Monocular Depth Matching With Hybrid Sampling and Depth Label Propagation

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ABSTRACT

This paper proposes a monocular depth label propagation model, which describes monocular images into depth label distribution for the target classification matching: 1) depth label propagation by hybrid sampling and salient region sifting, improve the discrimination of detection feature categories; 2) depth label mapping and spectrum clustering to classify target, define the depth of the sorting rules. The experimental results of motion recognition and 3D point cloud processing show that this method can approximately reach the performance of all previous monocular depth estimation methods. The neural network model black box training learning module is not used, which improves the interpretability of the proposed model.

KEYWORDS

Depth Label Matching, Hybrid Sampling, Interpretability Model, Monocular Depth Estimation

1. INTRODUCTION

The application of depth estimation based on monocular images has the advantages of simplified structure and low operation cost. It is one of the hot spots in academia and industry.

In the existing monocular depth estimation method, based on the relative depth methods (Ming et al., 2016)(Saxena et al., 2009)(Berman et al., 2014)(Melfi et al., 2013)(Zhang et al., 2014), the monocular image data is used to directly predict the depth value corresponding to each pixel in the image, resulting in the existing method usually requiring a large amount of depth annotation data. It usually requires higher acquisition costs. Deep learning-based methods (Xu et al., 2017)(Laina et al., 2016)(Tateno et al., 2017)(Tung et al., 2017)(Zhou et al., 2021) often use network architecture tuning to counteract complex deployment costs and huge computing costs. Based on the method of semantic segmentation information (Li et al., 2018)(Wang et al., 2018)(Liu et al., 2015)(Jiang et al., 2019), implicit geometric constraints are introduced in the training process. Through geometric transformation, view synthesis is used as a supervision signal to reduce the dependence on data. However, such methods still lack explicit geometric association constraints.

ORBSLAM descriptor using feature detection according to the matching feature point motion track difference (Tseng et al., 2020). Feature point extraction and optical flow tracking are not easy to maintain the global map, has a great impact on the illumination, and cannot be used in high-precision maps.
Thus researcher’s motivation is to reduce the dependence on depth annotation data and the geometric structure constraints. The monocular depth estimation researchers proposed has the advantages of convenient model structure deployment and low operation cost. It has rich potential application scenarios in many fields, such as motion recognition, 3D reconstruction, real-time map positioning and navigation for unmanned vehicles, etc.

2. RELATED WORK

Depth estimation and 3D reconstruction of a single image are still very challenging now. Difficulty in identification of the motion of occluded targets can be decomposed into three sub-problems: occlusion target division and sparse depth estimation, overall image depth estimation and motion recognition. The following is the method proposed in this paper to solve the three sub propositions.

1) Hybrid sampling of salient region

In section 3.1 sparse processing methods (Cai et al., 2011)(Ye et al., 2018)(Jiao et al., 2017)(Liu et al., 2013)(Wang et al., 2015)(Maaten et al., 2008) is applied to detect the salient region, using hybrid sampling for the image information in the scene space structure, calculating the ambiguity of the salient region.

2) Depth label mapping

In section 3.2 the depth of salient regions by section 3.1 is sorted with the DCT high-frequency coefficient distribution (Li et al., 2021)(Hou et al., 2016)(Jiao et al., 2017), and constraint relationship between data feature map manifold embedding and label map manifold embedding of single image is established. And temporal processing is performed on the motion features of the video sequence to obtain the features of depth accumulation map.

The processing flow of depth prediction of monocular image sequence is shown in figure 1. It is divided into two sub-methods, first sampling of salient region by hybrid sampling, then calculation of depth marks under spectral constraints. The \( f(x, y) \) is the source image (Ye et al., 2018), \( f^{(1)}(x, y) \) is the first sifting image by hybrid sampling.

