

USDOT Region V Regional University Transportation Center Final Report

NEXTRANS Project No 0330Y02

Innovative Vehicle Classification Strategies: Using LIDAR to do More for Less

Ву

Benjamin Coifman, Principal Investigator Associate Professor of Civil, Environmental, and Geodetic Engineering Associate Professor of Electrical and Computer Engineering The Ohio State University Coifman.1@OSU.edu

Ho Lee, PhD Candidate Graduate Research Associate Department of Civil, Environmental, and Geodetic Engineering The Ohio State University Lee.2406@OSU.edu

Report Submission Date: July 23, 2012



DISCLAIMER

Funding for this research was provided by the NEXTRANS Center, Purdue University under Grant No. DTRT07-G-005 of the U.S. Department of Transportation, Research and Innovative Technology Administration (RITA), University Transportation Centers Program. The contents of this report reflect the views of the authors, who are responsible for the facts and the accuracy of the information presented herein. This document is disseminated under the sponsorship of the Department of Transportation, University Transportation Centers Program, in the interest of information exchange. The U.S. Government assumes no liability for the contents or use thereof.



USDOT Region V Regional University Transportation Center Final Report

TECHNICAL SUMMARY

NEXTRANS Project No 0330Y02

Final Report, July 2012

Innovative Vehicle Classification Strategies: Using LIDAR to do More for Less

Introduction

This study examines LIDAR (light detection and ranging) based vehicle classification and classification performance monitoring. First, we develop a portable LIDAR based vehicle classification system that can be rapidly deployed, and then we use the LIDAR based system for automated validation of conventional vehicle classification stations.

We develop the LIDAR based classification system with the sensors mounted in a side-fire configuration next to the road. The first step is to distinguish between vehicle returns and non-vehicle returns. The algorithm then clusters the vehicle returns into individual vehicles. The algorithm examines each vehicle cluster to check if there is any evidence of partial occlusion from another vehicle. Several measurements are taken from each non-occluded cluster to classify the vehicle into one of six classes: motorcycle, passenger vehicle, passenger vehicle pulling a trailer, single-unit truck, single-unit truck pulling a trailer, and multi-unit truck. The algorithm was evaluated at six different locations under various traffic conditions. Compared to concurrent video ground truth data for over 27,000 vehicles on a per-vehicle basis, 11% of the vehicles are suspected of being partially occluded. The algorithm correctly classified over 99.5% of the remaining, non-occluded vehicles. This research also uncovered emerging challenges that likely apply to most classification systems, e.g., differentiating commuter cars from motorcycles.

Occlusions are inevitable in this proof of concept study since the LIDAR sensors were mounted roughly 6 ft above the road, well below the tops of many vehicles. Ultimately we envision using a combination of a higher vantage point (in future work), and shape information (begun herein) to greatly reduce the impacts of occlusions.

Even with the impacts of occlusions, the LIDAR system is a valuable tool. We use the tools discussed above to automate the process of evaluating the performance of conventional vehicle classification stations. There are many classification technologies, each with its own strengths and weaknesses, but all of these systems depend on accurate calibration and validation to yield meaningful results. Such performance monitoring has been prohibitively labor intensive, prone to human error, and conventional aggregation periods are too coarse, allowing overcounting errors to cancel undercounting errors. This work develops a classification performance monitoring system to allow operating agencies to rapidly assess the health of their classification stations on a per vehicle basis. We eliminate most of the labor demands and instead, deploy a portable non-intrusive vehicle classification system (PNVCS) to classify vehicles, concurrent with an existing classification station. Our system uses the LIDAR based PNVCS from above, but our approach is compatible with many other portable vehicle classification systems. Our vanmounted system does not require any calibration in the field. For longer-term deployments we envision a dedicated trailer that could be parked alongside the road.

To prevent classification errors from canceling one another in aggregate, we evaluate performance on a per-vehicle record basis. The approach requires several intermediate steps, developed herein, including synchronizing the independent clocks and matching observations of a given vehicle between the two classification systems. These algorithms automatically compare the vehicle classification between the existing classification station and the PNVCS for each vehicle. If the two systems agree, the given vehicle is automatically taken as a success. A human only looks at a given vehicle when the two systems disagree, and for this task we have developed tools to semi-automate the manual validation process, greatly increasing the efficiency and accuracy of the human user (typically on the order of 4 sec per vehicle- including seek time and loading time, translating to a few minutes to validate all of the exceptions from all lanes over an hour of data). The automated process does the bulk of the work, less than 8% of the vehicles required manual intervention. The methodology is applied to several permanent and temporary vehicle classification stations to evaluate axle and length-based classification. The evaluation datasets include over 21,000 vehicles. This evaluation also revealed a chronic problem detecting motorcycles at two permanent classification stations studied. While the LIDAR system detected 15 passing motorcycles, the classification stations correctly classified only one of them, and missed five altogether.

Findings

- 1) By measuring height, shape and length, the LIDAR based system was able to distinguish between vehicle classes that challege other classification technologies. The overall performance was very good.
- 2) The LIDAR based PNVCS worked well and was able to catch all of the chronic errors exhibited by the classification stations under review, even across four lanes of traffic.
- 3) The PNVCS validation tools allowed for rapid assessment of the study locations, and caught several previously unknown detection errors.
- 4) At the classification stations overall performance was good, with only 3%-4% of the vehicles being misclassified; however, the relative impacts were much larger on the trucks, e.g., only 60% of the single unit truck/bus (SUT) axle class 4-7 were correctly classified as SUT by the existing axle-based classification decision tree.
- 5) This work also uncovered an emerging challenge facing most vehicle classification technologies: separating commuter cars from motorcycles. The two groups have similar lengths, axle spacing and

height (akin to the SUT problem above). With increased interest in correctly classifying motorcycles combined with more commuter cars on the road there is a need to devise a means to separate the two types of vehicles.

6) The two permanent classification stations evaluated with the LIDAR PNVCS exhibited chronic problems detecting motorcycles. While the LIDAR system detected 15 passing motorcycles, the classification stations correctly classified just one of them, and missed five altogether.

Recommendations

- The overlapping range of axle spacings and vehicle lengths across different classes underscores the importance of extensive calibration, as enabled by our LIDAR based PNVCS, e.g., one cannot blindly use an axle classification station to calibrate the boundary between passenger vehicles (PV) and SUT for length-based classification stations, otherwise, the unavoidable errors in the axle classification will be amplified in the length-based classification scheme.
- 2) Similarly, all subsequent uses of the classification data (e.g., planning and measuring freight flows) must accommodate this unavoidable blurring of SUT with PV.
- 3) Recognizing the difficulty in distinguishing pairs of vehicle classes with the existing detector infrastructure (e.g., commuter cars and motorcycles, short SUT and PV), there may be a need to create buffer classes to impart greater confidence in the reported classifications, e.g., adding a new "class 3 or class 5" bin to the axle-based decision tree that takes the upper portion of class 3 and lower portion of class 5 axle spacings. Thus confining the uncertainty to a much smaller number of vehicles and ensuring much greater confidence that anything that is classified as "strictly class 5" is indeed class 5.
- 4) As this research has shown, there is wide variance in performance from one station to the next and these errors tend to have a higher frequency among the truck classes, particularly the SUT. Since these errors are a function of the specific station, there would be benefit if operating agencies were to leverage the LIDAR based PNVCS system developed in this research to evaluate the performance of many other classification stations. Thereby catching systematic errors that bias classification performance at the given station.
- 5) The LIDAR based PNVCS offers a means to rapidly evaluate refinements in the conventional classification scheme, e.g., evaluating solutions to address the large percentage of motorcycles that were misclassified or passed completely undetected in this study.

Contacts

For more information:

Benjamin Coifman

Principal Investigator Civil, Environmental, and Geodetic Engineering Ohio State University Coifman.1@OSU.edu

NEXTRANS Center

Purdue University - Discovery Park 3000 Kent West Lafayette, IN 47906

nextrans@purdue.edu

(765) 496-9729 (765) 807-3123 Fax

www.purdue.edu/dp/nextrans

Innovative Vehicle Classification Strategies: Using LIDAR to do More for Less

Benjamin Coifman, PhD
Associate Professor
The Ohio State University
Joint appointment with the Department of Civil, Environmental, and Geodetic Engineering, and
the Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering
Hitchcock Hall 470
2070 Neil Ave, Columbus, OH 43210
Phone: (614) 292-4282
E-mail: Coifman.1@OSU.edu

Ho Lee, PhD Candidate Graduate Research Associate Department of Civil, Environmental, and Geodetic Engineering The Ohio State University E-mail: lee.2406@osu.edu

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This material is based upon work supported in part by NEXTRANS the USDOT Region V Regional University Transportation Center, The Ohio Transportation Consortium University Transportation Center, and the Ohio Department of Transportation. The contents of this report reflect the views of the authors who are responsible for the facts and the accuracy of the data presented herein. The contents do not necessarily reflect the official views or policies of the Ohio Department of Transportation or the Federal Highway Administration. This report does not constitute a standard, specification or regulation.

We are particularly grateful for the assistance and input from David Gardner and Linsdey Pflum at the Ohio Department of Transportation, Gerald L. Wilcox at Traffic Engineering Services, and Zhuojun Jiang at the Mid-Ohio Regional Planning Commission (MORPC).

1	INTRODUCTION	1-1
2	SIDE-FIRE LIDAR BASED VEHICLE CLASSIFICATION	
	2.1 INTRODUCTION	2-1
	2.2 LIDAR MEASUREMENTS AND VEHICLE DETECTION	2-1
	2.2.1 Occlusion Reasoning	2-4
	2.3 LIDAR Based Vehicle Classification Algorithm	2-4
	2.3.1 Vehicle Length (VL) and Vehicle Height (VH)	2-6
	2.3.2 Detection of a Middle Drop in a Vehicle (DMD)	2-6
	2.3.3 Additional Measurements of a Vehicle with Middle Drop	2-8
	2.4 THE LIDAR BASED VEHICLE CLASSIFICATION ALGORITHM	2-9
	2.4.1 Classifying Partially Occluded Vehicles	2-9
	2.5 EVALUATION OF THE LIDAR BASED VEHICLE CLASSIFICATION ALGORITHM	2-11
	2.6 CONCLUSIONS	2-13
3	USING LIDAR TO VALIDATE THE PERFORMANCE OF VEHICLE CLASSIFICATION ST 3-1	ATIONS
	3.1 INTRODUCTION	3-1
	3.2 METHODOLOGY OF USING A PNVCS TO EVALUATE CLASSIFICATION STATION PERFORMANCE	3-3
	3.2.1 The Classification Data	3-3
	3.2.2 Time Synchronization	3-4
	3.2.3 Vehicle Matching	3-4
	3.2.4 Manual Verification Using a Semi-Automated Tool	3-7
	3.3 RESULTS OF USING A PNVCS TO EVALUATE CLASSIFICATION STATION PERFORMANCE	3-7
	3.3.1 Axle-Based Classification Stations	3-7
	3.3.2 Length-Based Classification Stations	
	3.4 CONCLUSIONS	
4	CONCLUSIONS	4-1
5	REFERENCES	5-1
6	APPENDIX A: DETAILS OF THE CLASSIFICATION STATIONS	A-1
7	APPENDIX B: LIDAR BASED VEHICLE CLASSIFICATION BY LOCATION	B-1
8	APPENDIX C: COMPARISON OF PSEUDO GROUND TRUTH DATA AND AXLE VEHICI CLASSIFICATION BY LOCATION	.Е С-1
9	APPENDIX D: COMPARISON OF PSEUDO GROUND TRUTH DATA AND LENGTH BAS VEHICLE CLASSIFICATION BY LOCATION	SED D-1

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2-1,	A hypothetical example of a vehicle passing by the two side-fire LIDAR sensors: (a) in time-space
place; (t	b) a top-down schematic of the scene; and the corresponding returns from the vehicle from (c) the rear
LIDAR	sensor and (d) the front LIDAR sensor2-2
Figure 2-2,	(a) the LIDAR data collection on I-270 southbound, on the west side of Columbus, Ohio; and (b) the
correspo	onding background curve extracted from the data2-2
Figure 2-3,	(a) A scatter plot of vehicle height and vehicle length of 1,502 non-occluded vehicles from the
develop	ment dataset; and (b) the cumulative distribution of DMD for these vehicles2-5
Figure 2-4,	(a) A pickup truck pulling a trailer; (b) the corresponding vehicle cluster of returns and the various
measure	ments used for vehicle classification; and (c) the number of returns by scan, capturing the vehicle
shape. N	Note that time in Figure 2-4(c) is increasing to the left in this plot because the front of the vehicle is seen
first and	the vehicle orientation is presented consistent with the rest of the figure2-7
Figure 2-5,	The decision tree underlying the non-occluded LIDAR based vehicle classification algorithm2-10
Figure 2-6,	The classification space for partially occluded vehicles2-12
Figure 3-1,	Flowchart of the evaluation of an existing vehicle classification station using LIDAR PNVCS vehicle
classific	ation. The existing station is shown in the dashed box at the top left. In normal operation most
classifie	rs go one step further than shown in the dashed box and aggregate the pvr data by time period3-2
Figure 3-2,	RVM_{K} versus the resulting offset time as a function of K from SR-33 northbound, (a) Lane 1, the peak
shows th	he final offset time is -436.6 sec, and (b) Lane 2, the peak shows the final offset time is -436.5 second.
	3-5
Figure 3-3,	A feasible vehicle matrix, summarizing the outcome from the difference of arrival times between the
LIDAR	and classification station data in lane 1 at SR-33 northbound
Figure 3-4,	(a) hypothetical feasible vehicle matrix in which many rows and columns have multiple matches, (b)
isolating	the distinct groups of vehicles, the groups are numbered for reference, (c) selecting the longest
sequenc	e from the given group. Note that the two sequences in group 2 are equal length, so the algorithm
would th	the compare the classification results from the two sensor systems and select the sequence with the
stronges	t similarity between the two sensor systems
Figure 3-5,	A snapshot of the semi-automated GUI verification tool processing a conflicting classification for a
vehicle	in lane 1 at SR-33 northbound. The GUI window consists of four interfaces: (a) plot of transition
pulses, t	ne plot snows for each lane the classification station data (top curve) and LIDAR data (bottom curve)
and the	current instant is snown with a vertical dashed line, (b) the current video frame, (c) the LIDAR returns
from the	e venicle in question, and (d) a panel for controlling the review and entering ground truth data. So in
this case	the GOT is at the second visible pulse in tane 1 (counted from the feft hand side) and is ready for the
User to a	L section of only closefication stations
Figure A-1,	Location of type classification sites
Figure A-2, Eigure A 2	Location of two classifications LIDAD data collected: (a) L71 southbound (b) L770 southbound (c) SD 215
rigure A-3,	schematic of focations LIDAK data confected: (a) 1-/1 southound, (b) 1-2/0 southound, (c) SK-515
northbo	und and southbound and southbound, (c) witson Ku northbound and southbound, (1) Dublin Ku
normbor	

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2-1,	Summary of LIDAR data collected to evaluate the algorithm and the performance of the algorithm by
each da	ataset.
Table 2-2,	Comparison of LIDAR based vehicle classification and actual vehicle class from the six evaluation
ground	truth datasets
Table 3-1,	Summary of the automated comparison of vehicle classification between LIDAR and axle data at seven
directio	onal classification stations,
Table 3-2,	Manual verification of the vehicles with conflicting classifications or only seen by one sensor using the
semi-au	utomated tool,
Table 3-3,	Comparison of LIDAR vehicle classification and axle vehicle classification across seven directional
location	ns,
Table 3-4,	Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and axle vehicle classification across seven directional
location	ns,
Table 3-5,	Summary of evaluation of axle vehicle classification station by a vehicle class. Note Wilson Rd
northbo	bund and southbound includes both Wilson Rd adjacent to and opposite from LIDAR sensor,
respect	ively,
Table 3-6,	Summary of the comparison of vehicle classification between LIDAR and loop detector data at four
directio	onal classification stations
Table 3-7,	Manual verification using semi-automated tool of the vehicles with conflicting classifications or only
seen by	one sensor from the comparison of vehicle classification between LIDAR and loop detector data3-15
Table 3-8,	Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and length-based vehicle classification across four directional
location	ns3-16
Table 3-9,	Summary of evaluation of length-based vehicle classification station by a vehicle class3-16
Table B-1,	Comparison of LIDAR based vehicle classification and actual vehicle class from I-71 southbound free
flow.	
Table B-2,	Comparison of LIDAR based vehicle classification and actual vehicle class from I-71 southbound
mild-co	ongestedB-1
Table B-3,	Comparison of LIDAR based vehicle classification and actual vehicle class from I-270 southbound
free flo	B-2
Table B-4,	Comparison of LIDAR based vehicle classification and actual vehicle class from SR-315 northbound
free flo	
Table B-5,	Comparison of LIDAR based vehicle classification and actual vehicle class from Dublin Rd
southbo	ound
Table B-6.	Comparison of LIDAR based vehicle classification and actual vehicle class from Wilson Rd
northbo	5und
Table B-7.	Comparison of LIDAR based vehicle classification and actual vehicle class from Wilson Rd
southbe	B-4
Table C-1	Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and ayle vehicle classification at L-270 southbound adjacent
to LID.	AR sensor
Table C_2	Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and ayle vehicle classification at Dublin Rd southbound
adjacer	to LIDAP sensor
Table C 2	Comparison of pooudo ground truth data and avia vahiala alagification at Wilson Dd northbound
Table C-3,	Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and axie venicle classification at witson Ku northoodind
	It to LIDAR sensor.
Table C-4,	Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and axie venicle classification at wilson Rd southbound
adjacer	it to LIDAR sensor
Table C-5,	Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and axle vehicle classification at SR-33 northbound adjacent
	Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and ave ychicle algorification at Dublin Dd northbound an
the open	Comparison of pseudo ground i uni data and axie venicie classification at Dublin Kd northbound on
Table $C 7$	Companies of people around truth data and and and the interview of Wilcow Distriction of Wilcow Distriction of the second
1 able U-/,	Comparison of pseudo ground truin data and axie venicle classification at wilson Kd northbound on
Ine opp	Comparison of neorade around truth data and anti-statistical statistical stati
Table C-8,	Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and axie vehicle classification at Wilson Kd southbound on
the opp	Dosite side of LIDAK sensorC-4

