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A Depth Camera Motion Analysis Framework for Tele-rehabilitation: Motion Capture and Person-Centric Kinematics Analysis

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Abstract—With increasing importance given to tele-rehabilitation, there is a growing need for accurate, low-cost, and portable motion capture systems that do not require specialist assessment venues. This paper proposes a novel framework for motion capture using only a single depth camera, which is portable and cost effective compared to most industry-standard optical systems, without compromising on accuracy. Novel signal processing and computer vision algorithms are proposed to determine motion patterns of interest from infrared and depth data. In order to demonstrate the proposed framework's suitability for rehabilitation, we developed a gait analysis application that depends on the underlying motion capture sub-system. Each subject's individual kinematics parameters, which are unique to that subject, are calculated and these are stored for monitoring individual progress of the clinical therapy. Experiments were conducted on 14 different subjects, 5 healthy and 9 stroke survivors. The results show very close agreement of the resulting relevant joint angles with a 12-camera based VICON system, a mean error of at most 1.75\% in detecting gait events w.r.t the manually generated ground-truth, and significant performance improvements in terms of accuracy and execution time compared to a previous Kinect-based system.

Index Terms—signal processing for rehabilitation, depth image processing, motion analysis, feature extraction, tele-rehabilitation

I. INTRODUCTION

Following a stroke, the recovery of physical functions such as walking, could be greatly enhanced by the intervention of a rehabilitation team focused on the identification and resolution of movement problems, typically through the practice of exercise tasks. A range of movement abnormalities are periodically assessed to track and design rehabilitation progress for each individual patient. The outcome of rehabilitation is generally improved if the patient receives a high intensity of practice combined with feedback on their movement to correct errors [1]. However, this ideal type of therapy is restricted by access to professional rehabilitation staff and equipment, a situation which has led to the growing importance of self-management strategies, including the use of tele-rehabilitation.

Most motion analysis systems used for rehabilitation are based on multiple wearable sensors (e.g., passive/active optical markers, EMG/EEG/ECG, inertial sensors, force plates) and require a large laboratory space, are of high cost, and not portable, thus unsuitable for flexible, mobile clinical and home-use rehabilitation programs [2]. Optical motion analysis systems are attractive; however, current marker-based and marker-less, single or multiple infrared/RGB camera motion analysis systems have limitations, such as dependency on the underlying fabric color, time-consuming process, lack of portability and/or high price, such as VICON [3], single RGB camera systems of [4]–[7] and multiple RGB camera systems, such as [8]. Inertial tracker-based systems, like Xsens MVN [9] and M3D [10], are options for large clinics or hospitals, but are not suitable for small clinics and home use.

Alternatively, single RGB-depth camera systems, such as [11], [12], [13], after significant technological advances, have become cheap and popular options. For example, Microsoft (MS) Kinect enables tracking of human joints in three dimensional (3D) space using a single camera and its SDK via skeleton tracking [11]. However, Kinect’s skeleton data are too noisy (see, e.g., Fig.1 in [14]), and do not provide sufficient accuracy [14]–[17]. Using two Kinect sensors, as in [18], can potentially improve the accuracy, but at the expense of portability, required expertise, and ease of setup.

The marker-less Kinect-based approach of [19], for performing the ‘Get Up and Go Test’, which is part of the larger Tinetti test to identify subjects at risk of falling, is based on the construction of the background depth frame, which enables background removal, followed by frontal pose analysis to get body structure parameters and the sagittal view joint trajectory estimation. The method does not achieve clinical accuracy showing an error of up to 15 pixels compared to the reference trajectory. Six joints are tracked in the sagittal plane: the foot joint was not tracked, and it is not expected to work well due to interference with the floor. A similar approach [20] uses RGB and depth images of MS Kinect for semi-automatic postural and spinal analysis using Dynamic Time Warping, pose estimation and gesture recognition. The algorithm requires substantial manual effort, operation expertise and is time-consuming, hence not suitable for real-time application. Note that [19] and [20] are not validated against state-of-the-art benchmarks. [21] uses Kinect’s depth images to perform 3D pose estimation with high computational complexity and is unsuitable for near real-time processing. [22] relies on Kinect SDKs virtual skeleton of the body and supervised learning to extract positions of the joints of interest in a gait analysis application, but is limited by high computational complexity, need for training data, and presents no scientific evidence that
the proposed methods are clinically accurate. [23] uses two cameras and requires complex calibration, camera synchronization and setup.