![Figure 1. Flowchart of Depth Estimation of monocular image sequence](image-url)
3. DEPTH MAP MATCHING ON HYBRID SAMPLING

3.1. Depth Label Prediction of Single Image

Depth feature map learning is a relative depth estimation method for images taken by traditional cameras. Salient region of the image is divided according to the Level Set Method (Wang et al., 2016), and the feature is based on the texture geometric structure. Let $F_{j}(x, y)$ be the $j$ image in the iBEMD subspace image pyramid (Ye et al., 2018), $j = \{1, \ldots, L \ast N\}$, which can be divided into $k$ sets of multiple maximally stable regions $R$ with different scales. The formula is as follows:

$$F_{j}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sigma_{i} R(x, \sigma_{i})$$

(1)

Then, the image is divided into multiple sets of salient regions with different scales.

Take the image DCT, count the number of coefficients with non-zero altitude value of high-frequency feature coefficients to characterize the significance of the image area, that is, the ordering information of the depth of this region (Li et al., 2021). The label constraint value of the normalized depth of the pixel $x_{i}$ in the image is defined as,

$$Id_{i} = \max \left\{ \left( \frac{M_{h_{k}}}{M_{b_{k}}} \right)^{m} \right\}_{k = 1, 2, \ldots, N}$$

(2)

The depth marks obtained by applying DCT spectral features are discrete and cannot be directly used for the characterization of moving targets.

Let the pixel set of the image be $X$, and the image depth data be $d$, which represents the true depth value of each sample point, and the depth value has $N$ levels, and $S$ represents the number of depth patches of the image. The feature vector describes the sample point category labels. Its value is obtained according to the formula (2) in Section 3.1, and is the number of category labels. $d_{i}$ is the depth prediction value, which is obtained by multiplying the sample point category label and the depth label index. Let $Z$ be the model normalization parameter, the MRF model of the depth map is as follows,

$$P(d_{i} \mid x) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp \left[ -h \left( \frac{d_{i} - \hat{d}_{i}}{d_{i}} \right) - \sum_{j \in N(i)} h \left( \frac{\hat{d}_{i} - \hat{d}_{j}}{\max(\hat{d}_{i}, \hat{d}_{j})} \right) \right]$$

$$\hat{d}_{i} = \varphi(x_{i}) \cdot Id_i, h(\tau) = \tau^{2}$$

$$Z = \sum_{i=1}^{S} \exp \left[ -h \left( \frac{d_{i} - \hat{d}_{i}}{d_{i}} \right) - \sum_{j \in N(i)} h \left( \frac{\hat{d}_{i} - \hat{d}_{j}}{\max(\hat{d}_{i}, \hat{d}_{j})} \right) \right]$$

(3)
After generating the depth prediction value, the probability density function $P$ of MRF model of (3) is maximized, and the maximum posterior estimated probability of the model is obtained, which is the continuous depth estimation value of the regions.

### 3.2. Depth Accumulation Map with Dual-Spectrum Embedding

Dual-spectrum embedding method (Jiao et al., 2017) is used to establish the constraint relationship between the data feature manifold and the label manifold. Data feature map is established by defining the graph $G^s = (V^s, E^s, W^s)$, in which $V^s$ is the vertex set of data feature map, representing the sample topology structure. $E^s$ is the edge set representing the relationship between the data features $x_i$ and $x_j$, each edge is $e_{ij}$, each element of the researchersight matrix $W_{ij}$ stands for the researchersight of the edge, representing the similarity of the sample data.

A similar method as data feature map $G^s$ is used to build a category label map of features $G^T = (V^T, E^T, W^T)$. The researchersight matrix of the feature map is defined as,

$$[W^s]_{ij} = \begin{cases} 
1, & x_j \in N(x_i) \\
0, & \text{others} \\
\end{cases}, \quad i, j = 1, \ldots, N \quad (4)$$

