Non-parametric Classification of Pixels Under Varying Outdoor Illumination

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Abstract

Using color for visual recognition outdoors has proven to be a difficult problem, chiefly due to varying illumination. Attempts to classify pixels or image patches in outdoor scenes based on their RGB values often fail, partly because of the inadequacy of the feature set, but partly because of color shifts due to changes in illumination are not well modeled as random noise. Approaches which attempt to recover the "true color" of objects by calculating the color of the incident light (i.e. color-constancy approaches) appear to work in constrained environments, but are not yet applicable to outdoor scenes.

We present a technique that uses training images of an object under daylight to learn the shift in color of an object. Our method uses multivariate decision trees for piecewise linear approximation of the region corresponding to the object's appearance in color space. We then classify pixels in outdoor scenes depending on whether they fall within this region, and group clusters of target pixels into regions of interest (ROIs) for a model-based RSTA system. The techniques presented are demonstrated on a challenging task: detecting camouflaged vehicles in outdoor scenes.

1. Introduction

Classifying objects based on their color (and in some cases, texture) is one of the oldest problems in computer vision and pattern recognition (see, for example, [Duda and Hart 1973]). In indoor settings, where lighting and other imaging conditions can be controlled, maximum-likelihood classifiers recognize objects by modeling variations in color as Gaussian noise in feature space, and assigning every pixel (or image patch) the label with the highest probability. Although these systems have been around for decades, recently Swain has rejuvenated interest in indoor color-based object classification by showing impressive (and real-time) results using color histogram matching [Swain 1990].

Unfortunately, using color in outdoor imagery has proven more difficult, enough so that almost all existing military classification systems rely on non-visual sensors (e.g. FLIR or LADAR). The main problem with (visible) color has been the unpredictability of an object's apparent color in daylight; the color shift between sunny and cloudy days (or between morning and afternoon) is simply not well modeled as Gaussian noise in RGB. Researchers working on *color constancy* attempt to resolve this problem by reconstructing from the image the color of the incident light, and then adjusting the observed reflectances accordingly (e.g. [Forsyth 1988]). Unfortunately, their techniques can only be applied in highly-constrained contexts thus far..

Using the (admittedly crude) standard models of the color reflectance and earlier quantitative studies of natural lighting, we argue that the observed reflectances of an object in outdoor scenes should trace out a smooth (sometimes piecewise-linear) surface in RGB, or a thin, curved volume when small amounts of noise are added. The best approach to classifying objects in outdoor images is therefore to learn this daylight reflectance volume for each object, and classify pixels according to whether they fall inside or outside of this volume. We use multivariate decision trees to learn a volumetric approximation in RGB to the reflectance volume of an object and to classify pixels. The technique is applied to recognizing camouflaged vehicles in the Ft. Carson image set [Beveridge, et al. 1994].

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2. The Standard Model of Color Variation

The most significant deterrent to the use of color in outdoor settings has been the natural chromatic variation of daylight, which results in a significant shift in an object's apparent color. Our approach to this problem is to use multivariate decision trees (MDTs) [Brodley and Utgoff] (a type of recursive, non-parametric classifier) to learn the volume in color space that corresponds to the possible (observed) colors of an object under natural light. Before proceeding, however, we will first review the standard color models and argue that this approach is reasonable given the underlying physics.

The observed irradiance of an object in a color image depends on 1) the color, intensity and position of the incident light; 2) the reflectance properties of the object; and 3) the camera parameters. Fortunately, standard models exist for all three phases of this process. (It should be noted that we are not proposing new physics-based models, nor even using the most sophisticated models available. Our intent here is simply to give a qualitative understanding of the underlying physics as it relates to MDTs.) In outdoor images, the incident light is daylight. Extensive studies done in the 60's determined that the color of daylight varies along a characteristic curve, called the CIE daylight curve, defined by the following equation [Judd, et al. 1964]:

$$y = 2.87\,x - 3.0\,x^2 - 0.275$$

Figure 1 shows the daylight curve in a chromaticity diagram. The equation shows changes in the color of daylight to be changes of a single variable, called the *temperature* of the daylight, which is independent of intensity. The incident light in outdoor images therefore lies on a surface in RGB, formed by sweeping out the CIE curve along the intensity axis.

