An adequate natural language description of developments in a real-world scene can be taken as proof of “understanding what is going on.” An algorithmic system that generates natural language descriptions from video recordings of road traffic scenes can be said to “understand” its input to the extent that algorithmically generated text is acceptable to the humans judging it. A fuzzy metric-temporal Horn logic (FMTHL) provides a formalism for representing both schematic and instantiated conceptual knowledge about the depicted scene and its temporal development. The resulting conceptual representation mediates in a systematic manner between the spatiotemporal geometric descriptions extracted from video input and a module that generates natural language text. This article outlines a 30-year effort to create such a cognitive vision system, indicates its current status, summarizes lessons learned along the way, and discusses open problems against this background.

For ages, students have been asked to repeat a previously given explanation in their own words: An experienced teacher can infer the degree of understanding—or the lack of it—from the manner in which an explanation has been paraphrased. The ability to present a “variant formulation” without distorting the essential parts of the original message is taken as a cue that these essentials have been “understood.” During art lessons, in particular those concerned with classical or ecclesiastic paintings, students are initially invited to merely describe what they see. Frequently, considerable a priori knowledge about ancient mythology or biblical traditions is required to succinctly characterize the depicted scene. Lack of the corresponding knowledge about other cultures can make it difficult for someone with only a European education to really understand and describe in an appropriate manner a painting by, for example, a Far East classic artist.

Familiar human experiences mentioned in the preceding paragraph will now be “morphed” into a scientific challenge: to design and implement an algorithmic engine that generates an appropriate textual description of essential developments in a video sequence recorded from a real-world scene. Such an algorithmic engine will serve as one example of a cognitive vision system (CVS), which leaves room, as the experienced reader has noticed, for there to be more than one way to introduce the concept of a CVS. An alternative clearly consists in coupling a computer vision system with a robotic system of some kind and assessing the reactions of such a compound system. To whomever accepts the formulation, “one of the actions available to an agent is to produce language. This is called a speech act. Russell and Norvig (1995)” is unlikely to consider the two variants of a CVS alluded to previously as being fundamentally different.

With regard to the first CVS version in particular, the following remarks are submitted for consideration: Obviously, we avoid a precise definition of understanding in favor of having humans compare the reaction of an algorithmic engine to that expected from a human. This fuzzy approach toward the circumscription of a CVS opens the road to constructive criticism—that is, to incremental system improvement—by pinpointing aspects of an output text that are not yet considered satisfactory. One might ask, moreover, whether unsatisfactory results are the result of an in-
aby of a CVS to exploit principally accessible knowledge or the result of the fact that the CVS does not command the a priori knowledge necessary to generate an appropriate formulation. Such a question focuses on the system-internal representation and exploitation of knowledge.

Readers familiar with the history of AI will note that the proposed CVS cannot (easily) pretend understanding based on ELIZA-type syntactic manipulations. The price for this advantage has to be paid in the form of heavy computational expenses for machine vision processes. Students who are introduced to image processing with currently available facilities—to record an image sequence using a notebook is a routine activity today—can scarcely imagine the effort required in the early 1970s to merely digitize a short video sequence and transfer it onto a laboratory computer. It took about four years for the research group I established in 1971 at the Universität Hamburg to acquire the facilities to record a sequence such as the well-known Hamburg taxi sequence (figure 1).

There is another subtlety associated with the CVS to be discussed here: The postulate to describe essential developments in a scene provides a built-in focus on changes, in particular, on movements. The number of verbs, for example, in the German language (about 9200) is much smaller than the number of words (about 140,000) available to denote abstract or concrete entities (nouns for living creatures, inanimate objects, abstract concepts) and their attributes (adjectives). Obvi-
The Core Computer Vision Subsystem

The discussion concentrates initially on the four layers in the lower left half of figure 2. Consecutive layers are connected by bidirectional links to the conceptual primitives level, which comprises the interface between geometric and conceptual processing. Subsequently mentioned examples will mostly refer to image sequences recorded by a single stationary fixed-lens camera such that the downward flow of information toward the sensor-actuator level for control of camera parameters will be of no concern here. Signal-related image transformations in the image-signal level such as low-pass filter operations are not treated.

A clear distinction between the picture and scene domain level (Kanade 1978) helps to organize the knowledge representation: The picture domain refers to the representation of spatiotemporal geometric structures restricted to the image plane—such as regions in a segmented gray-value image or optical flow field—whereas structures related to the depicted three-dimensional (3D) scene are treated in the scene domain.