Table C-9,	Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and axle vehicle classification at SR-33 southbound on the	e
opposit	e side of LIDAR sensor	C-5
Table D-1,	Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and length based vehicle classification from I-71 southbou	und
free flo	W	D-1
Table D-2, C	Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and length based vehicle classification from I-71 southbound	d
semi-co	ngested	D-1
Table D-3,	Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and length based vehicle classification from I-270	
southbo	vund	D-2
Table D-4,	Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and length based vehicle classification from SR-33	
northbo	und	D-2
Table D-5,	Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and length based vehicle classification from SR-33	
southbo	ound	D-3

1 INTRODUCTION

This study examines LIDAR (light detection and ranging) based vehicle classification and classification performance monitoring. First, we develop a portable LIDAR based vehicle classification system that can be rapidly deployed, and then we use the LIDAR based system for automated validation of conventional vehicle classification stations. Each component is discussed in a separate chapter, as follows.

In Chapter 2 we develop the LIDAR based classification system with the sensors mounted in a side-fire configuration next to the road. The first step is to distinguish between vehicle returns and non-vehicle returns. The algorithm then clusters the vehicle returns into individual vehicles. The algorithm examines each vehicle cluster to check if there is any evidence of partial occlusion from another vehicle. Several measurements are taken from each non-occluded cluster to classify the vehicle into one of six classes: motorcycle, passenger vehicle, passenger vehicle pulling a trailer, single-unit truck, single-unit truck pulling a trailer, and multi-unit truck. The algorithm was evaluated at six different locations under various traffic conditions (details of the various test sites can be found in Appendix A). Compared to concurrent video ground truth data for over 27,000 vehicles on a per-vehicle basis, 11% of the vehicles are suspected of being partially occluded. The algorithm correctly classified over 99.5% of the remaining, non-occluded vehicles. This research also uncovered emerging challenges that likely apply to most classification systems, e.g., differentiating commuter cars from motorcycles.

Occlusions are inevitable in this proof of concept study since the LIDAR sensors were mounted roughly 6 ft above the road, well below the tops of many vehicles. Ultimately we envision using a combination of a higher vantage point (in future work), and shape information (begun herein) to greatly reduce the impacts of occlusions.

Even with the impacts of occlusions, the LIDAR system is a valuable tool. In Chapter 3, we use the tools from Chapter 2 to automate the process of evaluating the performance of conventional vehicle classification stations. There are many classification technologies, each with its own strengths and weaknesses, but all of these systems depend on accurate calibration and validation to yield meaningful results. Such performance monitoring has been prohibitively labor intensive, prone to human error, and conventional aggregation periods are too coarse, allowing overcounting errors to cancel undercounting errors. This work develops a classification stations on a per vehicle basis. We eliminate most of the labor demands and instead, deploy a portable non-intrusive vehicle classification system (PNVCS) to classify vehicles, concurrent with an existing classification station. Our system uses the LIDAR based PNVCS from Chapter 2, but our approach is compatible with many other portable vehicle classification systems. Our van-mounted system does not require any calibration in the field. For longer-term deployments we envision a dedicated trailer that could be parked alongside the road.

To prevent classification errors from canceling one another in aggregate, we evaluate performance on a per-vehicle record basis. The approach requires several intermediate steps, developed herein, including synchronizing the independent clocks and matching observations of a given vehicle between the two classification systems. These algorithms automatically compare the vehicle classification between the existing classification station and the PNVCS for each vehicle. If the two systems agree, the given vehicle is automatically taken as a success. A human only looks at a given vehicle when the two systems disagree, and for this task we have developed tools to semi-automate the manual validation process, greatly increasing the efficiency and accuracy of the human user (typically on the order of 4 sec per vehicle- including seek time and loading time, translating to a few minutes to validate all of the exceptions from all lanes over an hour of data). The automated process does the bulk of the work, less than 8% of the vehicles required manual intervention. The methodology is applied to several permanent and temporary vehicle classification stations (again, as detailed in Appendix A) to evaluate axle and length-based classification. The evaluation datasets include over 21,000 vehicles. This evaluation also revealed a chronic problem detecting motorcycles at two permanent classification stations studied. While the LIDAR system detected 15 passing motorcycles, the classification stations correctly classified only one of them, and missed five altogether.

2 SIDE-FIRE LIDAR BASED VEHICLE CLASSIFICATION

2.1 Introduction

Vehicle classification data are used in many transportation applications, including: pavement design, environmental impact studies, traffic control, and traffic safety [1]. There are several classification methods, including: axle-based (e.g., pneumatic tube and piezoelectric detectors), vehicle length-based (e.g., dual loop and some wayside microwave detectors), as well as emerging machine vision based detection. As noted by the Traffic Monitoring Guide [1], each sensor technology has its own strengths and weaknesses regarding costs, accuracy, performance, and ease of use.

In the present study we add another technology to the mix and develop a vehicle classification algorithm for LIDAR (Light detection and ranging) sensors mounted in a side-fire configuration. Our prototype system consists of two LIDAR sensors mounted on the driver's side of a probe vehicle parked alongside the roadway. Each LIDAR scans a vertical plane across the roadway, providing a rich view of the passing vehicles. In practice, the LIDAR sensors could be mounted on a temporary deployment platform like this system, or permanently mounted on a pole adjacent to the roadway.

To classify vehicles, first we segment them from the background, and then we look for possible occlusions using algorithms developed herein. Next, we measure several features of size and shape for each vehicle and these features are subsequently used to classify the vehicle into one of six categories. The classification algorithm is evaluated by comparing the individual vehicle results against concurrent video. Occlusions are inevitable in this proof of concept study since the LIDAR sensors were mounted roughly 6 ft above the road, well below the tops of many vehicles. The present work focuses primarily on the non-occluded vehicles. Ultimately we envision using a combination of a higher vantage point in future work (similar to wayside microwave detectors), and shape information (begun herein) to greatly reduce the impacts of occlusions.

LIDAR technology has been applied in various transportation applications, such as highway safety [2-3] and highway design [4-5]. There have been a few demonstrations of LIDAR or related optical range finding technologies to monitor traffic and sometimes classify the vehicles. The most notable example being the Schwartz Autosense [6], which consisted of a sensor mounted over the lane of travel; though this basic approach pre-dates the Autosense system [7]. While the overhead view eliminates occlusions, the need to mount the sensor over the roadway makes deployment more difficult. Others have contemplated using airborne LIDAR platforms for traffic monitoring [8-9]. For example, [9] collected LIDAR imagery data over transportation corridors, segmented individual vehicles from the road surface, and then extracted six parameters of vehicle shape and size for each vehicle. They classified vehicles in three categories (passenger vehicles, multi-purpose vehicles, and trucks) using principle component analysis. Finally, our group has also contemplated the use of LIDAR to classify vehicles from a moving platform [10-11].

The remainder of this chapter is organized as follows. First the process of collecting the LIDAR data and the procedure of segmenting the vehicles from the background are presented. Next, the LIDAR based vehicle classification algorithm is developed. Third, the algorithm is evaluated on a per-vehicle-basis against concurrent video ground truth from field data at six directional locations, exhibiting various traffic conditions, distance between LIDAR and target vehicles, and road type (freeway and arterial road). The evaluation dataset includes over 25,000 vehicles (23,000 non-occluded). Then, the chapter closes with conclusions.

2.2 LIDAR Measurements and Vehicle Detection

Figure 2-1(b) shows an overhead schematic of the prototype deployment. The two LIDAR sensors are each mounted at a height of about 6.7 ft above ground and they are 4.6 ft apart from one another. Each LIDAR sensor scans a vertical plane across the roadway at roughly 37 Hz. Each scan sweeps 180°, returning the distance to the nearest object (if any) at 0.5° increments with a ranging resolution of 0.1 inch and a maximum range of 262 ft. So each scan returns 361 samples in polar coordinates (range and angle) relative to the LIDAR sensor and these data are transformed into a Cartesian coordinate system (lateral distance and relative height) for analysis.

Using these LIDAR data, vehicle segmentation is split into two steps. First we distinguish between vehicle returns and non-vehicle returns (e.g., pavement, foliage, barriers, etc.). Then we cluster the vehicle returns into discrete vehicles.



Figure 2-1, A hypothetical example of a vehicle passing by the two side-fire LIDAR sensors: (a) in time-space place; (b) a top-down schematic of the scene; and the corresponding returns from the vehicle from (c) the rear LIDAR sensor and (d) the front LIDAR sensor.



Figure 2-2, (a) the LIDAR data collection on I-270 southbound, on the west side of Columbus, Ohio; and (b) the corresponding background curve extracted from the data.

To segment the vehicle and non-vehicle returns we adapt background subtraction techniques from conventional image processing. The LIDAR are fixed, so when no vehicles are present they will return nearly identical scans of the *background*. Thus, the background's range at a given angle is (roughly) constant and over time the background returns are the dominant range reported at each angle. Formalizing this concept to extract the background from the LIDAR data, we set the background equal to the median range at each angle as observed over an extended time period with largely free flowing traffic. Whenever a vehicle is present, the vehicle's returns can only be at a range that is closer than the background range for the given angle. So in the absence of free flowing traffic, one could instead take the distribution of observed ranges at a given angle and set the background equal to the furthest mode of the distribution.

Figure 2-2(a) shows the data collection on I-270 southbound, on the west side of Columbus, Ohio. The probe vehicle was parked just off of the right hand shoulder to collect LIDAR data. Figure 2-2(b) shows the corresponding background that was extracted from the LIDAR data. Because the van would occasionally roll a small amount about its central axis as personnel entered or exited the vehicle during the data collection, returns from the background did not always fall on the measured background curve. All returns falling beyond the background curve as well as any returns that were within an inch above the background curve were considered non-vehicle returns and excluded from further analysis. However, if the low-lying returns prove critical to a subsequent application (e.g., to count axles with a higher scan rate), one could estimate the LIDAR's instantaneous angle relative to the shoulders (0-11.8 ft, and 47.2-65.6 ft in Figure 2-2(b)) and normalize this angle across scans.

Only vehicle returns should remain after removing the background, however, these returns still need to be clustered into individual vehicles and we take the following steps to do so. First we establish the lane boundaries by looking at the distribution of the lateral distance across the vehicle returns. We expect to see one distinct mode per travel lane, corresponding to the near side of the vehicles when traveling in the given lane since the vertical edges on the vehicles will generally yield many returns at the same lateral distance; though, there will be other returns in the distribution from horizontal vehicle surfaces, vehicles changing lanes, and so forth. Provided the LIDAR sensors are not moved, this step only needs to be done once, using a few minutes of data.

Second, in each scan we segment the LIDAR returns by lane using the lane boundaries from the previous step. As long as a vehicle travels within a lane, all of the returns from that vehicle will fall between the respective lane boundaries in the given scan. In most cases even a single return in the lane will be taken as that lane being occupied in that scan. However, in the relatively rare cases when a vehicle changes lanes as it passes the LIDAR, that vehicle's returns may fall into two adjacent lanes (we saw this event occur 253 times out of 27,450 vehicles). To find the cases when a single vehicle is seen in adjacent lanes, we explicitly look for concurrent returns in neighboring lanes. When this occurs, we take the mode of lateral distance in the near lane and the far lane, respectively. Again, the nearside of a vehicle is characterized by a large number of returns at a given lateral distance, i.e., the mode lateral distance within the lane. If in the given scan the difference between the modes in successive lanes is less than the maximum feasible vehicle width (set to 8.5 ft, the maximum width of commercial motor vehicles [12]), the vehicle returns in the adjacent lanes are assumed to come from a single vehicle and are grouped together in the lane corresponding to the median lateral distance among the set of returns in question. Otherwise, the two modes are too far apart to come from a single vehicle and the groups are kept separate. Obviously this approach assumes that at most one vehicle can occupy a lane in a given scan; although we know that it is not always the case, e.g., when two motorcycles pass side by side within a lane, we have yet to observe any such exceptions in the LIDAR data so addressing these exceptions is left to future research.

Third, taking the temporal sequence by lane, the returns are clustered into vehicles. After each scan is processed, whenever a given lane is occupied, if there is not already an open vehicle cluster in that lane then a new vehicle cluster is begun with the corresponding returns; otherwise, the corresponding returns are added to the open vehicle cluster in that lane. On the other hand, if there is an open vehicle cluster and the lane has not been occupied for at least 1/4 sec (roughly 9 scans) then the open vehicle cluster is closed. To be retained, a closed vehicle cluster must span at least two scans and at least two of the scans must have different heights, otherwise, the vehicle cluster is discarded. Because the returns in a scan are grouped by lane before the clustering step and we make the above correction for vehicles changing lanes, it is theoretically possible for two neighboring vehicles to be erroneously clustered together. Though we have not seen this problem occur, to safeguard against it, if the net width of a closed cluster is greater than the maximum feasible vehicle width then the cluster is split in two, by lane. On the other hand, it is possible for a vehicle changing lanes to be assigned to different lanes at different time steps, resulting in separate clusters in each lane. To catch these breakups, when a cluster ends in one lane, we check the next scan to see if a new cluster begins in an adjacent lane a small distance away, i.e., if the difference between the mode lateral distance is less than 3.5 ft, the two clusters are merged together and assigned to the lane with the larger cluster. The

segmentation and clustering steps are repeated for each lane across each successive LIDAR scan until all of the vehicle returns have been clustered into discrete vehicles.

2.2.1 Occlusion Reasoning

A key step in classifying a given vehicle is determining whether the entire vehicle was seen or if there was evidence of a partial occlusion. Table 2-1 shows that the latter case arose for about 12% of the vehicles observed on the multilane facilities. The frequency is so small because the spacing between vehicles is typically much larger than one might think, e.g., according to the HCM [13], LOS F on a freeway begins at 46 passenger cars per mile per lane or 117 ft per passenger car and passenger cars are generally on the order of 10-20 ft long. In any event, partially occluded vehicles are likely to be misclassified in our algorithm if the occlusion is not identified and handled separately from the non-occluded vehicles. Of course from the LIDAR data stream we cannot detect completely occluded vehicles, though we found these errors occurred between 3-6% in the three multilane datasets that had an independent detector to monitor occluded lanes (I-71 and I-270 in Table 2-1), and as one might expect, most of these occluded vehicles were passenger vehicles. A higher vantage point or using a second set of LIDAR to also monitor from the median of the roadway should reduce the frequency of completely occluded vehicles.

For any given vehicle cluster we suspect a partial occlusion occurred unless we see at least one non-vehicle return on all sides of the cluster (both temporally and spatially). To automatically detect partially occluded vehicles, first we check the vehicles seen in each scan of the LIDAR. If we cannot see the background curve between a given pair of vehicles the further vehicle is suspected of being partially occluded by the closer vehicle. Second, we check successive scans, if one vehicle is seen at a given angle in scan i, and a different vehicle is seen at the same angle in scan i+1, whichever vehicle cluster is further away is considered to be partially occluded.