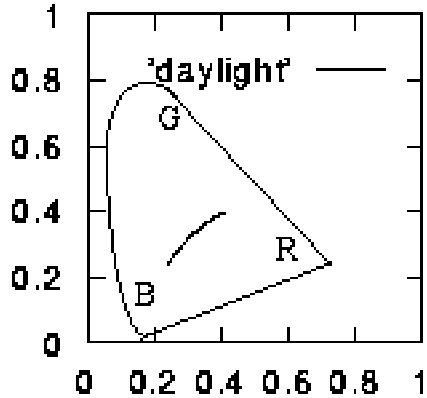

Figure 1: The CIE daylight curve.

Researchers who model the reflectance properties of objects generally assume a lambertian color model, in which the surface reflectance of an object is strictly a function of the wavelength λ of the incident light, given as:

$$s(\lambda) = e(\lambda)ø(\lambda)$$

where $e(\lambda)$ is the intensity of the incident light at wavelength λ, and $ø(\lambda)$ is the object's albedo function giving the percent of light reflected at each wavelength. It should be noted that this model is highly restrictive and unrealistic for most circumstances. For example, it does not account for extended light sources, inter-reflectance effects, shadowing or specularities. Nonetheless, it is the best available working model of color reflectance.

This basic reflectance model can be made simpler or more sophisticated, depending on the purpose for which it is used. Forsyth, for example, models the sensitivity of the receptors to different wavelengths of light, and adds another term $s^*(\lambda)$ which specifies a residual reflectance (although in practice, he sets this term to zero). The basic properties of the model do not change significantly, however, and for our purposes it will be sufficient to model an object as reflecting a fixed percentage of the incident light in each of the three color bands.

The color of light reflected from a lambertian object located outdoors is therefore a function of the temperature of the daylight and the object's albedo. To predict the intensity response in each color band (i.e. the RGB pixel values) we also have to know the intensity of the daylight, the relative orientation of the light source and object surface, and the camera parameters. Given the radiance of an object $L(\lambda)$, the observed intensities depend on the lens diameter **d** and focal length **f** of the camera, and the image position of the object measured as an angle **a** off the optical axis, as given by the standard irradiance equation [Horn 1987]:

$$E(\lambda) = L(\lambda) \cdot (\pi/4)\ (d/f)^2 \cos 4a$$

The irradiance equation multiplies each wavelength λ of L by a constant function of the camera parameters, so it does not affect the observed color of an object, only its intensity. (This is an approximation: the focal length of a lens is a function of the wavelength λ, creating an effect known as *chromatic aberration*, as discussed in [Boult and Wolberg 1992], for example. As a result, the image irradiance equation does imply a slight color shift as a function of image location, but for our purposes we will assume that chromatic aberration is negligible.) Similarly, the relative orientation of the object surface to the light source will alter an object's intensity but not its color.

For our purposes, we are not interested in the details of these three equations so much as qualitative aspects of their solutions. The CIE daylight curve predicts that the incident light in an outdoor scene will fall somewhere along a smooth, curved surface in RGB space. The lambertian reflectance model predicts that the object's reflectance will be a distorted version of this surface, where the extent and direction of the distortion depend on the object's albedo. Finally, the observed irradiance is the reflected light surface scaled by the irradiance equation, assuming that the camera parameters are fixed. If we add a small amount of Gaussian noise, we find that the observed reflectances should lie in a thin, smooth, curved volume in color space.

3. Selecting a Classifier

If we completely believed the standard color model outlined above, then we would know all the form of the observation function (a function of temperature, albedo, etc.), and training a maximum-likelihood classifier would be a parameter estimation task. Unfortunately, we know that these models are not that accurate. Inter-reflectance effects, specularities and other unmodeled phenomena will introduce further distortions into this volume. When digital CCD cameras are used, digitizer parameters, pixel saturation effects, and non-linearities in the NTSC signal standard will warp the volume of possible irradiances still further. It therefore seems premature to approach the outdoor classification problem as an explicit parameter estimation problem for a known equation. Nonetheless, under the course model proposed earlier it seems reasonable to assume that the observed irradiances from a single object under natural lighting will lie in a smooth, thin, irregularly curved volume.