In this paper, we develop a general framework to facilitate the next generation of portable and cost-effective tele-rehabilitation applications, suitable for local clinics and home use, that do not require any clinical expertise to operate. The proposed framework combines high accuracy marker-based tracking methodology based on infrared (IR) sensing and portability and affordability of range imaging methodology using structured light or Time-of-Flight sensors. Our proposed kinematics framework is capable of building various motion analysis assessment tools that target different rehabilitation applications. In contrast to previous work [19] and [20], our proposed framework is benchmarked against the state-of-the-art gold standard optical motion system VICON [3] for gait analysis using the walk forward and back test, with 6 markers on each sagittal plane (left and right) to capture both sagittal planes during the walking test in one go, and most importantly, create a person-centric subject model to define the geometric relationship between different markers. Additionally, as opposed to [6], [7], [19], our framework maps markers in 3D space since 2D measurements are nonlinear due to the fish eye effect from the sensor lens; the depth information for the marker centroid in the depth hole is recovered to perform coordinate mapping from image space to camera space.

The framework is based on several image processing algorithms, that enable extraction of specific movement patterns from IR and depth image data, is robust to occlusion, and facilitates real-time post-processing and visualization of the results. Namely, the main contributions of the paper are (see Section II for more details): (1) Single-camera imaging methodology, including scene calibration and denoising, where only one IR-based depth camera is used for motion capture, (2) simultaneous marker detection and identification in 3D space using adaptive thresholding with a novel depth recovery method to map the object coordinates into camera space, (3) person-centric model-based kinematics analysis, including effective post-processing motion analysis algorithms.

We provide detailed algorithmic steps for the proposed algorithms, making the proposed approach reproducible. The paper is organized as follows. In Sec.II, the overall description of the proposed framework is given followed by detailed descriptions of the proposed optical motion capture system and kinematics analysis algorithms in Secs. III and IV, respectively. Sec.V presents our visualization tools and experimental results, before concluding in Sec.VI.

II. OVERVIEW OF THE PROPOSED FRAMEWORK

The proposed framework comprises an optical motion capture system and kinematics analysis tools that enable secondary development for solution enhancement. The interconnection among the underlying algorithms and key parameters used in the algorithms listed in this section.

The optical motion capture system (described in Sec.III) consists of a single depth camera (both IR and depth images are used) that enables creating 3D optical motion reconstruction. It is designed to capture human motion in real time by detecting retro-reflective markers attached to joints of interest, and comprises three modules: (1) Data cleaning - for cleaning IR and depth images (described in Sec.III-A). (2) Detection - for tracking markers in image space (Sec.III-B). (3) Mapping - for recovering the markers’ position in camera space through the proposed cluster location algorithm (Sec.III-C).

The proposed kinematics analysis tools are developed as an application solution that sits on the proposed motion capture system, facilitating portable, indoor tele-rehabilitation diagnosis, as demonstrated by our gait analysis application in Sec.IV. Autonomously located markers attached to subject’s joints during the straight-line walking exercise, are used to automatically calculate gait associated parameters commonly used for clinical assessment, such as joint angles, velocity, movement patterns, gait cycle phase, step and stride length, swing and stance phase, etc. [24]. In particular, the gait analysis tools (Sec.IV) comprise: (1) Scene calibration (Sec.IV-A), (2) Subject modelling (Sec.IV-B) for building a person-specific body segmentation model, (3) Kinematics analysis module (Sec.IV-C) for calculating gait analysis parameters based on the proposed analytics.
III. OPTICAL MOTION CAPTURE SYSTEM

The task of the proposed optical motion capture system is to simultaneously track multiple retro-reflective markers using a single IR depth camera, irrespective of the overlying motion analysis application. Retro-reflective materials were chosen since they introduce high intensity regions into IR images and blank holes into depth images. Therefore, the markers are detected on IR images, after which the marker location is recovered in the depth image and mapped to camera space via the following key steps: (1) Data cleaning - cleaning invalid data and reducing sensor noise, (2) Marker detection - detecting markers in IR image space using connected component algorithm [27] with scene dependent adaptive thresholds, (3) 3D marker location - recovering marker depth values using our novel cluster location algorithm (in Sec.III-C) and mapping depth space coordinates to the camera space using the depth-map projection method of [28]. We elaborate each of these steps in the following subsections.

A. Data Cleaning

The primary source of noise affecting the captured IR images is from the camera lens of either IR transmitters or receivers and interfering sources such as metallic materials, retro-reflective materials, etc. Reflective materials other than markers will influence the measurements and constitute interference while recovering depth values. Fig.2 shows the noise, originating from the imaging sensor and reflective material, typically encountered in an acquired frame.

Approaches for denoising include depth map denoising, either spatially with, e.g., adaptive total variation [29], nonlocal graph-based transform with group sparsity [30] and layer-based depth correction and completion [31], or temporally with, e.g., parametric model-based nonlocal means [32] and joint-bilateral filter [33]. Such data cleaning approaches would potentially preserve sharp edges without over-smoothing, and improve the accuracy of marker tracking. However, since we are aiming for near real-time applications, we use a simpler, intuitive and less complex, but effective approach based on Kalman filtering [34]. Namely, since we can detect
initial locations of interfering materials in the first frame and corresponding pixel values, it is easy to predict their next state using Kalman filter, and exclude them from further processing.

