeing" the temperature in a given scene. Thermal cameras are thus usable in the night which
31 can be an advantage compared to RGB, but can also be considered a disadvantage as the lack of
32 color information can make classification challenging. An example of the two modalities is seen
33 in Figure 5, where both modalities are used in a challenging rainy night-time scene.

1 The choice of modality, e.g. RGB or thermal, does not affect the rest of the suggested
 2 framework, the choice comes down to a matter of cost, expected light and weather conditions, and
 3 privacy concerns. Specifications of the sensor should be taken into consideration, e.g. FPS and
 4 resolution.



(a) RGB Camera.

(b) Thermal Camera.

FIGURE 5: Comparison of the RGB modality and thermal modality captured at a traffic intersection doing a rainy night. Notice the strong reflections in the RGB image, as well as the poor contrast in the thermal image. This is an example of a situation where none of the modalities are optimal.

5 *Camera calibration*

6 By carefully measuring the positions of some points visible in the camera, the camera can be cali-
 7 brated, allowing positions in pixel coordinates in the images to be translated to world coordinates.
 8 If this step is omitted, any results found by computer vision algorithms are significantly more dif-
 9 ficult to interpret and use since they cannot be converted to world coordinates. Detailed search
 10 queries and SMOs typically need to be computed in world coordinates to be useful.

11 **Pre-processing**

12 Modern object detectors using CNNs do not need much pre-processing. The only form of pre-
 13 processing used in our framework is masking. Often, the entire scene captured by the camera
 14 is not of interest; if an application is to find interesting situations in a crossing, then it is of no
 15 importance what happens far from that crossing. For these cases, a manually drawn "do-not-care"
 16 zone is created as an overlaying mask as exemplified in figure 6. This speeds up annotations and
 17 helps training a reliable object detector. If this step is omitted, and only parts of the images are
 18 annotated, this may confuse the detector during training, possibly leading to reduced accuracy.

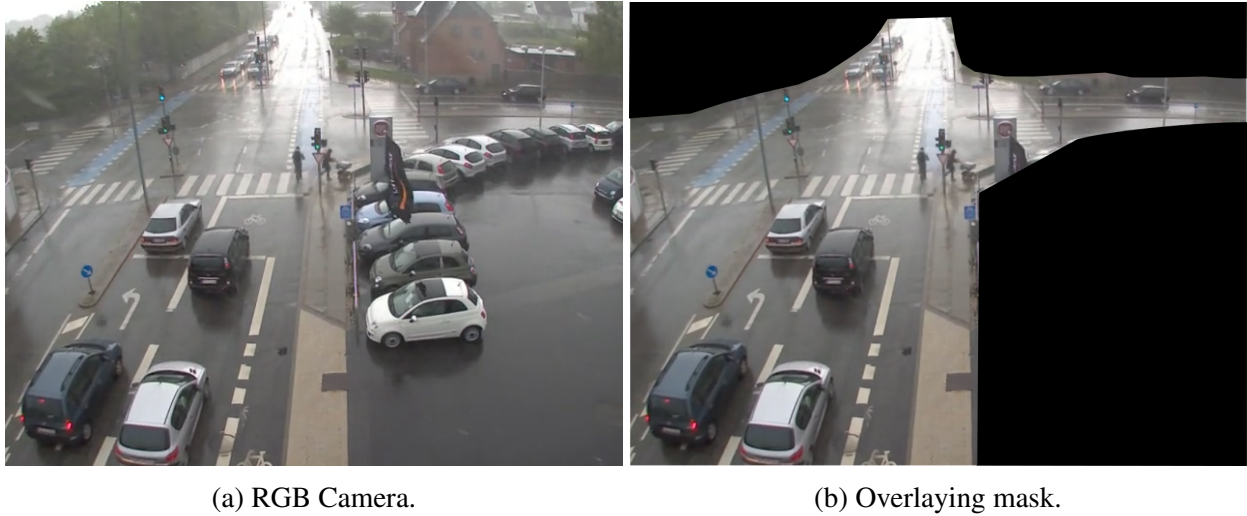


FIGURE 6: Manually annotated "do-not-care" zone which is overlaid on the input image as a mask.

