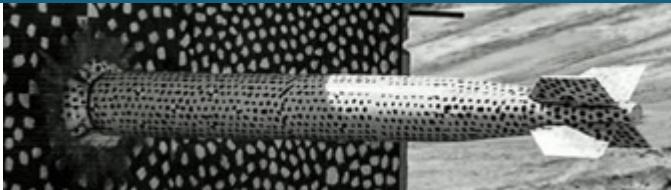
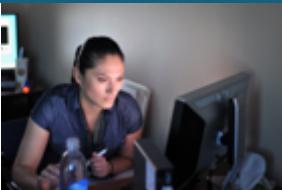




Sandia  
National  
Laboratories

# Remote Sensing Target Detection Using Constraints



**Presented by: Tian J. Ma**

**Distinguished Member of R&D, S&E  
Staff**

**Sandia National Laboratories**

**505-284-1238**

**tma@sandia.gov**



Sandia National Laboratories is a multimission laboratory managed and operated by National Technology & Engineering Solutions of Sandia, LLC, a wholly owned subsidiary of Honeywell International Inc., for the U.S. Department of Energy's National Nuclear Security Administration under contract DE-NA0003525.

# OUTLINE

- Problem Overview
- Background
- Method
- Result
- Conclusion



# Problem Overview

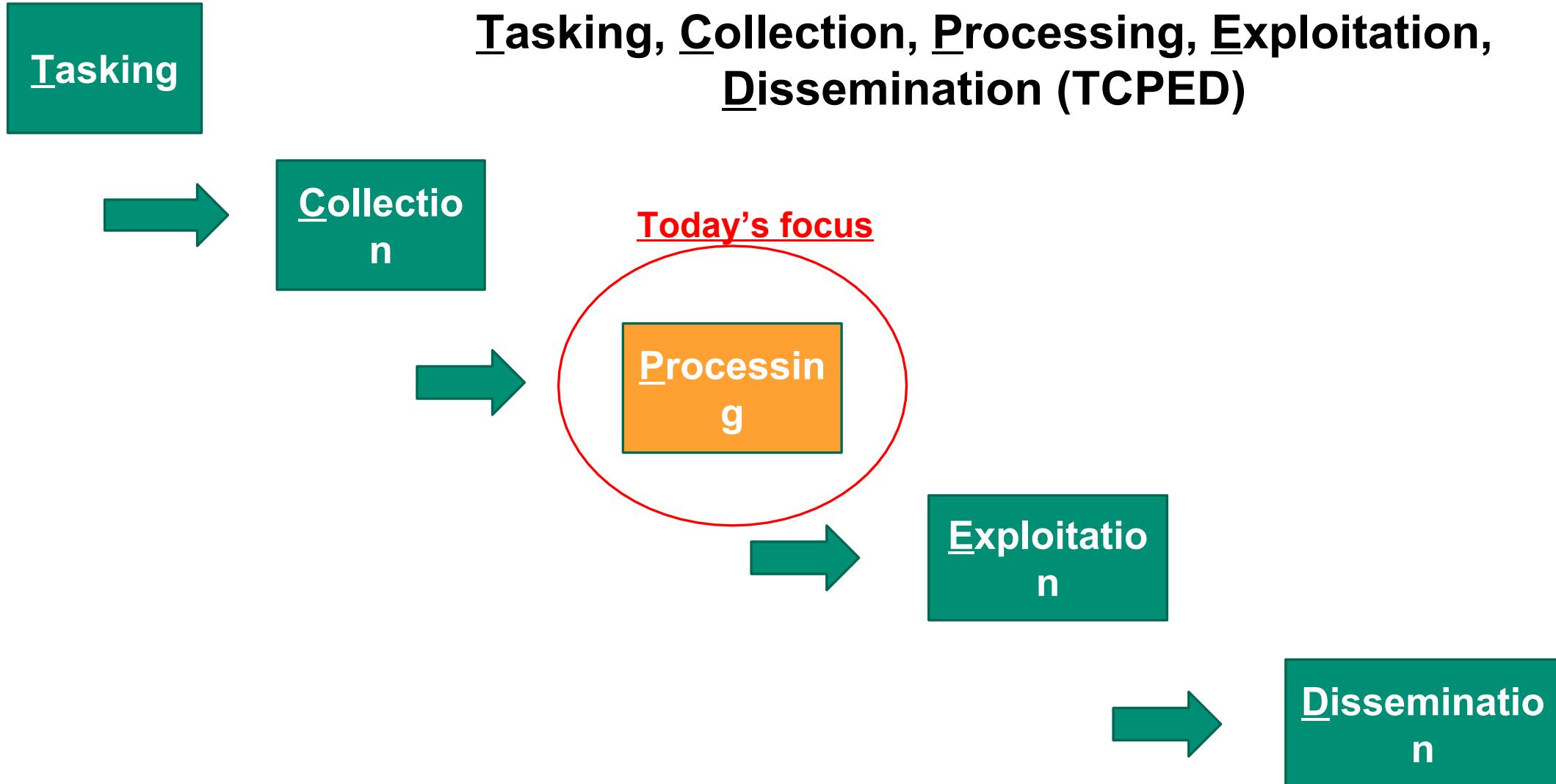


- Remote Sensing Big Data are earth observing data continuously obtained from remote sensors (e.g. satellite, cameras, drones, RADARs, etc.)
  - Big Data Characteristics: Volume and Velocity
- The capability of detecting objects of interests and tracking them as they move is important to many critical and challenging national security missions
- Common application: home/business surveillance, environmental monitoring, autonomous sensing, etc..

