Evaluation of Bird Detection using Time-lapse Images around a Wind Farm

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Fig. 1. Appearance of birds in images around a wind farm (left) is significantly different from those in a generic image-recognition dataset (right).

ABSTRACT

One of the primary environmental concerns of wind farms is the increase in bird mortality. To assess environmental risks around wind farms, the demand for automatic bird monitoring increases rapidly. Considering recent advancements in object detection methods in computer vision, automated monitoring based on images is promising. However, the accuracy of stateof-the-art methods in a practical environment remains uncertain due to the significant difference between the images taken in a practical environment and those used in generic object detection competitions. This study evaluates these image-based bird detection and classification methods. We also introduce a bird monitoring system with a whole image processing pipeline. For evaluation in a practical environment, we utilize an open-access time-lapse image dataset around a wind farm. As a state-of-the-art method, we include convolutional neural networks, a rising method of deep learning for image recognition, which shows performance improvement.

Index Terms— Image recognition, bird detection, ecological conservation, social acceptance

1. INTRODUCTION

Environmental concerns in developing wind farms have been highlighted by both the wind-energy community and ecological experts [1, 2, 3] as the demand for wind power energy grows rapidly around the world to meet public policies for renewable energy. One of the primary concerns is the increase in bird mortality caused by collision with blades, loss of nesting and feeding grounds, and interception on migratory routes [3, 4, 5, 6]. Hundreds of annual bird fatalities, including those of charismatic species, have been reported at several sites [6]. To assess such risks during the establishment and operation of wind farms, investigation of bird ecology and assessment of potential risks are necessary. Conventional bird monitoring has been carried out by manual observation, which is expensive and laborious [7]. Automation in this task can lower the cost, enable longterm monitoring, and lead to higher accuracy and reproducibility. However, an automatic system is required to perform bird detection as well as classification of bird species, both of which have been non-trivial for machines to achieve.

Image-based detection using cameras is one of the promising approaches [8, 9, 7, 10], while radarbased [11, 12, 13] and acoustic-based [14] detections have been commonplace in the literature. Rich visual information with a higher resolution can be utilized, and the recognition performance has improved dramatically in the last decade, owing to the availability of big data, high performance computers, and algorithm improvement in machine learning and computer vision research fields. Reviewing recent milestones in computer vision, robust features have been invented [15, 16, 17], good classifiers have been found [18, 19], good image structures have been established [22, 23, 24], and



Image capturing

Image processing on a laptop PC

Fig. 2. Overview of our image processing pipeline for bird detection and classification.

object detection competitions using them have been held [22, 25]. Deep neural networks [26] have likewise resulted in further improvement in detection and classification during these competitions [27, 25]. Their strength is in their adaptive learning of features and classifiers during training.

However, despite the excitement over these improvements, the advancement, accuracy, precision, and recall of such state-of-the-art methods in practical environments for wild bird monitoring remain uncertain. An exception is May et al.'s work reporting that DTBird detected 76% to 96% of total birds in an experimental setting in Smøla [9]. In practical environments around wind farms, birds tend to appear in low resolution even in a high resolution image since the monitoring system has to cover a wide field of view to assess the distribution of birds and to notice the approach of birds well ahead of time. Figure 1 shows such images. As shown in the figure, the actual appearance of birds is significantly different from those used in generic object detection competitions [27, 25], in which most of the methods are designed and experimented. It is not clear whether these methods are suitable for low-resolution images.

To reveal the actual precision and recall of stateof-the-art methods for low-resolution bird detection and classification, this study utilizes a wild bird image dataset around a wind farm as a benchmark [28] and evaluates the performance of several state-of-theart methods, including one utilizing deep neural networks. In addition, we present a whole image processing pipeline of an automated bird monitoring system for wind farms, about which very few scientific papers discuss. Our system utilizes background subtraction [29] and convolutional neural networks (CNN) [30] for accurate and robust detection and classification.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes our bird detection and classification pipeline. Section 3 experimentally [Inst1]evaluates the performance of state-of-the-art detection and classification methods. Section 4 concludes this paper.