B. Detection

After cleaning the frame from unwanted noise, IR images are converted to binary format in order to detect and identify markers via blob detection on a frame-by-frame basis. Since all retro-reflective marker regions have clearly distinguishable pixel values in IR images from surrounding regions, blob detection is a natural object detection choice.

There are several approaches to detect and identify blobs, such as matched filters / template matching [25], watershed detection [35], structure tensor analysis followed by hypothesis testing of gradient directions [36], [37], scale-space analysis [38]. All these approaches are limited by their sensitivity to noise, structure restriction and complexity [39]. In previous related work [25], a concentric cycle-based method (template matching) is proposed to perform the shape fitting test for each potential blob in order to locate all markers in image space (2D); however, this method is time consuming and requires expertise to determine associated parameters for the shape fitter and the kernel cluster filter, and cannot locate the center of the marker correctly when motion blur occurs and the marker is out of the sagittal plane, which leads to center deviation on those markers with circular distributed IR values.

To solve this problem and satisfy our real-time processing constraints, an enhanced heuristic IR analysis algorithm is proposed in Alg.1, where the threshold value is adaptively acquired for blob detection in the next frame. A sequence of $b$ previous IR images and an initial threshold for blob detection $w$ and blob base radius $r_b$, obtained by Alg.4 during the scene calibration process (which is application and scene dependent), are fed to Alg.1. Note that the initial threshold $w$ in Alg.1 has little influence on the accuracy of the adaptive IR threshold. As expected, the further away the value of $w$ from the optimal value, the higher the number of iterations to find a suitable threshold, resulting in longer execution time. Note that we stop iterating when the number of detected blobs $f$ reaches convergence, i.e., the value of $f$ between iterations is unchanged.

The main idea behind Alg.1 is to first assign $w$, for the current frame $S_d$ to that used in one of the $b$ previous frames, which results in the number of blobs in $S_d$ closest to the actual number of markers $n$ present in the scene. If this threshold detects more than $n$ blobs (that is, some detected blobs are not markers), $w$ is calculated by averaging the pixels from the $n$ most significant blobs weighted by their radius. Otherwise, if some markers were missed, a weighted average is taken over most significant blobs weighted by the their radius. Otherwise, algorithm is detailed in Alg.2.

Algorithm 1: Adaptive blob detection threshold setting for the next frame

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input:</th>
<th>Captured image sequence from the sensor, $S$;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Initial blob detection threshold, $w$ from Alg.4;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Blob base radius, $r_b$ from Alg.4;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of markers used, $n$;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Scan window of $b$ previous frames $S_{d-b},\ldots,S_{d-1}$, with their blob detection thresholds $e_j$, $j = d - b,\ldots,d - 1$;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output:</td>
<td>Blob detection threshold for the next frame, $e_d$;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 acquire next IR frame $S_d$ from $S$;
2 set $e_d = e_j^*$, where $j^* = \arg \min_{j=d-b,\ldots,d-1} |n - f_j|$, where $f_j$ is the number of blobs detected in Frame $S_d$ when blob threshold $e_j$ from Frame $S_j$ is used;
3 set $f$ as the number of detected blobs when $e_d$ is used on Frame $S_d$;
4 order the detected blobs into the descending order of the blob radius: $i_1^d,\ldots,i_n^d,\ldots,i_f^d$, where $d$ denotes the frame number;
5 set $J_q^d$, $q = 1,\ldots,f$ as a matrix of all IR pixel values in Blob $i_q^d$, $k_q^d$ their mean value, $l_q^d$ and $u_q^d$ as radius and blob region radius of Blob $i_q^d$ in $S_d$, respectively;
6 if $f > n$ then
7 calculate new $e_d$ by averaging IR pixel values from $J_1^d,\ldots,J_n^d$ weighted by $l_1^d,\ldots,l_n^d$;
8 else if $f < n$ then
9 set $h_0$ by averaging IR pixel values from $J_1^d,\ldots,J_f^d$ weighted by $l_1^d/r_b,\ldots,l_f^d/r_b$;
10 set $h_1$ by averaging IR pixel values from $J_1^d, q = d - b,\ldots,d-1$ weighted by $e_q/w$;
11 set $h_2$ by averaging blob radius from $u_1^d$, $q = d - b,\ldots,d-1$ weighted by $e_q/w$;
12 if $f_{last} \neq f_{current} \neq n$ then
13 add $S_d$ to scan window when using $e_d$ and goto 4;
14 return $e_d$;

C. 3D marker location

Once all blobs have been detected as valid markers, the next step is to obtain the coordinates of the markers in 3D space. In general, a depth camera has intrinsic parameters to perform spatial mapping from image space to camera space.

