Research



Vehicle detection systems for intelligent driving using deep convolutional neural networks

Rahib Abiyev¹ · Murat Arslan¹

Received: 3 January 2023 / Accepted: 24 April 2023 Published online: 02 May 2023 © The Author(s) 2023 OPEN

Abstract

In the paper, a vision-based vehicle identification system is proposed for autonomous intelligent car driving. The accurate detection of obstacles (vehicles) during intelligent car driving allows avoiding crashes, preventing accidents, saving people's lives and reducing harm. The vehicle detection system, which uses low-quality images captured by a monocular video camera mounted at the front of the car, is based on convolutional neural networks (CNN). The CNN can extract global features of the images using convolutional layers and achieves more accurate, and faithful contours of vehicles. The CNN structure proposed in the paper provides high-accuracy detection of vehicle images. The experiments that have been performed using GTI dataset demonstrate that the CNN-based vehicle detection system achieves very accurate results and is more robust to different variations of images.

Keywords Deep learning · Convolutional neural network · Computer vision · Vehicle detection · Intelligent vehicles

1 Introduction

The rapid growth in the number of vehicles causes us to pay more attention to the traffic safety problem. In the traffic, more accidents may accuer due to lack of awareness or fatigue of drivers. Therefore, the development of a driver assistance system that warns the driver of any dangers on the road and helps to prevent accidents is important. Using computer and vision technologies to detect obstacles, like other cars in front of own car and to make a decision about the turning angle of the car and to warn the driver are the basic functions of these systems. The intelligent car driving system needs the construction of robust vision-based driver assistance and vehicle detection systems. The driver assistance module uses the road map to capture an image of the road. This module needs a video camera for capturing the vehicle images, and a high-performance computer for processing the captured images. The basic aim of this module is to track the road. Vehicle (or obstacle) detection module uses image processing techniques to analyze the video images, and then isolates and detects these vehicles and tracks them in video frames. The accurate recognition of vehicles is very important for intelligent car driving and depends on traffic volume, lighting conditions, road conditions etc. Segmentation of road surface, recognition of track and then detection, isolation and tracking of the vehicles should be performed in a short time for autonomous driving of the car. These systems will allow decreasing the number of accidents in traffic and improve traffic safety.

Rahib Abiyev, rahib.abiyev@neu.edu.tr; Murat Arslan, murat.arslan@neu.edu.tr | ¹Department of Computer Engineering, Near East University, Mersin-10, North Cyprus, Turkey.



Discover Artificial Intelligence (2023) 3:16

https://doi.org/10.1007/s44163-023-00062-8

A number of research studies have been implemented for improving the performance of vision-based driver assistance and vehicle detection systems. The used methods are very challenging. Optical sensor-based models have been used for the detection of road trucks and vehicles. Optical sensors which are very expensive and have low resolutions can measure at a certain distance, and provide limited data for future processing. Otherwise, video cameras can be used for this purpose. The used cameras can obtain all visual information for a better solution and they are very cheap. The research papers [1–3] use visual information for pedestrian detection [1, 2], lane detection [3], and vehicle detection [4]. Common methods used in vision-based vehicle detection are divided into two steps: (A) Hypothesis Generation (HG) which is to find possible vehicle locations in an image quickly for analysis and (B) Hypothesis Verification (HV) is to verify potential vehicles in an image.