Fig. 3. Image features used in the system, Haar-like [17] (left) and HOG [16] (right).

2. BIRD DETECTION AND CLASSIFICATION PIPELINE

Our bird monitoring system consists of a fixed camera, a laptop computer for control, and recognition software. It captures images automatically and processes them to detect and classify birds as shown in Fig. 2. The core algorithm is based on machine learning for robustness, and the details are evaluated below. The system is able to discriminate birds from others or a species of birds from others after the training phase. During training, the classifier is optimized in accordance with training images including birds and others.

2.1. Setup

We use a still camera with a telephoto setup to capture a bird with a one-meter wing span 580 meters away that would cover an area of 20 pixels in the image, considering the distance between the camerafs location and the wind turbine. This setup enables us to monitor a wide area suitable for bird investigation, including the wind turbine. The resolution of the sensor is 5616 times 3744 pixels, and the field of view is 27 times 19 degrees. The interval of image capture is two seconds because of the transfer rate between the camera and the laptop.

2.2. Algorithm

Our algorithm is a combination of background subtraction [29] and object classification. Background subtraction is a method for extracting moving objects from fixed backgrounds and works well with our scenes that are mostly static. However, regions extracted still include some background objects, such as parts of the turbine, trees, or clouds; thus, we utilize machine learning-based classifiers to filter birds from others.

Specifically, we will compare the following two classifiers in the next section: First is AdaBoost [18], a widely used learning algorithm in computer vision. This algorithm is often combined with image features such as Haar-like [17] or Histogram of Orientated Gradients (HOG) [16] for further robustness. The performance of these methods is known to depend highly on both the types of targets (faces, people, birds, etc.) and scene properties (indoor, street, wind farm, etc.).

Second is convolutional neural networks (CNN) [30], the most successful deep networks for object recognition to date. The strength of CNN is that it learns features by itself; *i.e.*, it does not need manually designed image features that are not guaranteed to be optimal. Yet, it is important to reveal whether CNN outperforms others on low-resolution detection and classification tasks. Since CNN is unexplored, it is therefore unclear what types of data and tasks it prefers.

Below, we briefly explain the details of each method. AdaBoost AdaBoost [18] is a two-class classifier based on feature selection and weighted majority voting. A strong classifier is made as a weighted sum of many weak classifiers, and the resulting classifier is shallow but robust. The algorithm overview is as follows.[Inst2] First, we uniformly initialize the weights of the training samples. Second, we select one weak classifier with the lowest error rate using the weighted training samples. Third, the weight of the selected weak classifier is set on the basis of the error it produces. A larger weight is set for a smaller error rate, since weak classifiers with smaller error rates are more reliable. Fourth, we update the weights of training samples based on the error rate of the reweighted classifier. Then, we iterate from the second to the fourth step a fixed number of times.

Haar-like Haar-like [17] is an image feature that utilizes contrasts in images. It extracts the light and the shade of objects by using black-and-white patterns as shown in the left figure in Fig. 3. Haar-like first succeeded in face detection [17] and is used as a fast and robust feature.

HOG HOG [16] is a feature used for grasping the approximated shape of objects. A visualized HOG is shown in the right figure in Fig. 3. First it computes the spatial gradient of the image and makes a histogram of

the quantized direction of the gradient in each local region, called a cell in the image. Next it concatenates the histograms of the cells in the neighboring groups of the cells, the blocks, and normalizes them by dividing by their Euclidean norms in each block. HOG was first used for pedestrian detection and afterwards applied to various tasks including generic object detection.

CNN [30] is a type of neural network charac-CNN terized by convolutional layers. Convolution is an operation which associates an image with a feature map by using the inner product between each patch in the input image and another fixed patch, called a kernel. In CNN, each convolutional layer has multiple kernels and outputs multi-channel feature maps. These kernels in the convolutional layers are interpreted as connection weights between neurons and are optimized in training. Other components of CNN are pooling layers and fullyconnected layers. Pooling layers are placed after convolutional layers to downsample feature maps. These layers output lower-resolution feature maps by taking the maximum in each local region, e.g., a two-by-two patch, in input feature maps. Fully-connected layers are placed at the end of the network. These layers perform as a classifier, which receives the features from convolutional and pooling layers and outputs the class of the input image.

