Motion Robust High-Speed Light-Weighted Object Detection with Event Camera

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Abstract—The event camera asynchronously produces the event stream with a high temporal resolution, discarding redundant visual information and bringing new possibilities for moving object detection. Nevertheless, the existing object detectors cannot make the most of the spatial-temporal asynchronous nature and high temporal resolution of the event stream. For one thing, existing methods fail to consider objects with different velocities relative to the event camera’s motion, resulting from the global synchronized time window with the whole spatial slice. For another, most of the existing methods rely on heavy models and boost the detection performance with low frame rates, failing to utilize the high temporal resolution characteristic of the event stream. In this work, we propose a motion robust and high-speed detection pipeline which better leverages the event data. First, we design an event stream representation called Temporal Active Focus (TAF), which efficiently utilizes the spatial-temporal asynchronous event stream, constructing event tensors robust to object motions. Then, we propose a module called the Bifurcated Folding Module (BFM), which encodes the rich temporal information in the TAF tensor at the input layer of the detector. Following this, we design a high-speed lightweight detector called Agile Event Detector (AED) plus a simple but effective data augmentation method, to enhance the detection accuracy and reduce the model’s parameter. Experiments on two typical real-scene event camera object detection datasets show that our method is competitive in terms of accuracy, efficiency, and the number of parameters. By classifying objects into multiple motion levels based on the optical flow density metric, we further illustrated the robustness of our method for objects with different velocities relative to the camera. The codes and trained models are available at https://github.com/HarmoniaLeo/FRLW-EvD.

Index Terms—Event Camera, Object Detection, Event Representation, Fast-moving Objects, Light Weight Detector

I. INTRODUCTION

Real-world object detection tasks have extremely high requirements on the detection speed and the robustness of detectors for bad weather, extreme lighting conditions, and fast-moving objects. Autonomous driving is one of its typical application scenarios which is demanding for safety and robustness. Therefore, diverse sensors are leveraged to obtain robust detection under various conditions. Among them, traditional frame-based RGB cameras [1], [2] are used to provide rich semantic and texture information about the surroundings. The Light Detection And Ranging (LIDAR) sensor-based object detectors [3]–[6] are employed to compensate for RGB cameras’ failure under extreme lighting conditions. In addition, the millimeter-wave radar is utilized to enhance the detection performance under adverse weather conditions [7]. Despite these progresses, none of these sensors are particularly good at seeing fast-moving objects [2], [8] (e.g. the sudden appearing pedestrian in front of a car), thus degrading the detection accuracy, which leads to a safety hazard.

As a new type of vision-based sensor [9], the event camera has many advantages, including high temporal resolution, large dynamic range, and reduction of redundant information [10]–[13]. Benefiting from these properties, event cameras have great potential for applications in scenarios where most sensors (e.g. RGB camera, LIDAR, and millimeter-wave radar) are subject to motion blur and fast-moving objects, with very low energy consumption and small data storage costs [14], [15].

So far, there have been some works that apply event cameras to object detection tasks, mainly in the field of autonomous driving [16]–[18]. The contributions of the event cameras to the field are their ability to supplement other sensors, provide concurrent streams of temporal contrast events, and offer several advantages over traditional cameras.

Among the works, the methods with leading accuracy levels (e.g., YOLE [19], RED [20], and ASTMNet [21]) follow the paradigm of a global time window (cuboid-shaped shadow region in Fig. 1) for event representation and a deep neural network-based object detector with large amounts of parameters to boost detection accuracy, their general structure is shown in Fig. 1. For example, the state-of-the-art ASTMNet [21] deeply explores this paradigm by adaptively adjusting the duration of the global time window and leveraging the recurrent-convolutional architecture.

Despite the exploration of adaptive and asynchronous temporal sampling, there still exist two main drawbacks in existing methods, namely the global time window and the unsatisfactory running speed [19]–[24]. Firstly, the asynchronous exploration in existing methods is limited by the global time window, which maintains the whole spatial slice when adjusting the temporal duration. Hence, existing methods cannot take into account objects with different velocities relative to the event camera. When there are multiple objects in the field of view at the same time, a long time window may lead to the occurrence of motion blur for fast-moving objects, while a short time window may be unable to gather enough information for slow-moving objects. Secondly, current object
II. RELATED WORKS

In this section, we present related works, including event representations and event-based object detection methods.

A. Event representations

Currently, representative approaches mainly process events in batches into tensor-like representations as the input of the object detection algorithms. Much research has demonstrated that the statistics of the event representation tensors overlap with those of natural images [17], [25], [27]. The event representation methods are divided into two main categories: the Event Spike Tensor representation [17], [27]–[29] and the representation of emulating spike neural networks [19], [27], [30]. Event Spike Tensor is a data representation method based on discretizing the Event Measurement Field [25]. The representation of emulating spike neural networks is to let the spatial locations of newly occurring events always have larger values in a tensor.

There are hyper-parameters to be specified in all the existing event representation methods. The representative Event Spike Tensor requires hyper-parameters including the measurement function, the convolution kernel function, and timestamps for executing convolutions. There are also some works [21], [25] that explore the possibility of learning the measurement function or the convolution kernel function directly from

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the raw event stream, but the timestamps for performing kernel convolutions are still hyper-parameters that need to be specified. The representation of emulating spike neural networks requires a global numerical transformation function as the hyper-parameter to keep the values in the tensor in a value range. The hyper-parameters determine the trade-off between the globally fixed time window length and temporal resolution. Therefore, the existing event representations cannot take into account objects with different velocities relative to the event camera.