The depth-map projection method of [28] is adopted to acquire undistorted camera space coordinates of the tracked markers after marker centroids have been located. However, depth information within the marker region is empty due to the retro-reflective nature of the attached markers. Therefore, we propose to recover the sensitive pixels around each marker region in the depth images in Alg.3 by calculating image histograms with respect to pixel intensity (Steps 21 to 28 in Alg.3) and distance to the marker centroid in IR images (Steps 29-32). The algorithm is executed for each detected marker.

The following parameters are assigned heuristically to improve the recovery accuracy and are constant for all frames: Max-Min width, $W = 50$, recovery resolution, $D_0 = 2$, histogram...
Algorithm 2: Marker Detection

**Input:** Captured IR image frame, \( S_d \);
IR blob detection threshold, \( e_d \) obtained by Alg.1;

**Output:** Marker centroid, \((p, q)\) \( 1 \) \( \ldots \) \( n \) where \( n \) is the number of detected markers;
Marker radius, \( r_m \);
Marker region radius, \( r_r \);

1 Use connected component labelling [27] on \( S_d \) with \( e_d \) for IR-to-binary image conversion and obtain labelled markers \( M_1 \), \( \ldots \) \( M_n \);

2 foreach marker \( M_i \) in \( M_1 \), \( \ldots \) \( M_n \) do
   3 set \( g \) as the number of pixels in \( M_i \);
   4 set \( v \) as the sum of all IR pixel values in \( M_i \);
   5 set \( w = g * e_d \) as normalized sum of IR values;
   6 let \((p_i, q_i) = (0, 0), r_{m_i} = 0, r_{r_i} = 0 \) be \( M_i \)'s centroid, radius and region radius, respectively;
   7 foreach pixel \( P_{x,y} \) in \( M_i \) do
      8 foreach pixel \( P_{x,y} \) in \( M_i \) with coordinates \((x, y)\) do
         9 set pixel distance \( d = \sqrt{(x-p_i)^2 + (y-q_i)^2} \);
         10 \( r_{m_i} = r_{m_i} + l * P_{x,y} \);
         11 if \( r_{m_i} > r_{r_i} \) then \( r_{r_i} = r_{m_i} \);
   12 return \((p, q)\) \( 1 \) \( \ldots \) \( n \), \( r_m \), \( r_r \);

Algorithm 3: 3D marker Location

**Input:** Captured depth image frame, \( D_d \);
Marker centroid, \((p, q)\), Marker radius \( r_m \) and region radius \( r_r \) obtained by Alg.2;
Max-Min width, \( W \);
Recovery resolution, \( D_0 \);
Depth resolution, \( D_1 \);
Distance resolution, \( D_2 \);
Cluster mode, \( m \) [defined in Sec. III-C];

**Output:** Marker position in frame \( D_d \), \((x, y, z)\);

1 acquire depth values \( v_d \) at rectangle region of \{left: \( p - r_r - D_0 \), top: \( q - r_r - D_0 \), right: \( p + r_r + D_0 \), bottom: \( q + r_r + D_0 \)\} in \( D_d \);

2 order pixels in \( v_d \) in the increasing order \( v_d(1) \), \( \ldots \) \( v_d(N) \), and set \( \kappa = 0 \) and \( z = 0 \);

3 set \( A_0 = v_d(1) + W \);

4 set \( V_0 \) as a vector of all depth values in \( v_d \) smaller than \( A_0 \) and the remaining values as \( V_2 \), and set \( V_1 = V_0 \);

5 if sizeof\( (V_0) > 2 \) then
   6 \( \kappa = \kappa + 1, V_0 = V_d \setminus V_0 \) and goto 5;

6 else if sizeof\( (V_0) = 1 \) then
   7 set \( \lambda_1 = v_d(N) + W \); \( V_1 \) as all depth values in \( V_d \) smaller than \( \lambda_1 \) and the remaining values as \( V_2 \);
   8 goto 6 when sizeof\( (V_2) > \)sizeof\( (V_1) + \kappa \), otherwise
goto 13;

9 else
   10 if \( m = \) normal then
      11 set \( T_0 = \)min\( (V_0) \) and \( T_1 = T_0 + W \);
   12 else if \( m = \) top then
      13 set \( T_0 = \)min\( (V_1) \) and \( T_1 = T_0 + W \);
   14 else if \( m = \) bottom then
      15 set \( T_1 = \)max\( (V_2) \) and \( T_0 = T_1 - W \);

16 set \( H_0 \) as the histogram of pixels in \( V_d \) that fall between \( T_0 \) and \( T_1 \), with depth resolution \( D_1 \);

17 foreach bin \( h \) in \( H_0 \) do
   18 if sizeof\( (h) < \min((r + D_0)^2, d^2 / \)sizeof\( (H_0) + D_0) \) then
      19 if sizeof\( (h) < \min(D_0, \)sizeof\( (v_d) / \)sizeof\( (H_0) ) \) then
         20 remove \( h \) from \( H_0 \);

21 foreach \( h \) in \( H_0 \) do
   22 histogram all pixels in \( h \) w.r.t their distance to centroid \((p, q)\), with bin resolution \( D_2 \);
   23 set \( e(h) \) as the mean value of the bin in \( h \) that has the highest count;

24 foreach \( h \) in \( H_0 \) do
   25 set \( z = z + e(h) * \)sizeof\( (h) / \)sizeof\( (H_0) \);

26 return \((x, y, z)\) mapped from \((p, q, z)\) using [28];

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depth resolution, \( D_1 = 5 \), histogram distance resolution, \( D_2 = 0.5 \).