Extraction of Vehicle Image Candidates

Given an image sequence of a road traffic scene recorded by a stationary camera, a first processing step has to detect images of vehicles and estimate their parameters, such as their position within an image frame. Because of limited computing power, we started by thresholding gray-value differences between consecutive image frames. The unreliability of such an approach led to efforts to develop more robust stochastic tests, but we eventually abandoned these efforts as well. Change cues can be the result of many reasons (motion but, in addition, illumination changes including time-varying reflections) and, thus, are difficult to interpret. It appeared more advantageous to directly estimate the frame-to-frame shift of identifiable gray-value structures (for example, Zimmermann and Kories [1984] and Sung and Zimmermann [1986]), or feature-based optical flow (figure 3). Thresholding the norm of such optical flow estimates and clustering the surviving neighboring optical flow vectors of (approximately) the same length and orientation directly extracted regions that exhibit in general a much higher correlation with images of moving vehicles than change regions (figure 4).

In principle, each cluster can be tracked from frame to frame, yielding an image-plane vehicle trajectory such as the ones illustrated in figure 5. Image-plane vehicle trajectory data obtained in this manner have successfully been associated with motion verbs in exploratory experiments (Koller, Heinze, and Nagel 1991) based on considerations developed in Nagel (1988).

Experiences during attempts to increase the robustness of this approach resulted eventually in the decision to drastically redesign the vehicle-detection and -tracking components at the picture-domain level and the interface to the conceptual primitive level (compare figure 2). In particular for small vehicle images, extraction and interframe linkage of gray-value features can vary considerably from frame to frame, which, in turn, influences the clustering of resulting optical flow vectors with the clearly visible effect that trajectories appear ragged (figure 5). Our research group did resist the temptation to fight this effect by smoothing operations in the image plane and decided to counteract its root cause by improving the tracking process.

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**Figure 2. Coarse-Layer Structure of the Overall System.**

The layers underlaid in light gray in a black-and-white printout constitute the core computer vision subsystem for the extraction of a geometric three-dimensional scene representation. The conceptual representation subsystem is underlaid in medium gray, the text generation is incorporated into the natural language level underlaid in dark gray. (From Nagel [2000] where a more detailed explanation can be found; © 2000 IEEE, reproduced with permission).
Switching to a Model-Based Scene-Domain Tracking Process

Rather than tracking a cluster of optical flow vectors directly, such a cluster can serve merely to initialize a 3D-model-based tracking process, building on ideas reported earlier by Lowe (1991). A polyhedric vehicle model is tentatively placed in the scene at a location estimated by back projection of optical flow vectors within a cluster onto a plane somewhat above and parallel to the road plane. This approach assumes that the optical flow vectors originate from features painted onto a planar facet hovering about half the vehicle’s height above the road plane. A back projection of optical flow vectors onto this facet provides an initial estimate for orientation and speed of the vehicle (figure 6). This initial model pose allows one to associate visible model segments with edge segments extracted from the image frame to improve the pose estimate (Koller 1992; Koller, Daniilidis, and Nagel 1993). The resulting improved vehicle pose constitutes the starting point of a 3D vehicle trajectory ob-

**Figure 3. Feature-Based Optical Flow Results (Right Panel) Estimated from Image Regions (Left and Center Panels) That Have Been Cropped from Two Frames of a Sequence.**


**Figure 4. A Frame from a Sequence Recorded at a Busy Karlsruhe Intersection.**

Left panel, from Kollnig and Nagel (1997), © 1997 Kluwer, reproduced with permission. The center panel shows rectangles enclosing clusters of optical flow vectors obtained by a feature-based–estimation approach illustrated in the right panel of figure 3. The two triangles inscribed on each rectangle indicate the image-motion direction obtained from the optical flow estimates. The right panel shows an enlargement around the three vehicle image candidates, 5, 7, and 9, in the center panel. One can recognize that only a small number of feature-based optical flow estimates contribute to each cluster (center and right panels from Kollnig [1995], © 1995 infix, reproduced with permission.)
tained through a succession of prediction/update cycles realized by a Kalman filter.

It turned out that shadows could create havoc during such a gradient descent pose improvement, as illustrated by figure 7. The lower contour segments of the car body have been fitted mostly to data segments associated with the car’s shadow because the contrast between lower parts of the car’s body and the shadowed road surface is smaller than the contrast between the shadow and the illuminated part of the dark road surface. Inclusion of the vehicle shadow in the model projection alleviates this problem (Koller 1992; Koller, Daniilidis, and Nagel 1993).

Improved Three-Dimensional Pose Initializations

Numerous experiments with the approach outlined in the preceding subsection gradually convinced our research group to replace the feature-based optical flow estimates with gradient-based ones (Otte 1994; Otte and Nagel 1995); these estimates provide a much denser optical-flow vector field and enable a more robust initialization (figure 8).