1 **Annotations**

2 In order to run modern object detectors based on deep learning, manually creating annotations
 3 is necessary. CNNs learn by examples, so a human needs to define and annotate this example
 4 many times before the network can be trained to do the same. In this pipeline, neural networks are
 5 used for object detection only, so the annotations consist entirely of marking objects in images, by
 6 bounding boxes and assigning a class label to each box, as illustrated in Figure 7.

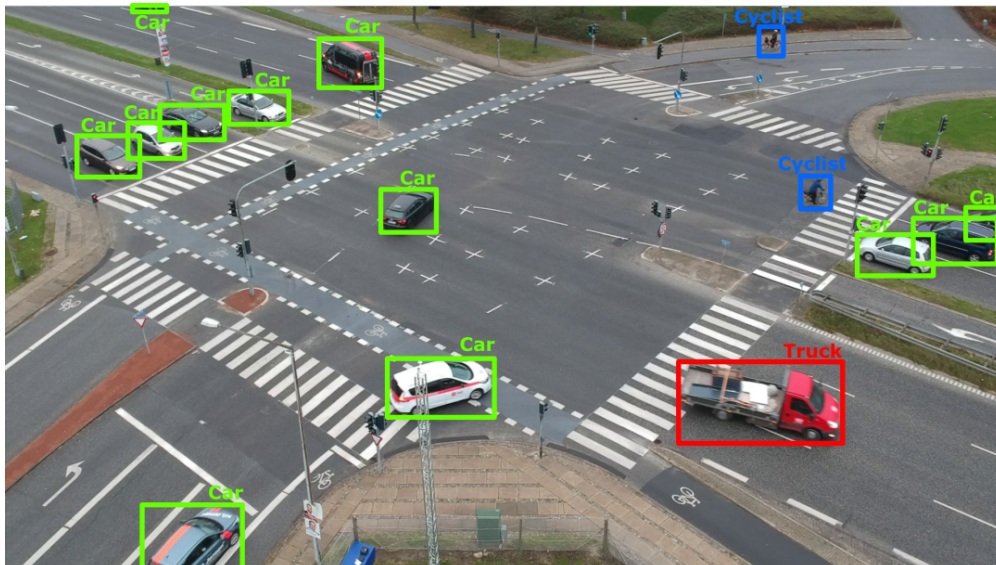


FIGURE 7: Bounding box annotations with belonging class label.

7 It is important that all visible objects (after applying the mask defined in Section 4.2) are
 8 annotated. Otherwise, these will be considered negative examples when the detector is trained. For

1 example, if one car is marked as a "car" and another one is not, then the detector will have a hard
2 time understanding why one is considered a "car" while the other one is not, and accuracy may
3 suffer as a result.

4 If a large dataset of traffic images were annotated and made publicly available, they could
5 be used if their viewing angle, lightning conditions etc. are reasonably similar to the new data.
6 In such a case, a smaller amount (or none at all) new data may need to be annotated. Despite the
7 current lack of such a dataset, pre-training the networks on general images reduces the number of
8 image annotations needed to a couple of hundred, as opposed to thousands or more.

9 **Object Detection**

10 The goal of object detection is to find "objects", e.g. road users, as axis-aligned bounding boxes
11 with class labels in an image. Traditionally this step has been split into two steps: localization
12 (finding the bounding box) and classification (assigning a class to the bounding box), but due to
13 recent years' advancements in CNN designs, both can be performed in a single step. The choice of
14 class labels is application dependent and is not limited to a specific amount. Multiple can be used,
15 if they are of particular interest, but it should be noted that a significant amount of examples has to
16 appear in the annotated images for the detector to become accurate.

17 **Post-processing**

18 In the post-processing step, the movement direction for each of the detected objects can be com-
19 puted and converted to world coordinates. Movement directions are useful cues when connecting
20 the detections into tracks. Performing the tracking in world coordinates has benefits, mainly being
21 more independent of the viewing angle, and working directly in natural units and world coordinates
22 allows more detailed and natural track analysis.