Inspired by a queue-based event representation method [31], we propose to explore its possibility in object detection tasks. We believe that its ability to asynchronously sample the event stream data at each spatial and polar position is significant to the object detection tasks. In our work, we propose a new kind of event stream object detector, solving the problem via asynchronously sampling the Event Measurement Field [25] to adjust the time window length and temporal resolution on each spatial and polar position flexibly.

### B. Event stream object detectors

Mainstream approaches use Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) with a large number of parameters to build object detectors [1], [19], [22], [23], [32]. The main problems with these methods are that they are not accurate, light, and fast enough for event stream data object detection tasks. Different from these methods, some approaches use recurrent convolutional neural network object detectors [20], [21] to improve the accuracy. However, the memory mechanisms used in the recurrent convolutional neural networks are not designed according to the characteristics of the event stream data. Therefore, those detectors are expensive to train and slow to run. In our work, we design a high-speed lightweight detector with competitive accuracy. Our detector is more suitable for event stream data object detection tasks.

### III. PROBLEM STATEMENTS

A paradigm for the event-based object detection task was defined by Perot et al. [20]. It is briefly modified here to make it more precise and to facilitate the discussion later on:

- Event stream data: for a camera with the picture size height of \( H \) and width of \( W \), its event stream data is defined as \( E := \{ e_i = (x_i, y_i, t_i, p_i) \}_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \), where \( x_i \in \{0, 1, ..., W - 1\} \) and \( y_i \in \{0, 1, ..., H - 1\} \) are the coordinates, \( p_i \in \{0, 1\} \) is the polarity, \( t_i \in [0, T_{max}] \) is the timestamp, \( T_{max} \) is the maximum duration of the event stream record.
- Annotation: \( B^* := \{ b_j^* = (x_j, y_j, w_j, h_j, l_j, t_j) \}_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \), where \( x_j \in \mathbb{R} \) and \( y_j \in \mathbb{R} \) are the coordinates of the upper left corner of a bounding box, \( w_j, h_j \in \mathbb{R}^+ \) is the width and height of the bounding box, \( l_j \in \{0, ..., W\} \) is the category, \( t_j \) is the timestamp.
- Detection: \( D(S(E^{(n)}, t^{(n)})), \) where \( D(.) \) is the event representation method, \( n \in \{1, 2, \ldots\} \) means it is the \( n^{th} \) detection on the event stream, \( E^{(n)} := \{ e_i \}_{t_i \in [0, t^{(n)}]} \) is the available event stream for the \( n^{th} \) detection, \( t^{(n)} \in [0, T_{max}) \) denotes the timestamp of the \( n^{th} \) detection.

The event representation methods are divided into two main categories: the Event Spike Tensor representation [17], [27]–[29] and the representation of emulating spike neural networks [19], [27], [30].

The Event Spike Tensor methods can sample the Event Measurement Field [25] with convolution kernel to represent rich information of the event stream. Among them, the Event Volume [29] is a typical Event Spike Tensor. It
uses convolution kernel to sample events in the time window \( t_i \in [t^{(n)} - B \Delta \tau, t^{(n)}] \) at the \( n^{th} \) detection, with a sampling resolution inversely proportional to the sampling period \( \Delta \tau \in \mathbb{R}^+ \) and a fixed temporal dimension length \( B \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \). The Event Count Image \([17],[27],\) on the other hand, uses a deformable convolution kernel to sample the recent \( N \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \) events. The kernel size and the time window covered can therefore be dynamically adjusted according to the frequency of events triggered within the recent event stream. However, the globally synchronized characteristic in these above representations has limitations. As illustrated in Fig. 2, for spatial and polar locations that recently trigger events less frequently, a short global synchronized time window cannot aggregate enough information. On the contrary, for spatial and polar locations that recently trigger events more frequently, a long global synchronized time window leads to a decrease in the temporal resolution, making the convolution kernel cover excessive events, resulting in a loss of information.

The methods of emulating spike neural networks do not apply a linear transformation to the Event Measurement Field, but the value of each spatial location is adjusted by discrete decisions during the event generation process. The generated representation tensors always satisfy that spatial locations of the recently generated events maintain larger values. Therefore, this kind of method supports flexible nonlinear temporal resolution adjustment. The surface of Active Events \([27],[30]\) is a typical example of the representation method of emulating spike neural networks. It gives a 2D snapshot of the latest frequency if the detection period is set to the sampling period \( \Delta \tau \). Due to the elapse from the timestamp of the \( n^{th} \) detection \( \Delta t \in \mathbb{R}^- \) is then mapped to the value range \((0, 1)\) with a numerical transformation \( e^{\lambda \Delta t} \), where \( \lambda \in \mathbb{R}^+ \) is a hyper-parameter. Fig. 3 shows the mapping when \( \lambda \) takes different values. It can be seen that under large \( \lambda \), the mapping gives the newly triggered events a larger temporal resolution, while the information of events triggered further than a threshold from now will hardly be retained. Therefore, still, the Surface of Active Events can only consider events in a certain time window. The length of the time window can be increased by decreasing \( \lambda \). However, on the other hand, the temporal resolution will be decreased. Therefore, since the hyper-parameter \( \lambda \) is globally applied, the Surface of Active Events also faces the problem of globally synchronized characteristics like the Event Spike Tensor methods.