2.3 LIDAR Based Vehicle Classification Algorithm

In this section we develop an algorithm to classify the vehicle clusters extracted from the LIDAR data in the previous section. The core algorithm focuses on the non-occluded vehicles and sorts them into six vehicle classes: motorcycle (MC), passenger vehicle (PV), PV pulling a trailer (PVPT), single-unit truck/bus (SUT), SUT pulling a trailer (SUTPT), and multi-unit truck (MUT). These classes are a refinement of commonly used length-based classes (as noted in [1], a user might not need the full 13 axle-based classes and three or four simple categories may suffice). After classifying the non-occluded vehicles we separately handle the partially occluded vehicles, taking care to address the uncertainty about what went unobserved.

We derived the vehicle classification algorithm using a ground truth development dataset that consists of 24 min of free flow data collected across four lanes on I-71 southbound in Columbus, Ohio, between 11th Ave and 17th Ave on July 9, 2009. There were 1,502 non-occluded vehicles in this dataset and all of the vehicle classifications were manually verified from the video ground truth data. The two primary vehicle features used by the classification algorithm are length and height measured from the individual vehicle clusters, as shown in Figure 2-3(a). Compared to using length alone, as would be done from loop detectors (see, e.g., [14]), vehicle height helps separate different vehicle classes (e.g., although the SUT and PV length ranges overlap, the vehicle height successfully separates these two groups). However, the boundaries of some classes still overlap in the length-height plane. To segregate these vehicles we calculate up to six additional measurements of the vehicle's shape (for a total of eight shape measurements), as enumerated below and explained in the following subsections.

- Vehicle length (VL)
- Vehicle height (VH)
- Detection of middle drop (DMD)
- Vehicle height at middle drop (VHMD)
- Front vehicle height (FVH)
- Front vehicle length (FVL)
- Rear vehicle height (RVH)
- Rear vehicle length (RVL)

Data type	Road type	Location (direction)	Num- ber of lanes	Date	Time period (Start time ~ End time)	Dura- tion (hr: min)	Distance between LIDAR sensor and the nearest travelled lane (ft)	Average of the LIDAR speeds over the duration (mph)	Number of vehicles seen by LIDAR	Number of partially occluded vehicles	Number of totally occluded vehicles	Performative algorithms and a second	ance of prithm Errors	% errors
Develop- ment	Free- way	I-71 (SB)	4	July 9, 2009	18:09 ~ 18:33	0:24	58	63	1,813	311	65	1,494	8	0.5%
	Free- way	I-71 (SB)	4	Nov 19, 2009	07:41 ~ 08:09	0:28	58	47	2,619	591	145	2,021	7	0.3%
		I-270 (SB)	3	Nov 2, 2010	09:29 ~ 14:29	5:00	15	65	13,397	1,376	422	11,934	87	0.7%
		SR-315 (NB)	2	Aug 12, 2010	14:57 ~ 17:57	3:00	2	41	6,900	660	n/a	6,230	10	0.2%
Evalua-		Subtotal of Evaluation Freeway			-	8:28	-	-	22,916	2,627	567	20,185	104	0.5%
tion		Dublin Rd (SB)	1	Oct 28, 2010	$\begin{array}{l} 07:32\sim 08:57\\ 14:30\sim 15:55 \end{array}$	2:50	2	36	1,344	-	-	1,337	7	0.5%
	Arterial	Wilson Rd (NB)	1	Oct 28, 2010	$\begin{array}{l} 09:08 \sim 09:56 \\ 16:02 \sim 16:54 \end{array}$	1:40	2	36	666	-	-	664	2	0.3%
	Rd.	Wilson Rd (SB)	1	Oct 28, 2010	$\begin{array}{l} 10{:}18 \sim 10{:}58 \\ 17{:}00 \sim 18{:}00 \end{array}$	1:40	2	38	711	-	-	710	1	0.1%
		Subtota	l of Ai	rterial Rd.	-	6:10	-	-	2,721	-	-	2,711	10	0.4%
Evaluation data total			-	14:38	-	-	25,637	2,627	567	22,896	114	0.5%		
		Overall total			-	15:02	-	-	27,450	2,938	632	24,390	122	0.5%

 Table 2-1, Summary of LIDAR data collected to evaluate the algorithm and the performance of the algorithm by each dataset.



Figure 2-3, (a) A scatter plot of vehicle height and vehicle length of 1,502 non-occluded vehicles from the development dataset; and (b) the cumulative distribution of DMD for these vehicles.

2.3.1 Vehicle Length (VL) and Vehicle Height (VH)

The two side LIDAR sensors are mounted in a "speed-trap" configuration with 4.6 ft spacing. Any moving target will appear at different times in the two views, thereby allowing for speed measurement. Figure 2-1(a) shows a hypothetical example of the time-space diagram as a vehicle passes by the two LIDAR sensors and Figure 2-1(b) shows the corresponding schematic on the same distance scale. In this study a vehicle passes the rear LIDAR sensor first and then the front LIDAR sensor. Figure 2-1(c) and (d) show the vehicle returns from each of the two LIDAR sensors as the vehicle passes, where FT and LT respectively denote the first and last time samples in which the vehicle was scanned by the given LIDAR (subscript "r" for rear and "f" for front). On T_f and On T_r indicate the duration of time that a vehicle is scanned by the given LIDAR sensor, i.e., the on-time, where $OnT_x = LT_x$, and x is either "r" or "f". Meanwhile, the traversal time is defined as the difference between the first scan time at the two sensors, i.e., $TT_{FT} = FT_f - FT_r$, or the last scan time, i.e., $TT_{LT} = LT_f - LT_r$. Speed is calculated via Equation (2.1) from the LIDAR spacing, D, and the traversal time. Vehicle length (VL) is calculated from the mean of V_{FT} and V_{LT} , multiplied by OnT, (we arbitrarily select the rear LIDAR on-time in this study), yielding Equation (2.2).¹ Finally, vehicle height (VH) is directly measured from the difference of the highest relative height and the lowest relative height across all of the returns in the given vehicle cluster from the rear LIDAR, yielding Equation (2.3). By using the difference in cluster heights, this step accounts for the fact that the road cross-section is not flat, each lane may be at a different height relative to the LIDAR sensor.

$$V_{FT} = \frac{D}{TT_{FT}}, V_{LT} = \frac{D}{TT_{LT}}$$
(2.1)

$$VL = mean(V_{FT}, V_{LT}) \times OnT_{r}$$
(2.2)

$$VH = \max(h(t)) - \min(h(t)), \forall t \in [FT_r, LT_r], \forall h(t) \in cluster$$
(2.3)

where h(t) is height of a LIDAR return in ft relative to the height of the LIDAR sensor at time t.

Figure 2-3(a) shows a scatter plot of vehicle height versus vehicle length for the 1,502 non-occluded vehicles from the development dataset sorted by the six vehicle classes. The VH for almost all of the MC, PV and PVPT are below 8 ft, while VH for almost all of the SUT, SUTPT, and MUT are above 8 ft. As will be discussed shortly, the height of the trailer (or its load) is sometimes the tallest point on a PVPT or SUTPT and thus is reflected in VH for that vehicle. The observed VL are distributed between 5 ft and 89 ft, with a clear but overlapping progression from MC to PV to PVPT, and similarly from SUT to SUTPT to MUT. Based on this plot, we select VL = 7.5 ft as the dividing line between MC and PV. To segregate the remaining classes, we look for a characteristic "gap" before the start of a trailer (PVPT, SUTPT, and MUT) as follows.

2.3.2 Detection of a Middle Drop in a Vehicle (DMD)

The vertically scanning LIDAR captures the profile shape of the passing vehicles. This profile is useful to distinguish between vehicle classes with overlapping VL and VH ranges, e.g., SUT and MUT. For vehicles in these ranges, we look for the presence of a gap that is indicative of the start of a trailer, as manifest as one or more scans with a "drop" in the number of returns somewhere in the middle of the vehicle cluster. To determine whether a vehicle has such a *middle drop*, we first tally the number of LIDAR returns, nLR, as a function of each scan (i.e., time step) that the vehicle cluster was seen, yielding nLR(t). For example, Figure 2-4(a) shows the image of a pickup truck pulling a trailer (an example of PVPT) as it passes by the LIDAR sensors while Figure 2-4(b) shows the corresponding LIDAR returns from the vehicle cluster. Figure 2-4(c) shows the nLR(t) curve for the vehicle cluster. The curve does a good job highlighting the point where the trailer is connected to the pickup truck via the low nLR(t). Note that we deliberately use nLR(t) rather than the height of the vehicle because there are some trailers that have a return near the top of the gap even though most of the gap is open (e.g., tree trimming trucks).

¹ Like most conventional vehicle classification techniques, this equation implicitly assumes the vehicle is travelling fast enough for acceleration to be negligible, which can be explicitly verified from Equation (2.1).



Figure 2-4, (a) A pickup truck pulling a trailer; (b) the corresponding vehicle cluster of returns and the various measurements used for vehicle classification; and (c) the number of returns by scan, capturing the vehicle shape. Note that time in Figure 2-4(c) is increasing to the left in this plot because the front of the vehicle is seen first and the vehicle orientation is presented consistent with the rest of the figure.

Formalizing the process, once the nLR(t) curve is obtained, the set of local minimum points on the curve are considered as potential locations of a middle drop in the vehicle's shape, where nLR(t^*_i) denotes the i-th minima. Since the middle drop should correspond to relatively few LIDAR returns in the given scan (but not necessarily zero due to the connecting link, e.g., the hitch in Figure 2-4(a)), we assume that nLR at a middle drop must be less than the average of nLR(t) for the cluster across all times, \overline{nLR} . So, we ignore i-th local minimum if it is greater than \overline{nLR} . Formalizing this process, a given scan is considered a possible middle drop if it satisfies all of the conditions in Equation (2.4).

$$nLR(t_{i}^{*}) < nLR(t_{i}^{*} - 1)$$

$$nLR(t_{i}^{*}) < nLR(t_{i}^{*} + 1)$$

$$nLR(t_{i}^{*}) < \overline{nLR}$$
(2.4)

For each minima at t_i^* , we take the difference of nLR(t) and nLR(t_i^*) over all times, $t \in (FT_r, LT_r)$, denoted $\Delta n(t, t_i^*)$. We find max($\Delta n(t, t_i^*)$) over the α ft ahead of the scan at t_i^* ($\alpha = 4$ ft in this study), add it to max($\Delta n(t, t_i^*)$) for α ft behind the scan and divide the sum by nLR(t_i^*), yielding the *Sum of Relative Difference* (SRD) via Equation (2.5) at each t_i^* , i.e., SRD(t_i^*). The use of distance rather than time is to make the algorithm robust to slow moving vehicles. Next we select the max SRD(t_i^*) and call this value the *Detection of Middle Drop* (DMD) indicator, as expressed via Equation (2.6), and set t_i^* equal to the corresponding t_i^* . Figure 2-3(b) shows the cumulative distribution function of DMD for the 1,502 non-occluded vehicles by vehicle class in the development dataset. As expected PVPT, SUTPT and MUT have a wider range of DMD than MC, PV, and SUT. The latter three classes usually present zero DMD, indicative of a vehicle without a middle drop.

$$SRD(t_{i}^{*}) = \frac{\Delta n(t_{a}, t_{i}^{*}) + \Delta n(t_{b}, t_{i}^{*})}{nLR(t_{i}^{*})}$$

$$= \frac{nLR(t_{a}) + nLR(t_{b}) - 2 \times nLR(t_{i}^{*})}{nLR(t_{i}^{*})}$$
(2.5)

where,

$$t_{a} = \max\left(t_{i}^{*} - \frac{\alpha}{\operatorname{mean}(V_{FT}, V_{LT})}, FT_{r}\right)$$
$$t_{b} = \min\left(t_{i}^{*} + \frac{\alpha}{\operatorname{mean}(V_{FT}, V_{LT})}, LT_{r}\right)$$
$$DMD = \max(SRD(t_{i}^{*}))$$
(2.6)

Based on the distributions in Figure 2-3(b), if DMD < 1, the vehicle is presumed to be a single unit vehicle that is not pulling a trailer. Only 1 vehicle out of 16 vehicles pulling a trailer had DMD < 1 (a PVPT with zero DMD), or 6%. In addition, 40 out of 48 MUT (83%) had DMD > 1. Figure 2-3(b) also shows that 6% of PV and 15% of SUT had DMD > 1. From the development dataset, most of the vehicles with DMD < 1 can be correctly classified based on VL and VH. Correctly classifying the vehicles with DMD > 1 is the topic of the next section.

2.3.3 Additional Measurements of a Vehicle with Middle Drop

To correctly classify the vehicle clusters where DMD > 1, we segment a vehicle with middle drop into the front part of the vehicle (from the front bumper to the middle drop) and rear part of the vehicle (from the middle drop to the rear bumper). We then calculate the length of the front (FVL), height of the front (FVH), length of the rear (RVL), height of the rear (RVH), and the height of the vehicle at the middle drop (VHMD), as illustrated in Figure 2-4(b). Note that VH of a vehicle with middle drop corresponds to the maximum of FVH and RVH.

Vehicle Height at Middle Drop (VHMD)

The VHMD due to the hitch in PVPT or SUTPT should usually be lower than the VHMD due to the rear portion of a semi-trailer tractor in a MUT. We set a threshold height of the connection to be 2 ft. If VHMD is lower

than this threshold the vehicle will be classified as either PVPT or SUTPT (depending on the FVL, discussed below). Otherwise, we need to check the other measurements to classify the vehicle. The VHMD is calculated via Equation (2.7) applied to the returns in the vehicle cluster.

$$\forall HMD = \max(h(t^*)) - \min(h(t)), \forall t \in [FT_r, LT_r]$$
(2.7)

Front Vehicle Height (FVH) and Front Vehicle Length (FVL)

The front part of a vehicle cluster with a true middle drop is either a PV, SUT, or the tractor of a MUT. As was shown in Figure 2-3(a), VH of SUT and MUT is usually higher than 8 ft, while VH of PV is usually lower than 8 ft. So we use FVH calculated via Equation (2.8) to capture height of the front portion of the cluster and if the height is below 8 ft, the vehicle is classified as PVPT. Otherwise, we need to check the other measurements to classify the vehicle.

$$FVH = \max(h(t)) - \min(h(t)), \forall t \in [FT_r, t^{\dagger}]$$
(2.8)

In the case of PVPT or SUTPT the FVL calculated via Equation (2.9) is the VL of the PV or SUT portion of the cluster. From the development dataset we found the minimum length of the PV portion of the PVPT is above 15 ft. If the FVL is below 15 ft, we conclude that the middle drop is not due to a trailer and the vehicle is a single unit, PV or SUT.

$$FVL = V \times (t^* - FT_r)$$
(2.9)

Rear Vehicle Height (RVH) and Rear Vehicle Length (RVL)

The rear part of a vehicle with a true middle drop is trailer in a PVPT, SUTPT or MUT. If the RVH calculated via Equation (2.10) is sufficiently low (below 2.4 ft in the algorithm based on the development dataset), it is considered to be an empty flatbed trailer behind a PV or SUT and the complete cluster will be classified as either PVPT or SUTPT depending on the other measurements. If the RVH is sufficiently high (above 12 ft in the algorithm based on the development dataset), it is considered to be a semi-trailer and the complete cluster will be classified as a MUT. Otherwise, we need to check the other measurements to classify the vehicle. The trailer length is captured by RVL, Equation (2.11). If RVL is below 28 ft, we assume this trailer cannot come from a semi-trailer truck.

$$RVH = \max(h(t)) - \min(h(t)), \forall t \in [t^*, LT_r]$$

$$(2.10)$$

$$RVL = V \times (LT_r - t^*)$$
(2.11)

2.4 The LIDAR Based Vehicle Classification Algorithm

The eight shape measurements and various tests described above are combined into the LIDAR based classification decision tree shown in Figure 2-5. This figure shows our classification algorithm for non-occluded vehicles that we produced, based on the development dataset. As noted above, before applying this algorithm we automatically differentiate between non-occluded and partially occluded vehicles. For the latter group we cannot be as precise as Figure 2-5 for our classification, as follows.

2.4.1 Classifying Partially Occluded Vehicles

While some information is missing about the partially occluded vehicles, the intersection between the occluded and the occluder dimensions bound the size of the occluded vehicle, i.e., the size of the occluded part of the vehicle is no larger than the size of the occluder vehicle. Being careful not to double count scans where both the occluder and occluded are seen "overlapping", the length of the non-overlapping portion of the occluder vehicle is measured and the length of the occluded vehicle is bounded by Equation (2.12). Overlapping is not an issue for height, and the height of the occluded vehicle is bounded by Equation (2.13).

$$VL_{o} \le VL_{o}^{est} \le VL_{o} + VL_{c-NOL}$$

$$(2.12)$$

Where,

 VL_o^{est} = estimation of unknown actual vehicle length of the occluded vehicle,

 VL_o = vehicle length seen from the occluded vehicle,

 VL_{c-NOL} = vehicle length of non-overlapping portion of the occluder vehicle.



