Journal of

# ESTIMATION OF TIME TO COLLISION FOR AN EGO-VEHICLE USING SENSOR FUSION-BASED APPROACH 

${ }^{1}$ Avinash Sharma, ${ }^{2}$ Dr. Suwarna Torgal<br>${ }^{1}$ Department Of Mechanical Engineering, Phd Scholar At Iet, Davv \& Assistant Professor At<br>Medi-caps University, Indore Avinash.sharma@medicaps.ac.in<br>${ }^{2}$ Department Of Mechanical Engineering, Assistant Professor At Iet, Davv, Indore Storgal@ietdavv.edu.in


#### Abstract

We suggested integrating depth information in addition to regular RGB information allowing camera-based article localization in our study, which enables us broaden the existing -status-presentation. An autonomous driving system that identifies preceding cars at intermediate and long distances utilizing a range of sensors is advantageous for increasing driving performance and providing numerous features. However, because to the limits of each sensor, acquiring the required data is challenging if just LiDAR or cameras are employed in the identification step. Our combination models entirely outflank the pattern RGB network in both accuracy and confinement of the recognitions. To ease the road toward constructing, planning, and supporting the driving structures, CARLA encouraged an organic arrangement of exercises and worked around the important stage by the neighborhood. Time to impact is a significant time-sensitive wellbeing pointer for recognizing backside clashes in rush hour gridlock security assessments. A key weakness of the chance to crash idea is the premise of constant speeds across the span of a mishap. In this paper, we use conditions of movement to foster a summed-up definition for time to crash by loosening up the suspicion of consistent speed, steady speed increase, etc. This study further demonstrates how this approach may be applied to genuine facts, and the information acquired in the work is employed. Then, at that moment, time to impact is decided dependent on the knowledge of stable speed, consistent speed rise for driving and following cars. Our suggested approach is superior in precision and accuracy other than provided ways.


Keywords: RGB camera, Depth camera, Sensor Fusion, Object detection, Angle Measurement, Slope.

## 1. Introduction

Several autonomous driving technologies have recently appeared. Combining several sensors existing in the automobile, 2such as lane maintenance, omnidirectional vehicle distance estimate, side vehicle recognition, and vehicle distance maintenance sensors, has resulted in a support system for safe vehicle driving [1-3]. This opens the route for entirely autonomous driving to become a reality. The charge-coupled device (CCD) vision sensor is the most critical of the sensors used in automobiles to allow autonomous driving [4-9]. The majority of driving tasks are visual in nature. The visual information is applied to study the road environment, the situation is identified, and the vehicle steering job is eventually defined by the driving task.

Thus, image recognition using vision sensors is crucial for autonomous vehicle safety assistance. The majority of driving tasks are visual in nature. The visual information is applied to study the road environment, the situation is identified, and the vehicle steering job is eventually defined by the driving task.

The current automotive black-box system, on the other hand, is only exploited as a video recording device for accident identification. It will be conceivable to assist safe driving if the black-box product offers a feature for safe driving support. Image processing activities such as lane keeping, identifying whether the automobile in front is commencing or not, and traffic sign recognition are integrated in some devices. Existing black-box systems capable of identifying intelligent road conditions, on the other hand, may be used in regions where illumination or road conditions do not fluctuate substantially. For example, distinguishing the correct road condition is difficult in a site with insufficient illumination that is not an usual road setting, such as those under tunnels or bridges.

Significant improvements have been accomplished towards continual identification frameworks utilizing single-pass convolutional neural organizations (CNN) (CNN). Nonetheless, in these ongoing recognitions we have recognized the object and with the leaping boxes and measure the distance and plot for improved execution and accurate anticipation. With the assistance of sensor combination (RGB and Depth) through it a profundity outline is created from which we measure the middle profundity of pixels of each item removes, through which we estimated the time to collision of the article. "In performing tasks like 'object detection' and classification [3], traditional computer vision techniques utilized hand-crafted features as input to a learned classifier"[4]. These techniques have been effectively expanded leveraging characteristics from many diverse sources such as 'thermal imaging' [5]and 'depth' in increasing the detection-precision. Benenson et al. [6] have showed That "Depth may be a strong element allowing image preprocessing, decreasing the detection search space."

Deep learning, on the other hand, has beaten typical computer vision algorithms by a large margin since the CNNs'[7] inception. A CNN enabling the classification being frequently applied in combination with a sliding-window or other area proposal approach for 'object identification' [8]. "While these strategies have proved efficient, one important downside lays in its computationally intensiveness. These approaches provide broad variety of proposals, each of which must be assessed by a classification network. Sharing calculations across the region proposal and classification pipelines has assisted in overcoming some of these difficulties."