In which, $N(x_i)$ is the KNN (k-nearest neighbor) set of data point $x_i$. The Laplacian matrix of the feature map is as follows:

$$[D^V]_{ij} = \sum_j [W^V]_{ij} \quad (5)$$

Let $V = \left[ v_1^T, \ldots, v_N^T \right]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times R}$ be the low-dimensional data representation to be sought, then the local manifold constraint of the data representation is as follows,

$$S_V\left( N(x_i) \right) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{N} v_i^T v_j^T W^V = \sum_{i=1}^{N} v_i^T v_i^T D^V - \sum_{i,j=1}^{N} v_i^T v_j^T W_{ij}^V$$

$$= \text{Tr} \left( V^T D^T V \right) - \text{Tr} \left( V^T W^V V \right) = \text{Tr} \left( V^T L_v V \right) \quad (6)$$

$S$ function reflects the smoothness of the clustering partition of the local manifold with k-nearest neighbor. That is, the larger the feature value, the greater the point researchersight will be, the more likely it is to be assigned to a common category label.

The feature label map $G^T = (V^T, E^T, W^T)$ is also established by using 0-1 researchersight method. The vertex set of label map is the feature set $\{ X_1^T, \ldots, X_M^T \}$, and the researchersight matrix of the feature label map is defined as,

$$[W^U]_{ij} = \begin{cases} 
1, & X_j^T \in N(x_i^T) \\
0, & \text{others} \\
\end{cases}, \quad i, j = 1, \ldots, M$$
Its Laplacian matrix is $L_{ij} = D^U - W^U$. Let $U = [u_1^T, \ldots, u_M^T] \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times R}$ be the base dictionary to be decomposed[17] and then the local manifold constraint of the base dictionary is as follows,

$$
S_U\left(N\left(x_i\right)\right) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{M} u_i^2 W^U \sum_{i=1}^{N} u_i u_j^T \sum_{i,j=1}^{N} u_i u_j W^V
= \text{Tr}\left(U^T D^U U\right) = \text{Tr}\left(U^T W^V U\right) = \text{Tr}\left(U^T L_{ij} U\right)
$$

(8)

Based on the above feature maps and label maps, this paper proposes dual regularized spectral clustering (DRPC)[Jiao et al.,2017]. The objective function is as follows,

$$
J_{DRPC} = X - U D V^T F + \lambda Tr\left(V^T L_{ij} V\right) + \mu Tr\left(U^T L_{ij} U\right),
$$

s.t. $U \geq 0, V \geq 0$

(9)

The sample category label space $T$ and the feature space $Y$ share a similar local topology, that is, label space $T$ and data space $Y$ share a similar manifold topology, and the label propagation relationship is established, that is,

$$
Q\left(T\right) = F\left(T\right) + L\left(T\right) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{N} W_{ij} \frac{T_i}{\sqrt{D_{ii}}} = \frac{T_j}{\sqrt{D_{jj}}} + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^{N} T_i - Y_i^2
$$

$$
T = \left(t_{i}, i = 1,2,\ldots,N\right)
$$

(10)

$Y_i$ represents the indicator function of the depth value. The second term of the model is data item, which is used to evaluate the depth prediction value of the sample points in the image regions.

$$
T^* = \arg \min_T Q\left(T\right) = \left(1 - \lambda\right)\left(I - \lambda S\right)^{-1} Y
$$

(11)

After generating the depth prediction value, only the (11) objective function needs to be maximized during testing, and the continuous depth function value can be obtained[Jiao et al.,2017].

Based on the depth map of the image obtained, the depth accumulation map feature of the video series is established, with time-sequence motion data $y$ and the time-sequence dimension $m$, then the $k$th motion is described as, the accumulation depth feature $d_{cum}$ and the accumulation mean depth features $d_{med}$ is defined as in the formula (12),

$$
d_{cum}\left(i,j\right) = \sum_{k=1}^{\alpha_i} y_k\left(i,j\right) - y_i\left(i,j\right)
$$

$$
d_{med}\left(i,j\right) = s\left(i,j\right) d_{cum}\left(i,j\right)
$$

(12)

In the formula (12), $k$th image in the video series, reflecting the importance of the current motion and position, $s$ the edge amplitude value, the accumulative mean depth feature $d_{med}$ can reflect researchersak motion features and Get matched depth map.
4. EXPERIMENTS RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The monocular depth estimation researchers proposed has the advantages of convenient model structure deployment and low operation cost. It has rich potential application scenarios in many fields, such as motion recognition, 3D reconstruction, real-time map positioning and navigation for unmanned vehicles, etc.