The real-time vehicle detection systems that use video cameras have some challenging threads. While driving the car, lighting conditions can be changed frequently, weather can be unpredictable and vehicles can be in different shapes and colours that lead to reflections. Some vehicle detection methods have been presented using computer vision. MAO et al. [5] developed a technique for vehicle detection using a support vector machine (SVM) and Histogram of Oriented Gradient (HOG). Liang et al. [6] considered mixed Haar Wave Features and HOG with Generalized Multiple Kernel Learning (GMKL) [7]. Experimental results have shown that the combined HOG and Haar descriptor by using GKML is better than when they are used alone without tuning any parameters. Later, some different vehicle detection techniques, such as Gabor filters and SVM were proposed. Zhang et al. [8] developed a system that uses Gabor filters for vehicle feature extraction and SVM for vehicle detection. This system can discard irrelevant details and improve robustness. The paper gives a comparison of the systems based on Neural Network and SVM techniques. It was shown that SVM-based vehicle detection using Gabor filters is faster, and the performance of the system can be increased with the "non-vehicle" class than the "vehicle" class. To this end, the approach requires large datasets. Background subtraction technique using the Gaussian mixture is utilized for object detection [9]. This technique requires many frames to improve performance. The considered methods require more data sets for improving the performances that need more operational time and are not suitable for some tasks. The paper [10] uses the gradient technique and Adaboost classification to design a real-time vision-based vehicle detection system. Toulminet et al. [11] presented a technique for detection and distance computation of preceding vehicles by using stereo-based 3-D feature extraction. Ha et al. [12] proposed traffic parameter extraction method and neural edge-based vehicle detection. The method is effective for vehicle detection and independent of environmental conditions. Zhou et al. [13] used adaptive background estimation and SVMs to classify vehicles. The obtained experimental results indicate the robustness of the method in various conditions. The paper [14] designed a vehicle detection system from static images using colour and edges with a cascade multichannel classifier. The obtained results proved that global colour features and local edge features are well performed for vehicle detection. The reference [15] used visual and radar data and presented a vehicle detection system. The research uses the vertical symmetry technique to search for possible vehicles in search areas. The paper [16] used a hidden Markov model (HMM) to separate the vehicles from their background and to deal with changes in the environment. A robust and effective real-time vehicle detection system is presented. The paper [17] used a combination of colour, edge and motion information and designed a real-time multiple-vehicle detection system. This system uses a recursive least-squares filter to recognize tracks road boundaries and lane markings. The used methods require more data sets for improving the performances that need more operational time and are not suitable for some tasks.

In this study, we proposed a deep CNN for vision-based vehicle detection. Feature extraction, CNN and sliding window method are utilized for detecting vehicles. Le Cun et al. proposed CNN structure [18] for the classification of handwritten numbers from 32 to 32 pixel images. It is called LeNet-5 and it has seven convolutional layers [18, 19]. Afterwards, similar to LeNet, other deep learning structures were designed [21–24]. These are AlexNet [20], ZFNet [21], VGGNet [22], GoogleNet [23] and ResNet [24]. Different CNN-based systems are constructed to solve pattern recognition, image processing, classification, etc. problems. Recently, CNN was utilized for face recognition [25], hand gesture recognition [26], brain-tumor segmentation [27], face sketch synthesis [28], microaneurysm detection [29], fingerprint enhancement [30], segmentation of glioma tumors in the brain [31], handwritten recognition [32], sign language translation[33], segmenting neuroanatomy [34], change detection using heterogeneous optical and radar images [35], prediction of eye fixations [36], improving acoustic source localization [37], short-term wind speed forecasting [38], and showed good results. CNN is applied to solve COVID-19 and pneumonia diagnosis using X-ray images [39], image and video recognition [40], recognition of head movement [41] and vehicle detection [42] problems.

In the paper, a vision-based vehicle detection system is designed. The contributions of the paper include: Using CNN a vision-based vehicle detection system was proposed for autonomous intelligent car driving; The architecture of CNN is designed for a vision-based vehicle detection system; The four CNN models are designed and their performances were

analyzed to detect cars at various distances in the traffic; The simulations have been done to demostrate the effictiveness of using the proposed system. The CNN-based vehicle detection developed for intelligent car driving allows to avoid crashes, prevent accidents, save people's lives and reduce damages. The use of vehicle detection and recognition system will enable safe driving and improvement of traffic quality.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes Convolutional Neural Networks used for vehicle detection. The CNN structure used for vehicle detection is proposed. Section 3 presents the obtained simulation results. Finally, Sect. 4 gives the conclusions.

2 Convolutional neural network

CNN includes several hidden layers called convolution, pooling and feedforward and full-connected layers. The convolutional layers that are the main building modules of CNN are used to extract features from the input images. Figure 1 presents a simple CNN structure. The input of the first convolutional layer is an image and its output is the feature space. Next convolutional layer uses this feature map to drive the output feature map. More detailed features of the input images can be extracted by increasing the number of convolutional layers. In the next stage the RelU activation is applied to the ouput feature map. The output features obtained are entered into the pooling layers. Pooling layers are usually used between convolutional layers. The pooling layer reduces the dimension of feature maps. The output features are flattened and converted into a one-dimensional array. These signals are inputs for a fully connected network that perform the classification of input signals.

