

BEV-Net: Assessing Social Distancing Compliance by Joint People Localization and Geometric Reasoning

Supplemental Material

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A. Dataset Annotation

Annotation procedure. The original CityUHK-X dataset [4] contained the head annotations of all people in the scene, as well as extrinsic camera parameters in the form of height h and pitch angle θ relative to ground plane. The intrinsic parameters were assumed available at training and test time. As the height of each individual is unknown, head locations are not sufficient to recover pedestrians' locations in the world coordinates. Therefore, we used Amazon Mechanical Turk to annotate feet locations of each person, with one-to-one correspondence to the head locations.

As the number of people in each scene varies greatly (minimum 1 to maximum 121), the scene images are pre-processed into rectangular crops around each head location. The size of rectangles are selected adaptively to make sure that each crop contains the whole person selected in the original image. Given each crop with marked head location, workers are required to locate the midpoint between both feet that correspond to the same person (figure 1); In crowded areas where one or both feet are occluded by objects or other pedestrians, workers are expected to provide their best estimate of feet location, or indicate that too little information is available to do so.

Each of the crops is assigned to three workers. The annotated coordinates from each worker are averaged after the exclusion of outliers. If at least two workers think they could see the feet clearly of the given person in the crop, then the crop is marked 'valid' (clearly visible). Otherwise, the feet of the given person are marked to be occluded.

Annotation outcome. 87,746 feet locations were annotated using the procedure described above. Among them,

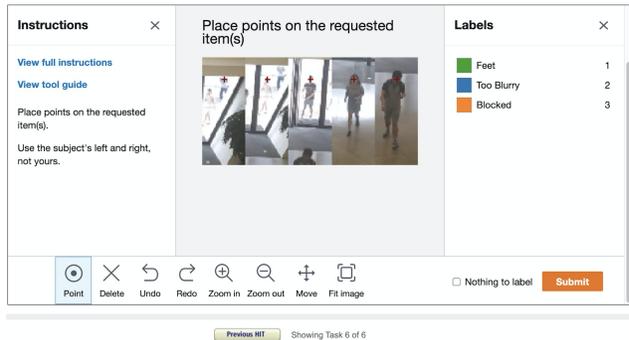


Figure 1: Annotation interface on MTurk.

63,669 (72.56%) were clearly visible and 24,077 (27.44%) occluded. Figure 2 shows the percentage of estimated annotations due to occluded body parts as functions of camera height and angle. The statistics reveal that occlusion occurs more frequently with low camera height and small pitch angles, making social distancing detection particularly challenging in these scenarios.

B. Homography Derivation

The setting of the camera is shown as figure 2 in the main text. The origin of world coordinate is set to be the camera's perpendicular projection on the ground plane, and the yaw angle of camera is set to be 0 by aligning it with the x -axis of world coordinates. We further assume that the camera has zero roll angle, *i.e.* its view is straightened to the horizon. This is a reasonable setting for most surveillance systems. Given the camera's height h and pitch angle θ , the transformation from the world frame to the optical frame,

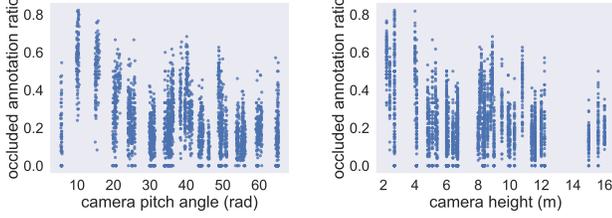


Figure 2: Percentage of estimated annotations from occluded body parts. More occlusion is found at smaller pitch angles and lower camera heights.

${}^O\mathbf{T}_W$, is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 {}^O\mathbf{T}_W &= {}^O\mathbf{T}_C {}^W\mathbf{T}_C^{-1} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & 0 & \sin \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\sin \theta & 0 & \cos \theta & h \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\sin \theta & 0 & -\cos \theta & h \cos \theta \\ \cos \theta & 0 & -\sin \theta & h \sin \theta \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \tag{1}
 \end{aligned}$$

where ${}^O\mathbf{T}_C$ is the transformation from the camera frame to the optical frame, and ${}^W\mathbf{T}_C$ is from the camera frame to the world frame.