23 **Tracking**

24 The tracking step consists of connecting the detected objects in spatio-temporal space, meaning
25 that each detected object in the video needs to be either associated with a previously existing track
26 or as a completely new track in the video. Though this might sound as a somewhat easy task,
27 several challenges are introduced when objects radically change direction or if multiple objects get
28 too close to each other in the sensor's field-of-view.

29 The performance of the object detection is critical for proper tracking as trajectories cannot
30 be generated for objects that are not detected. Tracking can, however, compensate for some issues
31 in the detector. For example, if a vehicle is detected in only 1 frame, but not in any of prior
32 or following frames, there is a high probability that this is a false detection. If an object is not
33 detected in a small number of frames, but is detected before and after, the tracking algorithm may
34 be able to understand that it is indeed the same object.

35 Selecting a sensor with too low FPS results in objects in the scene moving a large distance
36 between the consecutive captured frames, which can make it harder to connect the detected objects
37 in spatio-temporal space. Using a high FPS, the objects' movement between consecutive captured
38 frames becomes less, which generally makes tracking easier. Videos with 15 FPS seem to work in
39 our experiments.

1 Traffic Analysis

2 The final step of the proposed framework is to analyze the road user tracks with respect to safety.
 3 For example, indicators like Time-to-Collision and Post-Encroachment Time can be calculated and
 4 events with severity above a certain threshold can be detected and presented to the user for further
 5 examination. The data about the distribution of events within different severity categories can be
 6 used by special statistical methods such as extreme-value theory in order to estimate the expected
 7 number of crashes (37) (38). Also, trajectory data can be used for calculations of advanced ex-
 8 posure measures, for example a number of encounters between road users of a certain type and
 9 performing a certain manoeuvre (39). Clustering of the trajectories and detection of deviant trajec-
 10 tories do not fit into any of clusters may reveal the abnormal incidents such as movement in wrong
 11 direction or stop at an unusual place.

12 Since the tracks are computed in world coordinates, thresholds, safety measures and other
 13 criteria can be expressed in natural terms and units. While traditional computer vision systems
 14 allow only simple criteria (typically expressed in pixel coordinates), world coordinate tracks allow
 15 for arbitrarily complex queries, that are more meaningful from a traffic analysis perspective

16 EXPERIMENTS

17 As a part of a traffic analysis project, an intersection with a crossing of interest in Malmö, Sweden
 18 was filmed for 24 hours with a thermal camera. TSAI calibration(40) was computed by measuring
 19 57 points visible in the videos. People were hired to watch through the entire 24 hours of video,
 20 tasked to find times in the video where both a car and either a pedestrian or a bicyclist are visible at
 21 the same time, where the car will at some point make a turn to pass the crossing of interest, while
 22 the pedestrian/bicyclist will at some point pass the crossing. See Figure 8 for a visual explanation
 23 of the task. These times were then inspected in more detail by traffic analysts. We stress that this
 24 is not a "toy problem"; the human watchers were required as a starting point for further traffic
 25 research at this intersection, and we hope that the existence of this framework can reduce the need
 26 for human labor in situations like these in the future.



FIGURE 8: The goal is to find times when a vulnerable road user is moving through the red regions in the marked directions, while a car is moving either through the green or yellow regions simultaneously.

27 An implementation of the suggested framework was used to perform the same task, using
 28 the human observer's results as ground-truth. As a baseline, the Road User Behaviour Analysis

1 (RUBA) software (34), which is a traffic analysis tool based on traditional computer vision tech-
2 nology, was also tested for the same task.

3 There is some ambiguity in when exactly during an encounter it is detected by an observer
4 or computer vision tools. Therefore, it was allowed for some time discrepancy for a detection to
5 be counted as correct. By testing multiple time distance thresholds between the ground truth and
6 the output of the automatic systems, a trade-off between precision and recall can be observed. We
7 use precision and recall curves to visualize this trade-off and compare the automatic systems.