Figure 2-5, The decision tree underlying the non-occluded LIDAR based vehicle classification algorithm.

$$VH_0 \le VH_0^{est} \le Max(VH_0, VH_c)$$

Where,

VH_o^{est} = estimation of unknown actual vehicle height of the occluded vehicle,

 VH_o = vehicle height seen from the occluded vehicle,

 VH_c = vehicle height from the occluder vehicle.

In this proof of concept study we only attempt to classify occlusions that involve two vehicles, though the principles could easily be extended to more complicated multi-vehicle occlusions. When classifying a partially occluded vehicle, the six classes are defined by static boundaries in the vehicle length and vehicle height plane, as shown in Figure 2-6 (compare to Figure 2-3). Because VL_o^{est} and VH_o^{est} each span a range, it is possible for a partially occluded vehicle to be associated with more than one class.

(2.13)

2.5 Evaluation of the LIDAR Based Vehicle Classification Algorithm

Thus far this research has used a single development dataset collected on July 9, 2009 to derive the classification algorithm. In addition to the development dataset, we collected three additional freeway datasets and three arterial datasets for evaluation. We used a total of just over 15 hrs of data: 24 min for development and the rest for evaluation. All of the datasets were collected in the Columbus metropolitan area. All locations were visited a single time in this study except for I-71, which we visited twice. The facility, number of lanes, date, time period, duration, and distance between the LIDAR sensors and travel lanes are shown in the first few columns of Table 2-1, while Appendix A provides further information about each site. The next four columns of Table 2-1 show the average speed over all vehicles seen in the data collection period, the number of vehicles seen, the number of vehicles that our algorithm labeled as partially occluded, and the number of totally occluded vehicles as counted by the detectors (except for the SR-315 location, all of the sites had a separate detector that was used to find the totally occluded vehicles). Among the freeway datasets two come from free flow (5.4 hrs) and two from mild congestion (3.5 hrs). All of the data sets come from clear weather conditions.

Overall the algorithm suspected 2,938 out of 27,450 vehicles (11%) are partially occluded and these vehicles are excluded from the classification algorithm performance evaluation in Tables 2-1 and 2-2. Instead, we separately evaluate the classification performance on partially occluded vehicles at the end of this section. The highest rate of partially occluded vehicles occurred at the I-71 site on Nov 19, 2009 under mildly congested conditions (22.6%), while the lowest rate of partially occluded vehicles on the freeway segments occurred on SR-315 (9.6%). Not surprisingly, across the four freeway datasets the percentage of partially occluded vehicles increased as the number of lanes increased and at the I-71 location, as congestion increased (17.2% in free flow and 22.6% in mild congestion).

The vehicle class was manually reduced from the video ground truth data for all 27,450 vehicles in these datasets and the partial occlusions were verified at that time (see Chapter 3 for an example of the data reduction tool). We also ran the classification algorithm from Figure 2-5 on the datasets and the last three columns of Table 2-1 show the performance of the algorithm against the ground truth data. The errors are tallied on a per-vehicle basis, and thus, are not allowed to cancel one another across vehicles. Collectively, the algorithm correctly classifies 24,390 out of 24,512 non-occluded vehicles (99.5%) and misclassifies 122 vehicles (0.5%). The error rate was low across all seven datasets taken separately, the largest error rate was only 0.7%. The distance between the LIDAR and the roadway does not appear to have a large effect even though the further away a target vehicle is the smaller portion of the LIDAR field of view it occupies (and thus, the fewer angles in a LIDAR scan that provide vehicle returns). Among the freeway datasets the performance appears to degrade slightly as the average speed increases due to the 37 Hz sampling rate, but with only four datasets, the number is not large enough to draw any firm conclusions.

From s	six evaluation datasets		MC	LIDA P	R vehic		ification M	UT*	Number of vehicles from ground truth data	% correct	Number of partially occluded vehicles that are excluded from LIDAR based vehicle
				PV	PVPT	301	SUPT	MUT	truth data		classification
	MC		31	3	0	0	0	0	34	91.2%	4
	\mathbf{PV}^*	PV	10	20,762 3		15	0	0	20,790	99.9%	2,366
Ground	ΓV	PVPT	0	2	192	6	3	1	204	94.1%	25
data	SU	JT	0	30	4	688	4	2	728	94.5%	61
	MUT*	SUPT	0	0	6	2	31	6	45	68.9%	2
	MUT	MUT	0	0	3	9	5	1,192	1,209	98.6%	169
Number from Li clas	er of vehicles IDAR vehicle ssification		41	20,797	208	720	43	1,201	23,010	99.5%	2,627
%	correct		75.6%	99.8%	92.3%	95.6%	72.1%	99.3%	99.5%		

Table 2-2,Comparison of LIDAR based vehicle classification and actual vehicle class from the six
evaluation ground truth datasets.



Figure 2-6, The classification space for partially occluded vehicles.

Table 2-2 shows the classification results by class against the ground truth data for all six evaluation datasets combined (see Appendix B for the results by station). The cells on the diagonal tally the number of vehicles where the LIDAR classification is the same as the ground truth classification, while the off-diagonal cells tally the incorrect vehicle classifications. The final row indicates the percentage correct among the vehicles assigned the given classification by the algorithm, while the second to the last column indicates percentage correct among the vehicles from the given class in the ground truth data. The last column tallies the number of partially occluded vehicles-by-class that are excluded from the non-occluded LIDAR based vehicle classification. Often an operating agency will group PVPT with PV and SUTPT with MUT, for reference, these supersets are shown in the table, denoted PV* and MUT*, respectively. If using the two supersets, 14% of the errors (16 vehicles) in Table 2-2 and 16% of the errors (20 vehicles) in Table 2-1 would be eliminated. Overall, the algorithm correctly classified a total of 22,896 out of 23,010 vehicles (99.5%) in the evaluation datasets.

The most common errors are between PV and SUT because the length and height ranges of these vehicles overlap (30 SUT misclassified as PV and 15 PV misclassified as SUT), accounting for 39% of all errors. Also of note, we see 10 PV misclassified as MC. All of these PV were confirmed to have exceptionally short length, e.g., a 7.5 ft long commuter car (Smart Car). As with PV/SUT the MC/PV problem arises because the length and height ranges overlap between the two classes (3 MC were also misclassified as PV). This problem is not unique to LIDAR, the relatively new commuter cars will likely degrade the performance of most classification technologies when segregating MC. However, with the higher vantage point envisioned in our future research, the LIDAR should also be able to measure vehicle width, which should distinguish MC from commuter cars.

Finally, the algorithm for classifying partially occluded vehicles was applied to 1.5 hrs of the I-270 dataset. There were 465 partially occluded vehicles detected and of these, 219 are placed into a single feasible class (47% of partially occluded vehicles) and only six of these (3%) are incorrectly classified. The remaining 246 partially occluded vehicles are assigned two more feasible vehicle classes. Within this set, 34 (14%) were assigned all six classes. Out of the remaining 212 vehicles, 96% had the correct class among the two or more classes assigned to the given vehicle.

2.6 Conclusions

This chapter developed and tested a side-fire LIDAR based vehicle classification algorithm. The algorithm includes up to eight different measurements of vehicle shape to sort vehicles into six different classes. The algorithm was tested over seven datasets collected at various locations (including one development dataset). The results were compared against concurrent video-recorded ground truth data on a per-vehicle basis. Overall, 2,938 out of 27,450 vehicles (11%) are suspected of being partially occluded and these vehicles are classified separately. Occlusions are inevitable given the low vantage point of the sensors in this proof of concept study. In future research we will investigate higher views (comparable to typical microwave radar detector deployments) to mitigate the impact of occlusions. These higher views should also provide additional features, e.g., vehicle width. Unlike video, a vehicle's width and height are easily separable in the LIDAR ranging data. The algorithm correctly classifies 24,390 of the 24,512 non-occluded vehicles (99.5%). While most side-fire detectors have challenges with occluded vehicles, the algorithms developed by this project are able to work around many of the problems. When a vehicle was partially occluded, we calculate the range of feasible length and height. These ranges are then used to assign one or more feasible vehicle classes to the given vehicle. Among these partially occluded vehicles, 47% were assigned a single class and 97% of these were correct.

Finally, this work also uncovered an emerging challenge facing most vehicle classification technologies: separating commuter cars from motorcycles. The two groups have similar lengths, axle spacing and height, though they differ in width and likely in weight. With increased interest in classifying motorcycles correctly, combined with more commuter cars on the road, there is a need to devise a means to separate the two types of vehicles.

Alternatively, recognizing the difficulty in distinguishing pairs of vehicle classes with the existing detector infrastructure (e.g., commuter cars and motorcycles, short SUT and PV), there may be a need to create buffer classes to impart greater confidence in the reported classifications, e.g., adding a new "class 3 or class 5" bin to the axlebased decision tree that takes the upper portion of axle class 3 and lower portion of axle class 5 axle spacings. Thus confining the uncertainty to a much smaller number of vehicles and ensuring much greater confidence that anything that is classified as "strictly class 5" is indeed axle class 5.

3 USING LIDAR TO VALIDATE THE PERFORMANCE OF VEHICLE CLASSIFICATION STATIONS

3.1 Introduction

Vehicle classification data are used in many transportation applications, including: pavement design, environmental impact studies, traffic control, and traffic safety [1]. There are several classification methods, including: axle-based (e.g., pneumatic tube and piezoelectric detectors), vehicle length-based (e.g., dual loop and some wayside microwave detectors), as well as emerging machine vision based detection. Each sensor technology has its own strengths and weaknesses regarding costs, performance, and ease of use. As noted in the Traffic Monitoring Guide [1], the quality of data collected depends on the operating agency to periodically calibrate, test, and validate the performance of classification sensors. However, such a periodic performance monitoring has been prohibitively labor intensive because the only option has been to manually validate the performance, e.g., classifying a sample by hand. Furthermore, the manual classifications are prone to human error and conventional aggregation periods allow classification errors to cancel one another.

In the present study we develop a classification performance monitoring system to allow operating agencies to rapidly assess the health of their classification stations on a per vehicle basis. We eliminate most of the labor demands and instead, deploy a portable non-intrusive vehicle classification system (PNVCS) to classify vehicles, concurrent with an existing classification station. For this study we use a side-fire LIDAR (light detection and ranging) based classifier for the PNVCS discussed in Chapter 2. Figure 3-1 shows a flowchart of our performance evaluation system. The existing classification station normally follows the three boxes within the dashed region (top left of the figure) when it is not under evaluation and the PNVCS is shown immediately to the right of the dashed region. To prevent classification errors from canceling one another in aggregate, we record per-vehicle record (pvr) data in the field from both systems. After the field collection the classification results are evaluated on a per-vehicle basis. Algorithms for time synchronization and for matching observations of a given vehicle between the two classification systems are developed in this study. These algorithms automatically compare the vehicle classification between the existing classification station and the PNVCS for each vehicle. The conventional 13 axle-based classes are consolidated into four classes to facilitate comparison with the LIDAR PNVCS in Chapter 2, i.e., motorcycle (MC) - axle class 1, passenger vehicle (PV) - axle classes 2-3, single unit truck/bus (SUT) - axle classes 4-7, and multiple unit truck (MUT) - axle classes 8-13. If the two systems agree, the given vehicle is automatically taken as a success by the classification station (under the implicit assumption that few vehicles will be misclassified the same way by the two independent systems). The temporary deployment includes a video camera (right-most path in Figure 3-1) to allow a human to assess any discrepancies. A human only looks at a given vehicle when the two systems disagree, and for this task we have developed tools to semi-automate the manual validation process, greatly increasing the efficiency and accuracy of the human user. The datasets in this study take only a few minutes for the user to validate an hour of pvr data from a multi-lane facility.

Although we use a LIDAR based system, the tools at the heart of the methodology are transferable to many PNVCS such as the TIRTL by Control Specialists, AxleLight by Quixote, and the prototype ORADS (more recently NTMS) by Spectra Research [15-18]. These systems were specifically developed to replace pneumatic tubes and use light beams just above the pavement to implement axle-based classification. The TIRTL performed very well at measuring axle spacing on two lane highways, typically above 95% accuracy [19], though some studies found an error rate of 24% among the truck classes due to the default decision tree [20-22]. While the AxleLight had an error rate for the truck classes up to 34% in high volume across four lanes [21-23], which was attributed to the sensor mistaking closely-following two-axle vehicles for multi-axle trucks. Most of the errors in [21-22] were corrected by post-processing the pvr data from AxleLite and TIRTL using a new decision tree. Meanwhile, other studies found the TIRTL performance degrades on four lane roads [24]. Finally, commercial side-fire microwave radar systems do not currently appear to offer sufficient classification accuracy to be used for this application. Even allowing the individual errors to cancel, the SmartSensor had an overall error rate for trucks (SUT and MUT combined) of 46% [20], 80% [25], 50%-400% [24], 20%-50% [19] and the RTMS had an error rate for trucks of 25% [20], 40%-97% [24]. Two studies used a small sample of pvr data, only a few hundred vehicles, and found the SmartSensor had an error rate for trucks of 13%-57% [23], 42% [21].



Figure 3-1, Flowchart of the evaluation of an existing vehicle classification station using LIDAR PNVCS vehicle classification. The existing station is shown in the dashed box at the top left. In normal operation most classifiers go one step further than shown in the dashed box and aggregate the pvr data by time period.

This pilot study used a LIDAR based PNVCS mounted on a van (see, e.g., Figure 2-1(b)). This approach offers a distinct advantage over the other PNVCS since our system does not require any calibration in the field, in fact the van can be classifying vehicles as it pulls up to the site. For longer-term deployments we envision a dedicated trailer that could be parked alongside the road.

The remainder of this chapter is organized as follows. First the process of collecting the concurrent pvr vehicle classification data from the LIDAR and existing classification station is presented. Next the performance evaluation methodology is developed. Third, the methodology is applied to several permanent and temporary vehicle classification stations to evaluate axle and length-based classification. The evaluation datasets include over 21,000 vehicles, less than 8% of which required manual intervention. Finally, the chapter closes with conclusions.

3.2 Methodology of Using a PNVCS to Evaluate Classification Station Performance

This section develops the semi-automated performance evaluation methodology for an existing classification station using LIDAR PNVCS classification, as shown in Figure 3-1. There are four key steps discussed below, first the input classification data itself, second the time synchronization algorithm, third the vehicle matching algorithm to match observations of a given vehicle between the two classification systems, and fourth the semi-automated tool to allow a human to rapidly review any discrepancies between the two classification systems. The discrepancies include both conflicting classifications and vehicles seen by just one of the systems. In the absence of a discrepancy, a vehicle is automatically recorded as a successful classification, without human intervention.

Given the low mounting location of the LIDAR sensors used in this study, vehicles in further lanes are susceptible to occlusions from vehicles in closer lanes. Totally occluded vehicles are a discrepancy handled in the above steps. Partial occlusions degrade the LIDAR classification performance, but the LIDAR classifier can automatically detect when a partial occlusion occurs (Chapter 2 found roughly 11% of the vehicles were partially occluded). These vehicles are counted to ensure both detectors saw a single vehicle pass, but for now the classifications are not used since a partial occlusion in the LIDAR should not be correlated with misclassifications by the existing station. In practice this approach would necessitate collecting a slightly larger dataset to accommodate the fact that some of the vehicles will not be used in the final comparison. Alternatively, if simply setting the partially occluded vehicles aside like this is unacceptable, then Section 2.4.1 presents a means to classify them to one or more classes. In the previous chapter roughly 50% of the partially occluded vehicles were assigned to a single class and could be processed automatically by the vehicle matching algorithm. The rest could be treated as a discrepancy and subjected to human evaluation with the semi-automated tool, thus, slightly increasing the number of vehicles sent for human assessment.

3.2.1 The Classification Data

Our prototype LIDAR based vehicle classification platform consists of two LIDAR sensors mounted at a height of about 6.7 ft above ground on the driver's side of a minivan parked alongside the roadway, as discussed in Chapter 2. The LIDAR sensors provide a rich view of the passing vehicles, each scan sweeps a 180° arc vertically across the road, returning the distance to the nearest object (if any) at 0.5° increments with a ranging resolution of 0.1 inch and a maximum range of 262 ft. To classify vehicles, first we segment them from the background, look for possible occlusions in further lanes, and then we measure several features of size and shape for each non-occluded vehicle. The algorithm uses these features to classify the vehicle clusters into six vehicle classes: MC, PV, PV pulling a trailer (PVPT), SUT, SUT pulling a trailer (SUTPT), and MUT. For this chapter PVPT are included with PV and SUTPT are included with MUT, following common axle-based classification conventions.