Finally, single-pass detection networks, such 'YOLO and 'SSD' [9], are the current state-of-the-art allowing rapid object recognition. By recasting 'object detection' [10] as a single regression problem, a single network may deliver 'bounding box' [11] coordinates \& class scores simultaneously. Beyond being orders of magnitude quicker than early efforts, these networks also provide the bounding boxes' computational benefit regarding complete picture capture (i.e., leveraging context information) (i.e., exploiting context information). This new data leads in increasingly better detectors, which transcend prior detection systems.

## 2. Literature review

Jangannath A. et al. (2017), (2017), A driverless car is one that can travel without human intervention by sensing its surroundings. The collision detection and avoidance system is a device aimed to safeguard the safety of self-driving autos. The purpose of this project is to examine and give a solution for real-time 3D collision detection and avoidance algorithms based on Deep Learning and Convolutional Neural Networks.
H. Bae et al. (2021), (2021), Using a variety of sensors to detect preceding automobiles at intermediate and long distances is important in autonomous driving for enhancing driving performance and developing various features. However, thanks of the restrictions of each sensor, acquiring the required data is problematic if just LiDAR or cameras are utilized in the identification stage. We devised a means of translating vision-tracked data into bird's eye-view (BEV) coordinates using an equation that projects LiDAR points onto an image, as well as a method of fusion between LiDAR and vision-tracked data, in this study. As a consequence of the findings of detecting the closest in-path vehicle (CIPV) under different settings, the recommended approach proved useful. strengthening ACC's overall stability.
R. S. Dhara et al. (2019), (2019), A traffic accident happens when a car hits another car, a person, an animal, a piece of road debris, or another immovable item like a building, tree, or pole. Traffic accidents commonly result in injury, death, and property damage. This car accident may be lessened with the power of computers, and the best remedy is a selfdriving/autonomous automobile. We did a simulated test of a self-driving vehicle that can avoid collisions with obstacles on the route. Models were trained and tested on two simulator versions using a deep convolutional neural network and an open-source simulator given by Udacity. Different findings were reviewed in order to design a model that successfully prevents accidents.
K. B. Jong et al. (2020), (2020), This study presents a real-time detection mechanism for a car driving ahead on a tunnel route in real time. The tunnel environment, in contrast to the main road environment, is irregular and has greatly decreased illumination, including tunnel lighting and light reflected from moving automobiles. The pollution created by automotive exhaust gas has resulted in harsh environmental legislation. A real-time detection methodology for autos in tunnel images trained in advance using deep learning methods is implemented in the proposed method. Brightness smoothing and noise reduction technologies are employed to determine the vehicle zone in the tunnel environment. After developing a learning picture using the ground-truth technique, the vehicle region is learned. The YOLO v2 model is utilized, which has the greatest performance when compared to deep learning algorithms. Experiments are used to fine-tune the training parameters. For the recommended approach applied to different tunnel road conditions, the vehicle detection rate is nearly $87 \%$, while the detection accuracy is approximately $94 \%$.

We evaluated the improved usefulness of $\mathrm{RGB}+$ Depth fusion for real-time pedestrian detection systems by fusing RGB and depth data in a single-shot end-to-end network.[18]. We exhibited about depth being a valuable channel for pedestrian detection as it provides for a simpler depiction of the area using peoples' core outlines. This makes it simpler regarding network detecting the individual objects \& providing more exact boundary bounds [19]. "This past study, on the other hand, was naïve in terms precise position regarding fusion in the network. Only few particular sites were examined in the network
design to conduct this sensor fusion" [20,21]. No focus was paid to the trade-off between fusion point and maximum accuracy. Moreover, it was only empirically shown that the arbitrary midway fusion was optimum for a particular 'object detection' [22] job i.e., pedestrian identification.
As a consequence, in this study, we explore where in the network this sensor fusion should be conducted. In our knowledge, no full search has been reported in the literature; where the flawless point being in fusing procedure regarding the two data stream, both in the instance of 'RGB + Depth' and in the case of 'RGB + Depth' [23]. Apart from that, we test our system utilizing 'object detection' [24] in particular and on multiple datasets using various depth acquisition techniques. Maybe, where these gains are most visible is in the car linked sector where numerous security frameworks have been given. It is estimated; mishaps' $90 \%$ are brought by by human error, primarily because of interruptions, misunderstanding or unavailability of knowledge on the scenario [25]. TTC (Time to Crash) is the most well-known time-sensitive security pointer. TTC [26,27] talking to the time amount passing till a backside accident if the track \& vehicle speeds are maintained. TTC has shown beneficial tool notably in identifying between basic \& common operations in vehicle [ 28,29 ] following scenarios.
The aim of the TTC [30] which this work is focused on is self-explaining. The computation should produce the time until our object - In this example our model car - collides with another object. While the collision object might be not moving and so be static, it could also be a moving and hence dynamic object. The issue can arise whether the computation of TTC [30] is even required when a simple use of the break based on the distance approaching the collision objects would be adequate. This would generally be the case for static objects but as soon as the collision object is dynamic it requires a route estimate to evaluate if the model car would clash in the future. That manner, assuming the TTC [30]is high enough, it would be feasible to compute a new course for the model car or change its velocity in order to escape the approaching accident. Another thinkable use is to follow a new vehicle; in that case the TTC [31] needs to keep the same.

