

Introduction

Autonomously accounting for obstacle occlusion is an open problem for self-driving cars. Dempster-Shafer Theory (DST) provides a scene-understanding and information fusion strategy that addresses occlusion by modeling both lack of information and conflicting information directly [3]. DST can combine sensor and digital streetlevel map occupancy grids to discern cells that contain potential hazards from cells that are navigable by the vehicle. The perception system can then anticipate areas where occluded hazards may appear. DST has been previously used as a preprocessing step to a CNN in both semantic segmentation and object detection [9, 5].

Problem Statement

The approach in [3] is sensitive to parameters that require manual tuning to discern static and moving obstacles. This work focuses on merging the FCN semantic segmentation approach in [4] with the information fusion algorithm presented in [3], to increase the latter's robustness in discerning occupancy grid cells containing static and moving objects from navigable space as compared with DST alone. An offset is learned between the perception grid output of the DST algorithm and the expected semantic labels. The effectiveness of the approach is measured in reference to the DST baseline using the intersection over union (IU) metric for each of the classes.

Dataset

The KITTI tracking dataset [1] was augmented for use in information fusion. Four driving sequences were selected for training (140 examples), two for validation (48 examples) and two for testing (64 examples). The augmented dataset consists of a geographic information system (GIS) grid [6, 7], a sensor grid containing HDL-64E Velodyne LIDAR data, and the labeled perception grid segmentation. These grids are created for each ego vehicle GPS coordinate, which is obtained every 1 s or 2 s depending on the sequence [1]. The datasets contain an imbalanced class distribution with only 0.09% static cells and 0.26% moving cells in the training set.



Figure 1: Example from the training dataset. From left to right, the figures are: GIS grid, sensor grid, and the perception grid labels. The grids are of dimension $42.7m \ge 42.7m$, with the ego vehicle in the center. Given a discretization of 0.33m per grid cell, each grid is of size 256×256 cells.

Methodology

The inputs to the baseline DST algorithm in [3] are the current sensor and GIS grids as well as the perception grid at the previous time-step. The DST framework is incorporated into an FCN architecture to optimize grid sensitivity. The input to the FCN is the set of probabilistic perception grids generated by the DST algorithm at the current and previous time-step stacked in channels (10 channels total). By providing the current and previous DST perception grids as inputs, the FCN should be able to learn the appropriate temporal information to classify moving and static cells effectively. The architecture is based on [4]; it consists of 16 pre-trained convolutional layers of VGG-19 interspersed with dropout and pooling operations, followed by 2 convolutional layers and 3 deconvolutional layers. To make the 10-channel DST occupancy grids compatible with the VGG model, an additional convolutional layer was added at the start to reduce the input channel number to three. Since the segmentation output is of occupancy grid dimension, a modified cross-entropy loss is used, where the loss is weighted to resolve class imbalance and summed over all grid cells. The Adam solver [2] is used to optimize the FCN parameters.



Figure 2: Example of the DST output; each plot shows a probabilistic occupancy grid associated with the semantic class label.



IU is often used for semantic segmentation to directly account for class imbalance.

FCN-DS FCN-DS

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Experimental Results

	learning rate	keep probability	batch size
FCN	1e-4	0.85	32

Table 1: Tuned model hyper-parameters based on IU metric.
 The metric used to evaluate the performance of the proposed algorithm is IU:

$$IU = \frac{TP}{FP + TP + FN}$$

Navigable Non-Navigable Building Static Moving N	wican
DST IU val 0.923 0.946 0.884 0.00737 0.0116 0	0.555
ST IU val 0.85 0.83 1.00 0.00135 0.0140 0	0.539
DST IU test 0.885 0.923 0.886 0.0 0.000649 0	0.539
ST IU test0.7750.7861.000.0005580.001200	0.512

Table 2: IU evaluations for each class on the validation and test sets.



Table 2 shows that the tuned FCN architecture achieves a higher mean IU than DST alone. However, it undesirably reduces the "static" and "moving" IUs in favor of the more frequent classes. In experiment, increasing the loss weights of these infrequent classes further, in an attempt to counteract this phenomenon, resulted in less effective learning, likely due to insufficient data.

Furthermore, despite the loss curves in Figure 3 showing overfitting, the mean IU continued to increase, indicating that the cross-entropy loss may not be representative of the IU metric. A method to utilize IU directly as a loss in a binary classification problem has been proposed in [8]. Extending this formulation to multi-class segmentation may improve the effectiveness of the proposed approach.

Conclusions and Future Work

The FCN-DST framework outperformed the DST baseline in the mean IU metric. However, little improvement was achieved in discerning moving and static cells due to insufficient data and a loss that was not representative of the evaluation metric. In future work, to improve the accuracy of the model, further pre-processing should be performed on the dataset, including the use of ground segmentation techniques instead of hand-annotated labels [10]. This would significantly expand the size of the dataset, facilitating more effective learning. Additionally, the loss should be restructured such that it is based directly on the IU criterion.

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Figure 3: (left) Loss profile over iterations. (right) IU metric profile over iterations.

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