Let's consider feature extraction and classification stages in detail. The image of size mxmxq is the input for CNN. Here *m* is the size of the image, *q* is the number of channels, and for RGB image q=3. The convolutional layer includes k filters (or kernels) of size pxpxq. Here *p* should be smaller than *m*. The filters produce *k* feature maps each one having a size of m-p+1. Each map is pooled with the *min of max* over pxp contiguous regions. The value of *p* is usually in the interval [2, 5]. According to the kernel size, the part of the image is selected and the convolution operation is performed. According to the kernel size (assume that p=3) red matrix is separated into smoller matrices of size 3×3 (see Fig. 2). For example using 4×4 red matrix and 3×3 kernel, for the first 3×3 red matrix the following result will be obtained (Fig. 2). Using kernels, the product and then the summation operations will be done. According to the size of the kernel, four matrices of size 3×3 will be obtained from the red input matrix. Cell-by-cell product operations will be done between the obtained matrices and kernel (yellow matrix in Fig. 2). As a result of product operation, the four feature matrices will be derived from the red input matrix. For each feature matrix, the sum of cells' values will be obtained. After getting the sum for each matrix, the resulting matrix (last pink matrix) having four cells will be obtained. The same operation will be applied to green and blue matrices also.

The resulting matrices will be $2 \times 2 \times 3$ in size. After these operations, ReLU activation is applied for the nonlinear transformation of input signals. Then *max* (or average) pooling operation is applied to these results. The down-sampling operation is utilized to decrease the size of the feature matrix. As shown in Fig. 3, the 4×4 matrix is separated into smaller matrices of size 2×2 . In the paper, the pooling is carried out using *max* operation. Here for each separated 2×2 image, the maximum value is determined. As shown, on the matrix we have [3, 4, 4, 4] values. From these values, 4 is obtained as the maximum value. The results of the pooling layer will be flattened in order to receive the feature vector of the input image. In the figure



Fig.1 The structure of CNN

Max pooling

4



4

1



for max pooling, the flatted vector will be. The input of the fully-connected network is the feature map, and the output will be the clusters.

Let's consider the mathematical formulation of the operations presented above. The output of the convolutional layer is determined using matrices characterizing the input image and local kernels (filters). The convolutional layers use filters (kernels) to determine the feature map. The *l*-th layer feature value $z_{i,i,k}^l$ at location (*i*,*j*) in the *k* th feature map is determined as

$$z_{ij,k}^{l} = \boldsymbol{w}_{k}^{l^{T}} \cdot \boldsymbol{x}_{i,j}^{l} + \boldsymbol{b}_{k}^{l}$$

$$\tag{1}$$

where $\mathbf{x}_{i,j}^{l}$ are inputs, \mathbf{w}_{k}^{l} are the weights and b_{k}^{l} are the bias terms of the kth filter of the *l*th layer. The kernel \mathbf{w}_{k}^{l} generates the feature map $z_{i,j,k}^{l}$ [44, 45]. Then the non-saturated Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU) activation function is used for the transformation of feature signals.

$$a_{i,j,k}^{l} = a(z_{(i,j,k)}^{l})$$
 (2)

The ReLU activation function prunes the negative values to zero and holds the positive values. The use of the ReLU activation function causes faster calculations and faster results compared to the sigmoid or tanh activation function. Some research works have shown that ReLU can work better than the sigmoid or tanh activation function [43].

In the pooling layer for each feature map $a_{1,..,k}^l$ the output is determined as:

$$y_{i,j,k}^{l} = pool(a_{m,n,k}^{l}), \forall (m,n) \in R_{i,j}$$

$$(3)$$

Discover Artificial Intelligence

where $R_{i,j}$ is a local neighbourhood around the position (*i*,*j*). In the paper, we used max pooling for implementation pooling operations.