In the present study we evaluate both axle-based classification and length-based classification. We evaluate two permanent vehicle classification stations (total of three directional stations) with dual loop detectors and a piezoelectric sensor in each lane and two temporary vehicle classification deployments (total of four directional stations) with pneumatic tubes. Both systems provide the conventional 13 axle-based classes. The permanent vehicle classification stations also provide length-based vehicle classification with three length-classes that are intended to map to PV, SUT and MUT, respectively. Finally, we also tested the system at a single loop detector station using [14] for length-based classification. All of the datasets were collected in the Columbus, Ohio, metropolitan area (see Appendix A for more details).

3.2.2 Time Synchronization

The LIDAR PNVCS and the existing classification station clocks are independent, so before any comparisons are made it is necessary to first find the offset between the two systems. To automatically find this offset we borrow an approach from our earlier vehicle reidentification work, e.g., [26], only now the two locations are concurrent, so the vehicle headways become a unique signature and our algorithm looks for sequences of headways. The algorithm has to accommodate the fact that any given vehicle may be seen in just one dataset or the other due to detection errors and LIDAR occlusions, hence our use of the vehicle reidentification work.

The algorithm currently uses arrivals in one lane, over one minute.² We arbitrarily select one vehicle in the LIDAR data as the reference (0-th vehicle), examine all n vehicles that follow within a minute, and record their arrival times, t_i^L . The only constraint is that there must be concurrent data from the classification station. We then step through the station's vehicles from the same lane, successively taking each one as the station's reference (K-th vehicle, with arrival time t_K^C) to test the assumption that $t_0^L = t_K^C$ by evaluating all m vehicles that follow within a minute, and their arrival times t_j^C . For each value of K the algorithm tallies the number of times the n LIDAR vehicles arrive within one second of the m station vehicles, i.e., finds the rate of virtually matched vehicles (RVM_K) from Equation (3.1). Figure 3-2 shows an example of RVM_K versus the resulting offset time, $t_0^L - t_K^C$ from the K-th vehicle from SR-33 northbound in each lane. The algorithm selects the value of K with the largest RVM_K and uses this as the final offset, it then subtracts the corresponding offset time, $t_0^L - t_K^C$, from the entire LIDAR dataset. In Figure 3-2 the final offset time from lane 1 is -436.6 sec and from lane 2 is -436.5 sec. In this case the classification station clock is 436 sec later than the LIDAR.

$$RVM_{K} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \begin{cases} 1, & \left| \left(t_{i}^{L} - t_{0}^{L} \right) - \left(t_{j}^{C} - t_{K}^{C} \right) \right| \text{ (3.1)} \\ 0, & \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

3.2.3 Vehicle Matching

After time synchronization, most vehicles in one dataset have a unique match in the other. However, the pvr data from many of the classification stations used in this study only reported arrival times to the second. So there may be many vehicles in either set that have two possible matches. With subsecond precision most of these ambiguities would be resolved, but some would likely remain. In any event, the vehicle matching algorithm seeks to find the best match for a vehicle that has two or more possible matches by accounting for the vehicles immediately before and after the ambiguity, as well as the vehicle classes assigned to these vehicles by the two sensor systems.

Formalizing the process, the i-th LIDAR PNVCS observation and j-th classification station observation are taken as a possible match if $|t_i^L - t_j^C| < 1 \text{ sec}$. The results can be summarized in a *feasible vehicle matrix*. The matrix is indexed by successive vehicle number in each dataset (LIDAR on the ordinate and classification station on the abscissa). Each element of the matrix is the outcome of the temporal comparison for the ij pair. Figure 3-3 shows an example of the feasible vehicle matrix using 11 successive vehicles from both datasets in lane 1 at SR-33 northbound. Most cells are empty, indicating there is no match, while "O" indicates a possible match for the ij pair of vehicles. The matrix shows that two classification station vehicles (379 and 383) and two LIDAR vehicles (380 and 381) have no matches in the other dataset. These unmatched vehicles will automatically be sent for manual review by the algorithm (see next section). Upon reviewing the concurrent video, the two unmatched classification station station vehicles were totally occluded in the LIDAR while the two unmatched LIDAR vehicles were completely missed by the classification station.

A given vehicle can have at most one true match and indeed, most of the vehicles in Figure 3-3 have a single match. If a given possible match is the only match in the given row and column, that match is retained as a final match. Otherwise, the vehicle matching algorithm has to choose between the possible matches, e.g., classification station vehicle 374 and LIDAR vehicle 372 each have two possible matches. The algorithm assumes that vehicles maintain the same order in the two datasets, in which case, the true (but unknown) matches should fall into sequences in the feasible vehicle matrix (manifest as diagonal lines of possible matches at 45°). Whenever a vehicle has more than one possible match, the vehicle matching algorithm collects the group of all involved vehicles from each detector (classification station vehicles 373-374 and LIDAR vehicles 372-373 in Figure 3-3). Figure 3-4(a) shows an extreme hypothetical example, where almost every vehicle falls into one of three distinct groups of

² Expanding to multiple lanes or longer duration would improve the precision in challenging conditions.



Figure 3-2, RVM_K versus the resulting offset time as a function of K from SR-33 northbound, (a) Lane 1, the peak shows the final offset time is -436.6 sec, and (b) Lane 2, the peak shows the final offset time is -436.5 second.



Figure 3-3, A feasible vehicle matrix, summarizing the outcome from the difference of arrival times between the LIDAR and classification station data in lane 1 at SR-33 northbound.



Figure 3-4, (a) hypothetical feasible vehicle matrix in which many rows and columns have multiple matches, (b) isolating the distinct groups of vehicles, the groups are numbered for reference, (c) selecting the longest sequence from the given group. Note that the two sequences in group 2 are equal length, so the algorithm would then compare the classification results from the two sensor systems and select the sequence with the strongest similarity between the two sensor systems.



Figure 3-5, A snapshot of the semi-automated GUI verification tool processing a conflicting classification for a vehicle in lane 1 at SR-33 northbound. The GUI window consists of four interfaces: (a) plot of transition pulses, the plot shows for each lane the classification station data (top curve) and LIDAR data (bottom curve) and the current instant is shown with a vertical dashed line, (b) the current video frame, (c) the LIDAR returns from the vehicle in question, and (d) a panel for controlling the review and entering ground truth data. So in this case the GUI is at the second visible pulse in lane 1 (counted from the left hand side) and is ready for the user to assess the data using the buttons on the right of part (d).

vehicles, as shown in Figure 3-4(b). If there is a single longest sequence in a group, the algorithm selects that sequence as final matches, Figure 3-4(c). Otherwise, if there are two or more sequences tied for the longest sequence, the algorithm considers the classifications assigned by the two sensor systems and chooses the sequence with the best classification agreement, e.g., as would be necessary for group 2 in Figure 3-4(c).

3.2.4 Manual Verification Using a Semi-Automated Tool

Inspired by VideoSync [27], a purpose built software ground truthing tool with a graphical user interface (GUI) was developed in MATLAB to efficiently generate ground truth data and increase the accuracy of the human user. After the time synchronization and vehicle matching steps above, the GUI loads the pvr classifications from the classification station and the LIDAR PNVCS. The user can choose which set(s) of vehicles they wish to review: (i) seen only in LIDAR, (ii) seen only at the classification station, (iii) conflicting classifications between the two sources, and/or (iv) consistent classification between the two sources. Normally the user would select the three error conditions, i.e., sets i-iii. Next, the user chooses one or more lanes to review, then the GUI steps through all of the vehicles in the given set(s) and lane(s). Figure 3-5 shows an example of the GUI as a SUT passes. For each vehicle the GUI displays the raw LIDAR data and the raw classification station data for a few seconds before and after the given vehicle detection (Figure 3-5(c) and (a), respectively). The GUI shows the video frame at the instant of the vehicle passage (Figure 3-5(b)), and allows the user to step forward or back in the video to see the evolution if necessary (Figure 3-5(d)). The bottom right corner of the GUI shows the user what vehicle class was assigned by the station and the LIDAR. After assessing the concurrent sensor and video data, the user records the observed vehicle class (or detection error) for the current actuation via the buttons in the two right-most boxes of Figure 3-5(d). As soon as the user enters a selection, the GUI jumps to the next actuation in the selected set(s) and lane(s) until all of the vehicles have been reviewed in the given set(s) from the entire time period with video data. In this study the user typically spent 3-5 sec per vehicle reviewed (including seek time and loading time), but only about 8% of the actuations required review. The automated process does the bulk of the work, in this study it typically took the human only a few minutes to process the exceptions from all lanes over one hour of data.

3.3 Results of Using a PNVCS to Evaluate Classification Station Performance

3.3.1 Axle-Based Classification Stations

As noted above, we collected concurrent LIDAR and classification station pvr data at two permanent axle classification stations (I-270 and SR-33) with dual loop detectors and a piezoelectric sensor in each lane and two temporary axle classification deployments (Wilson Rd and Dublin Rd) with pneumatic tubes. Table 3-1 enumerates the location, date, duration, and number of lanes in the first few columns. All locations yielded data for the direction of travel adjacent to the minivan (top rows in the table). We parked the van on both sides of Wilson Rd, hence both NB and SB nearside data for this location. Almost all of the locations provided sufficient view of the far lanes in the opposing direction to allow LIDAR classification, shown in the lower portion of the table. The one exception was I-270, where the median barrier and superelevation precluded a view of the opposing lanes. In any event, all lanes are numbered successively from the LIDAR minivan, regardless of the direction of travel.

Columns (a) and (b) show the number of actuations reported by the LIDAR and classification data (including any non-vehicle actuations). Columns (c)-(e) show the number of matched and unmatched actuations after the vehicle matching algorithm. Column (f) sums columns (c), (d), and (e), yielding the number of actuations seen by one or both sensors. Column (g) tallies the number of partially occluded vehicles detected in the LIDAR (as per Section 2.2.1) and seen by the classification station. Since the partial occlusions do not reflect any error by the classification station, at present they are excluded from further analysis.³ Column (h) shows the number of actuations for which the algorithm compared the respective classifications from the two systems and from this set (i) tallies the disagreement. The percentage of disagreement is below 8% for all lanes studied and below 4% for most of them. Columns (j) and (k) reiterate (d) and (e) as percentages of (f). Finally, column (l) tallies the number of vehicles subject to manual verification (sum of columns (d), (e) and (i), as a percent of (f)).

³ See Section 2.2 for a discussion on how the partially occluded vehicles can be handled if they are specifically of interest. Roughly half of these vehicles would require human review, slightly increasing the labor demands for the evaluation.

LIDAR sensor direction	Loca- tion (direc-		Dura- tion	Lane num-	Numt vehicle ir	Number of vehicles seen in;		cle matching Number of vehicles only seen in;		Number of vehicles	Number of partially	Comparison of vehicle classification		% vehicles not detected by;		Number of vehicles
vehicle travel direction	(direc- tion)	Date	(hh: min)	from LIDAR	LIDAR Axle (a) (b)	seen in both LIDAR and Axle (c)	LIDAR (d)	Axle (e)	the location (f)	occluded vehicles (g)	Number of compared vehicles (h)	Dis- agree- ment (i)	LIDAR (j)	Axle (k)	(1)	
				1	5,415	5,452	5,389	26	63	5,478	n/a	5,389	188 (3.5%)	1.2%	0.5%	277 (5.1%)
	I-270 (SB)	11/02/2010	5:00	2	5,335	5,488	5,303	32	185	5,520	641	4,662	145 (3.1%)	3.4%	0.6%	362 (6.6%)
				3	2,647	2,789	2,615	32	174	2,821	713	1,902	24 (1.3%)	6.2%	1.1%	230 (8.2%)
	Dublin (SB)	10/28/2010	2:50	1	1,344	1,317	1,313	31	4	1,348	n/a	1,313	80 (6.1%)	0.3%	2.3%	115 (8.5%)
Adjacent	Wilson (NB)	10/28/2010	1:40	1	666	664	658	8	6	672	n/a	658	24 (3.6%)	0.9%	1.2%	38 (5.7%)
	Wilson (SB)	10/28/2010	1:40	1	711	712	701	10	11	722	n/a	701	21 (3.0%)	1.5%	1.4%	42 (5.8%)
	SR-33 (NB)	08/03/2011		1	732	693	684	48	9	741	n/a	684	32 (4.7%)	1.2%	6.5%	89 (12.0%)
			1:10	2	569	562	547	22	15	584	65	482	6 (1.2%)	2.6%	3.8%	43 (7.4%)
Sub	total of ad	jacent	12:20	-	17,419	17,677	17,210	209	467	17,886	1,419	15,791	520 (3.3%)	2.6%	1.2%	1,196 (6.7%)
	Dublin (NB)	10/28/2010	2:50	2	940	943	933	7	10	950	75	858	52 (6.1%)	1.1%	0.7%	69 (7.3%)
	Wilson (NB)	10/28/2010	1:40	2	749	752	742	7	10	759	58	684	18 (2.6%)	1.3%	0.9%	35 (4.6%)
Opposite	Wilson (SB)	10/28/2010	1:40	2	741	735	723	18	12	753	47	676	24 (3.6%)	1.6%	2.4%	54 (7.2%)
	SD 22			3	592	587	548	44	39	631	53	495	9 (1.8%)	6.2%	7.0%	92 (14.6%)
	(SB)	08/03/2011	1:10	4	888	884	838	50	46	934	148	690	54 (7.8%)	4.9%	5.4%	150 (16.1%)
Subtotal of opposite			7:20	-	3,910	3,901	3,784	126	117	4,027	381	3,403	157 (4.6%)	2.9%	3.1%	400 (9.9%)
	19:40	-	21,329	21,578	20,994	335	584	21,913	1,800	19,194	677 (3.5%)	2.7%	1.5%	1,596 (7.3%)		
n/a: occl (a) = (c -	usions ar + d)	e infeasib	le in t	his lan	e beca	use it i	is adjace	nt to th	e LID	OAR sen	sor					

Summary of the automated comparison of vehicle classification between LIDAR and axle Table 3-1, data at seven directional classification stations,

LIDAR sensor	T	Lane	Number of		Reason		Number of	Re	ason	Number of	V d	erification lisagreeme			
direction relative to vehicle travel direction	Loca- tion (direc- tion)	num- ber from LIDAR	vehicles not detected by LIDAR (e)	Totally occluded vehicle	LIDAR missed vehicle	Axle non- vehicle actuation (m)	vehicles not detected by Axle (d)	Axle missed vehicle (n)	LIDAR non- vehicle actuation	vehicles in disagree- ment (i)	LIDAR correct, Axle incorrect (p)	LIDAR incorrect, Axle correct	LIDAR incorrect Axle incorrect (q)	% axle miss- classified (r)	% total axle error (s)
		1	63	n/a	63	0	26	26	0	188	148	36	4	2.8%	3.2%
ī	I-270 (SB)	2	185	116	69	0	32	32	0	145	113	30	2	2.5%	2.6%
	(52)	3	174	141	33	0	32	32	0	24	20	4	0	1.1%	1.7%
	Dublin (SB)	1	4	n/a	4	0	31	31	0	80	76	4	0	5.8%	7.9%
Adjacent	Wilson (NB)	1	6	n/a	6	0	8	8	0	24	22	2	0	3.3%	4.5%
	Wilson (SB)	1	11	n/a	11	0	10	10	0	21	18	3	0	2.6%	3.9%
	SR-33 (NB)	1	9	n/a	9	0	48	48	0	32	26	4	2	4.1%	10.3%
		2	15	8	7	0	22	22	0	6	5	1	0	1.0%	4.5%
Subtota	l of adj	acent	467	265	202	0	209	209	0	520	428	84	8	2.8%	3.6%
	Dublin (NB)	2	10	5	1	4	7	7	0	52	48	3	1	5.7%	6.3%
	Wilson (NB)	2	10	5	5	0	7	7	0	18	15	3	0	2.2%	2.9%
Opposite	Wilson (SB)	2	12	10	2	0	18	18	0	24	22	2	0	3.3%	5.3%
	SR-33	3	39	27	12	0	44	44	0	9	6	3	0	1.2%	7.9%
	(SB)	4	46	41	4	1	50	50	0	54	42	11	1	6.2%	10.1%
Subtota	l of opp	osite	117	88	24	5	126	126	0	157	133	22	2	4.0%	6.6%
C	Overall		584	353	226	5	335	335	0	677	561	106	10	3.0%	4.1%
n/a: occl	lusions	are in	feasible i	n this la	ne beca	use it is	adjacent	to the	LIDAR	sensor					

Table 3-2, Manual verification of the vehicles with conflicting classifications or only seen by one sensor using the semi-automated tool,

(r) = (p+q) / (h)(s) = (p+q+m+n)/(f-m)

Note (f) and (h) are shown in Table 3-1.