4.1. Experiment Parameter Settings on Motion Recognition

In section 3.3 t-SNE method (Eyiyurekli et al., 2017) is used to reduce the dimensionality of the depth features, cluster the formed spectrum of propagation label of video sequence.

Set \( y \) as the feature vector of the depth accumulation map with time-sequence motions, and \( M \) as the time-sequence dimension of the sequence. Then, researchers can obtain \( Y = \{ y_1(i, j), y_2(i, j), \ldots, y_M(i, j) \} \), in which, \( l \)th motion vector is described as \( y_i \), the vector dimension is \( K \). The transition probability of the signal at time \( t_i \) to \( t_j \) is proportional to the Gaussian kernel function between their distance \( d \), and further the depth stack map feature is t-SNE embedded. The Gaussian kernel function relationship between the transition probability of the signal at time \( t_i \) to \( t_j \) and their spatial distance,

\[
p_{ij} \propto \exp(-d(t_i, t_j)^2 / 2\sigma^2)
\]

Spatial distance function \( D \) selects the Kullback–Leibler distance to measure the difference in feature vectors. Let \( P_{ij} \) be the feature vector at time \( t_i \), and \( Q_{ij} \) as the feature vector at time \( t_j \), then,

\[
d(P, Q) = D_{KL}(PQ) = \sum_{ij} P_{ij} \log \frac{P_{ij}}{Q_{ij}}
\]

Perform a frequency-domain transformation on the feature vector, and use \( S(t) \) to represent the frequency-domain vector corresponding to the feature vector at time \( t_i \), \( S(t) \) is the frequency-domain vector at time \( t_j \). Then, the distance function is as follows:

\[
D(t_i, t_j) = \sum_{f,k} \hat{S}(k,f;t_i) \log \left( \frac{\hat{S}(k,f;t_i)}{\hat{S}(k,f;t_j)} \right)
\]

In which, \( f \) is a frequency domain transformation function of the motion feature vector \( y \), and a certain wavelet function can be selected, \( S(k,f;t) \) is composed of wavelet amplitude, \( k \) represents the motion primitives, and \( \hat{S}(k,f;t) \) normalized wavelet frequency domain features. The clustering distance \( D(t_i, t_j) \) of the spectral features is used as an evaluation index for motion classification to complete human motion recognition.

Figure 2 shows the processing effect of monocular images on feature accumulation and depth estimation.
The experimental selection was performed in a typical motion recognition and pose recognition library, including KTH video library (Zhou et al., 2017), Weizmann dataset (Weizmann, 2021), UCF Sports Motion Dataset video library (UCF101, 2021), UCF 101 dataset and HDMB dataset (Wishart et al., 2007). All videos are divided into 10 groups each time, and the training data and test data are randomly divided for each group according to the 10-fold cross-check method. The final experimental result is the average of 10 test results.

In the use experiment, the number of EEMD decomposition layers is set as 4, the number of iterations is set as 10, the features are extracted by using the BEMD-MTS model method, the stability region parameter threshold region direction \( d \) is set as 90%, and the flattening ratio \( q \) is set as 50%. Let the sample feature vector be denoted as \( X = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \), \( f \) is the frequency-domain transformation function of the motion feature vector \( x \). The Gabor wavelet function is selected according to Reference [4]. There are 25 wavelet components, \( G(k, f, t) \) are composed of a series of wavelet amplitudes. \( K \) represents the number of motion primitives, taking 50, \( \hat{G}(k, f, t) \) is the normalized wavelet frequency domain feature. The perplexity is generally set to 5-50. The objective function defined by minimized distance formula (15), and thereby the classification result of the motion can be obtained.