Fig. 4 shows the visualization of different event representation tensors with different hyper-parameters. In summary, it is hard to find a hyper-parameter that takes into account all objects with different motion speeds relative to the camera in the field of view at the same time.

**IV. Method**

This section introduces our core methods, including the event representation method Temporal Active Focus (TAF), the Bifurcated Folding Module (BFM) for fully extracting features from the TAF representation tensor, and the high-speed lightweight detector Agile Event Detector (AED).

**A. Temporal Active Focus**

Tensors generated by the Temporal Active Focus method can be viewed as a dense version of the Event Spike Tensor. Considering a traditional Event Spike Tensor with variable length in temporal dimension to cover all event stream information by the time for detection, \( t \), i.e., \( B = \frac{[t^{(n)}]}{\Delta \tau} \). Due to the spatial and temporal sparsity of the event stream data \([23]\), such a tensor is also a sparse tensor. Temporal Active Focus (TAF), by contrast, samples the first \( K \) latest positions with a non-zero value in the temporal dimension at each spatial and polar position to form a dense tensor.

The infinite-length sparse Event Spike Tensor is impractical to build in terms of time and storage cost. However, since the object detection on the event stream is performed at a certain frequency if the detection period is set to the sampling period \( \Delta \tau \), the computational burden can be greatly reduced by using the FIFO queue to incrementally update the TAF tensor. The necessary condition is that the convolution kernel \( k(\cdot) \) used for sampling the Event Measurement Field satisfies:

\[
\begin{align*}
\left\{ 
\begin{array}{ll}
  k(x, y, p, t) > 0, & t \in [0, k_{\text{upper}}] \\
  k(x, y, p, t) = 0, & \text{Others}
\end{array}
\right.
\end{align*}
\]

\[ s.t. \quad k_{\text{upper}} \in [0, \infty) \]
TAF maintains a per spatial and polar position specific FIFO queue $FIFO(x, y, p, k)$ with depth $K \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. The queues continuously receive non-zero samples from the event stream, thus generating dense tensor representations. The process of building the TAF tensor $S \in \mathbb{R}^{2K \times H \times W}$ is shown in Algorithm 1. The convolution kernel $k(\cdot)$ and the measurement $f(\cdot)$ are essential components of Event Spike Tensor as introduced in [25]. For the convolution kernel, we simply adopt the rectangular window function:

$$k(x, y, p, t) = \begin{cases} 1, & t \in [0, \Delta \tau] \\ 0, & \text{Others} \end{cases}$$ (2)

In order not to lose the absolute position information on the temporal dimension, we use a measurement to calculate the average elapse from the events covered by the convolution kernel $t^{(n)}$:

$$f^{(n)}(x, y, p, t) = \frac{t^{(n)} - t}{\# \{E(x, y, p, t)\}}$$ (3)

where $E(x, y, p) = \{e_i\}_{t_i \in \{t^{(n)} - k_{\Delta \tau} \leq t \leq t^{(n)}\}, (x_i, y_i, p_i) = (x, y, p) \text{ and } \#(.)}$ is the counting symbol.

At the $n$th detection, we have the average time elapsed calculated as:

$$\Delta t^{(n)}(E, t, x, y, p) := \sum_{e_i \in E} f(x_i, y_i, p_i, t_i) k(x - x_i, y - y_i, p - p_i, t - t_i)$$ (4)

The non-zero values of the average time elapses will be pushed into the FIFO queues. Then at the $n+1$th detection, we have new values calculated and pushed into the queues, while old values are updated by: $\Delta t^{(n+1)} \leftarrow \Delta t^{(n)} + \Delta \tau$.

To limit the range of $\Delta t$ values (in milliseconds), we apply another measurement function based on the logarithmic transformation:

$$F(\Delta t) = 1 - \frac{\ln(1 + \Delta t \times 10^{-4})}{\ln(1 + T_{max} \times 10^{-4})}$$ (5)

where $T_{max}$ is the maximum duration of the event stream (in milliseconds). Fig. 5 shows that the values of $F(\cdot)$ on the whole $\Delta t \in [-T_{max}, 0)$ interval all reflect high resolutions.

Fig. 4: Visualization of different event representation tensors with different hyper-parameters. Column 1 shows the TV-L1 optical flow plots of the scenes, which are computed by the method proposed by Nagata et al. [33]. In the field of view, (a) is the case where only objects with fast motion relative to the event camera are present, (b) is the case where only objects with slow motion relative to the event camera are present, and (c) is the case where objects with different motion relative to event camera are present at the same time.

Fig. 5: The mapping between the elapse $\Delta t$ and the value of the measurement function $F(\cdot)$ when the maximum duration of the event stream record $T_{max} = 6 \times 10^7 \mu s$. Fig. 2 visualizes the asynchronous characteristic of TAF, which shows that TAF can adapt the interval of applying convolutions asynchronously according to the event triggering frequency. Therefore, a larger temporal resolution is applied for periods with a higher event triggering frequency, while a
Algorithm 1: The process of building the TAF tensor when continuously performing object detection on the event data stream.