- Key Challenges:
  - Computation Processing
    - High volume of data and detection rate (large field-of-view)
    - Real-time processing requirement
  - Small Object Detection
    - Difficult to detect far away objects (lack of spatial features)

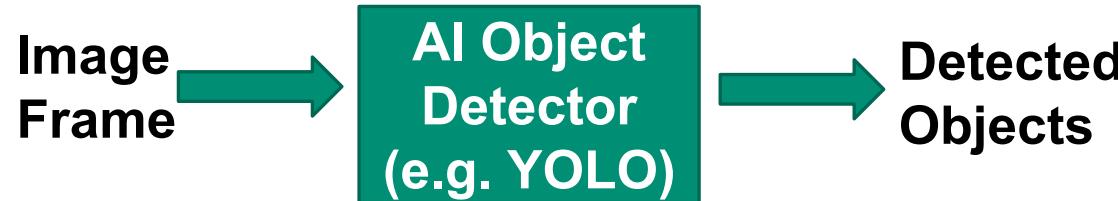
# General Framework for Remote Sensing System



# Artificial Intelligence (AI) Processing



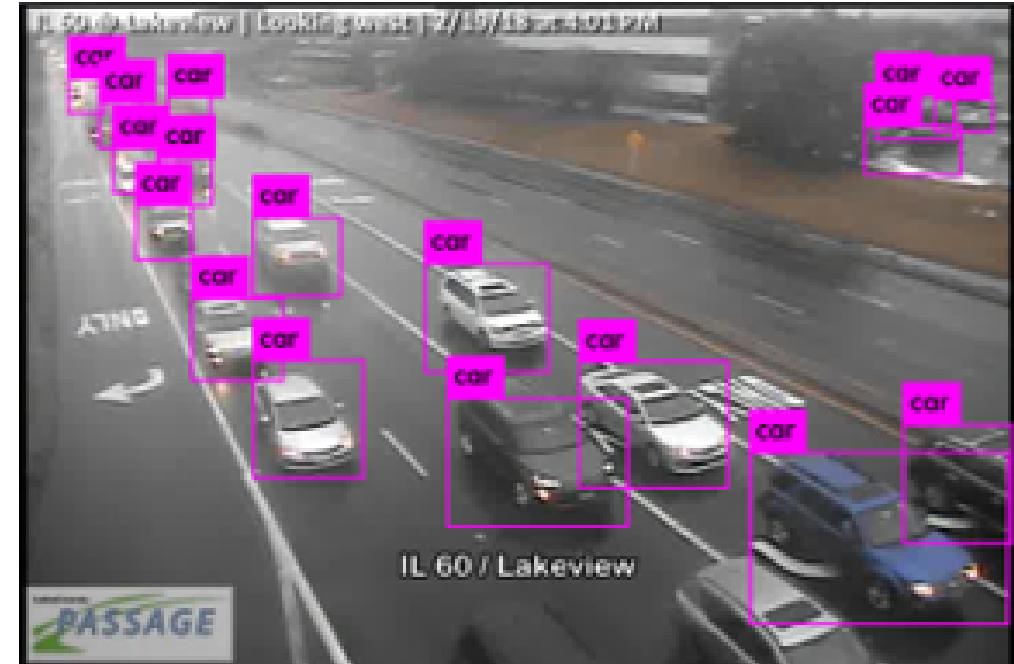
- Machine learning and Deep Learning Techniques



- Advantages
  - Easy to get started (e.g. TensorFlow, Caffe, PyTorch, etc..)
  - Requires deep quality features in training data
  - Large pre-trained labels
  - High accuracy
  - Fast decision (operates on one image frame)
    - Popular methods: You Only Look Once (YOLO), Mask R-CNN

- Disadvantages
  - Requires a large number of training labels (i.e. usually thousands of examples per target class)
  - Limited explainability
  - Vulnerability (pixel attack)

## YOLO Vehicle Detector



Results produced by students from UIUC during the 2018 SNL/UIUC/ARI internship program

# Traditional Detection Processing

## Key Advantages:

- Algorithm does not require pre-trained labels
- Explainable (strong mathematic and statistical principles)

## Disadvantages:

- May require multiple frames to drive down false





# Research Problem: Detection of Small Moving Object

## ■ Challenges

- Large field-of-view sensor placed very far away
- Small sized target (just a few pixels)
- Adaptive algorithm (does not require pre-trained labels)
- Low SNR target

# Experiment: Remote Detection of Vehicles from Sandia Peak



## Camera Specification

Video Camera	Frame Rates	Image Resolution	Lens focal length
Mysterium X	24 frames per second	3072x1620	72mm

## Camera Location

Camera Location	Peak of Sandia Mountain, Albuquerque, New Mexico
Camera Location	10,379 feet
Elevation	
Ground Target	6060 feet
Elevation	

## Cropped Raw Image



- Distance to target is ~4000 ft.
- Size of the vehicles range from 4-20 pixels.
- Vehicles are barely visible to the human eye.