A second significant modification abandoned the data-driven aggregation of edge elements into data segments that subsequently were tested for association with model segment projections computed on the basis of the cur-
“blind” edge-element aggregation process would result in an incorrect aggregation and, subsequently, in unwanted matches between data and model segments. Such mismatches could distort the pose estimate and thereby increased the risk of tracking failures.

A third important modification exploits a priori knowledge about the position of lanes. Optical flow vectors associated with the images of vehicles, which drive close to each other in neighboring lanes at about the same speed, can...
be collected together into a single large cluster. The interactive provision of a polygonal representation of the lane structure for the road plane in the scene enables a heuristic that splits a single blob of optical flow vectors covering two neighboring lanes into two subblobs. Each of these subblobs can then be used to generate a vehicle image candidate, as illustrated in figure 10. The image corresponds to a time shortly after the traffic lights had switched to green for vehicles coming from the top. Heavier vehicles or those in the rear parts of the queues are just beginning to accelerate with the consequence that their speed—and, thus, the associated optical flow vectors—were still rather small. Because of the dense optical flow field in image areas corresponding to (parts of) moving vehicles, the overlaid optical flow vectors appear as dark blobs.

**Improvement of Tracking Capabilities**

Once the initialization phase had considerably been improved compared to earlier system versions, less obvious problems in the tracking

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**Figure 9. Fitting Fuzzified Model Segments Directly to Gray-Level Gradient Magnitude.**

A. This panel shows the visible model segments of the initial model instantiation (see figure 6) “fuzzified” (that is, extended into their image plane environment) by convolution with a two-dimensional Gaussian filter. B. Edge elements extracted from the same image frame as used for figure 6 are given, where darker values indicate a higher-gradient norm. C. This panel illustrates the succession of fits obtained by the update step of an iterated extended Kalman filter. D. The final result is overlaid on the bus image (from Kollnig and Nagel [1997] © 1997 Kluwer, reproduced with permission).

**Figure 10. Exploiting Knowledge about the Lane Structure.**

The left panel shows a window cropped from a video sequence recorded at a road intersection in Frankfurt, Germany, overlaid by optical flow vectors whose norm exceeds a threshold. Rectangles corresponding to clusters of optical flow vectors are overlaid the same image area in the center panel. Vehicle image candidates generated in this manner can cover the image of more than a single vehicle or none at all (for example because of pedestrians). If knowledge about the lane structure is available, optical flow vector blobs covering neighboring lanes can be split based on the hypothesis that they are the result of two separate vehicles driving side by side (see right panel). In addition, clusters have been suppressed if their size did not exceed a minimum area threshold. (From Kollnig, Leuck, and Nagel [1995] © 1995 Springer-Verlag, reproduced with permission).
phase were attacked. A combination of three major modifications enabled a kind of “quantum jump” for tracking robustness: (1) transition to half-frame tracking for interlaced video sequences, (2) exploitation of the direction information associated with edge elements, and (3) incorporation of optical flow estimates into the state update with an iterative extended Kalman filter.

Based on a judicious discretization of partial derivatives of a Gaussian low-pass filter, it became possible to estimate image gradients and optical flow vectors with full-frame resolution at each half-frame time point: The operator masks incorporated a suitable interpolation between odd and even half frames (fields) of interlaced video digitizations (Otte 1994; Otte and Nagel 1995), allowing a cut in the prediction period by a factor of two, thereby reducing the extrapolation error to one-fourth compared to full-frame prediction. The implied doubling of the prediction/update frequency has to be paid for by a doubling of computational expenses. This effect has been compensated, however, by the increase in computing power within eighteen months: It turned out to be more advantageous to lag behind the highest tracking speed attainable at any one time than to trace down complicated tracking failures that could build up over a long period by accumulating very small residual discrepancies of the fitting process.

Previously, only the distance between an edge-element location and the model segment had been taken into account by the state-update phase of the Kalman filter. The second improvement also incorporated the orientation difference between the gradient direction and the normal from the location of an edge element to the model segment. This modification allowed the exclusion of edge elements from being tentatively associated with a model segment if the orientation difference turned out to be too large. In addition, edge elements that are better aligned with the current model segment contribute more to the state parameter update than those that are less well aligned although still within the orientation tolerance.

The third major modification extended the residual function by including the difference between the displacement rate—determined for each visible surface picture element on the basis of the current state estimate—and the optical flow vector estimated at the corresponding image location. Because of the recording conditions that in our case require a large field of view of the stationary camera to follow vehicles during significant maneuvers, vehicle images are usually small. The number of pixels that can be exploited for edge-element extraction thus tends to be much smaller than that accessible to optical flow estimation. Incorporation of optical flow estimates improves the velocity estimation and thereby significantly stabilizes the tracking process, in particular during partial occlusion of a vehicle.