Among the variations of CNN architectures, ours is based on one of the handwriting recognition methods [30] and refined by utilizing two recent discoveries for improving performance: Rectified linear units (ReLU) and dropout from [26]. ReLU is a type of activation function, that is, the relationship between input and output in a single neuron. It requires a low computing cost and is easy to optimize due to its simple derivative. Among the variety of functions, the effectiveness of ReLU was discovered recently. ReLU is formulated as follows.

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \max\{0, \mathbf{w}\mathbf{x} + b\}$$

Here w is weight parameters and b is a bias parameter. Dropout is a training heuristic for removing neurons selected randomly in each iteration of parameter updates. Removed neurons are regarded to output zero independently from their inputs. The whole network is shown in Fig. 4.

The training of CNN is to compute the weights and biases which minimize the classification error rate. For this purpose, gradient methods are widely used. We use stochastic gradient descent [31]. This method allows us to approximately acquire the minimum with a relatively low computational cost.



Fig. 4. CNN architecture we used. This is based on a handwriting recognition method [30].



Black kite Undefined bird Undefined object **Fig. 5**. Structure of dataset [28]. It includes time-lapse images, bounding boxes of birds and other flying objects, and their class labels.

3. EVALUATION EXPERIMENTS

3.1. Bird Image Dataset for Training and Evaluation

For the performance evaluation of bird detection and classification methods, we utilize a dataset of birds at a wind farm [28]. This dataset offers open access and has preferable attributes; it contains a large amount of data and presents a detailed specification of birds. The dataset [28] is a sequence of images of a scene at a wind farm, and it provides annotations of bird information appearing in the images as shown in Fig. 5. Annotations were added to the images by bird experts who are members of a bird association and have experience in field surveys. They checked the image timelines, found birds, and annotated bounding boxes with class labels for each bird. 32,442 images were processed and 32,973 birds were found.

3.2. Experimental Procedure

Using the dataset, we conducted two recognition experiments: bird detection and two-class species classification. Below, *detection* is defined as a classification of birds and non-birds, given the candidate regions suggested from motion information. *Classification* is defined as a classification between hawks and crows,

which is a fundamental task in a bird-monitoring system. They are the most frequent classes of birds in the area, and we have a sufficient amount of data for accurate evaluation. This two-class classification is also practical because many endangered species are included in hawks.

For any machine learning methods, we need positive and negative samples for training. In the detection experiment, positive samples (birds) were collected from bird regions labeled in the dataset. Negative samples (non-birds) are background regions clipped by background subtraction. Examples of the birds and non-birds are shown in Fig. 6. We used five-fold crossvalidation to efficiently conduct the experiment on this dataset.

In the classification experiment, hawks labeled in the dataset are positive samples, and crows are negative samples. Classification is a more difficult task than detection in this dataset; thus, in order to analyze each method's behaviors in detail, we investigated the effect of image resolution by dividing the positive and negative images into groups on the basis of resolution. Specifically, images of hawks and crows are divided into the groups of 15–20, 21–30, and 31–50 pixels, as shown in Fig. 6. On each group, we conducted holdout validation using 800 hawks and 150 crows for training data and others for test data.

In these experiments, we evaluated CNN [30], as well as AdaBoost [18] combined with three types of features, Haar-like [17], Histogram of Orientated Gradients (HOG) [16] features, and RGB (image pixel values without transformation). For reproducibility, we list the parameters of each algorithm in the following. As for CNN, we used the architecture of [30] with the exception of inputting color images and using more effective non-linearity from [26]. For the training of CNN, we used stochastic gradient descent [31], and we set the learning rate at iteration *i* to $0.001(1 + 0.0001i)^{-0.75}$, momentum to 0.9, and weight decay to 0.0005 as optimization parameters. In AdaBoost, we set the number of weak



Fig. 6. Bird and non-bird image examples. Bird images are grouped by resolutions.

classifiers to 400. The feature patterns for Haar-like were the same as [17], and the pattern sizes were 2, 6, and 10 pixels square. The cell size of HOG was 4 pixels square, and the block size was 3 by 3 cells.

tures performed better in the 15–20 pixels group and HOG in the 30–50 pixels group.