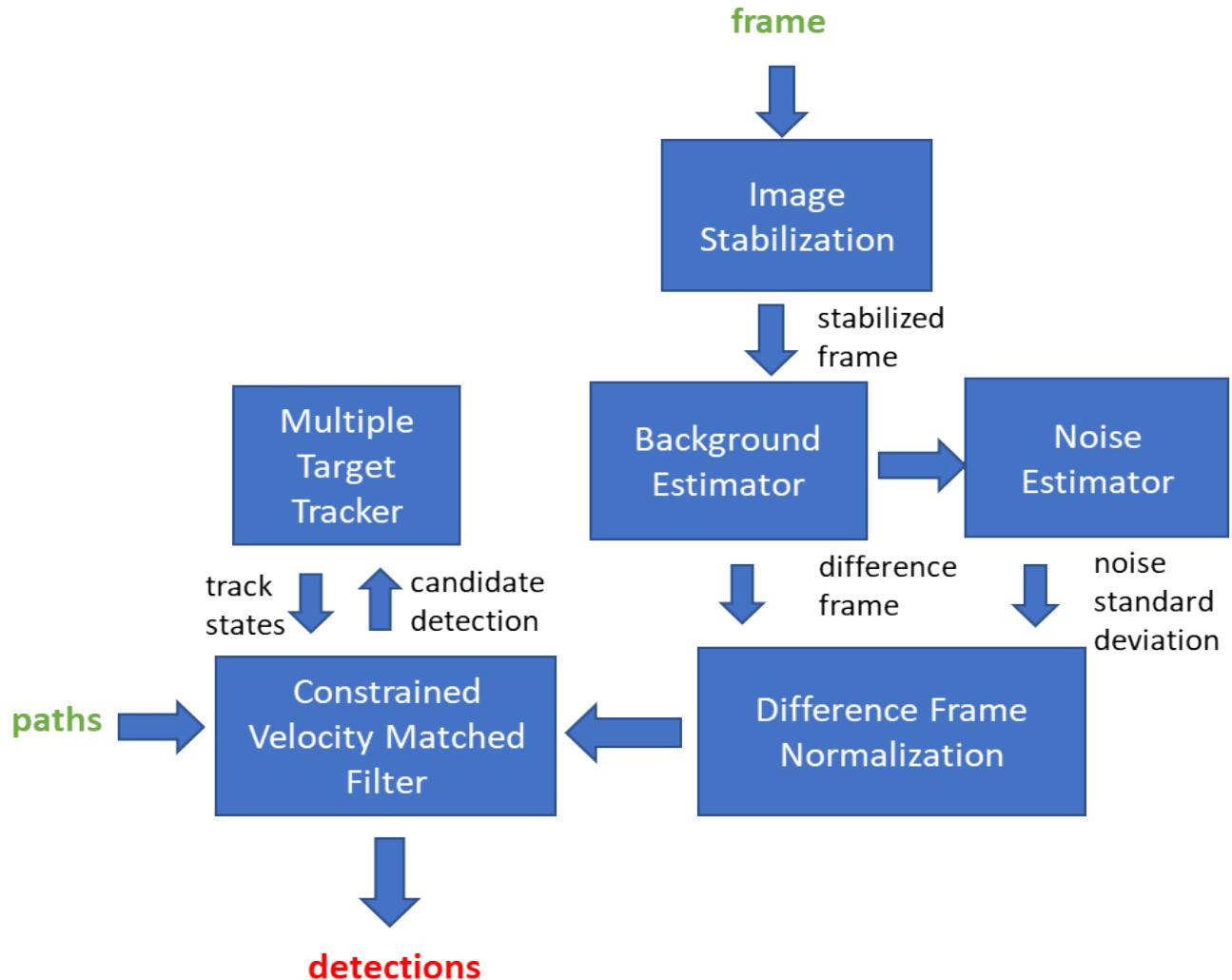
# Method: Detection Processing using Constraints



## Key scientific contributions:

- An ideal “Normalized Difference Frame” calculation to perform velocity matched filter enhancement
- Constrained Velocity Matched Filter (CVMF)
  - novel idea
  - combines known physical constraints with the target’s dynamic motion constraints to enhance the target SNR

## Algorithm Workflow





# Normalized Difference Calculation

Let  $F_s(t)$  correspond to the stabilized frame at time  $t$ , and  $B(t-1)$  corresponds to the background computed in the previous time step.

The Difference Frame at time  $t$ , can be calculated using the following equation:

$$D(t) = F_s(t) - B(t-1) \quad (1)$$

The Temporal Variance  $v$  for each pixel at time  $t$ , can be calculated using an Infinite Impulse Response (IIR) filter with the following equation:

$$v(i, j, t) = (1 - \gamma) D(i, j, t)^2 + \gamma v(i, j, t-1) \quad (2)$$

where  $\gamma$ , the variance update rate  $[0,1]$

The Temporal Standard Deviation  $\sigma$  for each pixel at time  $t$ , can be obtained by using the following equation:

$$\sigma(i, j, t) = \sqrt{v(i, j, t)} \quad (3)$$

# Normalized Difference Calculation (cont.)

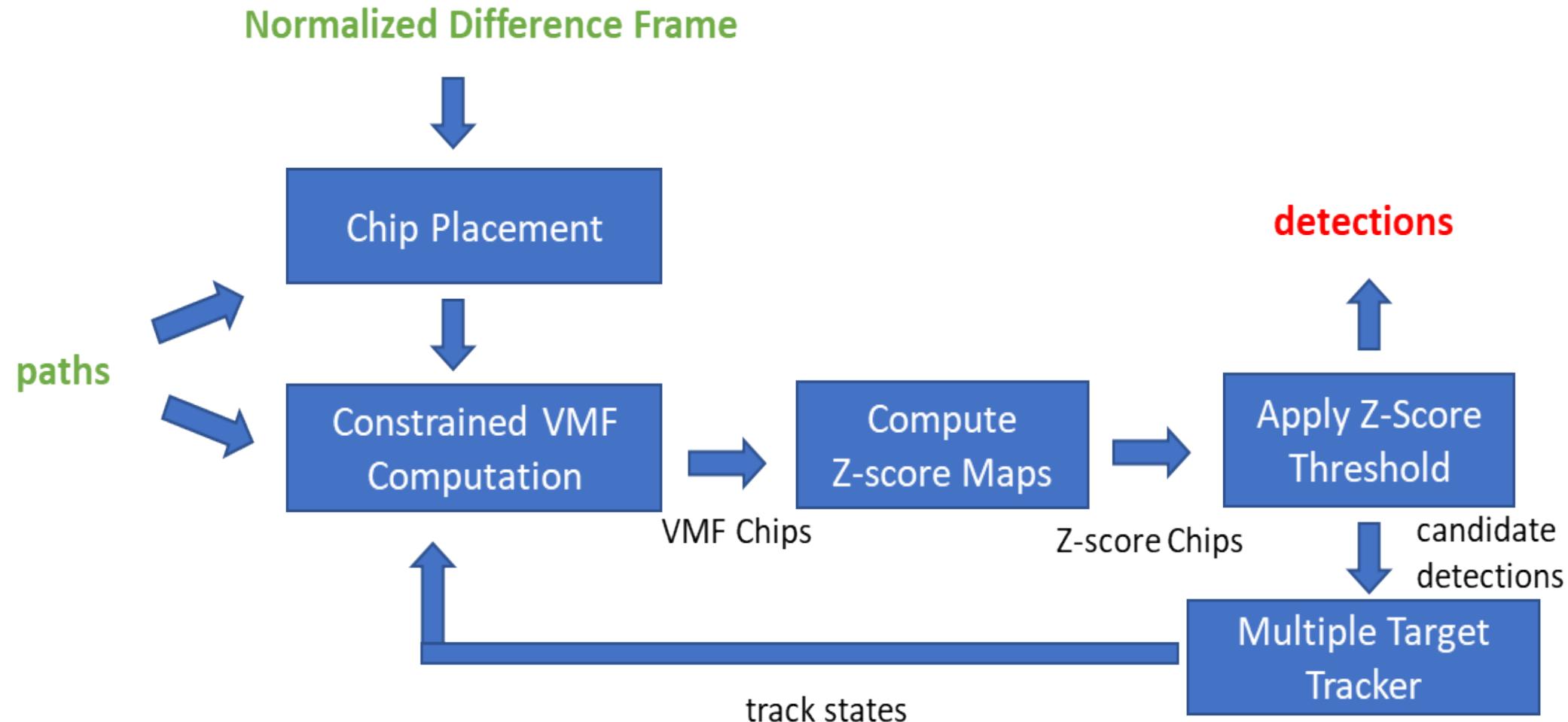


The Normalized Difference Frame  $N_d$  for frame pixel location  $(i, j)$  in time  $t$  is expressed as follow:

$$N_d = \frac{D(i, j, t)}{\sigma(i, j, t-1)} \quad (4)$$

**Key Motivation:** Pixels in different parts of an image can have different temporal standard deviation, depending on factors such as the environment and the scene structure. **It is important to normalize frame relative to account for variation of noise levels across an image.**

# Constrained Velocity Matched Filter (CVMF) Process



# Chip Placement



frame 112



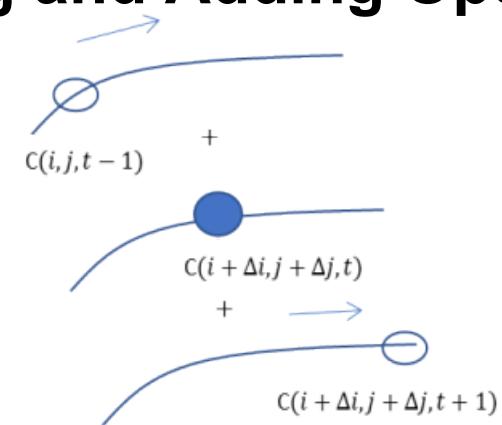
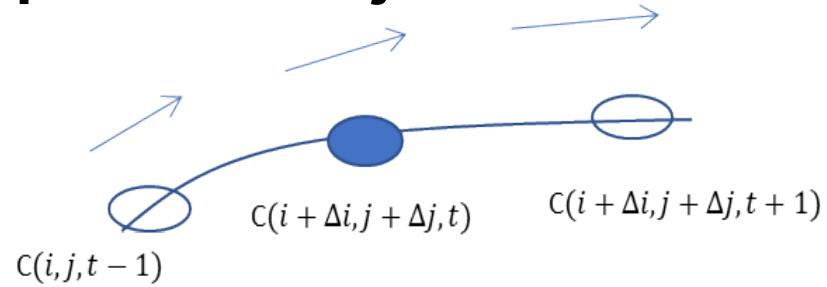
**Strategy:** Dividing the road into different number of regions (called “chips”)

**Key Motivation:** Enable parallel processing of individual chips and Z-score calculation

# Velocity Matched Filter Processing on “Chips”

The continuous VMF process can be implemented in discrete form, by shift-and-add-operation with different velocity hypotheses along the path.

## Example of an object’s movement over time      Shifting and Adding Operation



Mathematically, this can be expressed as the following:

$$S_k(i, j, t) = C(i + \Delta i, j + \Delta j, t - w) + \dots + C(i, j, t) + \dots + C(i + \Delta i, j + \Delta j, t + w) \quad (5)$$

where  $S_k$  is the summation of the pixel  $(i, j)$  across multiple frames.  $(\Delta i, \Delta j)$  corresponds to the shift positions, and  $w$ , represents the frame window for the summation, and  $k$  corresponds to the index of the matched hypothesis.