8 **STRUDL: description of implementation**

9 This section describes how our framework following the definitions in Section 4 was implemented,
10 in order to solve the problem described above. The implementation is called **Surveillance Tracking**
11 **Using Deep Learning (STRUDL)**. It can be used in any context where objects seen from a static
12 camera need to be tracked. Those tracks can be analyzed to for example find times of interest.
13 While thermal videos were used in this experiment, the STRUDL system works with RGB as well
14 (and should in fact perform better with RGB as the pre-training of the object detector is made
15 with RGB images). The remaining parts of this section will describe in more detail how STRUDL
16 implements the computer vision parts of the suggested framework.

17 *Pre-processing*

18 With modern object detection algorithms based on CNN, very little pre-processing of images is
19 necessary. The only pre-processing done is applying a visual "do-not-care" mask.

20 *Annotation*

21 500 frames were selected from the collected videos and annotated manually with bounding boxes
22 and class labels. The frames were taken from 25 randomly selected 5 minute clips, and from each
23 such clip, 20 frames were sampled evenly. This way, there should be a large variety in the road
24 users appearing in the images. A variant of Extreme Clicking (41) was implemented to make the
25 annotation process fast. The reason why 500 frames is sufficient to get decent object detection
26 performance is that the detector is pre-trained on a general objects detection task. Training the
27 object detector from scratch would require drastically many more images.

28 *Object Detection*

29 The object detector SSD (42) was used. It is a commonly used CNN for the object detection task
30 for its reasonable trade-off between accuracy and execution speed. On a powerful modern GPU,
31 it runs in around real-time. The objects found are presented as axis-aligned bounding boxes. The
32 SSD network was pre-trained on the large MS COCO dataset(43), which contains a large amount of
33 images with bounding box annotations of many different kinds of objects (not only traffic-related
34 ones), made by human annotators. Then, the network was fine-tuned on images from the videos
35 for which the experiment is conducted, as described in Section 5.1.2. Finally, the object detector
36 is applied to every single image, and detected objects are stored.

37 *Post-processing*

38 For the videos, the OpenCV function `goodFeaturesToTrack` was used to find points which can be
39 tracked, and then by repeatedly using the OpenCV function `calcOpticalFlowPyrLK(44)`, those
40 points were turned into point tracks. These tend to follow how objects move in the scene. For each

1 detected bounding box, the average movement direction of point tracks moving through the box
2 were computed, giving each box a movement direction.

3 Then, using a TSAI camera calibration model (40), each such box and movement direction
4 were converted to world coordinates. Because of the pixel-aligned nature of bounding boxes, only
5 the center point was converted. Because the orientation of road users can be computed from their
6 movements directions, and the class labels allow approximate 3D models to be inserted in their
7 place, any information about the movements, position and spatial extent of the road users should
8 be possible to obtain, at least approximately, from this simple representation.

9 *Tracking*

10 A simple Hungarian tracker (33) was used, using class consistency, position in world coordinates
11 and movement direction to compute the association cost. World coordinate detections that were
12 not associated to any existing tracks, were made into tracks of their own unless they were too close
13 to some already existing track. When no detection were associated with a given track, the track
14 continues along its previous direction for some time until being removed, unless it is associated
15 with a new detection before that. Tracks that were short-lived, that were only associated with one
16 or two detections were removed, as they are often false or unreliable tracks.

17 The tracking requires tuning of 13 parameters, which were optimized using a blackbox
18 optimization scheme for a short video clip (15 seconds long) where ground truth tracks in world
19 coordinates were created for each road user, which took around 30-40 minutes of human labor
20 to create. Because the tracks are in world coordinates, it is believed to be possible to re-use the
21 optimized parameters for a different viewpoint, perhaps with minor changes.

22 *Traffic Analysis*

23 The goal was to find times when at least two tracks are visible at the same time while the two
24 tracks intersects at some point, e.g. car move to turn and cross the vulnerable road user track. To
25 implement this as a traffic analysis program, mask images were drawn which mark the interesting
26 regions, and the tracks were tested to see if they at some points move through the marked regions.
27 The mask images can be seen in Figure 9.