## 3. Proposed System Model

Figure 1, illustrates tackles the process of an RGB sensor successfully supporting the camera with studying the situation being captured and chooses the measure of light needed to offer an all-around uncovered image. The sensor gathers information on the brilliance of the topic, and thereafter enhances openness by modifying the shade speed, gap and ISO affectability as requirements be. By dissecting every single pixel in the edge, this invention produces a general image that has been painstakingly developed. In the aftermath of creating a broad image.


Figure1: Proposed System Workflow
The angle determined tells at what angle the detected object is so that in the future we may estimate the steering angle required to prevent collision with this added knowledge. The records are created of angle and distance measurement and by human control, the velocity of the vehicle or we may show the detected item and the angle in the particular picture. The position of the angle is also measured i.e., if it is on right side or left side.

### 2.1 RGB Camera

An apparent camera sensor which being an imager, collecting noteworthy light ( $400 \sim 700 \mathrm{~nm}$ ) \& incorporating the electrical sign modifications, simultaneously, at that point, sorts out the data in giving photos \& video transfers. Noticeable cameras employ frequencies of light from $400 \sim 700 \mathrm{~nm}$, which is the same range that the natural eye senses. Noticeable cameras are meant to generate photos imitating human eyesight, capturing light in red, green, and blue frequencies (RGB) for exact shading depiction. Current security and reconnaissance cameras perform this at HD objective or higher and accompany an assortment of focal point options for wide-point or fax viewpoints to distinguish targets and objects in the scene. The "RGB" camera gathers photographs from the scene by means of whether it being a conventional camera. The "RGB" camera functions like any other camera, capturing the scene- based photographs.

### 2.2 Carla. Color Converter

"In case enable-post process-effects are well empowered, a post-measure impacts-cluster being effectively implemented over the image; completing the authenticity.
i. Vignette: darkens the screen's border.
ii. Grain jitter: facilitating the render with some sound.
iii. Bloom: The area being covered is engulfed in a blaze of light.
iv. Auto exposure: reenacts the eye's variation into more obscure or more dazzling places by changing the picture gamma.
v. Lens flares: Recreates the magnificent objects over the focal point.
vi. Depth of field: obscures protest close or extremely far away from the cameras.

In Figure 2, the sensor tick displays about the rapidity being needed by the sensor in capturing the information. A number -1.5 suggesting about the time the sensor requires in taking an image per second \& a half. Naturally, worth of 0.0 signifies as rapidly as may be expected."


Figure 2: Image captured by RGB camera

### 2.3 Depth Camera

A depth camera, then again, includes pixels that have an additional mathematical worth linked with them, that quantity being the separation from the camera, or "depth." Some depth cameras feature both an RGB and a depth framework, which may deliver pixels with every one of the four characteristics, or RGBD. The two separate components being continually be offered targeting 'depth' sense: "An IR (Infra-Red) projector, and an IR camera. The IR projector spreads an IR light's example dropping on items around it like an ocean of dabs. We can't notice the dabs on the grounds where the light is thrown in the Infra-Red shading range: But the IR camera may detect the spots. An IR camera is generally comparable to a conventional RGB camera with the difference which the photographs it captures are in the Infra-Red shading range. Thus, nothing unduly fancy going on there, nevertheless no genuine depth sense".


Figure 3: Depth Image created with depth map

Figure 3 illustrates the depth image obtained using depth map. The camera transmits this distorted dot pattern's streaming towards the depth sensor's CPU, which utilizes the dots' displacement to compute depth. The pattern being distributed out on near things \& thick on distant ones. Such 'worked out' depth map may be read into our computer through the depth sensor, or the signal may be received directly from the IR camera. In generating the elements' depth map; the camera supplies raw scene's data commonly codifies the distance between each pixel \& the camera (also known as depth buffer or z- buffer) (also known as depth buffer or zbuffer). "The resultant Carla. picture should now be saved to disc using a Carla. color Converter, which will transform the distance recorded in RGB channels into a [0,1] float indicating the distance \& then convert it to grayscale. In gaining a depth view in Carla. color Converter, you have two options: Depth and Logarithmic depth."