4. **DISCUSSION**

3.3. Results

We evaluated the detection and classification performances using two measures, true positive rate (TPR) and false positive rate (FPR). TPR is given as the number of true positives divided by the number of all positives in the test data. FPR is the number of false positives divided by the number of all negatives in the test data. Because there is a trade-off between TPR and FPR, the total performance of an algorithm is represented by the receiver operating characteristic curve (ROC), a curve drawn by FPR and TPR of each point on the trade-off. A curve near the upper-left corner means better performance.

The result of detection is shown in Fig. 7. In the figure, FPR means the rate of misrecognizing backgrounds as birds, and TPR means the rate of correctly recognizing birds. The best performance is achieved by Haar-like. At the false positive rate of 0.01, over 0.98 of birds are still detected with Haar-like, which is a successful performance. The other methods including CNN showed worse performances.

The result of classification is shown in Fig. 8. Here, FPR is the rate of misrecognizing crows as hawks, and TPR is the rate of correctly recognizing hawks. Because of visual similarity, species classification is more difficult than birds-versus-others classification; thus, lower performance is apparent. The trend of wellperforming methods is also different from detection. CNN performed the best and Haar-like the worst in all resolutions. In addition, the dependency of features' performance on resolution was observed. RGB feaIn the detection experiment, Haar-like outperformed others, and the performance difference among those except Haar-like is subtle. This may be due to the low quality of the images. Haar-like is a simple feature for grasping only the contrast in images. More complex features like HOG can represent details of images and are preferred in tasks like pedestrian detection and generic

resolution bird detection. Similarly, CNN may have failed to learn effective features from the data. The performance of CNN depends on the parameters of the network and optimization. Although we used the parameters established in handwriting recognition [30], there may exist better parameters for our images. More efforts for parameter search may improve the performance.

object detection. However, it can be less robust for low-

Fig. 9 shows example images that are misrecognized as birds by Haar-like. They are moving backgrounds such as parts of the turbine, trees blown by the wind, and flying objects such as airplanes and insects. Flying objects are more difficult negatives due to their visual similarity to birds. Note that the number of false detections depends on the number of negative samples in the data. More negative samples mean more false detections with the same false positive rate. Thus, the actual number of false detections can change depending on the test environments.

In the experiment of classification, CNN outperformed the other methods in all groups with different resolution. In contrast, Haar-like, which performed the best in detection, resulted in the worst performance.



Fig. 7. Results of detection (bird-versus-others).



Fig. 9. Example images that are misdetected as birds.

The hand-crafted features may be less effective in classification because of the subtle difference between the classes. Conversely, the learned features of CNN succeeded in adapting to the classification task through training.

Fig. 10 shows examples of correct and wrong classification with CNN in each resolution group. Visually similar images are sometimes correctly classified but sometimes not. Instead of high performance, CNN does not have explicit trends in its misclassification because of the black-box process of training. of recognition performance. We showed successful results for detection and the possibility of species classification using image recognition. The effectiveness of rising CNN in classification is also observed. However, there is room for performance improvement, especially in species classification. Improvement of the software for more accurate bird monitoring is necessary. Our system is a hopeful solution to bird strikes and can contribute to the social acceptance of wind energy.

Fig. 8. Results of classification (hawk-versus-crow).

5. CONCLUSION

To evaluate a bird monitoring system on the basis of time-lapse images, we have conducted experiments of bird detection and classification. By using a dataset from a realistic environment and representative methods in computer vision, we provided practical results

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Fig. 10. Example images of correct and wrong classification in each resolution group.

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