**Input:** \( \mathcal{X} = \{0, 1, ..., W - 1\}, \mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1, ..., H - 1\}, \mathcal{P} = \{0, 1\}, \mathcal{N} = \{1, 2, ..., \left\lfloor \frac{W}{2\Delta \tau} \right\rfloor\}, \mathcal{C} = \{0, 1, ..., 2K - 1\} 

#Initialize FIFO queues

for each \( x \in \mathcal{X}, y \in \mathcal{Y}, p \in \mathcal{P} \) do
  Initialize all values in \( FIFO(x, y, p) \) with 0;

#Detect on the event flow

for each \( n \in \mathcal{N} \) do
  #Perform convolution
  \( E^{(n)}_{\text{sub}} := \{e_t\}_{t \in \mathcal{N}(x, y, p)} \)

  #Update FIFO queues
  for each \( x \in \mathcal{X}, y \in \mathcal{Y}, p \in \mathcal{P} \) do
    if \( \Delta t^{(n)}(E^{(n)}_{\text{sub}}, n\Delta \tau, x, y, p) > 0 \) then
      Add \( \Delta t^{(n)}(E^{(n)}_{\text{sub}}, n\Delta \tau, x, y, p) \) to \( FIFO(x, y, p) \);

  for each \( c \in \mathcal{C} \) do
    Update \( FIFO(x, y, p)[c] \) with new value

#Construct tensor

for each \( x \in \mathcal{X}, y \in \mathcal{Y}, c \in \mathcal{C} \) do
  \( S_{c, y, x} := F(FIFO(x, y, c - 2(\lfloor \frac{x}{2} \rfloor)))[\lfloor \frac{y}{2} \rfloor] \)

**Output:** \( S := \{S_{c, y, x}\}_{c \in \mathcal{C}, y \in \mathcal{Y}, x \in \mathcal{X}} \)

Fig. 6: (a) is the structure of the BFM module. (b) and (c) are the structure of its components. \( K \) is the length of the TAF queue.

The input layer of conventional object detectors is often a convolutional layer. The convolutional layer not only extracts information in the channel but also models spatial dependencies to extract spatial information. It works well when using the normal RGB image as the input since the semantics in channels are often weak. However, the TAF tensor has very rich temporal information encoded in the channels. Therefore, we design a module called the Bifurcated Folding Module (BFM) to extract semantic information in the temporal dimension of the TAF tensor before feeding it into the detector, which is point-wisely applied at each spatial location.

The overall structure of the BFM is shown in Fig. 6(a). The design of the BFM follows two main concepts. First, instead of being fully connected to the temporal dimension, it will gradually aggregate values at adjacent temporal positions to prevent over-fitting. Second, it will assign greater importance to recent information as it has a greater temporal resolution.

Following the first concept, we design the Folding Layer. The structure of the Folding Layer is shown in Fig. 6(b). The Folding Layer gradually reduces the number of input channels using the \( 1 \times 1 \) depth-wise convolution. It actually models the local connection of adjacent temporal positions. The structure of the Folding Layer and its function is similar to Temporal Convolutional Network (TCN) [34], so we imitate the design of TCN with Weight Normalization and ReLU activation followed.
Following the second concept, we are inspired by the Cross-Stage-Partial-connections (CSP) [35] mechanism. After each temporal aggregation, we make a slicing in the channel dimension to get the channels encoding the temporally latest information and finally connect all sliced channels. This operation also acts as the residual connection, making the module easier to converge during training [36]. We finally fuse the information encoded in output channels with a Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP). The structure of the MLP is shown in Fig. 6(c).

Some alternative approaches such as Temporal Convolutional Network (TCN) [34], Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) [37], [38], and Transformer-based models [39] can be used to extract temporal information from TAF tensors. However, the BFM model has the following advantages. Firstly, BFM is more lightweight and computationally efficient, which makes it more suitable for event data that has a high temporal resolution. Secondly, BFM is more closely combined with TAF event representation since it is designed to model the local connection of adjacent temporal positions rather than long-range temporal dependencies. Moreover, it also explicitly assigns great importance to the temporal latest information in the TAF data since they have a higher temporal resolution.

C. Agile Event Detector

In the field of generic object detection, YOLO series [19], [22], [32] are featured by the outstanding trade-off between accuracy and efficiency. The YOLO series has the advantage of high speed over other approaches such as Faster R-CNN [40], Mask R-CNN [41], RetinaNet [42], and DETR [43], while maintaining competitive detection accuracy. Hence, we customize an Agile Event Detector (AED) based on the YOLO model [44], which is more lightweight and yields higher speed compared to the YOLO baseline. The general structure of the AED model is shown in Fig. 7.

Different from the YOLO’s CSPDarknet [35] backbone, AED utilizes a backbone network adapted from the Darknet21 used in YOLOv3 [45]. Since there is no channel connection operation, Darknet21 runs faster than CSPDarknet. In addition, we increase the channel number of feature maps at an early stage since the event representation tensors encode rich semantics in the channels. The Feature Pyramid Network (FPN) and a detection head are modified from the YOLOX as shown in Fig. 6.

To improve the generalization capability of the lightweight detector, we also propose a simple but effective data augmentation method for event stream representation tensor data:

1) Random Flipping: During training, each event representation tensor $S$ has probability $p_1$ to be flipped horizontally, i.e., $S_{c,y,x} = S_{c,y,W-x-1}$.