28 **Results**

29 The results are seen in Figure 10, where the proposed system is compared to RUBA (34). RUBA's
30 raw output was compared directly, and after seeing that the number of false positives were very
31 high (leading to a low precision), time was spent to remove 967 of RUBA's found situations by
32 manually examination ("RUBA+human" in the figure). Most of all the removed events were indeed
33 false positives, as the recall drops very little in this process. Even so, the number of false positives
34 remain high for left-turning cars. The manual time spent with RUBA was around three hours,
35 where around 90 minutes were spent manually removing false positives. Our system, on the other
36 hand, required only around two hours of manual work constructing the detection annotations, and
37 around 30-40 minutes spent on tracking ground truth. Also note that the human time can decrease
38 as the software becomes more used, allowing training images from similar viewing angles to be re-
39 used, and tracking parameters might be possible to transfer with little to no changes, because they
40 are expressed in world coordinates. Furthermore, for a human to make annotations, little training
41 is required, while designing hitboxes and thresholds for RUBA requires experience and familiarity
42 with the software.

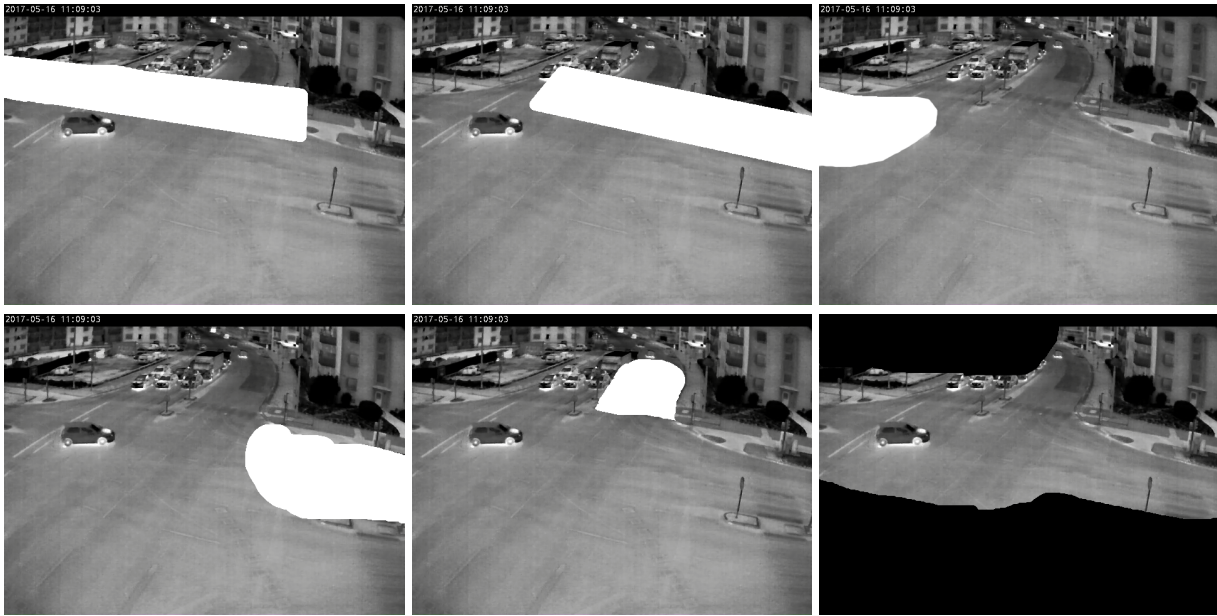


FIGURE 9: Checking masks used for the experiment. Top left: VRUs moving to the right. Top center: VRUs moving to the left. Top right: first required position of left-turning cars. Bottom left: first required position for right-turning cars. Bottom center: the last required position of both left-turning and right-turning cars. Bottom right: mask used during object detection annotations, in order to save annotation time. The same mask is used when running the object detector.

1 It should be noted that the problem was significantly more difficult for left-turning cars
 2 than for right-turning cars. The exact cause for this is not yet known. Only 10 situations with left-
 3 turning cars were marked as interesting by the human annotators, compared to 331 for right-turning
 4 cars during this one day of video.