Table 3-2 summarizes the results from manual verification for the vehicles with a discrepancy in Table 3-1 (columns (d), (e) and (i)). Of the vehicles that were not detected by the LIDAR (column e), 60% (353 out of 584) are due to completely occluded vehicles, 39% (226 out of 584) are due to the LIDAR missing unoccluded vehicles, and 1% (5 out of 584) are due to non-vehicle actuations at the classification station. Upon review, it turns out that all 335 of the actuations that were not detected at the classification stations (column d) were due to those stations missing the vehicles. Of the vehicles with conflicting classification (column i), the classification station was incorrect 84% of the time (571 out of 677). Assuming few vehicles are misclassified the same way by the two systems, all of the agreements are automatically tallied as a success by the classification station. As a result, the classification stations exhibited an overall misclassification rate of 3% (sum of columns (m), (n), (p), and (q) divided by [(f)-(m)]). The highest error rate observed in a lane was 10.3%.

To ensure the validity of the assumption that no individual vehicles were misclassified the same way by both systems, (and thus, by extension, degrade the accuracy of the above results), we manually verified the class of 15,271 out of the 18,517 vehicles that the two systems gave the same class. As noted above, these vehicles would normally be assigned "success" automatically, without review by a person. Within the manually verified data set, 99.8% (15,245 out of 15,271) were assigned the correct vehicle class and only 26 vehicles (0.2%) were incorrectly classified.

Table 3-3 compares the specific classification of the non-occluded vehicles detected by both sensors across all of the datasets. The columns show the axle classification and rows show the LIDAR classification. The bold numbers on the diagonal show the agreement between the two systems and all of the numbers off the axis reflect the disagreements. The third row from the bottom and the second column from the end tally the class of vehicles that were only seen by one of the detectors. The last column and second to the last row tally the row and column total, respectively. The final row presents the number of partially occluded vehicles that were excluded from the comparisons, sorted by axle class for reference. Collectively, 4.6% of the non-occluded vehicles (919 out of 20,113) are detected by only one sensor, of the remaining 19,194 non-occluded vehicles that were detected by both sensors, 96.5% (18,517 vehicles) were assigned the same classification from the two systems and 3.5% (677 vehicles) were not.

As noted above, all of the vehicles assigned the same class by both systems are automatically taken to be correct, while all of the conflicting classifications were manually validated (i.e., the off diagonal cells in Table 3-3). After conducting the manual validation we refer to the collection of the results as pseudo ground truth since the cells that were originally in agreement were not manually validated. The axle classification station performance across all of the datasets is compared against the pseudo ground truth in Table 3-4. There are a total of 19,760 vehicles in the pseudo ground truth data, including 19,194 non-occluded vehicles seen by both sensors, 335 vehicles not detected by the axle classification stations, 226 vehicles not detected by the LIDAR sensors, and 5 non-vehicle actuations in the axle data. The remaining 353 vehicles from Table 3-3 were completely occluded in the video as well. The completely occluded vehicles are excluded from the comparison, but their assigned axle class is reported in the final row for reference. No vehicle changed columns from Table 3-3 since the axle classifications did not change, but many of the vehicles were reassigned to new rows as a result of the manual validation. The accuracy of pseudo ground truth data should be above 99% because most vehicles with the corresponding classification are correctly classified (as per above, we found that only 0.2% of the vehicles with the same classification from the two systems were incorrectly classified). The classification stations exhibited 95% accuracy overall, but dramatically different performance by class. The best performance was on PV and worst performance on MC. It is also important to take care reading the table, although 84% of the vehicles classified as SUT by the axle classification stations were indeed SUT (column total), only 66% of the SUT were correctly classified as such (row total). This pseudo ground truth analysis is repeated by individual station in Appendix C and Table 3-5 summarizes the performance by station. To help interpret these results, the final row of Table 3-5 summarizes Table 3-4. The first few columns report the number of vehicles seen in the pseudo ground truth for the given class (e.g., the second to the last column in Table 3-4), the next set of columns present the percentage of vehicles correctly classified in the given class (e.g., the last column in Table 3-4), and the last set of columns present the percentage of detector station classifications that were correct in the given class (e.g., the second to the last row in Table 3-4). It turns out that the 160 PV misclassified as MUT were due to PVPT or systematic errors by the classification station discussed in [28]. Meanwhile, the large number of PV misclassified as SUT and vice versa is due to the fact that the range of feasible axle spacings overlap between these two groups [28].

Table 3-4 shows the worst performance for motorcycles, with only 27% being correctly classified, but this table combines data from permanent classification stations and temporary pneumatic tube deployments. Unfortunately, as shown in Table 3-5, the pneumatic tubes (Dublin Rd and Wilson Rd) were much better at

detecting and classifying the motorcycles than the permanent classification stations (I-270 and SR-33). Reviewing the data strictly from the two permanent classification stations with concurrent LIDAR (Appendix C), the pseudo ground truth include 15 motorcycles, of which only 1 (7%) was correctly classified by the classification stations. Meanwhile, 9 (60%) of the motorcycles were misclassified as longer vehicles and 5 (33%) passed completely undetected. Given the fact that these data come from only two classification stations and the number of motorcycles is small, further study is warranted.

3.3.2 Length-Based Classification Stations

As noted in the introduction, we also used this methodology to evaluate the performance of length-based classification. All of the permanent vehicle classification stations also provide length-based and we also tested the system at a single loop detector station using [14] for length-based classification. All vehicles below 28 ft are assigned to length class 1, all remaining vehicles below 47 ft are assigned to length class 2, and all vehicles above 47 ft are assigned length class 3; and these length classes are intended to roughly map to PV, SUT and MUT, respectively. So for our analysis we map LIDAR MC and PV to length class 1, LIDAR SUT to length class 2, and LIDAR MUT to length class 3. Tables 3-6 to 3-9 repeat the comparisons of the previous section, now applied to the length-based classification stations. The length-based performance and number of vehicle requiring manual validation are comparable to the axle-based classification. Appendix D show the length-based classification pseudo ground truth results by station.

3.4 Conclusions

Vehicle classification data are critical to many transportation applications, but the quality of data collected depends on the operating agency to periodically calibrate, test, and validate the performance of classification sensors. These studies are labor intensive and coarse, allowing overcounting errors to cancel undercounting errors. To address these challenges, the present work develops a classification performance monitoring system to allow operating agencies to rapidly assess the health of their classification stations. We eliminate most of the labor demands and instead, deploy a LIDAR based PNVCS to classify vehicles, concurrent with existing classification stations. To prevent classification errors from canceling one another in aggregate, we record per-vehicle record (pvr) data in the field from both systems. After the field collection the classification results are evaluated on a per-vehicle basis. If the two systems agree, the given vehicle is automatically taken as a success by the classification station. The PNVCS includes a video camera to allow a human to assess the discrepancies. A human only looks at a given vehicle when the two systems disagree, and we developed tools to semi-automate the manual validation process, greatly increasing the efficiency and accuracy of the human user. The datasets in this study take only a few minutes for the user to validate an hour of pvr data. Although we use a LIDAR based system, the tools at the heart of the methodology are transferable to many PNVCS such as the TIRTL or AxleLight. This pilot study used LIDAR sensors mounted on a van. This approach offers a distinct advantage over the other PNVCS since our system does not require any calibration in the field, in fact the van can be classifying vehicles as it pulls up to the site. For longerterm deployments we envision a dedicated trailer that could be parked alongside the road.

The evaluation datasets come from several different classification stations, they include over 21,000 vehicles. We separately evaluated length-based classification stations and axle-based classification stations, each yielding similar results. In each case about 8% of the vehicles required manual intervention. In this study the user typically spent 3-5 sec per vehicle reviewed. The automated process does the bulk of the work, in this study it typically took the human only a few minutes to process the exceptions from all lanes over one hour of data.

This evaluation revealed a chronic problem detecting motorcycles at the two permanent classification stations studied. While the LIDAR system detected 15 passing motorcycles, the stations correctly classified one of them, and missed five altogether.

As this research has shown, there is wide variance in performance from one station to the next and these errors tend to have a higher frequency among the truck classes, particularly the SUT. Since these errors are a function of the specific station, there would be benefit in the short term if a given operating agency were to leverage the system developed in this research to evaluate the performance of many other classification stations. Thereby catching systematic errors that bias classification performance at the given station.

		Ах	de vehicle c	lassifica	tion	Number of	
С	verall	rall Motor- cycle Passenger vehicle [*] Single Munit truck		Multiple unit truck [*]	LIDAR vehicles not detected by axle sensor	Total number of LIDAR vehicles	
	Motorcycle	6	12	1	0	12	31
LIDAR	Passenger vehicle*	2	16,751	127	159	283	17,322
classification	Single unit truck	1	212	530	96	28	867
	Multiple unit truck [*]	1	47	19	1,230	12	1,309
Number o not detected	f axle vehicles by LIDAR sensor	3	555	10	16	-	584
Total number of	f axle vehicles above	13	17,577	687	1,501	335	20,113
Number of p vehicle in the com	partially occluded es excluded parison matrix	2	1,571	56	171	-	1,800

 Table 3-3,
 Comparison of LIDAR vehicle classification and axle vehicle classification across seven directional locations,

Passenger vehicle* includes passenger vehicle and passenger vehicle pulling a trailer.

Multiple unit truck* includes single unit truck pulling a trailer and multiple unit truck.

Table 3-4,	Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and axle vehicle classification across seven
	directional locations,

	Overall	Ax Motor- cycle	kle vehicle c Passenger vehicle [*]	lassifica Single unit truck	tion Multiple unit truck [*]	Number of LIDAR vehicles not detected by axle sensor	Row total	% correct
	Motorcycle	6	2	6	3	5	22	27%
	Passenger vehicle*	2	17,001	94	160	289	17,546	97%
Pseudo ground	Single unit truck	1	196	574	79	25	875	66%
truth data	Multiple unit truck [*]	1	30	9	1,256	16	1,312	96%
	Non-vehicle actuation in axle data	2	3	0	0	_	5	-
Colui	mn total above	12	17,232	683	1,498	335	19,760	-
	% correct	50%	99%	84%	84%	-	-	95%
Totally	occluded vehicle	1	345	4	3	-	353	-

Passenger vehicle* includes passenger vehicle and passenger vehicle pulling a trailer.

Multiple unit truck* includes single unit truck pulling a trailer and multiple unit truck.

Table 3-5,Summary of evaluation of axle vehicle classification station by a vehicle class. Note
Wilson Rd northbound and southbound includes both Wilson Rd adjacent to and opposite
from LIDAR sensor, respectively,

Location	Dire- ction	А	number from p ground t	icles ita	% d truth	of pseu vehicl corre	do gro le class ectly	und sified	% of correct axle classification				% of correct classifi- cation	
		MC	PV^*	SUT	MUT^*	MC	PV^*	SUT	MUT^*	MC	PV^*	SUT	MUT^*	over all vehicles
I-270	SB	7	10,561	500	1,140	14%	99%	61%	97%	50%	98%	95%	92%	97%
Dublin	NB	2	795	63	6	50%	94%	87%	100%	20%	99%	72%	22%	93%
Rd	SB	2	1,282	53	11	50%	92%	87%	100%	100%	99%	61%	21%	92%
Wilson	NB	1	1,280	60	27	100%	96%	97%	100%	100%	100%	77%	60%	96%
Rd	SB	2	1,360	29	27	100%	95%	90%	100%	100%	100%	63%	54%	95%
SD 22	NB	5	1,114	79	54	0%	95%	57%	87%	-	99%	94%	72%	92%
SK-33	SB	3	1,154	91	47	0%	93%	46%	79%	0%	98%	84%	62%	89%
Overa	.11	22	17,546	875	1,312	27%	97%	66%	96%	50%	99%	84%	84%	95%

PV^{*} includes passenger vehicle and passenger vehicle pulling a trailer. MUT^{*} includes single unit truck pulling a trailer and multiple unit truck.

Loca-		Dura-	Lane num-	Numl vehicle ir	ber of es seen 1:	From of veh Number of vehicles	the algor icle matc Numl vehicle seer	ithm hing ber of es only h in;	Number of vehicles	Number of	Compariso vehicle classifica	on of e tion	% vel not dete	hicles cted by:	Number of vehicles
tion (direc- tion)	Date	(hh: min)	ber from LIDAR	LIDAR (a)	Loop detector (b)	seen in both LIDAR and loop detector (c)	LIDAR (d)	Loop detector (e)	passing the location (f)	occluded vehicles (g)	Number of compared vehicles (h)	Dis- agree- ment (i)	LIDAR (j)	Loop detector (k)	manually confirmed (l)
			1	168	156	156	12	0	168	n/a	156	9	0.0%	7.1%	21 (12.5%)
I-71 (SB):	07/00/2000	00.24	2	546	539	538	8	1	547	6	532	16	0.2%	1.5%	25 (4.6%)
Free flow	07/09/2009	00.24	3	644	653	638	6	15	659	132	506	13	2.3%	0.9%	34 (5.2%)
			4	454	482	445	9	37	491	169	276	2	7.5%	1.8%	48 (9.8%)
			1	191	182	181	10	1	192	n/a	181	20	0.5%	5.2%	31 (16.1%)
I-71 (SB):	11/19/2009	00.28	2	859	848	848	11	0	859	18	830	12	0.0%	1.3%	23 (2.7%)
Congestion	11/19/2009	00.28	3	772	798	771	1	27	799	228	543	10	3.4%	0.1%	38 (4.8%)
			4	797	912	795	2	117	914	343	452	0	12.8%	0.2%	119 (13.0%)
			1	5,415	5,452	5,389	26	63	5,478	n/a	5,389	184	1.2%	0.5%	273 (5.0%)
I-270 (SB): Free flow	11/02/2010	5:00	2	5,335	5,488	5,303	32	185	5,520	641	4,662	131	3.4%	0.6%	348 (6.3%)
			3	2,647	2,789	2,615	32	174	2,821	713	1,902	28	6.2%	1.1%	234 (8.3%)
SR-33 (NB):	08/02/2011	1.10	1	732	693	684	48	9	741	n/a	684	31	1.2%	6.5%	88 (11.9%)
Free flow	08/05/2011	1.10	2	569	562	547	22	15	584	65	482	7	2.6%	3.8%	44 (7.5%)
SR-33 (SB):	08/02/2011	1.10	3	592	587	548	44	39	631	53	495	8	6.2%	7.0%	91 (14.4%)
Free flow	08/03/2011	1:10	4	888	884	838	50	46	934	148	690	69	4.9%	5.4%	165 (17.7%)
	Overall			20,609	21,025	20,296	313	729	21,338	2,516	17,780	540	3.4%	1.5%	1,582 (7.4%)
n/a: occlus	ions are inf	easibl	e in th	is lane	becaus	e it is ad	jacent t	to the L	IDAR s	ensor		•			

Summary of the comparison of vehicle classification between LIDAR and loop detector Table 3-6, data at four directional classification stations

(a) = (c + d)

(b) = (c + e)

Table 3-7,Manual verification using semi-automated tool of the vehicles with conflicting
classifications or only seen by one sensor from the comparison of vehicle classification
between LIDAR and loop detector data

		Number of		Reason		Number of	Re	ason	Number	V	erification	of		
Loca- tion (direc- tion)	Lane num- ber from LIDAR	vehicles not detected by LIDAR (e)	Totally occluded vehicle	LIDAR missed vehicle	Loop detector non- vehicle actuation (m)	vehicles not detected by loop detector (d)	Loop detector missed vehicle (n)	LIDAR non- vehicle actuation	of vehicles in disagree- ment (i)	LIDAR correct, loop incorrect (p)	LIDAR incorrect, loop correct	LIDAR incorrect loop incorrect (q)	% loop detector miss- classified (r)	% total loop detector error (s)
	1	0	n/a	0	0	12	12	0	9	9	0	0	5.8%	12.5%
I-71 (SB):	2	1	1	0	0	8	8	0	16	15	1	0	2.8%	4.2%
Free flow	3	15	14	1	0	6	6	0	13	11	2	0	2.2%	2.6%
	4	37	32	5	0	9	9	0	2	2	0	0	0.7%	2.2%
	1	1	n/a	1	0	10	10	0	20	20	0	0	11.0%	15.6%
I-71 (SB):	2	0	0	0	0	11	11	0	12	12	0	0	1.4%	2.7%
Congestion	3	27	25	2	0	1	1	0	10	8	2	0	1.5%	1.1%
	4	117	104	13	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0.0%	0.2%
	1	63	n/a	63	0	26	26	0	184	156	22	6	3.0%	3.4%
I-270 (SB): Free flow	2	185	116	69	0	32	32	0	131	112	15	4	2.5%	2.7%
	3	174	141	33	0	32	32	0	28	27	1	0	1.4%	2.1%
SR-33 (NB):	1	9	n/a	9	0	48	48	0	31	29	2	0	4.2%	10.4%
Free flow	2	15	8	7	0	22	22	0	7	6	1	0	1.2%	4.8%
SR-33 (SB):	3	39	27	12	0	44	44	0	8	8	0	0	1.6%	8.2%
Free flow	4	46	41	4	1	50	50	0	69	59	5	5	9.3%	12.3%
Overall		729	510	218	1	313	313	0	540	474	51	15	2.8%	3.8%
n/a: occlusions (p) = (m+n) / (s are in (h)	feasible in	a this la	ne beca	use it is	adjacent	to the l	LIDAR	sensor					

(q) = (m+n+aa+bb)/(f-aa)

Note (f) and (h) are shown in Table 3-6.