2) Random Cropping and Resizing: During training, each event representation tensor $S \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times H \times W}$ has probability $p_2$ to be cropped back to $C \times \lfloor \alpha H \rfloor \times \lfloor \alpha W \rfloor$, where $\alpha \in [1, \infty)$, and then randomly cropped back to $C \times H \times W$, i.e., $S_{c,y,x}^* = S_{c,y^* \cdot y^* + H, x^* \cdot x^* + W}$, where $y^* \sim U(0, \lfloor \alpha H \rfloor - 1)$, $x^* \sim U(0, \lfloor \alpha W \rfloor - 1)$, and $U(a, b)$ is the uniform distribution on $[a, b], a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In this section, we will present our experimental settings, including details of the dataset used for the experiment, the selection of hyper-parameters, and the evaluation method. Then we will compare our method with state-of-the-art methods. Finally, we will illustrate the effectiveness of each component of our method through ablation studies.

A. Experiment Settings

1) Dataset: We choose the Prophesee GEN1 Automotive Detection Dataset (GEN1 Dataset) [26] and the Prophesee 1 MEGAPIXEL Automotive Detection Dataset (1 MEGAPIXEL Dataset) [20] to conduct the experiments. The 1 MEGAPIXEL Dataset and the GEN1 Dataset are two typical real-scene event camera object detection datasets. Each video stream is up to 60 seconds, captured with the event camera and stored as the event stream. The timestamps are in microsecond resolution, therefore $T_{max} = 6 \times 10^7 \mu s$.

To improve the efficiency of performance validation, our experiments are conducted on the complete GEN1 Dataset and the downsampled 1 MEGAPIXEL Dataset (1 MEGAPIXEL Dataset (Subset)) by reducing the annotation frequency to 1 Hz while preserving the complete event stream data. This downsampling approach preserves as much diversity of scenes and objects as possible. However, since the number of samples used for training is only 1/60 of the original dataset, the performance of the trained model may be degraded.

2) Implementation Details: Referring to the setting in YOLOX [44], all methods based on YOLOX and AED models are trained using Adam optimizer [46] and cosine learning
rate with 5 preheat epochs. In the preheat epochs, the learning rate will grow from 0 to \( 2.1 \times 10^{-4} \times \text{Batchsize} \), and then decrease. The Batch size is taken as 30 on GEN1 Dataset and 16 on the 1 MEGAPIXEL Dataset (Subset). We use the best training model on the validation dataset and apply it to the testing dataset to report the final performance, which is a widely used method in related works [20], [21]. For the data augmentation, we take \( p_1 = 0.5 \), \( p_2 = 0.5 \), and \( \alpha = 1.5 \). For all Event Volume representation tensors, we take \( B = 5 \), which is commonly used in existing work [20]. For the TAF tensor, we set \( \Delta \tau = 10ms \) on both datasets since it approximates the run time of the method. All methods in our work were trained on a server with a single GeForce RTX 3090 GPU and an 8-core Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-7820X CPU @ 3.60GHz. We test all methods on a server with a single Titan Xp GPU and a 16-core Intel(R) Xeon(R) CPU E5-2620 v4 @ 2.10GHz.

3) Evaluation Method: The performance metrics include accuracy, running time, and the number of parameters. The accuracy evaluation protocol is consistent with the evaluation protocol provided by the 1 MEGAPIXEL Dataset [20]. In the protocol, the Mean Average Precision (mAP) [?] is used as the accuracy metric, which is a commonly used metric for object detection models. mAP (IoU@[0.5:0.05:0.95]) is used for evaluation, where the mAP is computed by the mean over a range of IoU thresholds from 0.5 to 0.95 with a step size of 0.05. For algorithms that use the TAF tensor as input, we set the detection period equal to \( \Delta \tau \) and the tolerance to \( \Delta \tau / 2 \); for algorithms using other event representation methods, we specify detections at timestamps where the annotations appear.

To evaluate the motion robustness of methods, we measure the motion speed of objects in the dataset by computing optical flow, to classify them into 5 different motion levels. To be specific, we compute the TV-L1 dense optical flow using the method proposed by Nagata et al. [33] for all timestamps where the annotations are present. The difference between adjacent timestamps is set to \( 50ms \). For timestamp \( t_j \) with an annotation \( b^*_j \) presents, for a camera with the picture size of \( H \) in height and \( W \) in width, let the estimated horizontal optical flow be \( u_{t_j}(x,y) \) and the vertical optical flow be \( v_{t_j}(x,y) \), then we have the optical flow intensity denoted as:

\[
||V(x,y)||_{t_j} = \sqrt{u_{t_j}^2(x,y) + v_{t_j}^2(x,y)}
\]

\( \forall \ x \in \{0,1,...,W-1\}, y \in \{0,1,...,H-1\} \) (6)

Based on the optical flow intensity, we can define a metric called Bounding Box Optical Flow Density (BBOFD) for each annotation \( b_{t_j}^* \):
event representation methods, resulting in different global

We set three sets of hyper-parameters for each of the three

when jointly considering the accuracy, speed, and model size

seen that our method is competitive among existing methods

Dataset, but the model inference time reduces by 66.4%, and

the number of model parameters is only 37.4%. It can be

MEGAPIXEL Dataset (Subset). ASTMNet [21] is currently

improvement and 37.1% inference time reduction on the 1

Compared with the NGA-events method [32], our method

mechanism [22]–[24], [32], [48], our method achieves the best

I shows the results of comparing our method with the state-

experiment, using AED as the detector, comparing the accuracy

representation methods, we conduct a separate comparison ex-

under each of the five classes.