5 We stress that this comparison between STRUDL and RUBA does not include the main
 6 difference between the two; while RUBA provides only "take-it-or-leave-it" times of interest,
 7 STRUDL provides full tracks in world coordinates that can be further analyzed, by e.g. computing
 8 SMOs, sorting by severity or further filtered.

9 Some tracking example results can be seen in Figure 11. The tracking generally works
 10 well, but there is also some room for improvement in its robustness for some tracks.

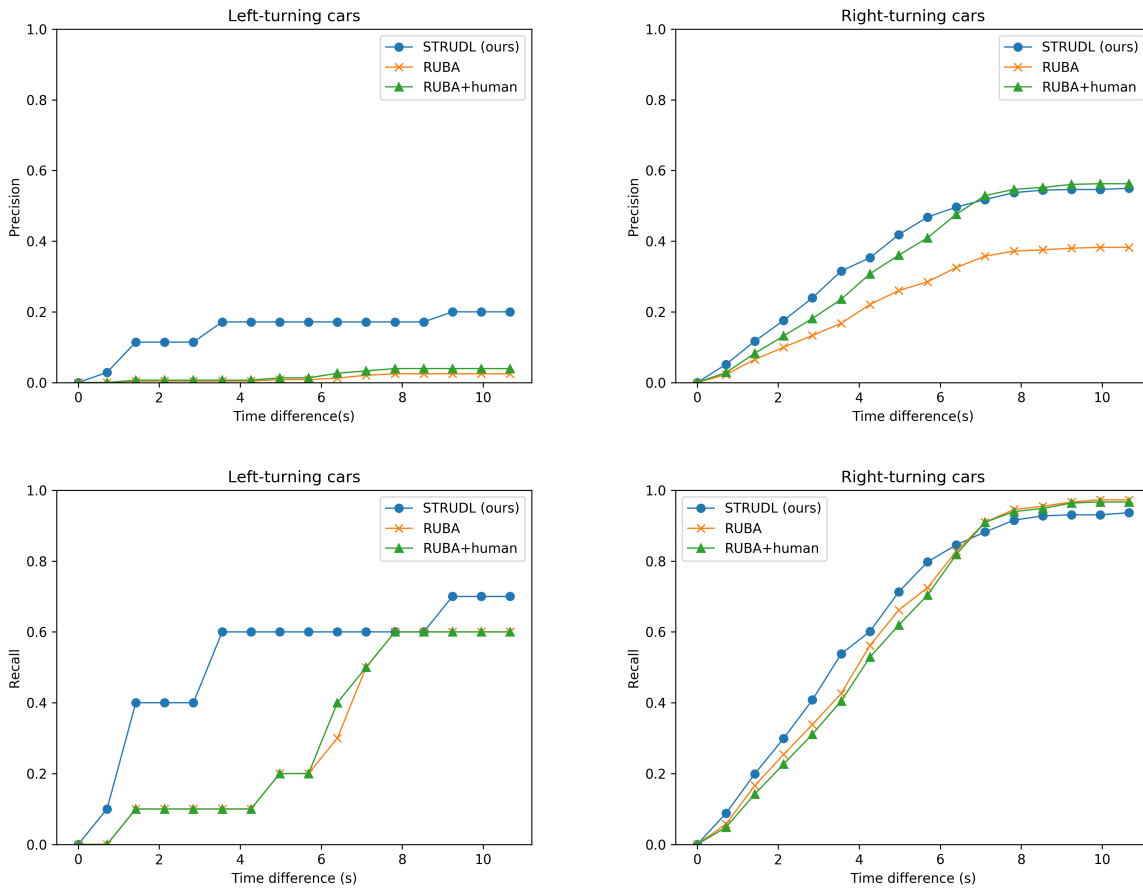


FIGURE 10: Precision and recall for the experiment, against the time difference for which a detected time can differ from the ground truth time and still be considered correct. RUBA+human reaches STRUDL’s precision for right-turning cars, while STRUDL is still better for left-turning cars. For recall, they perform similarly for right-turning cars, and are able to find more than 95% of the ground truth times within ± 10 s, while for left-turning cars, STRUDL’s recall is clearly better for short time differences, while being only slightly better for longer time differences.