	Overall	Lengt loo	th class fi p detecto	rom r	Number of LIDAR vehicles	Row	%	Non-vehicle actuation in
		Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	by loop detector	totai	contect	LIDAR data
	Passenger vehicle**	15,623	256	66	271	16,216	96%	0
Pseudo	Single unit truck	125	590	8	26	749	79%	0
truth	Multiple unit truck [*]	21	23	1,286	16	1,346	96%	0
data	Non-vehicle actuation in loop detector data	1	0	0	-	1	-	-
Co	lumn total above	15,770	869	1,360	313	18,312	-	0
	% correct	99%	68%	95%	-	-	96%	-
Totall	y occluded vehicles	498	7	5	-	510	-	-

 Table 3-8,
 Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and length-based vehicle classification across four directional locations

Passenger vehicle** includes motorcycle, passenger vehicle, and passenger vehicle pulling a trailer. Multiple unit truck* includes single unit truck pulling a trailer and multiple unit truck.

Table 3-9,	Summary of ev	aluation of length-base	d vehicle classification	station by a vehicle class.
------------	---------------	-------------------------	--------------------------	-----------------------------

Location (traffic conditions)	Dire- ction	A num fr grou	ber of vo om pseud nd truth	ehicles do data	% of tr class	pseudo g uth vehic ified cor	round cle rectly	% of cla	f correct assificati	loop on	% of correct classification
		Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	over all vehicles
I-71 (free flow)	SB	1,428	32	51	96%	50%	94%	99%	42%	84%	95%
I-71 (congestion)	SB	1,967	38	40	97%	61%	98%	99%	47%	95%	97%
I-270 (free flow)	SB	10,546	509	1,153	97%	92%	97%	99%	70%	95%	97%
SR-33	NB	1,117	81	54	94%	69%	81%	98%	79%	96%	92%
(free flow)	SB	1,158	89	48	92%	31%	73%	95%	60%	92%	87%

4 CONCLUSIONS

This study examined LIDAR based vehicle classification and classification performance monitoring. First, we develop a portable LIDAR based vehicle classification system that can be rapidly deployed, and second we use the LIDAR based system to automate the manual validation of several existing classification station using the tools from the first part. Each component is discussed in a separate chapter, and the conclusions are presented at the end of each chapter. This section summarizes the conclusions from those chapters.

In Chapter 2 we developed and tested a side-fire LIDAR based vehicle classification algorithm. The algorithm includes up to eight different measurements of vehicle shape to sort vehicles into six different classes. The algorithm was tested over seven datasets collected at various locations (including one development dataset). The results were compared against the concurrent video-recorded ground truth data on a per-vehicle basis. Overall, 2,938 out of 27,450 vehicles (11%) are suspected of being partially occluded and these vehicles are classified separately. Occlusions are inevitable given the low vantage point of the sensors in this proof of concept study. In future research we will investigate higher views (comparable to typical microwave radar detector deployments) to mitigate the impact of occlusions. These higher views should also provide additional features, e.g., vehicle width. Unlike video, a vehicle's width and height are easily separable in the LIDAR ranging data. The algorithm correctly classifies 24,390 of the 24,512 non-occluded vehicles (99.5%). While most side-fire detectors have challenges with occluded vehicles, the algorithms developed by this project are able to work around those problems. When a vehicle was partially occluded, we calculate the range of feasible length and height. These ranges are then used to assign one or more feasible vehicle classes to the given vehicle. Among these partially occluded vehicles, 47% were assigned a single class and 97% of these were correct.

This work also uncovered an emerging challenge facing most vehicle classification technologies: separating commuter cars from motorcycles. The two groups have similar lengths, axle spacing and height, though they differ in width and likely in weight. With increased interest in classifying motorcycles correctly, combined with more commuter cars on the road, there is a need to devise a means to separate the two types of vehicles.

Alternatively, recognizing the difficulty in distinguishing pairs of vehicle classes with the existing detector infrastructure (e.g., commuter cars and motorcycles, short SUT and PV), there may be a need to create buffer classes to impart greater confidence in the reported classifications, e.g., adding a new "class 3 or class 5" bin to the axlebased decision tree that takes the upper portion of class 3 and lower portion of class 5 axle spacings. Thus confining the uncertainty to a much smaller number of vehicles and ensuring much greater confidence that anything that is classified as "strictly class 5" is indeed class 5.

In Chapter 3 we tackle the labor demands required to evaluate the performance of existing classification stations. Vehicle classification data are critical to many transportation applications, but the quality of data collected depends on the operating agency to periodically calibrate, test, and validate the performance of classification sensors. These studies are labor intensive and coarse, allowing overcounting errors to cancel undercounting errors. To address these challenges, this study develops a classification performance monitoring system to allow operating agencies to automatically monitor the health of their classification stations. We eliminate most of the labor demands and instead, deploy a LIDAR based portable non-intrusive vehicle classification system (PNVCS) to classify vehicles, concurrent with existing classification stations. To prevent classification errors from canceling one another in aggregate, we record pvr data in the field from both systems. After the field collection the classification results are evaluated on a per-vehicle basis. If the two systems agree, the given vehicle is automatically taken as a success by the classification station. The PNVCS includes a video camera to allow a human to assess the discrepancies. A human only looks at a given vehicle when the two systems disagree, and we developed tools to semi-automate the manual validation process, greatly increasing the efficiency and accuracy of the human user. The datasets in this study take only a few minutes for the user to validate an hour of pvr data. Although we use a LIDAR based system, the tools at the heart of the methodology are transferable to many PNVCS such as the TIRTL or AxleLight. This pilot study used LIDAR sensors mounted on a van. This approach offers a distinct advantage over the other PNVCS since our system does not require any calibration in the field, in fact the van can be classifying vehicles as it pulls up to the site. For longer-term deployments we envision a dedicated trailer that could be parked alongside the road.

The evaluation datasets come from several different classification stations, they include over 21,000 vehicles. We separately evaluated length-based classification stations and axle-based classification stations, each yielding similar results. In each case about 8% of the vehicles required manual intervention. In this study the user typically spent 3-5 sec per vehicle reviewed (including seek time and loading time). The automated process does the

bulk of the work, in this study it typically took the human only a few minutes to process the exceptions from all lanes over one hour of data.

The Chapter 3 evaluation also revealed a chronic problem detecting motorcycles at the two permanent classification stations studied. While the LIDAR system detected 15 passing motorcycles, the classification stations correctly classified one of them, and missed five altogether.

As this research has shown, there is wide variance in performance from one station to the next and these errors tend to have a higher frequency among the truck classes, particularly the SUT. Since these errors are a function of the specific station, there would be benefit in the short term if a given operating agency were to leverage the system developed in this research to evaluate the performance of many other classification stations. Thereby catching systematic errors that bias classification performance at the given station.

5 REFERENCES

- [1] Federal Highway Administration. *Traffic Monitoring Guide*. USDOT, Office of Highway Policy Information, FHWA-PL-01-021, 2001.
- [2] Khattak, A. J., S. Hallmark, and R. Souleyrette. Application of Light Detection and Ranging Technology to Highway Safety. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, No. 1836, Transportation Research Board of the National Academies, Washington, D.C., 2003, pp. 7-15
- [3] Tsai, Y., Q. Yang, and Y. Wu. Use of Light Detection and Ranging Data to Identify and Quantify Intersection Obstruction and Its Severity. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, No. 2241, Transportation Research Board of the National Academies, Washington, D.C., 2011, pp. 99-108
- [4] Veneziano, D., R. Souleyrette, and S. Hallmark. Integration of Light Detection and Ranging Technology with Photogrammetry in Highway Location and Design. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, No. 1836, Transportation Research Board of the National Academies, Washington, D.C., 2003, pp. 1-6
- [5] Souleyrette, R., S. Hallmark, S. Pattnaik, M. O'Brien, and D. Veneziano, *Grade and Cross Slope Estimation from LIDAR-Based Surface Models*. MTC Project 2001-02, FHWA, U.S. Department of Transportation, 2003
- [6] Chenoweth, A. J., R. E. McConnell, and R. L. Gustavson. Overhead Optical Sensor for Vehicle Classification and Axle Counting. *Mobile robots XIV: proceedings of SPIE, vol. 3838*, Boston, MA, 1999
- [7] Cunagin, W. D. and D. J. Vitello Jr. Development of an Overhead Vehicle Sensor System, *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, No. 1200, Transportation Research Board of the National Academies, Washington, D.C., 1988, pp. 15-23
- [8] Yao, W., S. Hinz, and U. Stilla. Traffic Monitoring from Airborne Full-Waveform LIDAR Feasibility, Simulation and Analysis. *International Archives of the Photogrammetry, Remote Sensing and Spatial Geoinformation Sciences*, Vol. 37(B3B), pp. 593-598, Beijing 2008
- [9] Grejner-Brzezinska, D. A, C. Toth, and M. McCord. *Airborne LiDAR: A New Source of Traffic Flow Data*. FHWA/OH-2005/14, FHWA, U.S. Department of Transportation, 2005
- [10] Yang, R., *Vehicle Detection and Classification from a LIDAR Equipped Probe Vehicle*, Masters Thesis, The Ohio State University, 2009
- [11] Redmill, K., B. Coifman, M. McCord, and R. Mishalani. Using Transit or Municipal Vehicles as Moving Observer Platforms for Large Scale Collection of Traffic and Transportation System Information, *Proc. of the 14th International IEEE Conference on Intelligent Transportation Systems*, Oct 5-7, 2011, Washington, DC.
- [12] FHWA, Federal Size Regulations for Commercial Motor Vehicles, Federal Highway Administration, 2000
- [13] TRB, *Highway Capacity Manual*. Transportation Research Board of the National Academies, Washington, DC, 2000

- [14] Coifman, B. and S. Kim. Speed Estimation and Length Based Vehicle Classification from Freeway Single Loop Detectors. *Transportation Research Part-C*, Vol 17, No 4, 2009, pp 349-364.
- [15] http://controlspecialist2.com/TIRTL.aspx, accessed November 4, 2011.
- [16] http://www.peektraffic.com/datasheets/axlelightdatasheet.pdf, accessed November 4, 2011.
- [17] Little, G., M. Johnson, and P. Zidek. *Off-Road Axle Detection Sensor (ORADS) : Final Technical Report*, Ohio Department of Transportation, 2001, FHWA/HWY-04/2001
- [18] http://www.spectra-research.com/inner/electro.htm, accessed November 4, 2011.
- [19] Yu, X., P. Prevedouros, and G. Sulijoadikusumo. Evaluation of Autoscope, SmartSensor HD, and Infra-Red Traffic Logger for Vehicle Classification. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, No. 2160, Transportation Research Board of the National Academies, Washington, D.C., 2010, pp. 77-86.
- [20] Kotzenmacher, J., E. Minge, and B. Hao. *Evaluation of Portable Non-Intrusive Traffic Detection System*. Minnesota Department of Transportation, 2005, MN-RC-2005-37.
- [21] Minge, E. *Evaluation of Non-Intrusive Technologies for Traffic Detection*. Minnesota Department of Transportation, 2010, Final Report #2010-36.
- [22] Minge, E., S. Petersen, and J. Kotzenmacher. Evaluation of Non-Intrusive Technologies for Traffic Detection - Phase 3. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, No. 2256, Transportation Research Board of the National Academies, Washington, D.C., 2011, pp. 95-103.
- [23] Banks, J. *Evaluation of Portable Automated Data Collection Technologies: Final Report.* California PATH Research Report, 2008, UCB-ITSPRR-2008-15.
- [24] French, J., M. French. *Traffic Data Collection Methodologies*. Pennsylvania Department of Transportation, Contract 04-02 (C19), 2006.
- [25] Zwahlen, H. T., A. Russ, E. Oner, and M. Parthasarathy. Evaluation of Microwave Radar Trailers for Non-intrusive Traffic Measurements. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, No. 1917, Transportation Research Board of the National Academies, Washington, D.C., 2005, pp. 127-140.
- [26] Coifman, B. and M. Cassidy. Vehicle Reidentification and Travel Time Measurement on Congested Freeways. *Transportation Research: Part A*, Vol 36, No 10, 2002, pp. 899-917.
- [27] Caltrans, 2007, VideoSync, http://www.dot.ca.gov/research/operations/videosync, accessed on December 2, 2011.
- [28] Kim, S. and B. Coifman. Axle and Length Based Vehicle Classification Performance, [submitted for publication] 2013.

6 APPENDIX A: DETAILS OF THE CLASSIFICATION STATIONS



Figure A-1, Location of axle classification stations.



Figure A-2, Location of tube classification sites.



Figure A-3, Schematic of locations LIDAR data collected: (a) I-71 southbound, (b) I-270 southbound, (c) SR-315 northbound, (d) SR-33 northbound and southbound, (e) Wilson Rd northbound and southbound, (f) Dublin Rd northbound and southbound

7 APPENDIX B: LIDAR BASED VEHICLE CLASSIFICATION BY LOCATION

Table B-1,	Comparison of LIDAR based vehicle classification and actual vehicle class from I-71
	southbound free flow.

I	-71 SB FF			LIDA	R vehic	le class	sification	n *	Number of vehicles from ground	% correct	Number of partially occluded vehicles that are excluded from
			MC	PV	v PVPT	SUT	SUPT	MUT	truth data		classification
	MC		9	1	0	0	0	0	10	90.0%	1
	PV PV		0	1,390	2	0	0	0	1,392	99.9%	297
Ground	d PV PVPT		0	1	14	0	0	0	15	93.3%	3
data	SU	JT	0	0	1	33	0	2	36	91.7%	1
	MUT*	SUPT	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	100%	0
	MUT	MUT	0	0	0	0	1	47	48	97.9%	9
Number of vehicles from LIDAR vehicle classification		9	1,392	17	33	2	49	1,502	99.5%	311	
% correct		100%	99.9%	82.4%	100%	50%	95.9%	99.5%			

Table B-2,Comparison of LIDAR based vehicle classification and actual vehicle class from I-71
southbound mild-congested.

I	-71 SB			LIDA	R vehicl	e classi	fication		Number of vehicles	% correct	Number of partially occluded vehicles that are excluded from	
Mild-congested		MC	P	\mathbf{V}^{*}	SUT	MUT [*]		from ground truth data		LIDAR based vehicle		
			WIC	PV	PVPT 301		SUPT	MUT	u util uutu		classification	
	М	С	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100%	0	
	$\mathbf{D}V^*$	PV	1	1,939	1	4	0	0	1,945	99.7%	568	
Ground	round PV PVPT		0	0	9	0	0	0	9	100%	1	
data	SU	JT	0	1	0	34	0	0	35	97.1%	5	
	MUT*	SUPT	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	100%	0	
	MUT	MUT	0	0	0	0	0	38	38	100%	17	
Number of vehicles from LIDAR vehicle classification		iicles ehicle on	1	1,940	10	38	1	38	2,028	99.7%	591	
% correct		0%	99.9%	90.0%	89.5%	100%	100%	99.7%				

I-	270 SB		MC	LIDAR	R vehicle	e classif	ication MU	JT*	Number of vehicles from ground truth data	% correct	Number of partially occluded vehicles that are excluded from LIDAR based vehicle
		MC	PV	PVPT	PVPT		MUT			classification	
	Ν	1C	3	2	0	0	0	0	5	60.0%	0
	$\mathbf{D}\mathbf{V}^*$	PV	6	10,205	2	11	0	0	10,224	99.8%	1,156
Ground	und PV PVPT		0	2	138	6	3	1	150	92.0%	20
data	S	UT	0	20	4	479	3	2	508	94.3%	49
	MUTT*	SUPT	0	0	4	1	21	5	31	67.7%	2
	MUT	MUT	0	0	3	7	5	1,088	1,103	98.6%	149
Number from L class	Number of vehicles from LIDAR vehicle classification		9	10,229	151	504	32	1,096	12,021	99.3%	1,376
% correct		33.3%	99.8%	91.4%	95.0%	65.6%	99.3%	99.3%			

Table B-3,Comparison of LIDAR based vehicle classification and actual vehicle class from I-270
southbound free flow.