The last layer of CNN is the Dense layer or fully-connected layer, which implements the classification. The inputs of this layer are individual features presented as flatten layer. This data was converted into a 1D feature vector and fed to fully-connected network for classification purposes. In fully-connected network, the softmax activation function is used. The output signal of the fully-connected network is calculated as.

$$y_i^{(l)} = f(z_i^{(l)}) \text{ with } z_i^{(l)} = \sum_{i=1}^{m_i^{(l-1)}} w_{i,j}^{(l)} y_i^{(l-1)}$$
(4)

where f is a nonlinear function, $w_{i,j}^{(l)}$ are the network weight coefficients.

After determining CNN's output signals the learning of θ network parameters start. The learning is performed using a loss function calculated at the output of CNN. Using input–output training pairs $\{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}); i \in [1, ..., N]\}$ the learning of θ parameters is carried out in order to minimize the value of the loss function. The loss function is formulated as

$$L = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} l(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{y}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{o}^{(i)})$$
(5)

where oⁱ and yⁱ are current- and target output signals, correspondingly. Using loss function the θ unknown parameters are determined. For this purpose, in the paper, an adaptive moment estimation algorithm, called Adam optimizer is used [44]. For the efficient training of CNN, a large volume of training pairs is required. In the paper, data augmentation is applied for solving overfitting and data scarcity problems and for increasing the performance of CNN.

3 Simulation of the system

The intelligent car control using vision-based vehicle detection is designed and implemented using CNN. In the first stage, the learning algorithm and image data set are used for the design of CNN based vehicle identification system. The used CNN architecture is shown in Fig. 1. 15000 car images and 5000 non-car images from the GTI dataset [47] were used. Figure 4 depicts fragments from data sets. The images from the dataset have been chosen randomly with the 64×64 pixels and fed to the CNN input. All image inputs are formed as $64 \times 64 \times 3$. The dataset is split into %75 training and %25 testing images. During learning the 64 batch sizes were used for input images. The learning rate was taken as 0.001. The 50 training epochs were used for learning.

The architecture of the designed CNN is presented in Table 1. The first convolutional layer uses 32 filters of size 3 × 3 for each input image. Figure 5 depicts the input of the CNN and the states of the outputs of the convolutional and pooling layers. The outputs of 1-st convolutional layer and pooling layer are given in Fig. 5b, c correspondingly.

In the second layer, 64 convolutional filters of size 3×3 and ReLU activation function followed by 2×2 max pooling were applied. Figure 5d, e present the output of the 2nd convolutional and pooling layers of CNN, correspondingly. The third layer uses 128 convolutional filters of size 3×3 and ReLu activation function followed by the same pooling parameters. Figure 6f, g present the output of the 3rd convolutional and pooling layers, correspondingly.

As shown in Table 1, the fully-connected layer has three dense layers. There are 16 units in the first dense layer, 64 units in the second dense layer and 128- in the next third dense layers. The first layer is used for distributing input signals. ReLU activation is used between layers in order to prevent overfitting. A fully connected layer uses the 1D feature vector as input. Two classes are used in the simulation. These are 1 (presence of the vehicle or obstacle on the road) and 0 (the road is empty). The output layer has two neurons (one for each class) that use the softmax activation function.

After training the designed CNN system is used for the detection of vehicles. The input of CNN is the images of vehicles obtained from a video camera located in the front of the car. The video camera sends 30 images in seconds obtained from the road to the system input. CNN uses the images and determines the presence of the vehicles. Using the CNN the control of car is implemented.

As pointed out above the construction of the vision-based vehicle detection for car driving includes learning and test stages. During learning, in the data augmentation stage, the generator technique was used. The technique includes random rotations, crops, and shifts of the images for getting more precise results by using smaller datasets. Adam optimizer [46] is applied for learning. To estimate the learning and testing performances the root mean squared (2023) 3:16

Fig. 4 Fragment from data sets



Table 1The structure of theCNN model

Type of layers	Output shape	Number of parameters	
Input layer			
Input	64×64×3	0	
Hidden layer 1			
Conv1	64×64×32	896	
ReLU	64×64×32	0	
Pool1	32×32×32	0	
Hidden layer 2			
Conv2	32×32×64	18496	
ReLU	32×32×64	0	
Pool2	16×16×64	0	
Hidden layer 3			
Conv3	16×16×128	73856	
ReLU	16×16×128	0	
Pool3	8×8×128	0	
Classification layer			
Flatten	8192	0	
Dense1	16	131088	
ReLU	16	0	
Dense2	64	1088	
ReLU	64	0	
Dense3	128	8320	
ReLU	128	0	
Dense4	2	258	