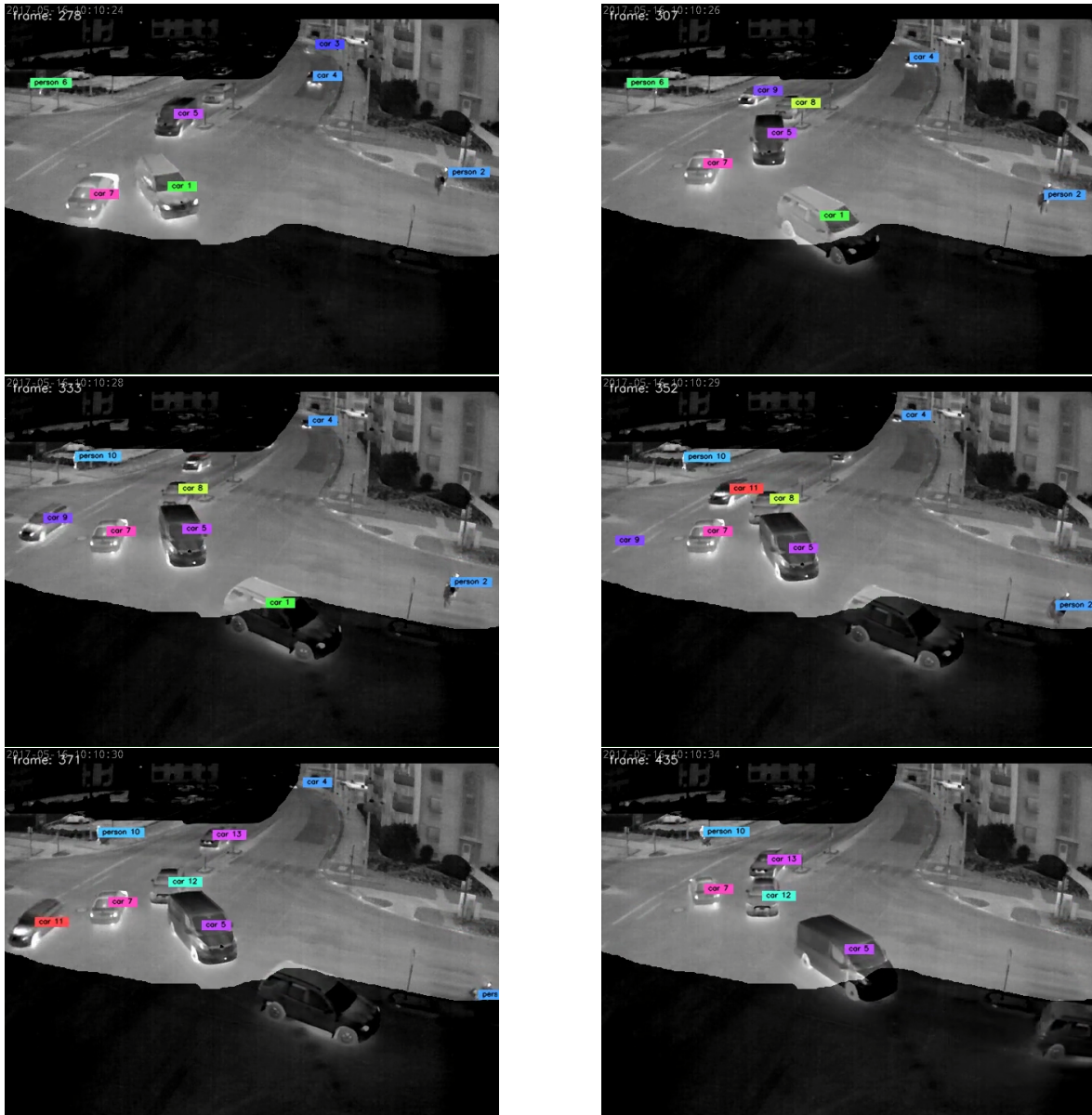


FIGURE 11: Example of tracking results from our experiments. An example of bad tracking is the person walking with a stroller, who is broken up into two tracks. "Car 9" is lost and it takes a few frames for the tracking algorithm to remove this track. For the most part however, tracking works as expected. The dark areas are the masked "do-not-care" zones. Best viewed in color.