Alg.3 tackles the problem of partial occlusion: the input to the algorithm is a cluster mode variable, \( m \) that can take 3 possible discrete values: (1) Normal - no occlusion of the marker, (2) Top - occlusion present at the top of the marker, (3) Bottom - occlusion at the bottom of the marker. Partial occlusion takes place on markers attached to the anterior superior iliac spine (ASIS), posterior superior iliac spine (PSIS), hip and femur during arm swing. Those markers are in the bottom mode, while heel, toe, shoulder markers are in the top mode and the remaining markers are always in the normal mode in Alg.3 since they are never occluded. The proposed algorithm recovers depth information for each labelled marker independently even when partial occlusion occurs.

IV. GAIT ANALYSIS APPLICATION

This section describes the proposed application-specific algorithms that interface with our motion capture system (see Sec.III). The proposed gait analysis application, comprising scene dependent calibration, person-centric modelling, and kinematics analysis, enables autonomous, high-accuracy processing of gait associated data. Each of the three algorithms are explained next.

A. Straight-line Walking Scene Calibration

The purpose of scene calibration is to collect scene dimensions to build a geometric relationship between the camera, calibration markers, and walking start/end points.

A typical straight-line walking exercise scene captured by the camera, is represented as a virtual trapezoidal cylindrical model in Fig.3. The plane defined by 4 optical (calibration) markers, shown as blue dots in Fig.3, placed on the ground is perpendicular to the plane defined by the camera and the ground. An example of an IR image captured during
the calibration is shown in Fig.4, where the start and end of walking are shown as red dots. Previous experiments, as validated using a method of [26], showed that a walking line distance of 2.5 - 3m to the camera and the sensor height of 0.8m from the floor result in an approximate 4m walking line.

The overall walking scene calibration process is summarized in Alg.4. \( C = 4 \) calibration markers are placed on the ground one-by-one. The scene calibration process continuously searches and analyzes the status of the calibration marker plane in relation to the camera to ensure perpendicularity, and reports marker status as: (1) Uninitialized - stop mode, (2) Move Left/Right - camera needs to be moved to the left or right, (3) Tilt Down/Up, (4) Pan Left/Right, (5) Replace Markers - critical noise detected or marker placement error, (6) Done - calibration completed. Steps 12-15 perform manual adjustment of the camera pose.

Threshold \( w \) for blob detection (used in Alg.1) is calculated by first forming a histogram of edge pixels for each detected blob, and then finding the minimum (over all four marker blobs) of the largest histogram bin (Step 12). Alg.4 relies on subtracting the background to label the calibration markers and calls Alg.2, with updated \( w \) set to the minimal pixel value in the detected blob, to obtain the calibration marker’s centroid and corresponding blob radius. Base blob radius \( r_b \) is set as the mean radius of all calibration markers. Alg.4 determines the start and end points of the walking exercise, which are then physically marked on the floor using a tape.

**Algorithm 4: Gait Analysis Walking Scene Calibration**

**Input:** Captured IR image sequence from the sensor, \( S \);

**Number of calibration markers, \( C \);**

**Output:** Blob centroids, \( \{(p,q,z)\}_1, \ldots, \{(p,q,z)\}_C \);

Start and end walking point, \( (r,s)_0, (r,s)_1 \);

Initial IR blob threshold, \( w \);

Blob base radius, \( r_b \);

Walking line length, \( L \);

1. set the number of labelled markers \( c = 0 \);
2. while \( c \leq C \) do
3. \hspace{1em} repeat acquire the next IR image from \( S \);
4. \hspace{1em} apply frame subtraction detection;
5. \hspace{1em} until no significant motion detected;
6. \hspace{1em} apply frame subtraction detection using as background the previous frame with no motion detected;
7. \hspace{1em} if blob detected then
8. \hspace{2em} update markers’ state using marker labelling
9. \hspace{2em} (call Alg.2 with \( c_d \) set to the min IR value in the marker blob), and let \( c = c + 1 \);
10. \hspace{1em} calculate a histogram of edge pixel values for each blob, and set \( w \) as the minimum, over all blobs, of the most significant bin.
11. \hspace{1em} check diagonal connection condition for \( \{(p,q,z)\}_1, \ldots, \{(p,q,z)\}_C \) mapped using normal mode Alg.3 with current depth image from \( S \);
12. \hspace{2em} if connection is intersectant then
13. \hspace{3em} report plane status defined by \( \{(p,q)\}_1, \ldots, \{(p,q)\}_C \) relative to camera;
14. \hspace{2em} else
15. \hspace{3em} report critical error and goto 1;
16. \hspace{1em} adjust camera’s pose according to the reported status;
17. \hspace{1em} set \( r_b = \text{mean}\{r_1, \ldots, r_C\} \), where \( \{r_1, \ldots, r_C\} \) are obtained by Alg.2 called in Step 8 above;
18. \hspace{1em} def start/end points \( (r,s)_0, (r,s)_1 \) relative to center of \( \{(p,q)\}_1, \ldots, \{(p,q)\}_C \) during streaming with guideline tool;
19. \hspace{1em} calculate the distance between \( (r,s)_0 \) and \( (r,s)_1 \) in camera space as \( L \);
20. \hspace{1em} return IR base threshold \( w \), blob base radius, \( r_b \) walking line length \( L \) and visualize start and end points \( (r,s)_0, (r,s)_1 \) in IR/RGB stream.