Total parameters: 234,002



Fig. 5 State of outputs of convolution and pooling layers: a input of CNN, b output of 1-st convolution layer, c output of 1-st pooling layer, d output of 2-nd convolution layer, e output of 2-nd pooling layer, f output of 3-rd convolution layer, g output of 3-rd pooling layer





Training Root Mean Squared Error

error has been chosen as a loss function. Figure 6 depicts the RMSE values obtained during training. The training accuracy was obtained as %99.41.

The simulation of the CNN-based vehicle detection system is performed using four different structures described in Table 2. All the models are trained for 50 epochs. For each of the training, validation and testing stages the performance of the system is measured. During simulation, the values of RMSE, Accuracy (ACC), True Positive (TP), False Positive (FP), True Negative (TN), False Negative (FN), Specificity (SPE), Sensitivity (SENS) and Area Under Curve (AUC) are calculated. Table 3 depicts the results for the training, validation and testing stages of the model 1. In the table, the best results are blackened. As shown the performance of model 2 is better than other ones. For this model, the value of accuracy in train, validation and testing stages are obtained as 0.9941, 0.9956 and 0.9981 correspondingly. We test the results using different bath sizes (8, 16,32 and 64). The best results were obtained when the batch size was 64.

Each model is tested using different image resolutions. Table 4 depicts the simulation results of model 2 for image sizes 8×8 , 16×16 , 32×32 and 64×64 . In the raining and evaluation stage, the accuracy of the 32×32 version was better, but in the testing stage, the result of 64×64 was better (0.9981) than others.

The simulation results of the CNN model are compared with the results of the HOG + SVM and FFNN models. The used FFNN was designed using 3 hidden layers respectively with the 512, 256 128 neurons. The comparative results of the used techniques are shown in Table 5. The obtained results indicate that the designed CNN model has better performance than SVM and FFNN models.

The designed system is tested using traffic videos (Fig. 7). The goal was the real-time detection of vehicles on the road and making a decision on the selection of speed and direction of the controlled car. The images of size 640×480 pixels were captured by the video camera which is mounted in front of the car. The sliding window technique is applied to detect vehicles from captured images. We used a 128 × 128 pixel window to slide by 64-pixel step size from left to right in order to detect vehicles. The sky region was dropped and possible car areas are selected by the

Table 2	Types of CNN models	
used in	the simulation	

Name	Structure	Detail
Model 1	32—>64—>128	With dropout layers between convolu- tional layers
Model 2	32—>64—>128	Without dropout layers
Model 3	16—>64—>128	With dropout layers between convolu- tional layers
Model 4	16—>64—>128	Without dropout layers

Table 3 Performances of the CNN for models 1, 2, 3 and 4

Model	Training			Validation		Testing							
	RMSE	AUC	ACC	RMSE	AUC	ACC	ТР	FP	TN	FN	SPE	SENS	ACC
1	0.0125	0.9990	0.9915	0.0059	0.9992	0.9968	4984	16	4990	10	0.9968	0.9979	0.9974
2	0.0098	0.9995	0.9941	0.0072	0.9998	0.9956	4991	9	4990	10	0.9981	0.9980	0.9981
3	0.0141	0.9985	0.9913	0.0081	0.9992	0.9952	4989	11	4983	17	0.9977	0.9966	0.9972
4	0.0130	0.9991	0.9919	0.0078	0.9986	0.9956	4996	4	4976	24	0.9991	0.9952	0.9972

Table 4 Performances of the CNN (Model 2) using different image's width and height

WxH	Training			Validation		Testing							
	RMSE	AUC	ACC	RMSE	AUC	ACC	TP	FP	TN	FN	SPE	SENS	ACC
8×8	0.0329	0.9977	0.9800	0.0235	0.9976	0.9820	4941	59	4957	43	0.9882	0.9913	0.9898
16×16	0.0173	0.9989	0.9894	0.0097	0.9998	0.9936	4991	9	4973	27	0.9981	0.9946	0.9964
32×32	0.0079	0.9995	0.9952	0.0055	0.9992	0.9960	4993	7	4987	13	0.9985	0.9974	0.9980
64×64	0.0098	0.9995	0.9941	0.0072	0.9998	0.9956	4991	9	4990	10	0.9981	0.9980	0.9981