### 2.4 Depth Map

A 'depth map' may be characterized as a "image or image channel containing data on the distance between the scene-objects' surfaces as perceived from a given perspective. Understanding geometric connections within a scene demands evaluating depth. A 'depth map' being an image or image channel in 3D computer graphics and computer vision; comprising the information on the distance between scene objects' surfaces from a perspective. The words depth buffer, Z-buffer, Z-buffering, and Z-depth are related \& may be equivalent. The "Z" in these expressions referring towards the convention which a camera's principal view- axis being in the camera's Z axis' direction, rather than the scene's absolute Z axis.


Figure 4: Depth map of a RGB Image

The "depth map" camera offers an image 24-digit floating accuracy point systematized in the RGB shading space's 3 channels. $\mathrm{R}->\mathrm{G}->\mathrm{B}$ being the request from fewer towards more huge bytes.

1. To decode our depth, we must first get the int 24 .

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { norm }=(\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{G} * 256+\mathrm{B} * 256 * 256) /(256 * 256 * 256-1) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where norm variable contains normalized image pixel values.
2. And finally multiply the units that we want to get. We have set the far plane at 1000 meters.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { in meters }=1000 * \text { normalized } \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

in-meters contains the variable pixel depth in meters

In figure 4, the produced "depth map" pictures are often transformed to a logarithmic grayscale for presentation. A point cloud may also be derived from depth photos.

### 2.6 Relative Velocity

The relative velocity of an item is defined as its speed in relation to another observer. It is the rate at which one item's relative position progresses in comparison to another. As an example: When you are in a car, mode of transportation, or train, you may see the trees, structures, and various other things outside moving in backward. However, would they claim they are actually moving backwards? No, you're completely aware that your car is moving while the trees remain still on the ground. However, for what purpose do the trees appear to be going backwards at that point?. Likewise, the co-travelers with you who are moving seem fixed to you notwithstanding moving. This is on the grounds that in your edge both you and your cotravelers are moving together, which implies there is no overall speed among you and the travelers. Though the trees are fixed while you are moving. The general speed is the speed of an item or spectator an in the rest edge of another article or the onlooker B. The overall equation of speed is: Velocity of A relative to B is:

$$
\mathrm{Vab}=\mathrm{Va}-\mathrm{Vb}
$$

$\qquad$
(3)

Likewise, The relative object-velocity B pertaining the object an is provided via,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{Vba}=\mathrm{Vb}-\mathrm{Va} . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$

We may observe from the two expressions above ;

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{Vba}=\mathrm{Vb}^{-} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Va.

Despite the fact; about both the relative velocities' equality in magnitudes. Mathematically,

$$
\begin{equation*}
|\operatorname{Vab}|=|\operatorname{Vab}| . \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

## 4. Uniform Motion

If a body travels the same distance in the same time amount, the time intervals' shortness doesn't matter, simply it would be in uniform motion. Figure 6 illustrates a uniform motion's distance time graph producing a straight line.


## Figure 6: Distance Time Graph

## - Accelerated Motion

The word acceleration appears to be well-known; it is defined as "the rate at which an object's velocity varies over time." There is still a word, 'Uniformly Accelerated Motion,' which is difficult to grasp since how can an attribute characterized by a rate of change be deemed uniform? Figure 7 depicts the acceleration of the ego vehicle.


Figure 7: Acceleration of the ego vehicle

## - Uniform acceleration motion

There exists a perception - uniform speed increase defined by an item's speed increase, which stays consistent time-independent. Simply said, a number equivalent towards the speed-increase \& not varying as being time function on movement. A ball going down a slant, a skydiver leaping out of an aircraft, a ball dropping from the stepping stool's highest point, \& a bike with locked brakes all being the examples regarding uniform speed movement models. Because of the obstruction of gravity as well as contact.

In any case, these are still a portion of the situations where speed increase would be uniform if gravitational power and erosion is viewed as nothing.

$$
\begin{align*}
& v=u+a t  \tag{7}\\
& s=u t+1 / 2 a t^{2}  \tag{8}\\
& \quad v^{2}=u^{2}+2 a s \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

Where the initial velocity being denoted by (u), final velocity being denoted by (v), acceleration being denoted by (a) \& its displacement being denoted by (s).

In figure 8, if v1 is moving with the constant velocity and $v 2$ is a stationary object, then relative velocity( $r v$ ):

$$
\begin{gather*}
r v=\mathrm{v} 1-\mathrm{v} 2  \tag{10}\\
\mathrm{rv}=\mathrm{v} 1 \tag{11}
\end{gather*}
$$

Since v2=0,


Figure 8: left object having velocity $\mathbf{v 1}$, when both the objects are moving in same direction.