As a result of these major improvements—and a number of other ones that cannot be treated here because of space limitations—the rate of successfully tracked vehicle images increased significantly, as documented in Haag (1998) and Haag and Nagel (1999) (figure 11).

Association of Maneuver Concepts with Vehicle Trajectories

Given the ability to track road vehicles under realistic boundary conditions, a next step toward a CVS associates concepts for recognizable movement primitives with segments of estimated vehicle trajectories. Such an association imports geometric results from the CVS subsystem—see the previous section—across the interface between the scene domain level and the conceptual primitives level into the conceptual representation subsystem introduced in figure 2.

Recognizable movement primitives can be considered elementary maneuvers that on the one hand can be performed by a vehicle and on the other hand can be described by simple verb phrases. To emphasize the distinction between the system-internal representation of such an elementary activity and its linguistic expression, the abstract term occurrence is used for the internal representation.

Table 1 contains a small subset of occurrences for which system-internal representations have been constructed, here in particular for verb phrases involving the vehicle as agent and a location (for details, see Gerber and Nagel [2002]). Each occurrence can be characterized uniquely by a conjunction of predicates. These, in turn, consist of a conjunction of as many as three (sub)predicates, namely (1) a precondition (PREC) that has to be satisfied before the occurrence in question could be considered to represent a valid description of the temporal development in which the agent is involved; (2) a monotonicity condition (MONC or MC), indicating the type of admissible monotonous change that might take place when the occurrence represents a valid description; (3) a postcondition (POSTC) that becomes true once the occurrence in question no longer constitutes an adequate description of the temporal development in which the agent is involved.
Fuzzy membership functions such as those illustrated in figure 12 encode the (principally vague) a priori knowledge about the relation between the (3D) speed estimate for the vehicle in question, as obtained by the geometric tracking process, and the conceptual values used to describe qualitatively this numerically given speed. Similar membership functions have been defined for the conceptual values that can be assumed by the predicates has_course_toward_loc and has_distance_to_loc. This information is used to convert the quantitatively given results obtained by the geometric tracking process to a degree of validity (a real number between 0.0 and 1.0) to the “fact” that the predicate has the corresponding qualitative conceptual value at a particular (half-frame) time point. These degrees of validity are evaluated by an inference engine (see Schäfer [1996]) that combines the conjunction of sub-predicates—evaluated for each occurrence as a function of time according to a separately specified acceptance automaton—to obtain a degree of validity for the association of such an occurrence with the vehicle trajectory at a particular point in time. Figure 13 visualizes these associations for a small part of the trajectory of the bus (vehicle candidate 10), shown in the right panel of figure 8.

**Representation of Behavior**

To this point, only individual actions (maneuvers) of an agent vehicle have been treated at the conceptual level. Associated occurrences correspond to verb phrases that can be com-
prediction edges; see figure 14. A situation node combines a state representation scheme—expressed as a conjunction of fuzzy metric-temporal logic predicates—and an action scheme. The action scheme indicates the action open to the agent provided the state scheme can be instantiated from observations related to this agent. In other words, the (time-indexed) results imported from the core computer vision subsystem are converted into a model-theoretic set of individuals that are used to interpret the logic formulas representing the a priori knowledge about temporal developments in the depicted scene.

At each consecutive point in time (that is, for each half-frame), the inference engine activated for the interpretation task selects the highest-prioritized prediction link to attempt to interpret the state representation scheme of the successor node. If such an attempt fails, it is repeated iteratively following successively lower prioritized links until either a state repre-

bined with a noun phrase referring to the agent vehicle—in the simplest case, just an identifier that is treated as a proper name—to construct a single sentence in isolation. A natural next step consists of an attempt to treat such actions within their mutual context, namely, to concatenate individual maneuvers in a manner compatible with experience to study the behavior of vehicular agents. Such a step corresponds to a progression from the conceptual primitives level in figure 2 to the behavior representation level.

Situation Graphs and Situation Graph Trees
The system has to incorporate, therefore, a priori knowledge about which vehicle maneuvers can be concatenated—and under which conditions—into admissible sequences of occurrences. Such knowledge about vehicular behavior is represented internally as a situation graph formed by situation nodes connected by prediction edges; see figure 14. A situation node combines a state representation scheme—expressed as a conjunction of fuzzy metric-temporal logic predicates—and an action scheme. The action scheme indicates the action open to the agent provided the state scheme can be instantiated from observations related to this agent. In other words, the (time-indexed) results imported from the core computer vision subsystem are converted into a model-theoretic set of individuals that are used to interpret the logic formulas representing the a priori knowledge about temporal developments in the depicted scene.