**B. Model**

Following calibration of the experimental environment, a unique complete subject model for sagittal gait analysis is constructed for every individual subject by physically measuring the subject standing at the location shown as X in Fig.3, specifically measuring \( H_0^*, H_7^* \), and \( W_3^* \) to \( W_9^* \) (as shown in Fig.5) after all markers have been mapped in 3D space. The model is clustered into three parts: upper body, limb and foot models shown in Fig.5. For each frame, the model comprises the following: (i) position of all detected markers, (ii) geometric relationship between markers, (iii) virtual lines \( L_{13-16} \) relative to the marker positions.

Each marker is labelled by examining all potential marker
groups for upper body, limb and foot models using Alg.5, scanning each IR frame from left-top to right-bottom. In particular, the shoulder (SHO) marker is first chosen as the top marker in the first frame that shows the subject in the sagittal plane and is labelled within the region around virtual line L12, predicted by Kalman filtering [34] using the marker position in the previous frames and its velocity. Then, all relevant distances (see Fig.5) are updated using the subject position in the previous frames and its velocity. Once geometric relationships (distances, matching errors due to complete occlusion occurrences on hip model of the previous/reference frame in order to solve model relevant distances (see Fig.5) are updated using the subject

C. Kinematics Analysis

Once all the markers have been labelled, kinematics analysis commences, closely following the relative joint angle and gait cycle definitions from [24]. The relative trajectories of knee, ankle, and heel markers to the floor are examined to detect the following gait phases: initial contact, loading response, mid stance, terminal stance, pre-swing, initial swing, mid swing and terminal swing.

If a marker is occluded (full marker occlusion happens occasionally on the hip and femur markers), we adopt the 2nd or 4th cubic Bezier curve interpolation [40] according to the occlusion length. The same curve interpolation is also used for marker trajectory resampling (from 30 fps to 100 fps) to obtain more samples for measuring gait associated data (and also for benchmarking with the 100fps gold standard VICON). We measure step and stride length, stance and swing phase based on the resampled trajectories of heel, ankle, and hip markers as explained next.

Algorithm 5: Marker Labelling

**Input:** From Alg.2:
- Centroids for n markers, \((p, q)\)_1, \ldots, \((p, q)\)_n;
- Markers’ radius, \(r_{m1}, \ldots, r_{mn}\);
- Markers’ region radius, \(r_{r1}, \ldots, r_{rn}\);
- Marker positions in the previous frame, \(F\);

**Output:** Labelled/named markers
1. predict SHO marker from \(F\) using Kalman Filter [34];
2. if \(SHO\) not found then
   3. set centroid of the predicted region as SHO marker with radius and region radius as in \(F\);
4. calculate all \(W\)'s and \(L\)'s values shown in Fig.5 using the current model (see Subsection IV-B);
5. order all markers in the region of L12 and L13 by X-coordinate;
6. determine the most-likely marker cluster for upper body based on D0, D1, D2 (see Subsection IV-B);
7. order markers under L13 by Y, and X afterwards.
8. divide lower limb markers into two clusters by evaluating 6 markers nearest to the ground by testing all possible clusters for the triangle foot model.
9. combine markers on the other side of the body into the triangle foot model in the upper limb region according to Y-coordinates;
10. determine the other side’s foot position by checking its relative position with knee and foot marker;
11. map labelled \((p, q)\)_1, \ldots, \((p, q)\)_n using Alg.3 with \(r_{m1}, \ldots, r_{mn}\) and \(r_{r1}, \ldots, r_{rn}\);
12. return labelled/named markers;

Fig. 5. Sagittal Model. 12 visible markers are marked with green circles. 2 partial invisible markers are shown in circle outlines. ‘R’ (‘L’) denotes right (left) marker. For example, RPSIS is the right posterior superior iliac spine marker [25].