In figure 9, if v1 and $v 2$ both are moving with the constant velocity then, in the same direction, and $v 1>v 2$ then $r v$ will be:

$$
\begin{gather*}
r v=\mathrm{v} 1-\mathrm{v} 2  \tag{12}\\
\mathrm{rv}>0 \tag{13}
\end{gather*}
$$

Hence relative velocity will be positive, so the objects will collide


Figure 9: both objects are moving objects in same direction.


Figure 10: v1 and v2 travel in opposite direction.
In figure 10 , if $v 1$ and $v 2$ are moving in opposite direction, then $v 2$ will be negative and relative velocity will always be positive, hence the objects will collide.

## Simulation Model

1. The code is broken into two portions. It is, nonetheless, suitable to add code to each component; the two of them access analogous code for the key programming arrangements, which is handy for jobs that must be accomplished in the two.
2. 2. The similarity inside the code is managed by a Robot-Operating-System (ROS), which utilizes supporters and distributors on hubs to communicate between the contents. For example, the Time to Collision determined by my material will be transferred to a location through a hub. This framework facilitates the design of a measured code structure.
1. Since the transport of the $1: 10$ model car components were postponed and the admittance to the test track was in comprehensible about then, the usage of the CARLA (CAR Learning to Act) test system proved to be effective to obtain the information essential for the estimates. This means that the final items were never tested on the authentic model car.
2. The route into the strategy is a simple, straightforward approach in choosing when the "subject" vehicle will "touch" a "target" vehicle. As the per user may assume, the mathematical forms accepted for two automobiles fundamentally effect the complexity \& time required for the calculations.

Despite the fact that we recognized that the cars are fundamentally square forms when projected to the plane, we need to control the cushion areas in determining the distance to identify the item. Hence why the form employed in the test need to be the real square shape.

It needs to be larger or maybe an alternative form. Another motivation to examine distinct forms is thatthe mathematical highlights of the shape will affect the complexity of the computation. In theaccompanying text, four computations are spoken about dependant on distinct forms. Before estimate of this we first need to notice the concerned item in the area of perspective on our inner self vehicle to do this we need to grow an insight model for it. With a camerasensor attached to our inner self vehicle and a depth camera for sensor fusion we can easily identify the objects like walker traveler vehicles, trucks along-side the bounding boxes around them, and measure the distance and angle with the location of the angle on the constant velocity $(\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s})$. The CARLA test system incorporates a flexible customer worker engineering. As it focuses on practical consequences, the ideal match would be operating the worker with a devoted GPU, especially when handling AI. The user side contains a user module, commanding the performers on scene-rationale and creating world circumstances. This becoming performed by employing the CARLA API (in Python or C++), a layer intervening involving employees \& consumers; assisting in ongoing expanding in supplying fresh functionality. Assortment of information in Carla world where we operated personality cars in autonomous mode throughout Carla world then noted or remarked on the information physically with programming nomenclature. The material is Split in two sections: preparing data (3426 photographs) and testing data (364 images) (364 images). Along with their remarks related to each photo in particular, envelopes. TensorFlow 2.2 Object Detection is an extension of the TensorFlow Object Detection-API.

TensorFlow 2.2 Object Detection enables you to create an assortment of cutting-edge object recognition models beneath a brought together system, including Google Brain's best in class model, Efficient (performed here) (executed here). Furthermore, object identification models, for the most part, enable you to create your system to recognize things in a scenario utilizing bounding boxes and class markers. There exist several strategies you may use deep learning procedures to exhibit this problem, and the TensorFlow2 Object Detection API enables you to convey a wide variety of models and methodologies to achieve this goal. We train the smallest EfficientDet model (EfficientDet- D0) $512 \times 512$. Number of steps necessary to prepare is 8000k, takes 10 hours. of focused training and on GPU Nvidia 1650 GTX GeForce 4 GB RAM. Assets offered by Google Colab Pro. To calculate the distance, we first need to identify the concerned object in the field of view on our conscious vehicle. To do this, we need to create an insight model for it. With a video sensor attached to our conscious vehicle we will distinguish the things like walker traveler automobile, truck alongside age of bounding boxes surrounding them.

The model applied for object locating is the discerning model. Item identification is a way to differentiate class events to which an object has a position.