At each consecutive point in time (that is, for each half-frame), the inference engine activated for the interpretation task selects the highest-prioritized prediction link to attempt to interpret the state representation scheme of the successor node. If such an attempt fails, it is repeated iteratively following successively lower prioritized links until either a state repre-

\begin{table}
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|l|l|l|l|l|}
\hline
\textbf{Occurrence} & \textbf{has\_speed(Agent)} & \textbf{has\_course(Agent,Location)} & \textbf{has\_distance(Agent,Location)} \\
\hline
\textbf{PRE} & \textbf{MON} & \textbf{POST} & \textbf{PRE} & \textbf{MON} & \textbf{POST} & \textbf{PRE} & \textbf{MON} & \textbf{POST} \\
\hline
\textbf{approach loc} & moving & — & moving & approaching & — & approaching & not\_zero & > & small \\
\textbf{reach loc} & moving & — & moving & — & — & — & — & small & > & zero \\
\textbf{drive away from loc} & moving & — & moving & leaving & — & leaving & small & < & not\_zero \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Time-Dependent Predicates Defining Occurrences That Refer to Both the Agent and a Location.}
\end{table}

The symbol $>$ indicates a decreasing slope for the value subject to the monotonicity condition MON; the symbol $<$ correspondingly indicates an increasing slope. The term has\_course denotes the abbreviation of the predicate has\_course\_toward\_loc with the conceptual values approaching and leaving. Similarly, has\_distance stands for the predicate has\_distance\_to\_loc. See Gerber and Nagel (2002).
sentation scheme of a successor situation can be instantiated, or the list of possible successor situations has been exhausted.

The next steps performed by the inference engine depend on the position of the last successfully instantiated situation node. In principle, the number of predicates to be checked during an instantiation attempt can become rather large, with a high probability that most predicates remain true at the (frame)time succeeding the last point in time with a successfully instantiated situation node. Thus, it appears advantageous to organize situation nodes not only according to their temporal concatenation but also according to a degree of conceptual refinement. A more abstract situation node can be refined into a less abstract representation by either the addition of new predicates to the state representation scheme (specialization) or the temporal decomposition into a subsequence of situation nodes referring to a more detailed state representation scheme. The (most) abstract situation node cross (for “cross an intersection”) in figure 14 is refined into a subgraph constituted by a concatenation of three situation nodes, namely, (1) drive_to_intersection, (2) drive_on_intersection, and (3) leave_intersection. Such a refinement can take place recursively, as illustrated by figure 14. A subordinate situation node, that is, a situation node in a graph that refines a more abstract situation node, inherits all predicates from its superordinate situation nodes. These predicates are included in the set of logic formulas constituting the state representation scheme of the subordinate situation node. This hierarchical organization of a situation graph greatly simplifies the design and maintenance of more complex behavior representations: A situation graph is turned into a special case of a directed hypergraph, namely, into a situation graph tree.

The tree property is important for the situation graph tree traversal rule followed by the inference engine. If a situation node has successfully been instantiated, it is attempted next to instantiate the entry node of its subordinate situation graph (if there is one): This rule aims at reaching the most detailed situation node compatible with the currently prevailing facts. If an attempt to instantiate a successor node in a subgraph fails at some later point in time, the situation graph tree traversal algorithm returns to the uniquely specified more abstract situation node and attempts to continue from there. The unsatisfiability of a more refined state representation scheme does not exclude that a more abstract scheme can still be satisfied by current observations.

Because of this rule, a more general (for example, emergency) reaction can still be possible even if the originally anticipated detailed sequence of actions must be ruled out because their conditions—namely, the satisfaction of all predicates required by the state representation scheme of the more detailed situation nodes—can no longer be confirmed.

A path through a directed situation graph tree implies that the agent executes the actions specified in the most detailed situation node reached at each point in time during traversal; that is, such a path implies the behavior associated with the concatenation of actions encountered along such a path.
Feedback for Tracking Via the Behavioral Representation Level

The exploitation of a priori knowledge incorporated into a situation graph tree will be illustrated by an approach to cope with the behavior of vehicles which changes while they are occluded. The right panel of figure 15 shows (interactively generated) 3D polyhedral models of a tree, several masts, and a large traffic sign, the latter in the upper left quadrant of the scene depicted by the left panel. This allows, for example, to determine the degree of occlusion—see figure 16—of vehicles while they pass behind this traffic sign.