Table 5	Comparison results of the models	
	Accuracy	Sen

	Accuracy	Sensitivity	Specificity	
CR-HOG [45]	94.88	_	_	
HOG + SVM	0.912	0.994	0.854	
FFNN	0.922	0.886	0.980	
CNN	0.997	0.996	0.997	

system. The selected field having a car is resized in 64×64 pixels suitable for CNN. These selected areas are used for the recognition (classification) of the cars which is sent to the CNN. Based on input information CNN determined the presence of the car.

4 Conclusion

The vision-based vehicle detection system for intelligent car driving is presented. The vehicle detection and recognition system is based on convolutional neural networks. The structure of CNN and its design principles are presented. The advantage of convolutional neural networks is to require low preprocessing steps. The pre-trained model can automatically detect vehicles from the images with simple preprocessing techniques without using image processing such as edge detection, image enhancement, feature extraction and classification techniques. Due to global feature extraction by the convolutional layer, CNN achieved more accurate recognition results for the vehicles from their images. These have been proved by experiments that are based on GTI datasets and achieved more accurate results than other techniques. Experimental results prove that this kind of system is more robust to variations. The designed system can be used in real life and assist the drivers.

Fig.7 CNN-based vehicle detection for car driving obtained from video cameras





(b)

(c)

Author contributions Sections 1, 2 and 4 were prepared by Rahib Abiyev, Sections 1, 2 (some parts) and 3 were prepared by Murat Arslan. Both the authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Data availability The data that support the findings of this study are openly available in Vehicle Image Database at https://www.gti.ssr.upm. es/data/Vehicle_database or in https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/iamprateek/vehicle-images-gti.

Declarations

Competing interests The authors declare no competing interests.

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/.