Table B-4,Comparison of LIDAR based vehicle classification and actual vehicle class from SR-315
northbound free flow.

SR	-315 N	В	MC	LIDA	R vehic		ification M	UT*	Number of vehicles from ground truth data	% correct	Number of partially occluded vehicles that are excluded from LIDAR based vehicle
		WIC	PV	PVPT	PVPT		MUT	u our data		classification	
	Ν	4C	24	1	0	0	0	0	25	96.0%	4
	$\mathbf{D}V^*$	PV	3	6,085	0	0	0	0	6,088	100%	642
Ground	round PV PVPT		0	0	15	0	0	0	15	100%	4
data	S	UT	0	5	0	70	0	0	75	93.3%	7
	MUTT*	SUPT	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	100%	0
	MUT	MUT	0	0	0	1	0	34	35	97.1%	3
Number from L class	er of ve IDAR v ssificati	hicles vehicle on	27	6,091	15	71	2	34	6,240	99.8%	660
% correct		88.9%	99.9%	100%	98.6%	100%	100%	99.8%			

Dut	lin Dd G	D		LIDAI	R vehicl	e classi	fication		Number of vehicles	0 aarraat	Number of partially occluded vehicles that
Dublin Rd SB		MC	Р	\mathbf{V}^{*}	SUT	MU	T^*	from ground truth data	% correct	LIDAR based vehicle	
		me	PV PVPT		501	SUPT	MUT			classification	
	MC PV		2	0	0	0	0	0	2	100%	-
	PV [*] PV		0	1,258	0	0	0	0	1,258	100%	-
Ground	Ground PV PVPT		0	0	19	0	0	0	19	100%	-
data	SU	JT	0	2	0	51	1	0	54	94.4%	-
	MI IT*	SUPT	0	0	2	1	3	1	7	42.9%	-
	MUT	MUT	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	100%	-
Number from Ll class	Number of vehicles from LIDAR vehicle classification		2	1,260	21	52	4	5	1,344	99.5%	-
%	% correct		100%	99.8%	90.5%	98.1%	75.0%	80.0%	99.5%		

Table B-5,Comparison of LIDAR based vehicle classification and actual vehicle class from Dublin Rd
southbound.

Table B-6,Comparison of LIDAR based vehicle classification and actual vehicle class from Wilson
Rd northbound.

Wil	son Rd	NB	MC	LIDA PV PV	R vehic	ele clas	sificatio N SUPT	on IUT [*]	Number of vehicles from ground truth data	% correct	Number of partially occluded vehicles that are excluded from LIDAR based vehicle classification
	N	4C	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	100%	_
	DV*	PV	0	599	0	0	0	0	599	100%	-
Ground	Ground PV PVPT		0	0	5	0	0	0	5	100%	-
data	S	UT	0	2	0	43	0	0	45	95.6%	-
	MUTT*	SUPT	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	100%	-
	MUT	MUT	0	0	0	0	0	15	15	100%	-
Number from L cla	er of ve IDAR v ssificati	hicles vehicle ion	1	601	5	43	1	15	666	99.7%	-
% correct		100%	99.7%	100%	100%	100%	100%	99.7%		·	

Wil	son Rd S	SB		LIDA	R vehic	le class	ification		Number of vehicles	% correct	Number of partially occluded vehicles that are excluded from	
			мс	P	PV^*	SUT	MU	JT*	truth data		LIDAR based vehicle	
			me	PV	PVPT	501	SUPT	MUT			classification	
	М	С	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	100%	-	
	Б <i>V</i> *	PV	0	676	0	0	0	0	676	100%	-	
Ground	PV	PVPT	0	0	6	0	0	0	6	100%	-	
data	SU	JT	0	0	0	11	0	0	11	100%	-	
	MUTT*	SUPT	0	0	0	0	3	0	3	100%	-	
	MUT	MUT	0	0	0	1	0	13	14	92.9%	-	
Number from Li class	er of veh IDAR ve ssificatio	nicles ehicle on	1	676	6	12	3	13	711	99.9%	-	
%	correct		100%	100%	100%	91.7%	100%	100%	99.9%			

Table B-7,Comparison of LIDAR based vehicle classification and actual vehicle class from Wilson
Rd southbound.

8 APPENDIX C: COMPARISON OF PSEUDO GROUND TRUTH DATA AND AXLE VEHICLE CLASSIFICATION BY LOCATION

Throughout this appendix: PV* includes passenger vehicle and passenger vehicle pulling a trailer; and MUT* includes single unit truck pulling a trailer and multiple unit truck.

	I-270 SB	Axle MC	vehicle o	classifi SUT	cation MUT [*]	Number of LIDAR vehicles not detected by	Row total	% correct	Non-vehicle actuation in LIDAR data
	MC	1	2	4	0	0	7	14%	0
D 1	PV^*	1	10,416	8	56	80	10,561	99%	0
ground	SUT	0	153	303	41	3	500	61%	0
truth data	MUT*	0	28	4	1,101	7	1,140	97%	0
	Non-vehicle actuation in axle data	0	0	0	0	-	0	_	-
Col	umn total above	2	10,599	319	1,198	90	12,208	-	0
	% correct	50%	98%	95%	92%	-	-	97%	_
Totally	v occluded vehicles	1	252	2	2	-	257	-	-

Table C-1,Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and axle vehicle classification at I-270 southbound
adjacent to LIDAR sensor.

Table C-2,Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and axle vehicle classification at Dublin Rd
southbound adjacent to LIDAR sensor.

	Dublin Rd SB adjacent	Axle v MC	vehicle o PV [*]	classifi SUT	cation MUT [*]	Number of LIDAR vehicles not detected by axle sensor	Row total	% correct	Non-vehicle actuation in LIDAR data
	МС	1	0	1	0	0	2	50%	0
D 1	PV^*	0	1,183	28	41	30	1,282	92%	0
ground	SUT	0	6	46	0	1	53	87%	0
truth data	MUT^*	0	0	0	11	0	11	100%	0
	Non-vehicle actuation in axle data	0	0	0	0	-	0	-	-
	Column total	1	1,189	75	52	31	1,348	-	0
	% correct	100%	99%	61%	21%	-	-	92%	-
Totall	y occluded vehicles	0	0	0	0	-	0	-	-

v	Vilson Rd NB	Axle	vehicle o	classifi	cation	Number of LIDAR vehicles not	Row	%	Non-vehicle
	adjacent	MC	PV^*	SUT	MUT^*	detected by axle sensor	total	correct	LIDAR data
	МС	1	0	0	0	0	1	100%	0
D 1	PV^*	0	583	10	11	8	612	95%	0
ground	SUT	0	1	42	0	0	43	98%	0
truth data	MUT*	0	0	0	16	0	16	100%	0
	Non-vehicle actuation in axle data	0	0	0	0	-	0	-	-
Col	umn total above	1	584	52	27	8	672	-	0
	% correct	100%	100%	81%	59%	-	-	96%	-
Totally	v occluded vehicles	0	0	0	0	-	0	-	-

Table C-3,Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and axle vehicle classification at Wilson Rd
northbound adjacent to LIDAR sensor.

Table C-4,Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and axle vehicle classification at Wilson Rd
southbound adjacent to LIDAR sensor.

v	Wilson Rd SB adiacent		vehicle o	classifi	cation	Number of LIDAR vehicles not	Row	%	Non-vehicle
	adjacent	MC	PV^*	SUT	MUT^*	detected by axle sensor	total	correct	LIDAR data
	МС	1	0	0	0	0	1	100%	0
Dervela	PV^*	0	666	6	11	10	693	96%	0
ground	SUT	0	1	10	0	0	11	91%	0
truth data	MUT*	0	0	0	17	0	17	100%	0
	Non-vehicle actuation in axle data	0	0	0	0	-	0	-	-
Col	umn total above	1	667	16	28	10	722	-	0
	% correct	100%	100%	63%	61%	-	-	96%	-
Totally	v occluded vehicles	0	0	0	0	-	0	-	-

	SR-33 NB adjacent	Axle MC	vehicle PV [*]	classif	Fication MUT [*]	Number of LIDAR vehicles not detected by axle sensor	Row total	% correct	Non-vehicle actuation in LIDAR data
	MC	0	0	0	2	3	5	0%	0
Dervela	PV^*	0	1,057	2	2	53	1,114	95%	0
ground	SUT	0	12	44	15	8	79	56%	0
truth data	MUT*	0	0	1	47	6	54	87%	0
	Non-vehicle actuation in axle data	0	0	0	0	-	0	-	-
Col	umn total above	0	1,069	47	66	70	1,252	-	0
	% correct	-	99%	94%	71%	-	-	92%	-
Totally	v occluded vehicles	0	8	0	0	-	8	-	-

Table C-5,Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and axle vehicle classification at SR-33
northbound adjacent to LIDAR sensor.

Table C-6,Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and axle vehicle classification at Dublin Rd
northbound on the opposite side of LIDAR sensor.

	Dublin NB	Axle	e vehic	le class	sification	Number of LIDAR vehicles not detected by	Row total	%	Non-vehicle actuation in
	opposite	MC	PV^*	SUT	MUT^*	axle sensor	totai	correct	LIDAR data
	МС	1	0	0	1	0	2	50%	0
Dereste	PV^*	1	748	21	18	7	795	94%	0
ground	SUT	1	5	55	2	0	63	87%	0
truth data	MUT [*]	0	0	0	6	0	6	100%	0
	Non-vehicle actuation in axle data	2	2	0	0	-	4	-	-
Col	umn total above	5	755	76	27	7	870	-	0
	% correct	20%	99%	72%	22%	-	-	93%	-
Totally	v occluded vehicles	0	5	0	0	-	5	_	-

	Wilson NB	Axle	vehicle o	classifi	cation	Number of LIDAR vehicles not	Row	%	Non-vehicle actuation in LIDAR data
	opposite	MC	PV^*	SUT	MUT^*	detected by axle sensor	total	correct	
	МС	0	0	0	0	0	0	-	0
Dereste	PV^*	0	647	7	7	7	668	97%	0
ground	SUT	0	1	16	0	0	17	94%	0
truth data	MUT [*]	0	0	0	11	0	11	100%	0
	Non-vehicle actuation in axle data	0	0	0	0	-	0	-	-
Col	umn total above	0	648	23	18	7	696	-	0
	% correct	-	100%	70%	61%	-	-	97%	-
Totally	v occluded vehicles	0	5	0	0	-	5	-	-

Table C-7,Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and axle vehicle classification at Wilson Rd
northbound on the opposite side of LIDAR sensor.

Table C-8,Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and axle vehicle classification at Wilson Rd
southbound on the opposite side of LIDAR sensor.

	Wilson SB opposite	Axle v MC	vehicle o PV [*]	classifi SUT	cation MUT [*]	Number of LIDAR vehicles not detected by axle sensor	Row total	% correct	Non-vehicle actuation in LIDAR data
						axie sensor			
	MC	1	0	0	0	0	1	100%	0
D 1	PV^*	0	628	9	12	18	667	94%	0
ground	SUT	0	2	16	0	0	18	89%	0
truth data	MUT*	0	0	0	10	0	10	100%	0
	Non-vehicle actuation in axle data	0	0	0	0	-	0	-	-
Col	umn total above	1	630	25	22	18	696	-	0
	% correct	100%	100%	64%	45%	-	-	94%	-
Totally	y occluded vehicles	0	10	0	0	-	10	-	-

	SR-33 SB		vehicle o	classifi	cation	Number of LIDAR vehicles not	Row	%	Non-vehicle
	opposite	MC	PV^*	SUT	MUT^*	detected by axle sensor	total	correct	LIDAR data
	МС	0	0	1	0	2	3	0%	0
Dervela	PV^*	0	1,073	3	2	76	1,154	93%	0
ground	SUT	0	15	42	21	13	91	46%	0
truth data	MUT*	1	2	4	37	3	47	79%	0
	Non-vehicle actuation in axle data	0	1	0	0	-	1	-	-
Col	umn total above	1	1,091	50	60	94	1,296	-	0
	% correct	0%	98%	84%	62%	-	-	89%	-
Totally	v occluded vehicles	0	65	2	1	-	68	-	-

Table C-9,Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and axle vehicle classification at SR-33
southbound on the opposite side of LIDAR sensor.

9 APPENDIX D: COMPARISON OF PSEUDO GROUND TRUTH DATA AND LENGTH BASED VEHICLE CLASSIFICATION BY LOCATION

Throughout this appendix: PV** includes motorcycle, passenger vehicle, and passenger vehicle pulling a trailer; and MUT* includes single unit truck pulling a trailer and multiple unit truck.

	I-71 SB Free flow	Len lo Class 1	gth class f pop detecto Class 2	rom or Class 3	Number of LIDAR vehicles not detected by loop detector	Row total	% correct	Non-vehicle actuation in LIDAR data
	PV^{**}	1,372	19	4	33	1,428	96%	0
Pseudo	SUT	9	16	5	2	32	50%	0
ground truth data	MUT^{*}	0	3	48	0	51	94%	0
	Non-vehicle actuation in loop detector data	0	0	0	-	0	-	-
Col	lumn total above	1,381	38	57	35	1,511	-	0
	% correct	99%	42%	84%	-	-	95%	-
Totall	y occluded vehicles	46	0	1	-	47	-	-

Table D-1,Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and length based vehicle classification from I-71
southbound free flow.

Table D-2, Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and length based vehicle classification from I-71 southbound semi-congested.

s	I-71 SB emi-congested	Len lo Class 1	gth class f oop detecto Class 2	rom or Class 3	Number of LIDAR vehicles not detected by loop detector	Row total	% correct	Non-vehicle actuation in LIDAR data
	PV ^{**}	1,917	25	1	24	1,967	97%	0
Pseudo	SUT	14	23	1	0	38	61%	0
ground truth data	MUT^{*}	0	1	39	0	40	98%	0
	Non-vehicle actuation in loop detector data	0	0	0	-	0	-	-
Co	lumn total above	1,931	49	41	24	2,045	-	0
	% correct	99%	47%	95%	-	-	97%	-
Totall	y occluded vehicles	130	0	0	-	130	-	-

I-270 SB		Length class from loop detector Class 1 Class 2 Class 3		Number of LIDAR vehicles not detected by loop detector	Row total	% correct	Non-vehicle actuation in LIDAR data	
Pseudo ground truth data	PV ^{**}	10,221	189	56	80	10,546	97%	0
	SUT	37	467	2	3	509	92%	0
	MUT^{*}	18	8	1,120	7	1,153	97%	0
	Non-vehicle actuation in loop detector data	0	0	0	-	0	-	-
Column total above		10,276	664	1,178	90	12,208	-	0
% correct		99%	70%	95%	-	-	97%	-
Totally occluded vehicles		249	5	3	-	257	-	-

Table D-3,Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and length based vehicle classification from I-270
southbound.

Table D-4,Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and length based vehicle classification from SR-
33 northbound.

SR-33 NB		Length class from loop detector Class 1 Class 2 Class 3		Number of LIDAR vehicles not detected by loop detector	Row total	% correct	Non-vehicle actuation in LIDAR data	
Pseudo ground truth data	PV^{**}	1,047	12	2	56	1,117	94%	0
	SUT	17	56	0	8	81	69%	0
	MUT^{*}	1	3	44	6	54	81%	0
	Non-vehicle actuation in loop detector data	0	0	0	-	0	-	-
Column total above		1,065	71	46	70	1,252	-	0
% correct		98%	79%	96%	-	-	92%	-
Totally occluded vehicles		8	0	0	-	8	-	-

SR-33 SB		Len lo Class 1	gth class f pop detecto Class 2	rom or Class 3	Number of LIDAR vehicles not detected by loop detector	Row total	% correct	Non-vehicle actuation in LIDAR data
Pseudo ground truth data	PV ^{**}	1,066	11	3	78	1,158	92%	0
	SUT	48	28	0	13	89	31%	0
	MUT^*	2	8	35	3	48	73%	0
	Non-vehicle actuation in loop detector data	1	0	0	-	1	-	-
Column total above		1,117	47	38	94	1,296	-	0
% correct		95%	60%	92%	-	-	87%	-
Totally occluded vehicles		65	2	1	-	68	_	-

Table D-5,Comparison of pseudo ground truth data and length based vehicle classification from SR-
33 southbound.