We measured the time to collision of an object, pedestrian, bus, or any object on the road, so by calculating the parameters, " Img _height(px), Img _width(px), Left(px), $\operatorname{Right}(p x)$, $\operatorname{Top}(p x)$, Bottom(px), Centre _x(px), Centre _y(px), Obstacle (type of obstacle on the road), speed ( $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s}$ ), Acceleration $(\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s} 2$ ), Angle (Degrees) of each object from our ego vehicle, and can detect the time to collision(sec) and distance to collision(m)."

| Imag <br> e <br> Heig <br> ht <br> (px) |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Lef } \\ \mathbf{t} \\ (\mathbf{p x} \\ \mathbf{)} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \underset{\mathbf{t}}{\text { Righ }} \\ (\mathbf{p x}) \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { To } \\ \text { p } \\ (\mathrm{px} \\ \mathrm{f} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Botto } \\ \text { m } \\ \\ (\mathbf{p x}) \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Centre } \\ & \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p x}) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Centre } \\ y(p x) \end{gathered}$ | Obstacl <br> e | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Spee } \\ & \begin{array}{c} \text { d } \\ (\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{s}) \end{array} \end{aligned}$ | Accel eration (m/s) | Angle <br> (degree <br> s) | Distan ce to collisio n <br> (m) | Time to Collisio n (s) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 700 | 1100 | 912 | 1080 | $\begin{aligned} & 36 \\ & 3 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | 412 | 996 | 388 | ['car'] | 23 | 2 | 55 | 62 | 7.87 |
| 700 | 1100 | 973 | 1097 | 35 <br> 8 | 430 | 1035 | 394 | ['car'] | 23 | 2 | 58 | 55 | 7.42 |
| 700 | 1100 | 885 | 977 | $\begin{gathered} 37 \\ 5 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 438 | 931 | 406 | ['bike'] | 24 | 2 | 53 | 47 | 6.86 |
| 700 | 1100 | 468 | 518 | $\begin{gathered} 58 \\ 3 \end{gathered}$ | 700 | 493 | 641 | ['walker '] | 25 | 1 | 49 | 1 | 1.41 |
| 700 | 1100 | 867 | 948 | 34 <br> 2 | 387 | 908 | 365 | ['truck'] | 22 | 5 | 47 | 88 | 5.93 |

Table 1: To find time to collision(m) and distance to collision(s).

We have experimented with different scenarios in Carla simulation environment here our method is detecting the obstacle in its vision and calculating various information they are angle at which the obstacle is, distance at which obstacle is and finally time to collide to detected object we ran our ego vehicle in simulation at various speed and collected this information.


Figure 11: Time to collision (TTC) and distance to collision (DTC) graph

In figure 11, the graph represents the comparison between distance to collision and time to collision of our ego vehicle, as the distance to collision (blue) increases the time to collision (red) decreases and vice versa. The graph represents the velocity of our ego vehicle.


Figure 12: Distribution of detected object
In figure 12, the graph represents the Distribution of detected object on the road i.e., passenger _car (28), Truck (5), Walker (3) and Motorcycle (2). Hence maximum number of objects belongs to passenger car category.


Figure 13 (a)


Figure 13 (b)
Figure 13 (a) symbolizes a passenger automobile which is recognized with the RGB camera and to identify it we have generated 'bounding boxes' [29] around it on which the distance is estimated in meters i.e., 17 m , angle is 55 deg and slope is -8.69 .

Figure 13 (b) symbolizes a pedestrian which is recognized with the RGB camera \& in detecting it we have generated bounding boxes around him on which the distance being computed in meters i.e., 39 m , angle is 28 deg and slope is -1.23 .


Figure 14 (a)
Figure 14 (b)


Figure 14 (c)
Figure 14 (a) depicts the vehicle with distance to collision (57.6), angle (11) and time to collision (7.55), Figure 14 (b) shows the vehicle with distance to collision (48.0), angle (14) and time to collision (5.93), Figure 14 (c) shows the vehicle with distance to collision (36.0), angle (21) and time to collision (6.0).


Figure 15: errors in the estimated TTC for the vehicle- vehicle collision scenario.

In above graph $15[31$, ] we have experimented different scenarios for Time to collision
warning as we can see there were 4 scenarios of vehicle-pedestrian collision, as seen in graph when actual TTC is greater than 3 sec our method is able to give warning with very less error margin of $0.04-0.05 \mathrm{sec}$ and in other scenarios also our methods error margin is also very small as compared to other method.


Figure 16: difference in ground truths and estimated distances.

In this graph 16, [31], we estimated the Mean error in Time to collision (TTC)warning in a vehicle-pedestrian collision. We experimented with four situations and found that our technique performed better than the compared method. The accuracy of our suggested method is $1-2 \%$ higher in both graphs $(15,16)$ considering two different scenarios, which is noteworthy in the context of autonomous cars.