References

- 1. Viola P, Jones M, Snow D. Detecting pedestrians using patterns of motion and appearance. Int J Comput Vision. 2005;63(2):153–61. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11263-005-6644-8.
- Lui AK-F, Chan Y-H. and Leung M-F. Modelling of destinations for data-driven pedestrian trajectory prediction in public buildings, 2021 IEEE international conference on big data (Big Data), Orlando, FL, USA, 2021, 1709–1717, doi: https://doi.org/10.1109/BigData52589. 2021.9671813.
- 3. Wang Y, Teoh E, Shen D. Lane detection and tracking using B-Snake. Image And Vision Computing. 2004;22(4):269–80. https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.imavis.2003.10.003.
- 4. Sun Z, Bebis G, Miller R. On-road vehicle detection: a review. IEEE Trans Pattern Anal Mach Intell. 2006;28(5):694–711. https://doi.org/10. 1109/tpami.2006.104.
- 5. Mao L, Xie M, Huang Y. and Zhang Y. Preceding vehicle detection using histograms of oriented gradients. in proc of the international conference on communications, circuits and systems. 2010. https://doi.org/10.1109/ICCCAS.2010.5581983.
- 6. Liang P, Teodoro G, Ling H., Blasch E, Chen G, Bai L. Multiple kernel learning for vehicle detection in wide area motion imagery, in Proceeding of 15th Int. Conf. on info. fusion, 2012.
- Varma M. and Babu B. R. More generality in efficient multiple kernel learning, In proceeding of Int. Conf. on machine learning, 2009, pp.1065–1072. doi: https://doi.org/10.1145/1553374.1553510
- 8. Sun Z, Bebis G. and Miller R. On-road vehicle detection using Gabor filters and support vector machines. In: 14th international conference on digital signal processing, 2002. doi: https://doi.org/10.1109/ICDSP.2002.1028263.
- Kaewtrakulpong P, Bowden R. An improved adaptive background mixture model for real-time tracking with shadow detection. In proceedings of the 2nd European workshop on advanced video based surveillance systems, 2018, 135–144. doi: https://doi.org/10.1007/ 978-1-4615-0913-4_11.
- Khammari A, Nashashibi F, Abramson Y, Laurgeau C. Vehicle detection combining gradient analysis and AdaBoost classification. In proceedings of the 8th international IEEE Conference on intelligent transportation systems, 2018, 66–71. doi: https://doi.org/10.1109/ITSC. 2005.1520202.
- 11. Toulminet G, Bertozzi M, Mousset S, Bensrhair A, Broggi A. Vehicle detection by means of stereo vision-based obstacles features extraction and monocular pattern analysis. IEEE Trans Image Process. 2006;15(8):2364–75. https://doi.org/10.1109/tip.2006.875174.
- 12. Ha D, Lee J, Kim Y. Neural-edge-based vehicle detection and traffic parameter extraction. Image And Vision Computing. 2004;22(11):899–907. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.imavis.2004.05.006.
- Zhou J, Gao D, Zhang D. Moving vehicle detection for automatic traffic monitoring. IEEE Trans Vehic Technol. 2007;56(1):51–9. https:// doi.org/10.1109/tvt.2006.883735.
- 14. Tsai L, Hsieh J, Fan K. Vehicle detection using normalized color and edge map. IEEE Trans Image Process. 2007;16(3):850–64. https://doi. org/10.1109/tip.2007.891147.
- 15. Alessandretti G, Broggi A, Cerri P. Vehicle and guard rail detection using radar and vision data fusion. IEEE Trans Intell Transp Syst. 2007;8(1):95–105. https://doi.org/10.1109/tits.2006.888597.
- 16. Jazayeri A, Cai H, Zheng J, Tuceryan M. Vehicle detection and tracking in car video based on motion model. IEEE Trans Intell Transp Syst. 2011;12(2):583–95. https://doi.org/10.1109/tits.2011.2113340.
- 17. Betke M, Haritaoglu E, Davis L. Real-time multiple vehicle detection and tracking from a moving vehicle. Mach Vision Appl. 2000;12(2):69–83. https://doi.org/10.1007/s001380050126.
- Lecun Y, Bottou L, Bengio Y, Haffner P. Gradient-based learning applied to document recognition. Proc IEEE. 1998;86(11):2278–324. https:// doi.org/10.1109/5.726791.
- 19. Hecht-Nielsen R. Theory of the backpropagation neural network. Neural Netw. 1988;1:445. https://doi.org/10.1016/0893-6080(88)90469-8.
- 20. Russakovsky O, Deng J, Su H, Krause J, Satheesh S, Ma S, et al. ImageNet large scale visual recognition challenge. Int J Comput Vision. 2015;115(3):211–52. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11263-015-0816-y.