This assumption is by no means trivial. Work done by several researchers (and summarized in [Novak and Shafer 1993]) suggests that dielectric materials with specular reflections produce "dog-legged" distributions in color histograms (with no variation in lighting). Where the lambertian model predicts a straight line distribution in color space, dielectrics produce piecewise-linear curves with two segments, one corresponding to diffuse reflection, the other to specular. The curves are not discontinuous, however. If we assume the same effect holds outdoors, the observed reflectance volume should have a point at which it changes direction, but it could still be qualitatively described as a thin, irregularly shaped volume.

Our approach is to assume that we do not know the exact form of the equation governing the observed irradiance of colored objects in outdoor scenes, but that we have a rough qualitative description of its shape. To recognize objects in outdoor scenes, we therefore need to select a classification scheme that performs well on smooth, thin, irregularly curved volume in feature space. By definition, parametric classifiers are out, since the underlying equation is unknown. Instance-based classifiers were not considered, because intuitively they should perform poorly on thin, curved surfaces. Neural networks (i.e. feed-forward backpropagation nets) were considered and would presumably perform well, but require large numbers of samples for training. Instead, we chose multivariate decision trees (MDTs) [Brodley and Utgoff], which create piecewise-linear approximations to surfaces in feature space by recursively dividing feature space with hyperplanes. For classes characterized by smooth, continuous volumes in feature space, MDTs generally produce good classification results from fewer training samples than are required by neural networks.

4. Multivariate Decision Trees (A Quick Overview)

We use multivariate decision trees, an approach that recursively subdivides feature space with hyperplanes. Multivariate decision trees are well known in the machine learning community, but have been used less often in computer vision (although, see [Draper, et al. 1994]).

The basic goal of a multivariate decision tree is to divide feature space into regions such that all the training samples in a region have the same label. In our case, there are only two labels (camouflage and other), so the methodology is to test if all the instances in the current region of feature space have the same label. If so, label the region; if not, find the hyperplane(s) that maximally separates instances of the two labels, divide feature space into two regions using this hyperplane, and recurse on each region.

The hyperplanes used to divide feature space are represented as linear threshold units (LTUs) [Nilsson 1965, Duda and Hart 1973]. Several methods exist for learning the weights in a linear threshold unit. Brodley and Utgoff [Brodley and Utgoff] discuss four such methods: the Recursive Least Squares (RLS) algorithm [Young 1984], the Pocket algorithm [Gallant 1986], Thermal Training [Frean 1990], and CART's coefficient learning method [Breiman, et al. 1984]. Because we are concerned only with two-class classification in this domain, the RLS training method is used in this paper (see [Young 1984] for a description of training LTUs for two-class classification, and [Draper, et al. 1994] for a description of multi-class classification using Frean's thermal training rule [Frean 1990])

Like other non-parametric learning techniques, decision trees are susceptible to overtraining. In order to correct for overfitting, a fully grown tree can pruned by determining the classification error for each non-leaf subtree, and then comparing it to the classification error resulting from replacing the subtree with a leaf-node bearing the class label of the majority of the training instances in the set. If the leaf-node results in better performance, the subtree is replaced by it [Breiman, et al. 1984; Quinlan 1986; Brodley and Utgoff].

5. Finding Camouflaged Vehicles

The color model described in sections 2 and 3 suggests that multivariate decision trees should be a good technique for classifying objects in outdoor images. To test this hypothesis, we tested MDTs ability to identify military vehicles in the Ft. Carson data set [Beveridge, et al. 1994]. This is obviously a difficult task: not only are these outdoor images with natural lighting, but the vehicles have been intentionally camouflaged! In addition, we are classifying pixels from only their RGB values.