In CityUHK-X-BEV dataset, the camera focal lengths (f_u, f_v) are given and for generality, we suppose there is no optical skew nor image center displacement. Hence, the intrinsic matrix is

$$\mathbf{K} = \begin{bmatrix} f_u & 0 & u_c^I \\ 0 & f_v & v_c^I \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \tag{2}$$

Denoting with \mathbf{P} the canonical projection matrix, transformation from point (x, y, z) in the world frame to coordinates (u, v) in the image frame is given by

$${}^I\mathbf{T}_W = \mathbf{K} \mathbf{P} {}^O\mathbf{T}_W \tag{3}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} u & v & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\top = {}^I\mathbf{T}_W \begin{bmatrix} x & y & z & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\top. \tag{4}$$

For a plane at $z = h_0$, we can easily get the projection of points in the plane by using the camera’s relative height $h' = h - h_0$. So, $z = 0$ and equation 4 becomes

$$\begin{bmatrix} u & v & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\top = {}^I\mathbf{H}_W \begin{bmatrix} x & y & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\top, \tag{5}$$

where

$${}^I\mathbf{H}_W = \begin{bmatrix} u_c^I \alpha & -f_u & u_c^I h' \beta \\ v_c^I \alpha - f_v \beta & 0 & h' (f_v \alpha + v_c^I \beta) \\ \alpha & 0 & h' \beta \end{bmatrix}, \tag{6}$$

$\alpha = \cos \theta$, $\beta = \sin \theta$, (f_u, f_v) are the horizontal and vertical focal length of the camera respectively, and (u_c^I, v_c^I) the image center.

Since the BEV map is under a certain scale as equation 2 in the main text, the transformation between BEV map coordinates and the world frame is

$${}^W\mathbf{T}_B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -s & x_c + sH/2 \\ -s & 0 & y_c + sW/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \tag{7}$$

where H, W are the height and width of the BEV map, and (x_c, y_c) is the world coordinate of the image center on the ground plane. Matrices of equation 6 and equation 7 are combined in equation 5 of main text to build the transform from image frame to BEV.

C. Network Architecture

Figure 3 summarizes the architecture for each branch of BEV-Net. Image-view (IV) branches estimate head or feet locations from input image using an encoder-decoder structure. The IV encoders followed the same design as the first 4 convolutional blocks of VGG-16 [10] with batch normalization [3]. Head and feet feature maps are then processed by a fully-convolutional decoder network into the IV heatmap. Pose branch uses fully connected layers stacked on top of a ResNet-101 [2] feature extractor to regress camera height and pitch angle. The head and feet feature maps are projected into bird’s eye view (BEV) using the BEV-Transform module (section 4.2 of main text), then fed into the BEV decoder which predicts the final BEV heatmap.

D. More Ablation Study

Performance on split scene setting. As shown in figure 4, camera poses varies even within the same scenes of the CityUHK-X-BEV dataset. In the paper, we use the setting of PoseNet [5], which trains and tests on the same scenes. We believe that this is the most suited for a public health setting, where there is usually some planing of the locations to monitor and data can be collected at those locations. In this setting, parameter variation is mostly due to camera motion (e.g. pan-zoom cameras), wind effects, etc. and usually less severe than even in figure 4. A more drastic generalization to completely unseen scenes is a much more challenging task. We also test BEV-Net with some scenes unseen during training. The chamfer distance increases to 2.41/80.33%, IoU of local risk drops to 54.86%, and the global risk MSE is 50.14×10^{-4} . We can see that BEV-Net still outperforms most baselines.