# Computation Analysis

The total number of matched hypothesis  $K$  can be expressed as:

$$K = M * N \quad (6)$$

where  $M$  is the number of directional hypotheses and  $N$  is the number of velocity hypotheses. Since the movement of the individual targets are constrained in a pre-determined path,  $M$  is 2 in most cases (either forward or backward direction).  $M$  can be greater than 2 when the chip is at an intersection. The number of velocities depends on the target's speed.

Processing of each individual chip can be done independently



# Z-score Calculation

To find the detection in the sum chip  $S$  for a given hypothesis  $k$ , we first normalized the sum chip to form a Z-score chip. We can do this by computing the mean  $\mu_s$  and standard deviation  $\sigma_s$  of the sum chip  $S$ . For dense target scenarios, it is recommended that a trim mean is used instead, to avoid high SNR targets inflating the mean estimates.

(7)

$$\mu_s = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{p=1}^P S(p)$$

(8)

$$\sigma_s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{P} \sum_{p=1}^P (S(p) - \mu_s)^2}$$

Then, we compute the Z score of the sum chip  $Z_s$  for each pixel  $(i, j)$  using the following

(9)

$$Z_s(i, j) = \frac{S(i, j) - \mu_s}{\sigma_s}$$

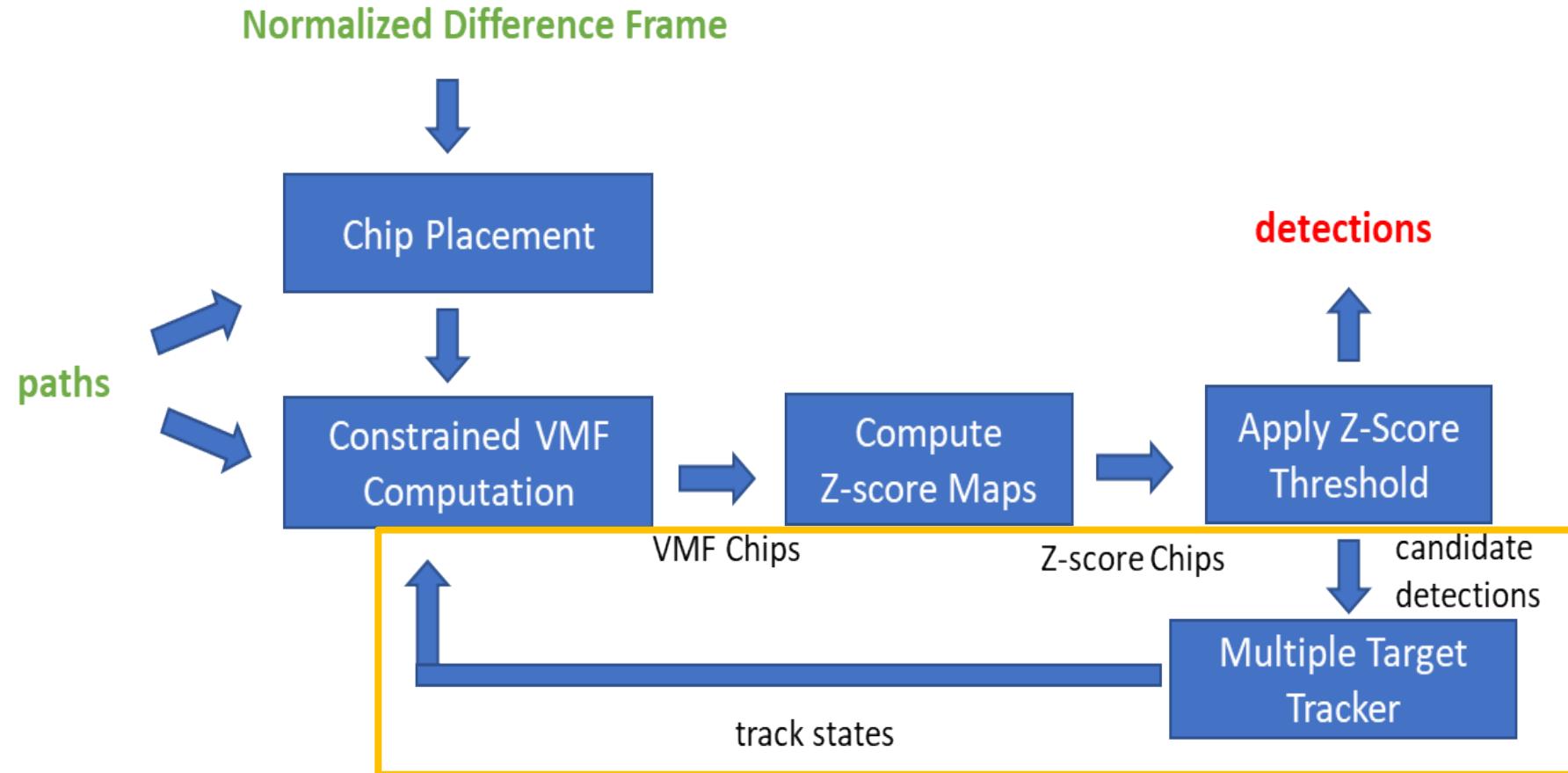


# Z-Score Thresholding

If ( $|Z_s(i, j)| \geq T$ ), then pixel  $(i, j)$  is a candidate detection.



# Tracker Feedback



As the target(s) are being tracked, the state vectors  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$  associated with covariance  $\mathbf{P}$  (motion constraint) are fed back to the CVMF process to fine tune the pre-defined velocity bins and improve the accuracy of matching.