By contrast, the improvement

events are triggered less frequently and event representation

This indicates that in the event data object detection task,

TABLE II and III show the comparison of accuracy be-

different settings, the accuracy of different methods varies

TABLE II and III show the comparison of accuracy be-

tween different event representation methods with different

parameters at 5 motion levels in the GEN1 Dataset and the

1 MEGAPIXEL Dataset (Subset) respectively. Though with

different settings, the accuracy of different methods varies

at each motion level, different methods achieve the highest

accuracy on motion level 3 in general. On the one hand, as

the motion level goes lower, the accuracy reduces, since the

events are triggered less frequently and event representation

methods cannot aggregate enough information. On the other

hand, as the motion level goes higher, the accuracy also

degrades, which results from the fact that fast-moving objects

generate excessive events, causing motion blur in the event

representation. It can also be found that in general the accuracy

on the motion level 1 is much lower than that on level 5.

This indicates that in the event data object detection task,

the accuracy degradation caused by insufficient information

is more severe than that caused by motion blur. It can be

seen that our TAF method is highly competitive in terms of

both accuracy and speed. When using Event Count Image,

Surface of Active Events, and Event Volume, longer time

windows should be used to improve the detection accuracy

for objects with low motion levels. On the contrary, shorter

time windows should be used for objects with high motion

levels. This demonstrates the trade-off that exists in these

event representation methods. By contrast, the improvement

in the time window and temporal resolution makes the TAF

method achieves high detection accuracy at all motion levels

in a hyper-parameter-free manner. Especially when detecting

low-motion level objects, using the TAF method can achieve

quite significant accuracy improvements.

The visualization in Fig. 9 further demonstrates the robust-

ness of the TAF method. In case (a), the first object on the left

has a high motion speed relative to the camera, so when using

Event Volume taking $\Delta \tau = 200 \text{ms}$ and Surface of Active

Events taking $\lambda = 1 \times 10^{-6}$, both cannot detect the object
due to the motion blur. Although the object can be detected

when using Event Count Image under both $N = 50,000$ and

$N = 200,000$, the estimation of the height is inaccurate. In
case (d), the two objects on the right side have high motion

speed relative to the camera. Therefore, also due to the motion

blur, the estimation of the size is inaccurate when using Event

Volume taking $\Delta \tau = 200 \text{ms}$, the localization is inaccurate

when using Event Count Image taking $N = 200,000$, and

the object is not detectable when using Surface of Active

Events taking $\lambda = 1 \times 10^{-6}$. On the other hand, in both cases

(b)(c)(d), there are objects with low motion speed relative to

the camera. It can be seen that when using Event Volume
taking $\Delta \tau = 50 \text{ms}$ and Surface of Active Events taking

$\lambda = 1 \times 10^{-5}$, the first object on the left in case (b) and the

second object on the left in case (c) are not detected, while the

size estimation of the first object on the left in case (d) is not

accurate. When using Event Count Image taking $N = 50,000$,

the second object from the left in case (c) is not detected and

the size of the first object from the left in case (d) is not

estimated accurately. In contrast, the TAF method can detect

\[ ||V(x, y)|| = \frac{\sum_{x=x_j}^{x_j+w_j-1} \sum_{y=y_j}^{y_j+h_j+1} ||V(x, y)|| t_{ij}} {w_j \times h_j} \] (7)

For the object corresponding to the annotation $b^*_j$, BBOFD can be an effective metric for its motion speed relative to the event camera at $t_j$. The larger the $||V(x, y)||$, the faster the object. Of all the annotations in each of the two datasets, we set 5 intervals for the BBOFD at each 20% quantile. The intervals can classify the annotations and detection results into 5 classes according to their corresponding objects' speed relative to the camera. We call the 5 classes the 5 motion levels, which are numbered from 1-5, indicating the speed from low to high.

We show the visualization of data segmentation and examples of objects under different motion levels in Fig. 8.

To make the metric accurate, we filtered out all overlapping bounding boxes and cropped all bounding boxes into the camera picture size. We then evaluate the detection results under each of the five classes.

B. Comparison with the State-of-the-art

We compare our method with the state-of-the-art methods [20]–[22], [24], [32], [48]. We first compare our overall method with other existing works in terms of accuracy, model inference speed, and model parameters. Then, for the event representation methods, we conduct a separate comparison experiment, using AED as the detector, comparing the accuracy and speed of TAF with other methods.

1) Comparison with the State-of-the-art methods : TABLE I shows the results of comparing our method with the state-of-the-art methods [22], [48]. It can be seen that among the methods using feed-forward detectors without the memory mechanism [22]–[24], [32], [48], our method achieves the best performance in terms of accuracy and speed at the same time. Compared with the NGA-events method [32], our method needs only 24.1% of parameters but achieves 9.5 mAP points improvement and 54.1% model inference time reduction on the GEN1 Dataset. Our method also achieves 9.6 mAP points improvement and 37.1% inference time reduction on the 1 MEGAPIXEL Dataset (Subset). ASTMNet [21] is currently the most advanced method on GEN1 Dataset. Comparing our method with ASTMNet, the mAP is 1.3 points lower on GEN1 Dataset, but the model inference time reduces by 66.4%, and the number of model parameters is only 37.4%. It can be seen that our method is competitive among existing methods when jointly considering the accuracy, speed, and model size metrics.