Encoder shared across branches. A BEV-Net with encoder shared across feet, head and pose branches has chamfer distance 1.25, local risk IoU 71.01%, and global risk

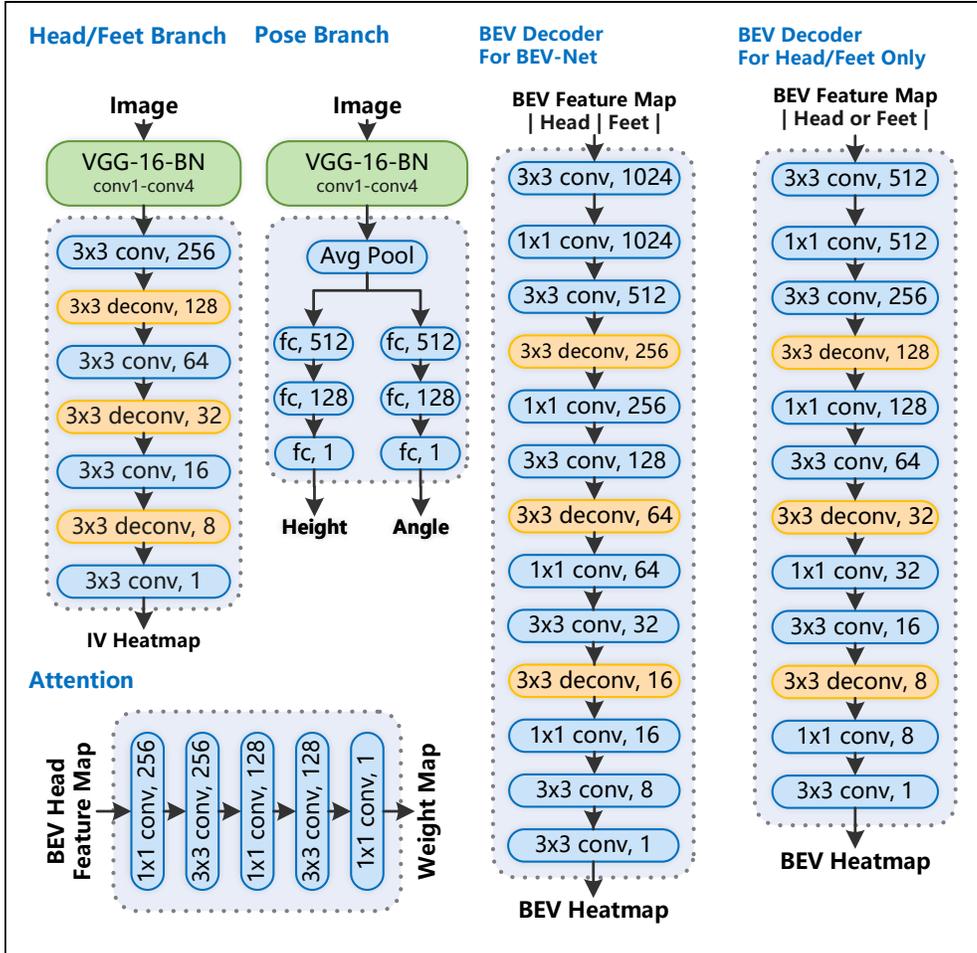


Figure 3: Network architectures. From left to right: IV (head/feet) branch, pose branch, BEV branch. The left bottom is the attention module. All conv layers have stride $s = 1$; deconv layers use stride $s = 2$. Nonlinearity, dropout [11] and batch normalization [3] omitted between some layers for simplicity.



Figure 4: Variation in camera poses in the same scene of CityUHK-X-BEV.

MSE 5.88×10^{-4} . i.e. a little weaker than original implementation.

E. Qualitative Examples

Figure 5 and 6 contain qualitative comparison of localization and risk predictions from the proposed BEV-Net and baseline approaches using detection [1, 8] and crowd counting [6, 7] backbones. The results confirm the observations

in main paper that detection methods have low recall for pedestrians far away, while counting methods fail to produce accurate localization in ground plane. In contrast, BEV-Net captures more people in crowded scenes, especially in areas far from the camera where occlusion is common, as well as those with extreme (close to 90°) camera angles. This advantage translates to better localization and risk estimate performance, both in the visualizations and in quantitative results (table 1 of main text).