# Multiple Target Tracker

An object's dynamic movement can be expressed mathematically using the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &= Ax(t-1) + q(t-1), & q(t) &\sim N(0, Q) \\ y(t) &= Hx(t) + r(t), & r(t) &\sim N(0, R) \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

where  $\mathbf{x}$  corresponds to the state vector,  $\mathbf{y}$  corresponds to the output vector,  $\mathbf{A}$  corresponds to the system matrix, and  $\mathbf{H}$  corresponds to the output matrix. The system includes additive process noise  $q$  and measurement noise  $r$ , which are modeled as white noise gaussian with zero mean.

The constant velocity model can be expressed in the following form:

$$\begin{aligned} x_1(t) &= x_1(t-1) + \Delta T x_3(t-1) + q_1 \\ x_2(t) &= x_2(t-1) + \Delta T x_4(t-1) + q_2 \\ x_3(t) &= x_3(t-1) + q_3 \\ x_4(t) &= x_4(t-1) + q_4 \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

# State Equation in matrix form

In matrix form, this can be expressed as:

(12)

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \Delta T & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \Delta T \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}(t-1) + \mathbf{Q},$$

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{R}$$

where  $\mathbf{Q}$ , is the process noise matrix, and  $\mathbf{R}$ , is the measurement noise matrix. Kalman Filtering can be used to predict and update the state estimates and its covariance estimate  $\mathbf{P}$  at each time step.



# Kalman Filtering

Kalman Filtering is used to update states and covariance for each time step.

## Prediction Steps

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}(k|k-1) = A \hat{\mathbf{x}}(k-1|k-1) \quad (13)$$

$$P(k|k-1) = A P(k-1|k-1) A^T + Q$$

## Updated Steps:

$$K(k) = P(k|k-1) H^T (H P(k|k-1) H^T + R)^{-1} \quad (14)$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}(k|k) = \hat{\mathbf{x}}(k|k-1) + K(y(k) - H)\hat{\mathbf{x}}(k|k-1)$$

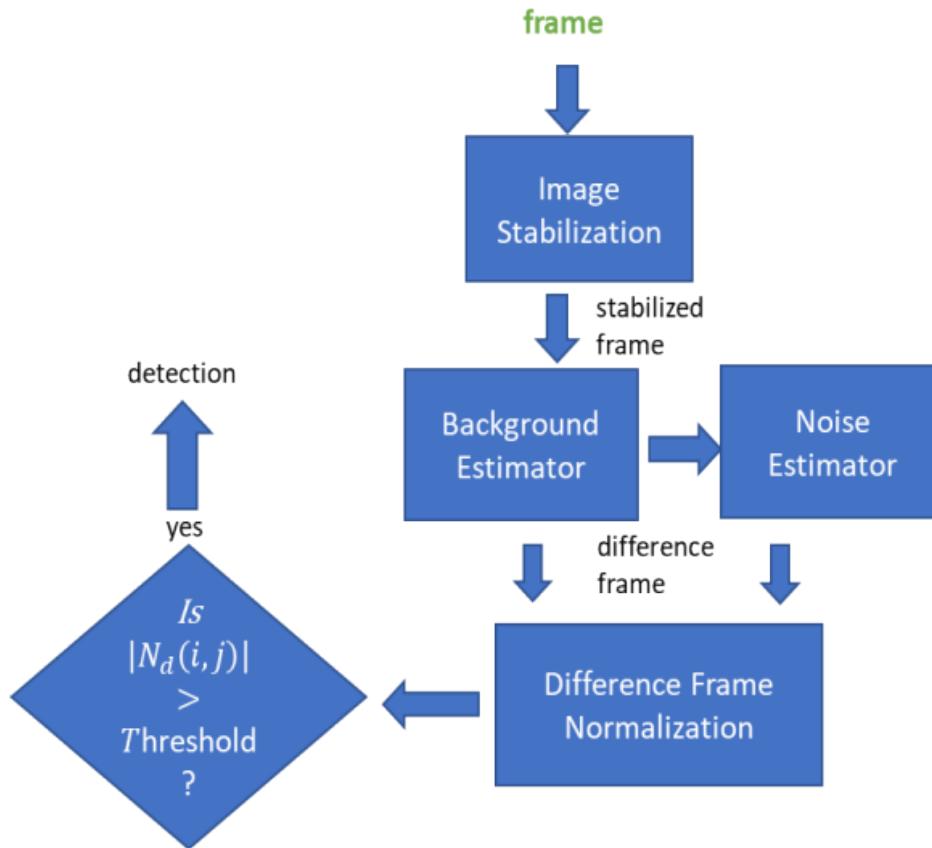
$$P(k|k) = (I - K(k)H)P(k|k-1)$$

As the target(s) are being tracked, the state vectors  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$  associated with covariance  $P$  (motion constraint) are fed back to the CVMF process to fine tune the pre-defined velocity bins and improve the accuracy of matching.