2) Comparison with the State-of-the-art event representation methods: Based on the AED with data augmentation, we compare our TAF representation with three state-of-the-art competitors, namely, Event Volume [29], Event Count Image [17], [27], and Surface of Active Events [27], [30]. We set three sets of hyper-parameters for each of the three event representation methods, resulting in different global synchronized time windows and temporal resolutions.

\[ ||V(x, y)|| = \frac{\sum_{x=x_j}^{x_j+w_j-1} \sum_{y=y_j}^{y_j+h_j+1} ||V(x, y)|| t_{ij}} {w_j \times h_j} \] (7)
| Method                  | Event Representation | Detector   | Memory | GEN1 Dataset mAP | 1 MEGAPIXEL Dataset (Subset) mAP | Params(M) |
|------------------------|----------------------|------------|--------|------------------|-------------------------------|-----------|
|                        |                      |            |        | Inference Time(ms) | Inference Time(ms) |          |
| Chen et al. [22]       | Event Count Image [28]| YOLO [47]  | -      | 0.322            | 21.47                        | -         |
| Jiang et al. [48]      | Event Count Image [28]| YOLOv3 [45]| -      | 0.326            | 22.34                        | 0.207     |
| JDF-events [24]        | 2 Polarities Event Count Image [28]| YOLOv3 [45]| -      | 0.332            | 22.34                        | 0.224     |
| NGA-events [32]        | Event Volume [29]    | YOLOv3 [45]| -      | 0.359            | 26.11                        | 0.248     |
| Sparse-conv [23]       | Raw Events           | YOLO [47]  | -      | 0.145            | -                            | -         |
| RED [20]               | Event Volume [29]    | SSD [49]   | ConvLSTM [50] | 0.400   | -                | -        |
| ASTMNet [21]           | Raw Events           | SSD [49]   | Rec-conv [21] | 0.467   | 35.61            | -         |
| Our baseline           | Event Volume [29]    | YOLOX [44] | -      | 0.350            | 13.19                        | 0.215     |
| Ours                   | Temporal Active Focus| AED        | -      | 0.454            | 11.98                        | 0.344     |

| Method                  | Event Representation | Detector   | Memory | GEN1 Dataset mAP | 1 MEGAPIXEL Dataset (Subset) mAP | Params(M) |
|------------------------|----------------------|------------|--------|------------------|-------------------------------|-----------|
|                        |                      |            |        | Inference Time(ms) | Inference Time(ms) |          |
| Event Volume [29]      | 50                   | 0.172      | 0.414 | 0.455            | 0.451                        | 0.397     |
| Event Count Image [17, 27]| 5 x 10^4          | 0.204      | 0.371 | 0.408            | 0.411                        | 0.362     |
| Event Volume [29]      | 100                  | 0.198      | 0.428 | 0.453            | 0.441                        | 0.382     |
| Event Count Image [17, 27]| 2 x 10^5          | 0.211      | 0.377 | 0.405            | 0.395                        | 0.343     |
| Event Count Image [17, 27]| 1 x 10^-5         | 0.228      | 0.388 | 0.394            | 0.369                        | 0.312     |
| Surface of Active Events [27, 30]| 2.5 x 10^-6| 0.216      | 0.429 | 0.431            | 0.403                        | 0.353     |
| Surface of Active Events [27, 30]| 1 x 10^-6| 0.228      | 0.420 | 0.428            | 0.400                        | 0.349     |
| Temporal Active Focus  | 10                   | 0.282      | 0.461 | 0.476            | 0.459                        | 0.407     |

| Method                  | Event Representation | Detector   | Memory | GEN1 Dataset mAP | 1 MEGAPIXEL Dataset (Subset) mAP | Params(M) |
|------------------------|----------------------|------------|--------|------------------|-------------------------------|-----------|
|                        |                      |            |        | Inference Time(ms) | Inference Time(ms) |          |
| Event Volume [29]      | 50                   | 0.038      | 0.219 | 0.224            | 0.318                        | 0.314     |
| Event Count Image [17, 27]| 4 x 10^5          | 0.111      | 0.209 | 0.269            | 0.257                        | 0.271     |
| Event Volume [29]      | 100                  | 0.035      | 0.232 | 0.325            | 0.315                        | 0.301     |
| Event Count Image [17, 27]| 8 x 10^6          | 0.105      | 0.212 | 0.270            | 0.253                        | 0.254     |
| Event Volume [29]      | 200                  | 0.062      | 0.239 | 0.309            | 0.281                        | 0.276     |
| Event Count Image [17, 27]| 1.2 x 10^8         | 0.131      | 0.233 | 0.258            | 0.240                        | 0.260     |
| Surface of Active Events [27, 30]| 1 x 10^-5| 0.043      | 0.231 | 0.315            | 0.287                        | 0.286     |
| Surface of Active Events [27, 30]| 2.5 x 10^-6| 0.090      | 0.234 | 0.297            | 0.274                        | 0.288     |
| Surface of Active Events [27, 30]| 1 x 10^-6| 0.143      | 0.262 | 0.300            | 0.272                        | 0.296     |
| Temporal Active Focus  | 10                   | 0.262      | 0.312 | 0.339            | 0.308                        | 0.314     |

| Detector | Data Augmentation | Event Representation | GEN1 Dataset mAP | 1 MEGAPIXEL Dataset (Subset) mAP | Params(M) |
|----------|-------------------|----------------------|------------------|-------------------------------|-----------|
| YOLOX [44]| -                 | Event Volume [29]    | 0.350            | 15.79                          | 0.213     |
| YOLOX [44]| ✓                 | Event Volume [29]    | 0.410            | 15.79                          | 0.269     |
| AED      | ✓                 | Event Volume [29]    | 0.426            | 14.18                          | 0.299     |
| AED      | ✓                 | Temporal Active Focus| 0.454            | 13.41                          | 0.344     |
Fig. 9: Qualitative analysis results. The green bounding boxes indicate the annotations, while the white bounding boxes indicate the detection results.