Figure 17 shows enlargements of the image area cropped within the square window indicated in the upper left quadrant of figure 15 for three different frames of a subsequence. During the initial part of this subsequence, the
larger bright van passed behind the traffic sign—see the left (dashed) occlusion curve in figure 16—and then slowed down in front of the red traffic light until it had come to a complete stop. The smaller vehicle following the van, a fastback, was occluded somewhat later by the same sign (right occlusion curve in figure 16). This fastback began to slow down immediately prior to occlusion and came to a full stop shortly afterward when it was completely occluded. It only began to move again after the van had started driving when the traffic light in front of it had switched to green.

As soon as the degree of occlusion exceeds a threshold of about 70 percent of the projected model area, the state update occurs no longer on the basis of edge element and optical flow data but instead relies on numeric input derived from the behavior predicted on the basis of the situation graph. Thus, researchers can take into account that the fastback in figure 17 brakes and comes to a full stop to avoid crashing into the van in front of it in the same lane. The fastback will begin to accelerate again only after the preceding van starts driving, and a safety distance has built up that allows the fastback to follow without danger. To our knowledge, this is the first example of a Kalman filter–based vehicle-tracking process being temporarily controlled not by data but by a fuzzy metric-temporal logic inference engine (Haag [1998]; Haag and Nagel [1998]).

Figure 15. Three-Dimensional Models for Stationary Objects in the Scene.
A frame from a sequence recorded at another Karlsruhe intersection is shown in the left panel (courtesy M. Haag). The small square in the left upper quadrant indicates where a window has been cropped that is used after enlargement in figure 17. The right panel represents a somewhat enlarged section from the left panel, overlaid by polyhedral models for a road sign mounted at a separately modeled mast, for a tree, and for various other masts carrying traffic signs, traffic lights, or lamps. (From Haag and Nagel [1999] © 1999 Kluwer, reproduced with permission).

Figure 16. Degree of Occlusion of Vehicles by Stationary Scene Objects.
Degree of occlusion of the vehicles marked in figure 17 by their models overlaid in a dashed line (the van, passing behind the traffic sign first) and a solid line (the fastback, following shortly thereafter). Note that the van spent less time being occluded by the traffic sign because it still drove, whereas the fastback came to a full stop behind the traffic sign to avoid crashing into the van in front of it in the same lane. The occlusion of the fastback began to diminish when it emerged from behind the traffic sign once the van had started to drive again. The small occlusion extremum immediately following the large solid one is the result of pose corrections (see the kick in the fastback trajectory superimposed on the lowest panel in figure 17) caused by the tracking process once at least about 30 percent of the fastback had emerged from the occlusion according to occlusion reasoning based on an evaluation of the relative 3D geometric relations between camera, traffic sign, and fastback. (Courtesy M. Haag, adapted from Haag and Nagel [1998] © 1998 Springer-Verlag, reproduced with permission.)
Figure 17. Feedback to the Geometric Tracking Process Using the Behavioral Representation Level.

The left column of panels illustrates three particular states from a subsequence during which the bright van, followed by the small fastback, passes behind the large traffic sign. (Courtesy M. Haag, adapted from Haag and Nagel [1998] © 1998 Springer-Verlag, reproduced with permission).

The center column shows the state representation and the action scheme for the situation nodes approach_preceding_vehicle, wait_in_front_of_intersection_behind_vehicle, and start_up_behind_preceding_vehicle. The right column shows the instantiation of the corresponding schemes in the center column, now giving the identifier for the individuals that the inference engine substituted for the logic variables during the interpretation of the predicates shown in the state representation schemes in the center column. The identifiers obj_7 and obj_9 are reproduced in the same shade as the vehicles in the left column to which they refer. Note that predicates shown explicitly as part of the state representation schemes in the center column form only a fraction of the set of logic formulas constituting the entire state representation scheme to be satisfied: Predicates belonging to the state representation schemes of superordinate situation nodes have been suppressed here for clarity (see, too, Haag [1998]).
Text Generation from Conceptual Representations

Given a conceptual representation of temporal developments in the form of a time-attributed set of logic formulas, it appears natural to look for a method that relates natural language text to logic. If it should become possible to invert such a method to “turn the meaning” of logic formulas by algorithmic means into a natural language text, a road would open along which the content of a video sequence could be converted into a natural language textual description—a systematic realization of genuine multimedia.