1 DISCUSSION

2 The experimental results show that the proposed framework works, and the STRUDL implemen-
 3 tation is better than traditional approaches for tasks of this kind. It is flexible, meaning that if one
 4 is dissatisfied with the results for a given problem, the path forward is often clear. If the object
 5 detector makes too many mistakes, more training data can be provided. If the tracking fails too
 6 often, the parameters can be tuned, manually or via data-driven optimization. If there are too many
 7 false positives, the analysis criteria can be modified with relatively little effort. Visualizations of

1 the different steps of the computer vision pipeline make it easy to pinpoint where issues arise.

2 More importantly, where traditional computer vision system have a limited range of pos-
3 sible operations, the richness of full trajectories allow for much more freedom. It is possible to
4 compute SMOs or other measures of interest, to filter or sort the detected situations by sever-
5 ity. The proposed system can therefore be seen as a starting point for arbitrarily complex traffic
6 analysis, whereas traditional methods are essentially of a take-it-or-leave-it nature, impossible or
7 difficult to further analyze, filter, sort and work with.

8 The proposed automatic system needs some human assistance, mainly in annotating image
9 data to train the object detector. When looking at new video data, the amount of new annotations
10 necessary will depend heavily on previously available data. Manually annotating some images
11 seem like a good trade-off, as opposed to traditional methods requiring time-consuming parameter
12 tuning, as it is relatively simple and fast, and if multiple somewhat similar views are studied,
13 annotations from one view can be re-used, reducing the annotation time per intersection.

14 One limitation of the proposed framework is the tracking algorithm, which is quite simple
15 in nature. It is known to sometimes make mistakes when tracks get too close to each other, or
16 if the detector fails to locate an object for many frames. These flaws could possibly be fixed or
17 reduced by letting a neural network perform the tracking, but that would require a large amount
18 of annotated ground-truth tracks for training which take time to produce. Our implementation
19 requires little to no annotated ground-truth tracks, since tracking parameters should be mostly
20 transferable between views. Still, it would be of interest to test and compare different tracking
21 algorithms for this setting. The modular implementation of STRUDL makes it relatively simple
22 to replace the current tracking algorithm, should so be needed. Another limitation is the lack of
23 uncertainty measures in the STRUDL software. There is no universally accepted standard for how
24 to measure the certainty of detections and tracks, but some combination of detection confidence
25 and the similarities between every track and typical trajectories could probably be used for this
26 purpose. This is one promising direction for future work.

27 The implementation of STRUDL is designed with flexibility in mind and it is our intention
28 to continually improve the software. For example, it would be useful to have built-in support for
29 computing SMOs, or make improvements to its computer vision algorithms, tracking in particular.
30 We also hope that other implementations of the proposed framework will arise, to suit the specific
31 needs of different traffic analysis problems.

32 CONCLUSION

33 We present the, to the best of our knowledge, first cross-disciplinary framework for automated
34 traffic surveillance analysis to take advantage recent improvements in data-driven deep-learning.
35 Through experiments with our open-source implementation, STRUDL, we show better results than
36 traditional systems, while opening new possibilities by providing full trajectories in world coord-
37 inates, allowing arbitrarily complex traffic analysis. Promising future works includes computing
38 certainty measures and SMOs automatically and improving the stability of tracking.

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1 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION STATEMENT

2 The authors confirm contribution to the paper as follows: study conception and design: Morten
3 B. Jensen, Martin Ahrnbom, Maarten Kruithof; the framework design: Morten B. Jensen, Martin
4 Ahrnbom, Maarten Kruithof; the STRUDL experiment: Martin Ahrnbom; analysis and interpreta-
5 tion of results: Martin Ahrnbom, Carl Johnsson; draft manuscript preparation: Morten B. Jensen,
6 Martin Ahrnbom, Aliaksei Laureshyn. All authors reviewed the results and approved the final
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