TABLE V: The effects of inserting TAF to SOTA methods. The bold is the best result in each group of comparisons.

| Detector | Event Representation | GEN1 Dataset | 1 MEGAPIXEL Dataset (Subset) | Params(M) |
|----------|----------------------|--------------|-------------------------------|-----------|
|          |                      | mAP          | Runtime(ms)                   | mAP       | Runtime(ms) |           |
|          |                      |              |                               |           |             | 61.5      |
| YOLOv3 [45] | Event Volume [29] | 0.359        | 28.71                         | 0.248     | 29.03       | 61.5      |
| TAF      |                      | **0.381**    | **27.54**                     | **0.278** | **24.06**   | 61.6      |
| YOLOX [44] | Event Volume [29] | 0.410        | 15.79                         | 0.269     | 23.96       | **14.4**  |
| TAF      |                      | **0.436**    | **14.62**                     | **0.314** | **18.99**   | **14.4**  |
| AED      | Event Volume [29]   | 0.426        | 14.18                         | 0.299     | 21.35       | **14.8**  |
| TAF      |                      | **0.454**    | **13.41**                     | **0.344** | **16.19**   | 14.8      |

all the objects mentioned above while estimating the size and location accurately.

C. Ablation Study

In the ablation experiments, we focus on the effectiveness of the different components of our method and factors that affect the performance when using the TAF representation method.

1) Components: The ablation of components is shown in TABLE IV, where the runtime is the sum of the representation time and the model inference time. Experiments show that our proposed data augmentation scheme can improve the accuracy of the baseline detector by a large margin on both datasets. With a slight increase in the number of parameters compared to YOLOX, AED notably improves accuracy and significantly reduces runtime on both datasets. Moreover, using the TAF method instead of the Event Volume will result in a significant improvement in accuracy and a reduction of the running time on both datasets. The reduction of the running time is especially significant on the 1 MEGAPIXEL Dataset (Subset). Our final method achieves 74.6 FPS on the Prophesee 1 MEGAPIXEL Automotive Detection Dataset [20], which satisfies the real-time processing requirements.

We also evaluate the effectiveness of inserting TAF into various SOTA event data object detection methods. As shown in TABLE V, our experimental results show that TAF significantly improves the detection accuracy of these methods while maintaining a high inference speed. The results show the generalizability of our proposed TAF method.

2) Temporal Active Focus: TABLE VI and VII show the performance of the TAF under different settings. Overall, using BFM for feature pre-extracting will result in remarkable accuracy improvement at all five motion levels on both datasets. On the 1 MEGAPIXEL Dataset (Subset), we can see a higher performance improvement for detecting objects that are slow relative to the camera. However, the running speed is slightly reduced because feature extraction needs to be performed point-wisely in space. On GEN1 Dataset, the queue depth $K$ value has little impact on accuracy, and we can see that $K = 4$ is a better hyper-parameter on GEN1 Dataset. On the 1 MEGAPIXEL Dataset (Subset), when $K = 8,$
the accuracy is slightly lower without BFM. However, with BFM, the accuracy is much higher. This further illustrates the effectiveness of the BFM module: the 1 MEGAPIXEL Dataset (Subset) has a higher resolution, and the camera used is more sensitive to changes in illumination, requiring larger \( K \) values to aggregate events over a larger time range to fully retain event information. However, larger \( K \) values bring richer semantics to the temporal dimension. The traditional convolutional input layer is difficult to extract the information. On the other hand, BFM can extract the rich semantics as much as possible, thus fully exploiting the effect of the TAF method.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we present a motion robust and high-speed detection pipeline for event-based object detection, which takes the different velocities of objects into account and further reduces the computational burden compared with previous event-based object detectors. Specifically, we introduce the Temporal Active Focus (TAF) event representation, the Bi-furcated Folding Module (BFM), the Agile Event Detector (AED), and a simple yet effective data augmentation strategy. The TAF leverages the spatial-temporal asynchronous event data and builds event tensors robust to object motions, the BFM extracts rich temporal information at the input layer, and the AED is faster and more accurate than the baseline YOLOX. Extensive experiments on two typical event-based object detectors show that our detection pipeline achieves leading accuracy compared with the state-of-the-art object detection datasets.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We would like to thank Mr. Etienne Perot, Senior Machine Learning Engineer from Prophesee, for providing the implementation details of the methods in [20]. We would like to thank Mr. Jianing Li, Ph.D. Candidate from Multimedia Learning Group, National Engineering Laboratory for Video Technology, Peking University for providing details about the experimental conditions and the size of the neural network models in [21].

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