## Conclusion

In this research, we suggested a technique to identify a vehicle going ahead in a tunnel setting. In the suggested approach, a vehicle detector was developed utilizing a YOLO v2 learner. The learning was done on road photos recorded in different tunnel settings to build the detector. Sensor fusion refers to the ability to focus on merging data from several radars, lidars, and cameras to build a single model or world view surrounding a vehicle. Sensor fusion is the capacity to concentrate on combining data from numerous radars, lidars, and cameras to form a single model or world view around a vehicle. The final model is more exact as the strengths of the numerous sensors are balanced. Vehicle systems may now incorporate sensor fusion information to allow more intelligent behavior. A vehicle may possibly apply sensor fusion to aggregate data from several sensors of the same kind. This increases perception by taking advantage of slightly overlapping sight-areas. The present study highlights recent breakthroughs in Carla-based object detection.
We presented an in sightful study on the solutions for training data and fusion procedures (RGB+Depth Camera). Here with the assistance of depth map and coordination of RGB camera we determined distance to impact. Hence, we conducted object detection on various items or people at constant velocity. Sensor fusion-based detection systems have the offering benefit
existing in a more precise accuracy -estimation across a larger range of operational conditions. Clearly, weaknesses in obstacles localization and evaluation of their kinematical elements might render the suggested computation findings erroneous.