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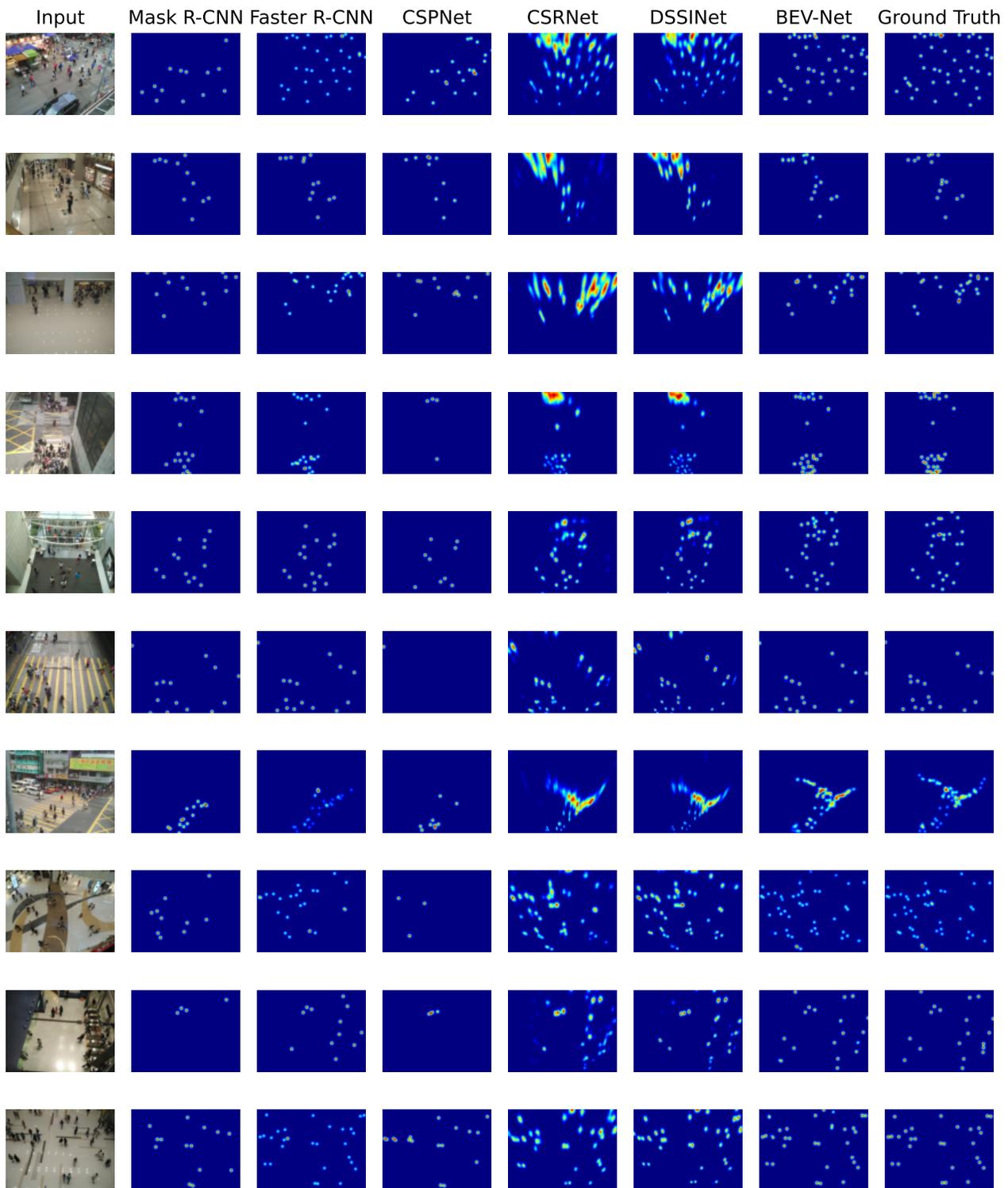


Figure 5: Qualitative comparison of **BEV heatmaps** between Mask R-CNN [1], Faster R-CNN [9], CSP [8], CSRNet [6], DSSINet [7] baselines and BEV-Net (ours). BEV-Net misses fewer people than detection methods [1, 8] and produces more accurate localization than crowd counting approaches [6, 7].



Figure 6: Qualitative comparison of **risk heatmaps** between Mask R-CNN [1], Faster R-CNN [9], CSP [8], CSRNet [6], DSSINet [7] baselines and BEV-Net (ours). Risk maps predicted by BEV-Net are closest to ground-truth.

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