The discourse representation theory (see, for example, Kamp and Reyle [1993]) treats a method that converts a natural language text into an internal representation—the so-called discourse representation structure—which is closely oriented toward predicate logic. In fact, the authors discuss conditions and algorithmic means by which a discourse representation structure can be transformed into a set of first-order–predicate logic formulas. We thus studied this formalism to obtain a systematic approach toward transforming the fuzzy metric-temporal logic representation of vehicular behavior extracted from video sequences into natural language descriptions (see, for example, Gerber and Nagel [1998]). Space does not permit me to go into details. It turned out that no modules were readily available yet that inverted the text-to-logic branch. To bridge this gap, Gerber developed a module with the aim of providing at least a rudimentary text-generation component based on partial instantiations of situation graph trees (Gerber 2000). This module has primarily been used with data pertaining to the behavior of single vehicles.

The systematic basis of this approach enabled us to extend it to generate simple descriptions of the formation and dissolution of vehicle queues (Gerber, Nagel, and Schreiber 2002). Figure 18 shows two representative image frames from a long video sequence illustrating a traffic queue that built up in front of a red traffic light (left panel) and began to dissolve shortly after the traffic light switched to green.

In this case, the polygonal lane structure referred to earlier has been used to select all vehicles approaching and crossing the depicted intersection on the left lane marked in the right panel of figure 19. Conceptual concatenation of the different lane segments marked in figure 19 by heavy boundary lines has been performed by the same inference engine that evaluates the situation graph trees. A sample of the algorithmically generated—rather simple—textual description is given in figure 20.

It will be instructive to reflect on the reasons for the increasingly objectionable monotonous formulations found in figure 20. First, each vehicle has been mentioned to provide a check for vehicles that might have been lost somewhere along the processing chain. In addition, the system still lacks suitable linguistic abstraction facilities that would allow replacing the detailed recounting by a phrase characterizing
that are too brittle for a long and complicated sequence of additional evaluation steps. Obviously, computing resources needed to become available at sufficiently low prices that university laboratories could afford to test computationally more expensive algorithms, in particular, ones based on optical flow estimation.

It took some time until the switch from picture domain tracking to model-based 3D scene domain tracking became a seriously investigated alternative. The systematic introduction of a priori knowledge in the form of 3D body and motion models, in combination with the adaptation of Kalman filtering to this kind of tracking task, provided a quantum jump in robustness. It allowed researchers to experiment with the evaluation of longer video sequences such that it became possible to study not only vehicle motion but also vehicle maneuvers.

A next big step forward became possible when early feature-based optical flow estimates could be replaced by gradient-based approaches that provided a much denser optical flow field to work with. The combination of edge element and optical flow matching during the state-update cycle then increased the tracking precision and stability to a point where one could begin to think about the investigation not only of single maneuvers but also of entire maneuver sequences and, thus, about the investigation of vehicle behavior.

At about this point in the development, ear-
ly attempts to associate conceptual descriptions with geometric results could be tested systematically enough to lay open less frequently occurring deficiencies. As a consequence, a more systematic approach based on formal methods became imperative unless one runs the risk of being swamped by difficult to analyze deficiencies of ad hoc approaches.

Chaining all required processing steps from video recording through to the algorithmic generation of natural language textual descriptions now offers the chance to systematically assess an overall approach to detect and remove the most disturbing bottlenecks.

On Exercises and Research Problems\(^1\)

The desire to analyze more complex temporal developments necessitates the ability to process long image sequences without gross failures. Even rarely occurring failures can interrupt the provision of correct geometric results to the inference processes involved and thereby prevent the generation of an appropriate description of the spatiotemporal development in the scene.

According to our current experience, some of these bottlenecks still seem related to early processing stages, in particular, to the detection of vehicles to be tracked and to a robust initialization of a model-based tracking process. Because this is a highly nonlinear process, a problematical initialization can have repercussions much later on, both during geometric tracking and during subsequent treatment of tracking results at the conceptual level. It can be difficult to trace back the root causes for such problems.

Apart from tracing down erroneously conceived or implemented algorithmic details, parameter tuning and provision of appropriate models can turn into a potential bottleneck. There have been efforts already to continuously estimate whether the current illumination is directed (in our case, bright sunshine) or diffuse (the sky being covered by clouds) (see Leuck and Nagel 2001). Another effort addressed the estimation of lane structures from image sequences (Mück 2000; Mück, Nagel, and Middendorf 2000). Further details about these and other related questions were reported earlier.

A third problem area concerns the provision of vehicle models. To this point, we have used mostly standard models for vehicles that can be observed most frequently at inner-city inter-

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*Figure 20. Output Text Generated for the Vehicle Queues Illustrated in Figure 18.*

(Adapted from Gerber, Nagel, and Schreiber [2002] © 2002 IOS Press, reproduced with permission.)