In the experiment of the KTH dataset, the default settings are 30 perplexities, 1000 iterations, and 1000 learning rate. The best t-SNE embedded operation effect map shall be selected. Figure 3 is an embedded map of a typical t-SNE method without depth feature constraints, and Figure 4 is an embedded map result of the t-SNE method with depth feature constraints proposed in this paper. It is feasible to use t-SNE embedding method to identify motion features. After adding deep feature constraints, the motion category has still higher reparable.
4.2. Results on Motion Recognition Experiment

The results of comparison with the recognition rate of the existing methods are as shown in Tables 1. Compared with the experimental results in Reference (Liu et al., 2011), the depth accumulation map features extracted in this paper are used to accumulate the depth features of each frame from the reverse order of the time sequence.

For the motion recognition effect of simple background, Table 1 is displayed in the KTH video sequence. This processing strategy makes the distinction between jog and run motion features increase. The average recognition rate in the KTH dataset reaches 98.5%, and the average recognition rate in the Researchersizmann dataset reaches 98.3%.

The method in this paper has achieved considerable improvement in the recognition performance in the UCF Sports dataset and the HMDB dataset. The proposed method has an average recognition rate of 83.2% in the UCF Sport dataset. The HMDB data set is a large motion recognition data set. As shown in Table 1, the recognition rate of all methods is generally low. Unlike the reference (Liu et al., 2011), the method in this paper does not need to track and detect the moving human body in the video. Using multi-source data to establish 3D features has become a research focus and development trend in the field of motion recognition.

![Figure 4. Embedded Diagram of Motion Recognition of t-SNE with Depth Value Constraint](image)

Table 1. Average Recognition Rate in Human Motion Dataset

| Method                | Recognition rate in KTH (%) | Method                | Recognition rate in Researchersizmann (%) | Method                | Recognition rate in UCF Sports (%) | Method                | Recognition rate in HMDB (%) |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|
| HOG/HOF (Liu et al., 2011) | 88                          | Goudelis (Goudelis et al., 2013) | 95.4                                     | Feature combination (Liu et al., 2011) | 71.2                               | Ballas (Ballas et al., 2013) | 51.8                        |
| ISA (Laptev et al., 2008)    | 91.4                        | Gorelick (Gorelick et al., 2005) | 97.5                                     | ISA (Laptev et al., 2008) | 75.8                               | Wang (Wang et al., 2016)     | 53.9                        |
| Overcomplete ICA (Golestaneh et al., 2017) | 93.8                        | Melfi (Melfi et al., 2013) | 99.1                                     | overcomplete ICA (Golestaneh et al., 2017) | 82.8                               | Wang (Wang et al., 2015)     | 57.2                        |
| Proposed Method          | 98.5                        | Proposed Method       | 98.8                                     | Proposed Method       | 83.2                               | Proposed Method             | 55.4                        |
4.3. Evaluate

Use M and N to indicate the height and width of the image, native feature images with the complexity as O(MN).

Complexity of image depth estimation: 1) detect the maximum stable region MSERs, sort the pixels and extract the extreme value regions, with the complexity as O(MN) and O(MNlg (lg (MN))). 2) perform DCT transformation of regional block, with the complexity not exceeding that in the first step. 3) depth sorting, which is obtained by performing comparison calculations less than M times. The algorithm complexity of depth estimation is about 5×O(MN).

Deep label propagation complexity: 1) the complexity of manifold learning is O(n²+(d²n+mn³+d²m+dn³))(Jiao et al.,2017). Let the size of the decomposition matrix be n * d, and the number of iteration times is t. Neighbor depth assignment is obtained by performing less than M times of comparisons.

Complexity of t-SNE recognition: 1) creating a standard deviation $\sigma_i$ for high-dimensional point $I$, limiting the perplexity level of each point, and calculating the similarity matrix. 2) KL distance optimization, and the total calculation amount of t-SNE is the temporal and spatial square of the number of data points. This algorithm is on the same level of complexity as O(n²).

This shows that the model calculation process proposed in this paper can be explained, the calculation cost is low, and there is no memory consumption and calculation consumption for deep network training.