The motivation for attempting such a challenging task is the need for a rapid focus of attention (FOA) mechanism for RSTA. Any classification scheme that labels pixels based on only their RGB values can be loaded into a 24-to-1 bit lookup table, and applied in real time. Obviously, the feature set is so impoverished that some errors are inevitable, but if many pixels can be accurately classified, then contiguous groupings of target pixels can be used as regions of interest (ROIs) for the RSTA identification and matching algorithms to process. The vital question is whether pixels can be classified accurately enough to produce “useful” ROIs.

Tests were conducted on a set of 44 images from the Fort Carson data set. (This is essentially all the RGB images from the first CD except for calibration images and a few images that are excessively dark; [Beveridge, et al. 1994] describes the complete data set and how it can be obtained.) The objects being sought were camouflaged military vehicles in a natural setting. There are four different army vehicles in these images: two armored personal carriers, a pickup truck, and an M60 tank; all four bear slightly different colors and patterns of camouflage.

Quantitative evaluation of the performance of the classifier was done at two levels: pixel and ROI. At the pixel level, classification accuracy is a poor evaluation criterion; since 99.6% of the pixels are background, a classifier that labeled nothing as target would be highly accurate. Instead, we evaluate our system separately in terms of its accuracy on target pixels and its accuracy on background pixels.

The pixel-wise performance of the MDT classifier on the Ft. Carson images is given in Table 1. On the average, 53.40% of the target pixels and 97.50% of the background pixels were correctly classified. These results were obtained using cross-validation, where the decision tree was trained on half the images and tested on the other half. In order to train the decision trees, approximately 35,000 sample pixel values were extracted from the training images. Figure 2 shows the images with the best, average and worst results (in terms of qualitative accuracy), respectively, along with their corresponding classified binary images.

Table 1. Ability of Multivariate Decision Trees to separate target pixels (of camouflaged vehicles) from background pixels for the Ft. Carson images Beveridge, et al. 1994].

	% of Target Pixels Correctly Labeled	% of Background Pixels Correctly Labeled
Average	53.40	97.50
Best	84.66	99.67
Worst	31.87	94.71
SD	**10.39**	**1.62**

Table 1 provides a measure of the multivariate decision tree as a classifier for this domain, testing the argument about MDT's ability to compensate for natural chromatic variation made in Sections 2 & 3. Another way to test the validity of this argument is to look at the distributions of target and background pixels in the Ft. Carson data, and the region of color-space associated with target pixels learned by MDT. Figures 3 and 4 show the target and background pixels in a chromaticity diagram; Figure 5 shows the region of space learned by the MDT, also projected onto a chromaticity diagram. Note that large portions of the space are occupied by neither target not background pixels, so the label associated with these parts of color space is arbitrary. In this example, MDT assigns much of this space the class "target".

A region-level evaluation, on the other hand, certifies how well MDTs perform at generating regions of interest for a RSTA system. ROIs were generated from the pixel-label data by finding connected groups of target pixels that were at least ten pixels high and wide, and that had a maximum aspect ratio (height to width or width to height) of 10:1. ROIs whose bounding rectangles overlapped were then merged. For ROIs, there are two relevant evaluation criteria: the probability that a ROI will be generated for any target, and the probability given an ROI that it contains a target. For the Ft. Carson data, there were 112 occurrences of targets in the 44 test images. The MDT classifier produced 153 ROIs, of which 109 contained targets; 3 targets were not recognized, and there were 44 false alarms. Table 2 shows the performance of MDT at generating ROIs.

Table 2. Ability of MDT to generate regions of interest around target vehicles in the Ft. Carson data.

	Targets	Targets Found	False alarms
Total	112	109	44
Best	4	4	0
Worst	4	3	3

6. Conclusion

The experiments shown here are preliminary but very promising. MDTs appear to work well on a difficult set of outdoor scenes, as predicted by the physics-based argument outlined in Sections 2 and 3. The accuracy in terms of generating regions of interest is high enough to suggest that MDTs are an immediately useful technology for color-based object recognition.