## REFERENCES

1. Felzenszwalb, P.; McAllester, D.; Ramanan, D. A discriminatively trained, multiscale, deformable part model. In Proceedings of the 2008 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, Anchorage, AK, USA, 23-28 June 2008; pp. 1-8.
2. Dollár, P.; Tu, Z.; Perona, P.; Belongie, S. Integral channel features. In Proceedings of the British Machine Vision Conference; BMVC Press: London, UK, 2009; pp. 1-11.
3. Dollár, P.; Appel, R.; Belongie, S.; Perona, P. Fast feature pyramids for object detection. IEEE TPAMI 2014, 36, 1532-1545.
4. Hwang, S.; Park, J.; Kim, N.; Choi, Y.; Kweon, I.S. Multispectral pedestrian detection: Benchmark dataset and baseline. Integr. Comput. Aided Eng. 2013, 20, 347-360.
5. De Smedt, F.; Puttemans, S.; Goedemé, T. How to reach top accuracy for a visual pedestrian warning system from a car? In Proceedings of the 2016 Sixth International Conference on Image Processing Theory, Tools and Applications (IPTA), Oulu, Finland, 12-15 December 2016; pp. 1-6.
6. Benenson, R.; Mathias, M.; Timofte, R.; Van Gool, L. Pedestrian detection at 100 frames per second. In Proceedings of the 2012 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, Providence, RI, USA, 16-21 June 2012; pp. 2903-2910.
7. Jafari, O.H.; Mitzel, D.; Leibe, B. Real-time RGB-D based people detection and tracking for mobile robots and head-worn cameras. In Proceedings of the 2014 IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA), Hong Kong, China, 31 May-7 June 2014; pp. 5636-5643.
8. Choi, W.; Pantofaru, C.; Savarese, S. Detecting and tracking people using an rgb-d camera via multiple detector fusion. In Proceedings of the 2011 IEEE International Conference on Computer Vision Workshops (ICCV Workshops), Barcelona, Spain, 6-13 November 2011; pp. 1076-1083.
9. Spinello, L.; Arras, K.O. People detection in RGB-D data. In Proceedings of the 2011 IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent Robots and Systems, San Francisco, CA, USA, 25-30 September 2011; pp. 3838-3843.
10. Krizhevsky, A.; Sutskever, I.; Hinton, G.E. Imagenet classification with deep convolutional neural networks. In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 25; Neural Information Processing Systems Foundation, Inc.: La Jolla, CA, USA, 2012; pp. 1097-1105.
11. He, K.; Zhang, X.; Ren, S.; Sun, J. Deep residual learning for image recognition. In Proceedings of the CVPR 2016, Las Vegas, NA, USA, 26 June-1 July 2016; pp. 770-778.
12. Szegedy, C.; Toshev, A.; Erhan, D. Deep neural networks for object detection. In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 26; Neural Information Processing Systems Foundation, Inc.: La Jolla, CA, USA, 2013; pp. 2553-2561.
13. Girshick, R.; Donahue, J.; Darrell, T.; Malik, J. Rich feature hierarchies for accurate object detection and semantic segmentation. In Proceedings of the CVPR 2014, Columbus, OH, USA, 24-27 June 2014; pp. 580-587.
14. Girshick, R. Fast R-CNN. In Proceedings of the 2015 IEEE International Conference on Computer Vision (ICCV), Santiago, Chile, 7-13 December 2015; pp. 1440-1448.
15. Ren, S.; He, K.; Girshick, R.; Sun, J. Faster R-CNN: Towards real-time object detection with region proposal networks. In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 28; Neural Information Processing Systems Foundation, Inc.: La Jolla, CA, USA, 2015; pp. 91-99.
16. Redmon, J.; Divvala, S.; Girshick, R.; Farhadi, A. You only look once: Unified, real-time object detection. In Proceedings of the CVPR 2016, Las Vegas, NA, USA, 26 June-1 July 2016; pp. 779-788.
17. Redmon, J.; Farhadi, A. YOLO9000: Better, Faster, Stronger. In Proceedings of the CVPR 2017, Honolulu, HI, USA, 22-25 July 2017; pp. 6517-6525.
18. Redmon, J.; Farhadi, A. Yolov3: An incremental improvement. arXiv, 2018; arXiv:1804.02767.
19. Liu, W.; Anguelov, D.; Erhan, D.; Szegedy, C.; Reed, S.; Fu, C.Y.; Berg, A.C. SSD: Single shot multibox detector. In Lecture Notes in Computer Science; Springer: Cham, Switzerland, 2016; pp. 21-37.
20. Wagner, J.; Fischer, V.; Herman, M.; Behnke, S. Multispectral pedestrian detection using deep fusion convolutional neural networks. In Proceedings of the 24th European Symposium on Artificial Neural Networks, Computational Intelligence and Machine Learning (ESANN), Bruges, Belgium, 27-29 April 2016; pp. 509-514.
21. Liu, J.; Zhang, S.; Wang, S.; Metaxas, D. Multispectral Deep Neural Networks for Pedestrian Detection. arXiv, 2016; arXiv:1611.02644.
22. König, D.; Adam, M.; Jarvers, C.; Layher, G.; Neumann, H.; Teutsch, M. Fully Convolutional Region Proposal Networks for Multispectral Person Detection. In Proceedings of the CVPR Workshops, Honolulu, HI, USA, 21 July 2017; pp. 243-250.
23. Vandersteegen, M.; Van Beeck, K.; Goedemé, T. Real-time multispectral pedestrian detection with a single-pass deep neural network. In Proceedings of the 15th International Conference on Image Analysis and Recognition (ICIAR), Varzim, Portugal, $27-29$ June 2018.
24. Schwarz, M.; Schulz, H.; Behnke, S. RGB-D object recognition and pose estimation based on pre-trained convolutional neural network features. In Proceedings of the 2015 IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA), Seattle, WA, USA, 26-30 May 2015; pp. 1329-1335.
25. Eitel, A.; Springenberg, J.T.; Spinello, L.; Riedmiller, M.; Burgard, W. Multimodal deep learning for robust rgb-d object recognition. In Proceedings of the 2015 IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent Robots and Systems (IROS), Hamburg, Germany, 28 September-2 October 2015; pp. 681-687.
26. Gupta, S.; Girshick, R.; Arbeláez, P.; Malik, J. Learning rich features from RGB-D images for object detection and segmentation. In Proceedings of the European Conference on Computer Vision, Zurich, Switzerland, 6-12 September 2014; Springer: Cham, Switzerland, 2014; pp. 345-360.
27. Zhou, K.; Paiement, A.; Mirmehdi, M. Detecting humans in RGB-D data with CNNs. In Proceedings of the 2017 Fifteenth IAPR International Conference on Machine Vision Applications (MVA), Nagoya, Japan, 8-12 May 2017; pp. 306-309.
28. Ophoff, T.; Van Beeck, K.; Goedemé, T. Improving Real-Time Pedestrian Detectors with RGB+Depth Fusion. In Proceedings of the AVSS-MSS Workshop, Auckland, New Zealand, 27-30 November 2018; IEEE: Auckland, New Zealand, 2018.
29. David Paper. "Chapter 13 Object Detection", Springer Science and Business Media LLC, exclude quotes On Exclude bibliography On Exclude matches Off 2021.
30. Yajun Fang, Massachusetts Institute of Technology; Berthold K. P. Horn, Massachusetts Institute of Technology; Ichiro Masaki Systematic information fusion methodology for static and dynamic obstacle detection in ITS.
31. Minjin B., Donggie J.," Vehicle Trajectory Prediction and Collision Warning via Fusion of Multisensory and Wireless Vehicular Communications", MDPI, SENSORS, Jan 2020.
32. Nikola S., Steven S., "Camera-LIDAR Object Detection and Distance Estimation with Application in Collision Avoidance System", In proceedings of: IEEE $10^{\text {th }}$ international conference on consumer electronics (ICCE), Berlin, 2020.