Fig. 6. Heel Horizontal Axis [25]

Fig. 7. Heel Vertical Axis [25]

1) Step and Stride Length: This task can be simplified into extracting stable values, where the heel marker trajectory
Algorithm 6: Inflection Points Searching

**Input:** Vertical coordinate of heel marker trajectory \( T \) (e.g., see y-axis on Fig.7)
- Level resolution, \( \gamma \);
- Range left clip rate, \( \xi \);
- Range right clip rate, \( \phi \);
- Local range length boundary, \( \tau \);

**Output:** Inflection points \( \eta \); estimates for each range between two consecutive inflection points. These points correspond to heel strikes to the floor. Once the left and right heel’s horizontal stable values are found, the step and stride length can be calculated using the adjacent stable values over time, i.e., as \( \psi_{i+1} - \psi_i \).

2) Gait Phases Detection: Gait events of heel strike and toe off are used to measure the stance and swing duration using heel marker trajectory vertical axis values. An example is shown in Fig.7, where \( \eta_0, \eta_1, \eta_2, \eta_3 \) denote inflection points, and \( \rho_0, \rho_1 \) local extremum, \( D_2 \) via our proposed global gradient filtering algorithm, Alg.6, instead of using an averaging filter as in [25]. The proposed algorithm quantizes the heel marker vertical axis trajectory and then searches each quantization region between the inflection points from the quantized region between the inflection points from the global minimum to the maximum by iteratively regrouping the scanned points. We heuristically set the quantization step-size (level resolution), \( \gamma = 0.05 \), the range left and right clip rate, \( \xi = \phi = 0.33 \), and the local range length boundary, \( \tau = 3 \) for extracting the inflection points and local peaks in order to obtain the relative time of heel strike and toe off through angle variation between the floor line and the line from toe to heel. A boolean variable ‘locked’ is used in Alg.6 as a flag for each range between two consecutive inflection points. For a given range \( p \), in Step 18, \( \min(p) \) and \( \max(p) \)'s lock levels denote the (local) minima (maxima) below (above) range \( p \).

V. Visualization & Results

The proposed framework is demonstrated using an MS Kinect v2 sensor [11], though other sensors can be used, e.g., commercially available MS Kinect v1 [41], Intel RealSense R200 [13], SoftKinetic DepthSense Cameras [12]. The MS Kinect v2 sensor outputs 16-bit 512x424 pixel resolution of IR and depth images at 30fps. A user-friendly interface to the proposed underlying framework is designed for the proposed gait analysis application. It supports the following features:

Fig. 8 shows the snapshot of the software, which shows how convenient it is to access the recorded experiments by selecting the tracker tool. Users can also view the automatic reconstruction process within our multimedia application or manually playback the whole experiment. Autonomous analysis is performed and gait associated parameters are generated afterwards. These data (including joint angles, movement patterns, gait phases, step and stride length, swing and stance duration) can be easily accessed within the analyzer toolbox. For the rehabilitation application, a diagnostics interface is developed to report the patient’s condition.

The proposed gait analysis application, and inherently the proposed framework and its six algorithms, was tested using 92 independent experiments with 14 subjects (11 males and 3 females), including 9 stroke survivors, and 25633 frames. Knee angle \( \alpha \), step length \( \zeta \), stride length \( \xi \), stance and swing duration were measured as illustrated in Fig.9.
Evaluation of our proposed dynamic adaptive threshold analysis algorithm, Alg. 1, on an Intel i7-4710HQ 2.5GHz CPU, Windows10 OS, implemented by Visual C++, against the static-threshold marker detection algorithm of [25], [42] indicates higher detection accuracy as shown in Table II. However, it introduces an extra preprocessing step which increases the processing time by roughly 1ms per frame. In addition, the speed of Alg.1 depends on the physical distance between the marker and the sensor, which influences the size of the search region for the marker in IR image. This distance is dependent on subject body dimensions and their walking direction. However, as will be shown next, the proposed blob detection threshold analysis algorithm simplifies the following processing steps, making the overall processing faster.

The performance of the proposed marker identification algorithm, Alg.2, is evaluated for each marker using recall rate of marker centroid’s distance error (within error reference \( \beta = 0.5, 1.5, 2.5 \)), that is, the average number of frames where the distance between the detected marker centroid and its true position is within \( \beta \). Fig.10 shows the recall rate increments of 8 experiments for 12 markers using our proposed algorithm and the algorithm of [25] when \( \beta = 0.5 \) pixel. It can be seen that the recall rate has been improved by about 3~9% especially for those markers that are attached to feet (ankle, toe, heel, another foot’s toe and heel) where out-of-plane, motion blur are most likely to occur.

Averaged results over all experiments and all markers are shown in Tab.III. It can be seen that the proposed Alg.2 significantly outperforms the previous approach in terms of both accuracy and the overall execution time.

The knee angle measurement performance is next evaluated

![Knee angle, step and stride length.](image)

Fig. 9. Knee angle, step and stride length.