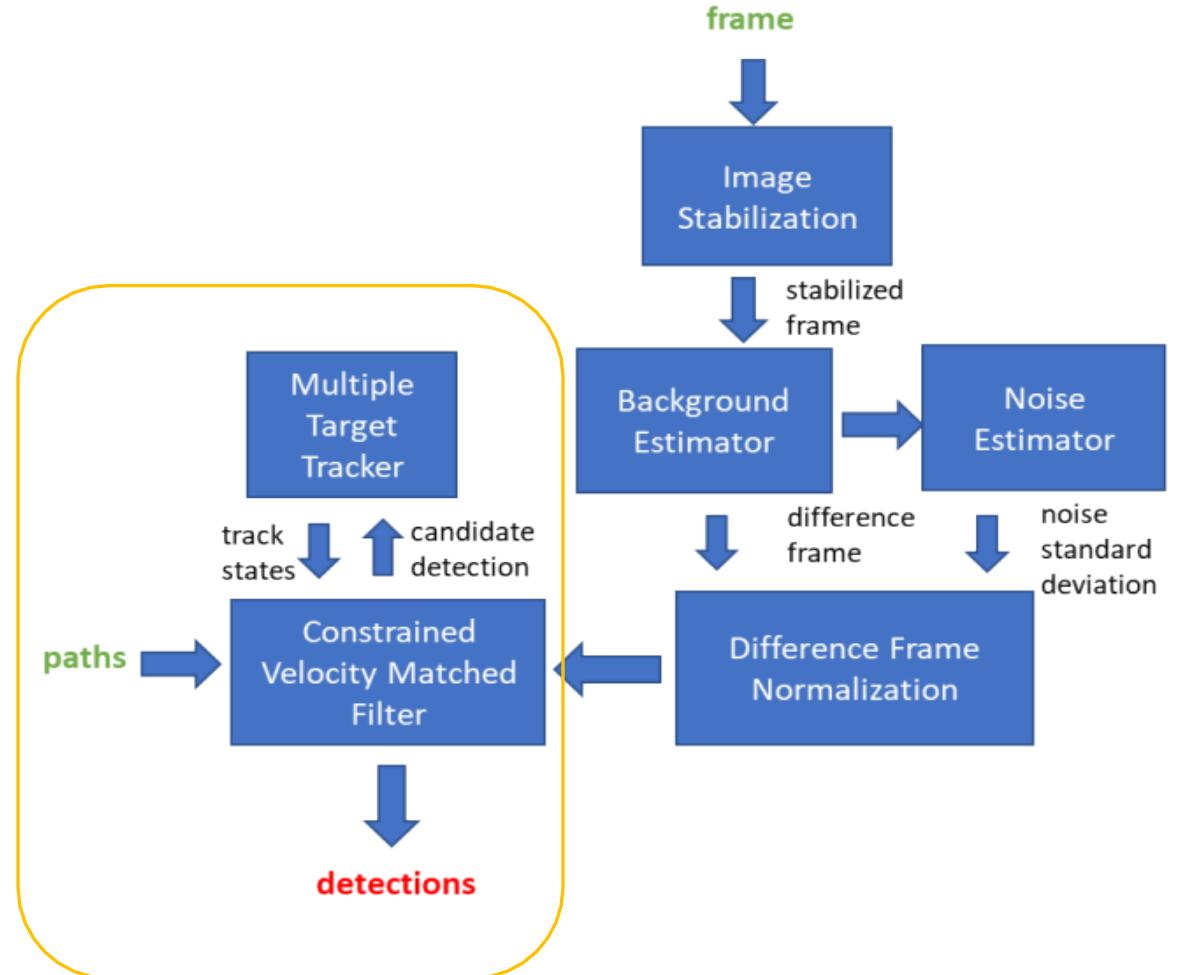
# Benchmark Comparison



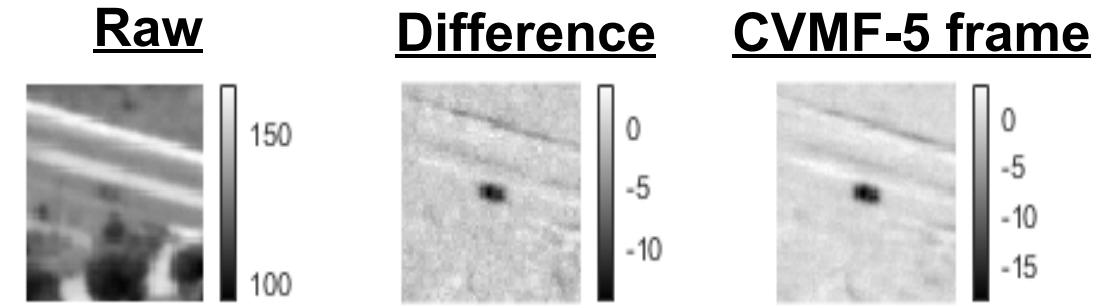
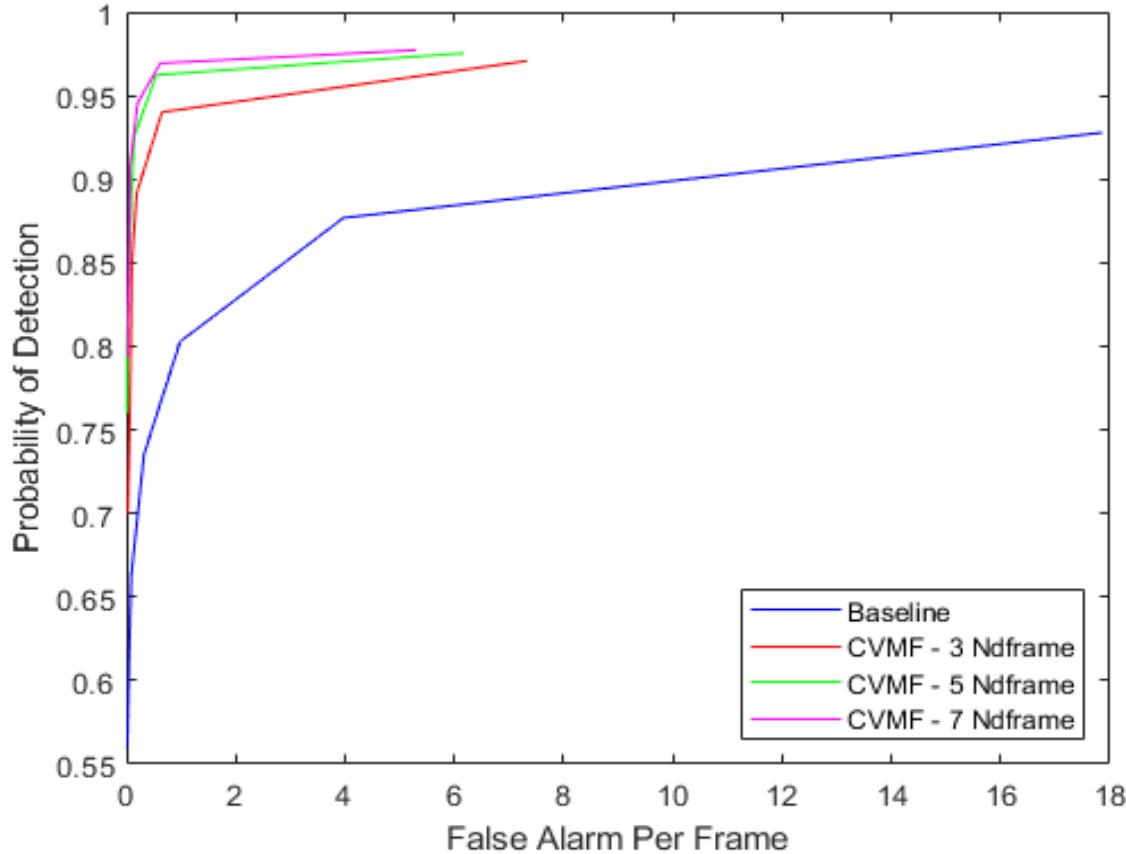
## Baseline (No CVMF)