- 21. Zeiler MD, Fergus R. Visualizing and Understanding Convolutional Networks. In: Fleet D, Pajdla T, Schiele B, Tuytelaars T, editors. Computer Vision—ECCV 2014 Lecture Notes in Computer Science. Cham: Springer International Publishing; 2014.
- 22. Simonyan K, Zisserman A. Very deep convolutional networks for large-scale image recognition, In Proc. of the international conference on learning representations, 2015. doi: 10.1.1.740.6937.
- 23. Szegedy C, Liu W, JiaY, Sermanet P, Reed S, Anguelov D, Erhan D, Vanhoucke V, Rabinovich A. Going deeper with convolutions, In Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on computer vision and pattern recognition, 2015; 1–9. doi: https://doi.org/10.1109/CVPR.2015.7298594.
- 24. He K, Zhang X, Ren S Sun J. Deep residual learning for image recognition, In Proc. of the IEEE Conference on computer vision and pattern recognition, 2016, 770-778, doi: https://doi.org/10.1109/CVPR.2016.90.
- 25. Lawrence S, Giles C, ChungTsoi Ah, Back A. Face recognition: a convolutional neural-network approach. IEEE Trans Neural Netw. 1997;8(1):98-113. https://doi.org/10.1109/72.554195.
- 26. Idoko JB, Abiyev RH, Arslan M. Impact of machine learning techniques on hand gesture recognition. J Intel Fuzzy Syst. 2019;37(3):4241–52. https://doi.org/10.3233/JIFS-190353.
- 27. Ilhan A, Sekeroglu B, Abiyev R. Brain tumor segmentation in MRI images using nonparametric loca-lization and enhancement methods with U-net. Int J Comput Assist Radiol Surg. 2022. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11548-022-02566-7.
- 28. Jiao L, Zhang S, Li L, Liu F, Ma W. A modified convolutional neural network for face sketch synthesis. Pattern Recogn. 2018;76:125–36. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.patcog.2017.10.025.
- Chudzik P, Majumdar S, Calivá F, Al-Diri B, Hunter A. Microaneurysm detection using fully convolutional neural networks. Comput Meth 29 Prog Biomed. 2018;158:185-92. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmpb.2018.02.016.
- 30. Li J, Feng J, Kuo C. Deep convolutional neural network for latent fingerprint enhancement. Signal Process Image Commun. 2018;60:52–63. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.image.2017.08.010.
- 31. Hussain S, Anwar S, Majid M. Segmentation of glioma tumors in brain using deep convolutional neural network. Neurocomputing. 2018;282:248-61. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neucom.2017.12.032.
- 32. Baldominos A, Saez Y, Isasi P. Evolutionary convolutional neural networks: an application to handwriting recognition. Neurocomputing. 2018;283:38-52. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neucom.2017.12.049.
- 33. Abivev RH, Idoko JB, Arslan M. Sign language translation using deep convolutional neural networks. KSII Trans Internet Inf Syst. 2020;14(2):631-53. https://doi.org/10.3837/tiis.2020.02.009.
- 34. Wachinger C, Reuter M, Klein T. DeepNAT: deep convolutional neural network for segmenting neuroanatomy. Neuroimage. 2018;170:434-45. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2017.02.035.
- 35. Liu J, Gong M, Qin K, Zhang P. A deep convolutional coupling network for change detection based on heterogeneous optical and radar images. IEEE Trans Neural Netw Learning Syst. 2018;29(3):545–59. https://doi.org/10.1109/tnnls.2016.2636227.
- 36. Liu N, Han J, Liu T, Li X. Learning to predict eye fixations via multiresolution convolutional neural networks. IEEE Trans Neural Netw Learning Syst. 2018;29(2):392-404. https://doi.org/10.1109/tnnls.2016.2628878.
- 37. Salvati D, Drioli C, Foresti G. Exploiting CNNs for improving acoustic source localization in noisy and reverberant conditions. IEEE Trans Emerg Topics Comput Intel. 2018;2(2):103–16. https://doi.org/10.1109/tetci.2017.2775237.
- Khodayar M, Kaynak O, Khodayar M. Rough deep neural architecture for short-term wind speed forecasting. IEEE Trans Industr Inf. 38. 2017;13(6):2770-9. https://doi.org/10.1109/tii.2017.2730846.
- Abiyev RH, Ismail A. COVID-19 and pneumonia diagnosis in x-ray images using convolutional neural networks. Mathemat Prob Eng. 2021. 39. https://doi.org/10.1155/2021/3281135.
- 40. Karpathy A, Toderici G, Shetty S, Leung T, Sukthankar R and Fei-Fei L. Large-scale video classification with convolutional neural networks. In proceeding of 2014 IEEE Conference on computer vision and pattern recognition, 2014, pp.1725–1732 doi: https://doi.org/10.1109/ CVPR.2014.223.
- 41. Abiyev RH, Arslan M. Head mouse control system for people with disabilities. Expert Syst. 2020. https://doi.org/10.1111/exsy.12398.
- 42. Abiyev R, Arslan M, Gunsel I. and Cagman A. Robot pathfinding using vision based obstacle detection. 2017 3rd IEEE International Conference on cybernetics, 2017. pp.1-6 doi: https://doi.org/10.1109/CYBConf.2017.7985805.
- 43. Gu J, Wang Z, Kuen J, Ma L, Shahroudy A, Shuai B, et al. Recent advances in convolutional neural networks. Pattern Recogn. 2018;77:354–77. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.patcog.2017.10.013.
- 44. Kingma DP, Jimmy B A. A method for stochastic optimization. International Conference on learning representations, 2015. https://arxiv. org/abs/1412.6980.
- 45. Arróspide J, Salgado L, Nieto M. Video analysis-based vehicle detection and tracking using an MCMC sampling framework. EURASIP J Adv Signal Process. 2012. https://doi.org/10.1186/1687-6180-2012-2.

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.