"**Obj\_2** entered the lane. Later **obj\_6** entered the lane. The vehicles formed a pair. Later **obj\_8** entered the lane. In the meantime the vehicles formed a queue. **Obj\_8** was the last vehicle of the queue. **Obj\_2** was the head of the queue.

In the meantime **obj\_9** entered the lane. It was the last vehicle of the queue. In the meantime **obj\_12** entered the lane. It was the last vehicle of the queue. It left the queue. In the meantime **obj\_9** was the last vehicle of the queue. In the meantime **obj\_15** entered the lane. It was the last vehicle of the queue. In the meantime **obj\_8** left the queue.

In the meantime **obj\_25** entered the lane. It was the last vehicle of the queue. In the meantime **obj\_27** entered the lane. It was the last vehicle of the queue.

In the meantime **obj\_2** left the queue.

In the meantime **obj\_6** was the head of the queue. It left the queue.

In the meantime **obj\_9** was the head of the queue.

In the meantime **obj\_29** entered the lane. It was the last vehicle of the queue.

In the meantime **obj\_9** left the queue.

In the meantime **obj\_15** was the head of the queue. It left the queue.

In the meantime **obj\_25** was the head of the queue. The remaining vehicles formed a pair. **Obj\_25** left the lane.

Later **obj\_27** left the lane. In the meantime **obj\_29** remained as single vehicle."
sections, namely, sedans, fastbacks, and station wagons. The problems in these cases are more related to automatically estimating the appropriate length, width, and height parameters. This is a kind of hen-and-egg problem: Unless vehicles can be tracked reliably, parameter estimation becomes unreliable, but reliable vehicle parameters are essential for tracking a vehicle through difficult traffic situations (such as diminished contrast with respect to foreground and background, nontrivial occlusion by stationary components of the scene or by other vehicles). Busses for inner-city public transport have mostly been standardized in Germany with available 3D model data, so this did not generate great difficulties. All other vehicle types have had to be modeled interactively.

Readers might have noticed that pedestrians and bicycle riders have been excluded thus far from the discourse domain. Results about the detection, tracking, and description of the behavior of persons have been reported by others, for example, Remagnino, Tan, and Baker (1998) and Rota and Thonnat (2000). Given the gamut of problems hinted at in the preceding sections, it appears important to emphasize robustness in a somewhat restricted discourse domain over attempts to admit developments in a more broadly defined domain.

Conclusions

This contribution outlined an overall system concept regarding a—nonexclusive—understanding of what constitutes a cognitive vision system. It aimed first to indicate that such experimental approaches have become feasible. An equally important aim was to illustrate where problem areas developed; why they became hot spots; and which methodological approach helped to defuse them, at least for a time.

The particulars presented do not imply that the system approach outlined here is the only or the best one. Alternative approaches toward tracking and describing road traffic have been pursued increasingly over the past decade; see, for example, Buxton and Gong (1995); Chella, Frixione, and Gaglio (2000); Dance, Caelli, and Liu (1995); Howarth and Buxton (2000); Intille and Bobick (1999); Kojima, Tamura, and Fuku- naga (2002); Neumann (1989); and Pece and Worrall 2002. It appears too early to decide which (combination of) approach(es) offers the greatest promise, given well-defined boundary conditions regarding specifics of the discourse domain (required success and false alarm rates, illumination conditions, admissi-ble vehicle types, field of view to be covered, and so on) and the task. A more principled discussion could concentrate on whether one should use a fuzzy metric-temporal logic or Bayesian (belief) networks. Based on researchers’ experience, much larger experimental series than those used to date will likely have to be evaluated to achieve reliable results.

A similar problem is likely to come up in the future if details of natural language text generation have to be judged. Support for this hypothesis can be found in Sparck Jones and Galliers (1995), where input from video sequences had not even been considered!

References to literature beyond the computer vision discipline can be followed up with other links, for example, to spatial reasoning. As the short discussion in connection with figure 20 illustrated, areas in AI that have developed largely without intensive contact with computer vision increasingly gain interest for CVSs. Clearly, the evaluation of image sequences has reached a degree of maturity that allows the study of the conversion of geometric tracking results into conceptual representations and beyond. The hints regarding remaining difficulties can be looked on as bad or good news, depending on the age and stamina of the reader.

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Note

1. Richard Bellman is said to have appended a section entitled “Exercises and Research Problems” to one of his books on dynamic programming. When a colleague remarked to him that he had forgotten to indicate which problems were exercises and which ones were research problems, Bellman reportedly answered, “If you can solve it, it was an exercise; otherwise it’s a research problem.” Unfortunately, I cannot give an exact reference for this definition.

References


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