## Baseline + CVMF

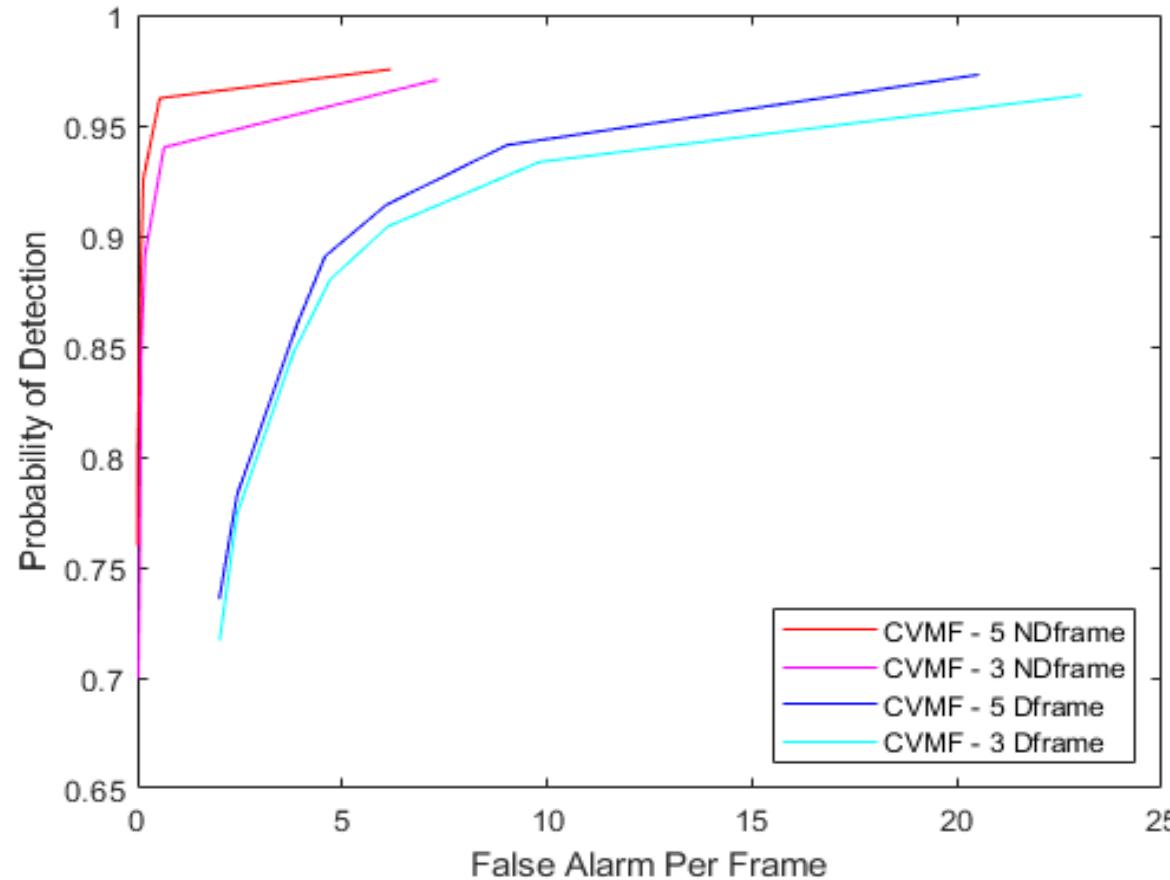


# ROC curve comparison



The additional CVMF processing improves baseline ROC curve significantly

# CVMF Normalized Difference vs CVMF Difference



**Operating CVMF Normalized Difference Frame is much more desirable than on the Difference Frame.**

# Conclusion

- **Key Scientific Contribution**
  - The addition of CVMF processing significantly improves the ROC curves
  - CVMF should be operating on normalized difference frame
- **Reference Publication:**
  - Tian J. Ma, "Remote Sensing Detection Enhancement", Springer, Journal of Big Data, October 2, 2021, DOI :<https://doi.org/10.1186/s40537-021-00517-8>