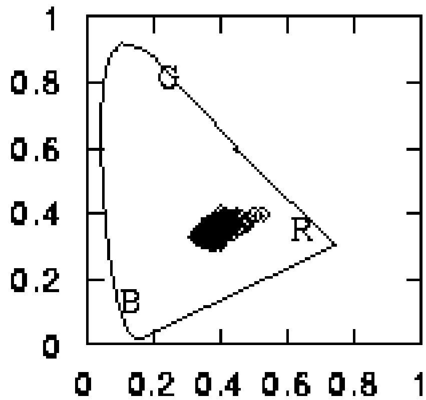

Figure 3: Target pixel distribution

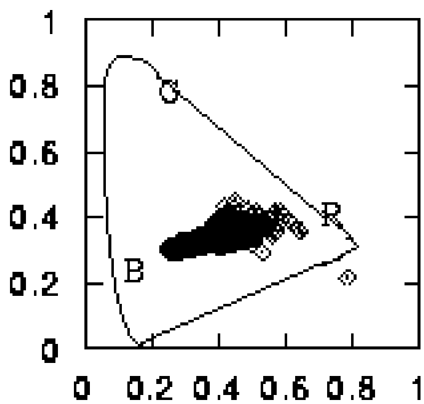

Figure 4: Background pixel distribution.

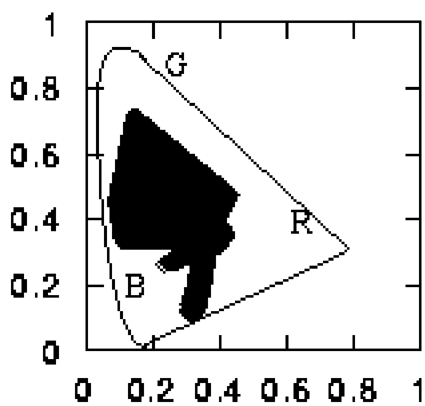

Figure 5: The region of color space (projected onto a chromaticity diagram) labeled "target" by the MDT.