![Recall Rate Increments when \( \beta = 0.5 \) for 8 of experiments. Top boundary of each incremental rectangle is the recall rate using the proposed algorithm and bottom boundary is the one using the algorithm of [25].](image)

Fig. 10. Recall Rate Increments when \( \beta = 0.5 \) for 8 of experiments. Top boundary of each incremental rectangle is the recall rate using the proposed algorithm and bottom boundary is the one using the algorithm of [25].

![Knee Angle Comparison with VICON.](image)

Fig. 11. Knee angle comparison with VICON.

### Table II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Algorithms</th>
<th>Detected (%)</th>
<th>Time (ms/frame)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Static Threshold [25]</td>
<td>91.44 ± 3.52</td>
<td>0.15 ± 0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptive Threshold</td>
<td>98.08 ± 1.08</td>
<td>1.21 ± 0.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table III

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Proposed</th>
<th>Previous [25]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aver. callback (( \beta = 0.5 ))</td>
<td>95.86 ± 1.64</td>
<td>88.12 ± 2.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aver. callback (( \beta = 1.5 ))</td>
<td>97.32 ± 1.75</td>
<td>90.84 ± 2.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aver. callback (( \beta = 2.5 ))</td>
<td>98.04 ± 1.73</td>
<td>92.10 ± 2.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time (ms/frame)</td>
<td>7.72 ± 1.16</td>
<td>117.53 ± 17.94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Evaluation of accuracy of detecting gait events is performed by manually selecting the key frames and examining (with expert knowledge) the whole IR image sequence with corresponding static point clouds captured during the experiments, which are used as reference (i.e., ground truth), for validating the step and stride length, stance and swing duration. In order to evaluate the performance of swing phase detection, results were averaged to obtain the mean percentage error and percentage standard deviation in Table IV. It can be seen from the table, that the mean and standard deviation of the error are very small and slightly decreased with the proposed system compared to that of [25], attributed to the proposed Alg.6.
by calculating root-mean-square error (RMSE) for each of the 40 experiments between the proposed framework and VICON. This is compared with the RMSE calculated from the system of [25] with VICON. The RMSE results are shown in Fig.12 as RMSE per experiment, where the effect of the algorithmic improvements over the previous system is clearly illustrated by reduced RMSE for all 40 experiments. Lower RMSE for the proposed system is attributed to the adaptive thresholding and the improved marker detection/labelling method. The maximum RMSE with the proposed system was under 6 degrees. Note that VICON returns joint trajectories instead of marker trajectories, thus a potential error comes from the misalignment between marker positions and actual joints.

![Fig. 12. Knee angle RMSE over 40 experiments.](image)

Fig. 12 shows two examples of knee joint angle during three walking cycles for two stroke survivors obtained by the proposed system. Comparing these results with those of the 4 healthy subjects shown in Fig.11, the effect of stroke is noticeable indicating movement abnormalities unique to each individual. This clearly shows the need for a person-centric framework, as proposed in this paper.

![Fig. 13. Knee angle for two stroke survivors.](image)

VI. CONCLUSIONS

A novel framework is proposed for motion assessment using a single depth camera based on simultaneous marker detection and identification in 3D space and model-based kinematics analysis. Both the optical motion capture system and gait analysis application are evaluated over close to 100 sequences, involving 9 stroke survivors and 5 healthy subjects, and benchmarked against the 12 camera state-of-the-art VICON system. In contrast to VICON and similar industrial standards, the proposed framework, which supports a portable sensor for capturing experiments, is suitable for tele-rehabilitation programs through our visualization, presentation and rehabilitation interfaces built in our proposed application. Validation results indicate high accuracy for sagittal plane gait analysis, which makes the system practical in clinical tests for different rehabilitation studies. Furthermore, our application-specific results clearly show the need for a person-centric framework, as proposed in this paper.

In the proposed framework, algorithms associated with optical motion capture are generic to any application while only Algs. 4, 6 and 5 are application specific. Hence, only the latter three need modification for different rehabilitation exercises that require motion analysis. While the results are presented for the rehabilitation walking exercise in the sagittal plane view only, the overall framework has also been tested for frontal view motion analysis (see for example [6] for assessing upper limb movement), where the same markers can be attached on both sides of the body and a frontal view model pre-configured similar to Fig. 5.

Future work comprises testing the framework performance using different depth cameras [13] and improving depth map recovery.

REFERENCES


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Andrew Kerr practised as a physiotherapist in the National Health Service (UK) for 10 years before undertaking postgraduate study at the University of Nottingham and Glasgow Caledonian University where he also worked as a lecturer. In 2010 he joined the Biomedical Engineering Department at Strathclyde University to conduct clinical research in the area of stroke rehabilitation and has been awarded several grants in this area. His primary motivation in research is the understanding of human movement through biomechanics. Specifically his interests lie in how individuals with impaired movement e.g. stroke, perform transitions between movement patterns.