4.4. Experiment Results on Dynamic Point Cloud Processing

In order to verify effectiveness of the depth prediction model in 3D applications (Eigen et al.,2014) (Tschopp et al.,2016)(Tseng et al.,2020)(23)(Mahjourian et al.,2018)[41][42](Yin et al.,2018)[44], researchers verified in the following two comparison groups: (1) using the data set monocular data to compare with the existing unsupervised algorithm; (2) using self-built data to evaluate on obtaining 3D structural information and path planning.

(1) Experiment Using KITTI Image Dataset

The KITTI dataset contains 86,000 frames of images (Tseng et al.,2020), it is the current dataset of computer vision algorithm evaluation in automatic driving scenario. According to Nvidia and the MIT (Tschopp et al.,2016)(Tseng et al.,2019,2020)(Tateno et al.,2017)(Mahjourian et al.,2018), used indicators to measure the difference between ground truth and estimated images as shown in Table 2. All the other algorithm experimental results come from literature published by Tseng, Zhang and Zhu(Tseng et al.,2020).

Compared with the existing depth prediction algorithm (Eigen et al.,2014)(Tseng et al.,2020) (Mahjourian et al.,2018)(Yin et al.,2018), the unsupervised depth prediction algorithm can reduce

|                | RMSE | Rel  | $\delta_1$ | $\delta_2$ | $\delta_3$ |
|----------------|------|------|------------|------------|------------|
| Eigen et al. (Eigen et al.,2014) | 7.216 | 0.228 | 67.9       | 89.7       | 96.7       |
| Mahjourian et al. (Mahjourian et al.,2018) | 6.22  | 0.25  | 76.2       | 91.6       | 96.8       |
| Tseng et al.(Tseng et al.,2020) | 4.211 | 0.124 | 86.2       | 94.3       | 97.4       |
| Yin et al. (Yin et al.,2018) | 5.737 | 0.232 | 84.6       | 93.4       | 97.2       |
| Researchers    | 4.235 | 0.125 | 85.1       | 93.6       | 96.3       |
the root mean square error (RMSE) close to 4.3%, and the depth prediction accuracy is increased as shown. From the experimental result, it can be seen that the unsupervised algorithm greatly improves the prediction accuracy. Compared with the current mainstream supervised algorithm, the hybrid sampling and sparse structure mapping makes the model prediction closer to the true depth label distribution. This verifies that the mapped sparse structure feature is effective to improve the accuracy of the final depth estimation.

(2) Experiment Using Self-Built Data

To further evaluate the depth prediction performance of the model, we designed a second set of comparative experiments on the unsupervised depth prediction model. This research work is also suitable for supporting unmanned vehicle navigation projects (Golestaneh et al., 2017).

Based on the depth prediction algorithm, researchers obtain 3D structural information for path planning. The depth prediction results and path planning diagram are shown in Figure 5. In Figure 5, a) the feature point distribution of the unmanned vehicle navigation visual image; b) the real-time map feature point distribution and the 3D trajectory map constructed by the algorithm.

Experiments show that the unmanned vehicle module based on proposed method provides real-time location information and feature maps of unknown environments. It has satisfactory real-time performance and low error rate in unmanned vehicle navigation system.

Figure 5. Depth prediction results and path planning diagram

5. CONCLUSION

This paper proposes a simple and effective monocular depth estimation model, namely the data depth label distribution problem and the target classification matching problem. In order to better solve these two sub-problems, the geometric structure of the target is explicitly transformed into a label distribution to improve the model’s ability to express the classification of the target. The neural network model black box training learning module is not used, which improves the interpretability of the model. The experimental results show that this method can approximately reach the performance of all previous monocular depth estimation methods. Compared with these mainstream algorithms, they are all complex network structures based on deep learning. Researchers algorithm structure is concise and interpretable. Applying this method to the sampling module and depth mapping module of the deep learning network can promote deep learning 3d applications more robust.
CONFLICT OF INTEREST

Researchers all declare that researchers have no conflict of interest in this paper.

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