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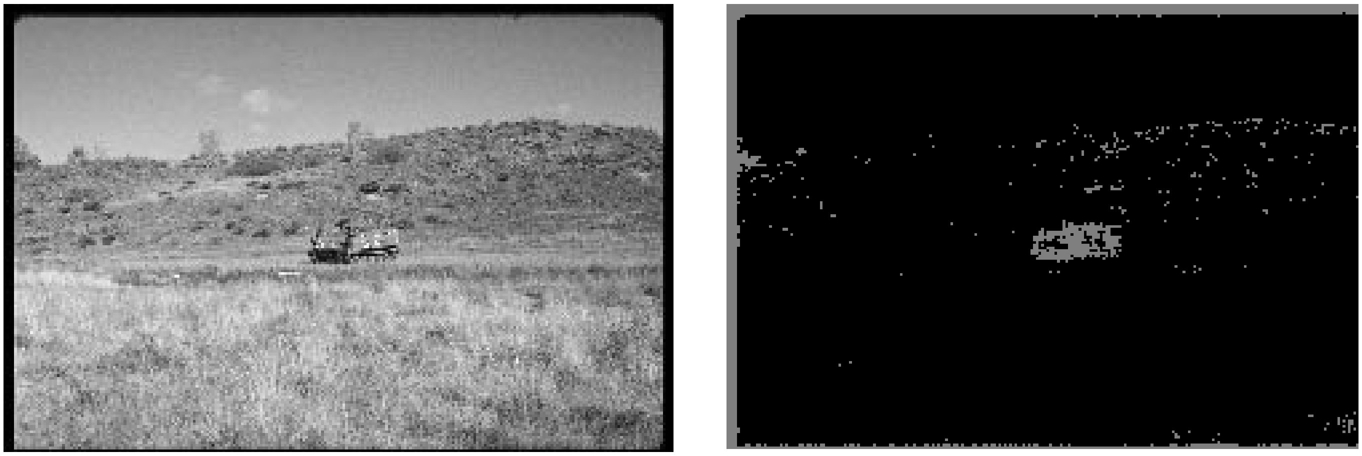
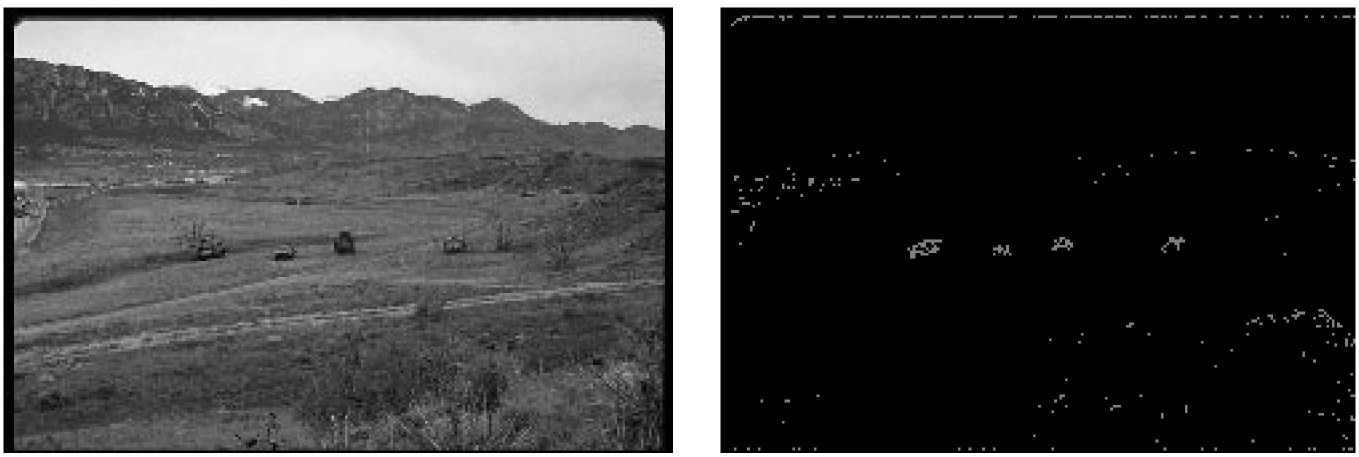
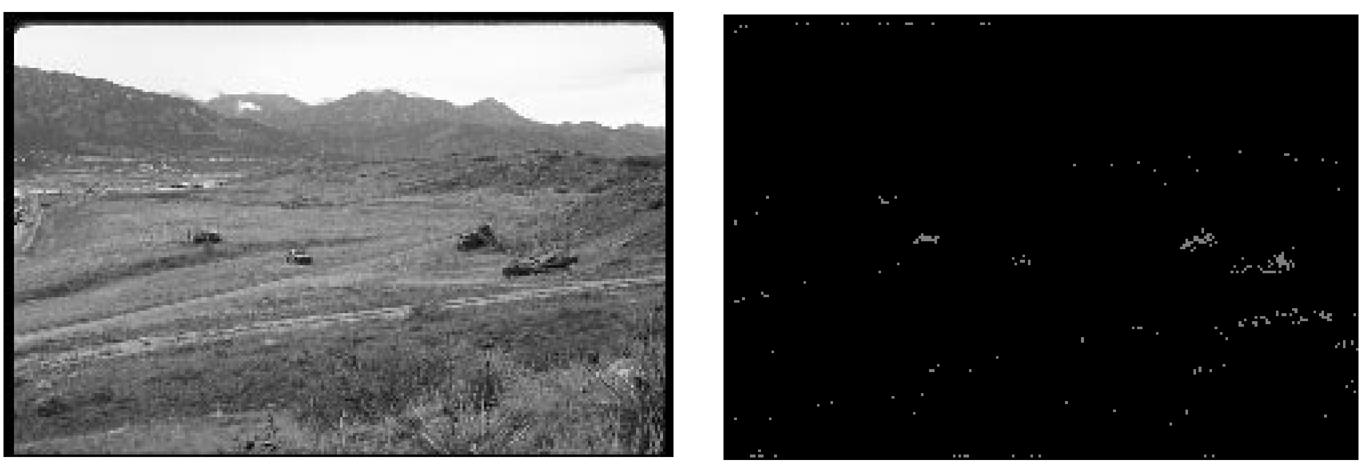


(a) Image 47: best performance



(b) Image 04: average performance



(c) Image 28: worst performance

Figure 2: Source and classification images