
Semantic Segmentation With Multi Scale Spatial Attention For Self Driving Cars

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Abstract

In this paper, we present an architecture using multi scale feature fusion at various scales for accurate and efficient semantic image segmentation. We have used dilated convolutional layers in downsampling layers and transposed convolutional layers in the upsampling layers and used concat layers to merge them. We have used skip connections in between alternate blocks which are comprised of convolutional and max pooling layers. We present an in depth theoretical analysis of our network with training and optimization details. We evaluated our network on the Camvid dataset using mean accuracy per class and Intersection Over Union (IOU) as the evaluation metrics on the test set. Our model outperforms previous state of the art on semantic segmentation achieving mean IOU value of 74.12 while running at >100 FPS.

1 Introduction

Convolutional neural networks has seen a lot of success in tasks involving classification, detection and segmentation. These include bounding box object detection, pose estimation and keypoint prediction, and image segmentation. CNN-based neural networks advances, such as dropout (Srivastava et al., 2014) and batch normalization (Sergey et al., 2015) have helped avoid some of the common challenges faced earlier like the curse of dimensionality and vanishing gradient problem while training neural networks. Convolutional networks are now leading many computer vision tasks, including image classification (Deng et al., 2012), object detection (Girshick et al., 2014, Zhu et al., 2015, Liu et al., 2015) and semantic image segmentation (Chen et al., 2016, Li et al., 2014, Zhao et al., 2016). Semantic segmentation is also known as scene parsing, which aims to classify each and every pixel present in the image. It is one of the most challenging and important tasks in computer vision. The famous fully convolutional network (FCN) (Long et al., 2014) for semantic segmentation is based on VGG-Net (Simonyan et al., 2014), which is trained on the famous ImageNet dataset (Deng et al., 2009).

Segmentation task is different from classification task because it requires predicting a class for each and every pixel of the input image, instead of only discrete classes for the whole input images. In order to predict what is present in the input for each and every pixel, segmentation needs to find not only what is in the input image, but also where it is. . It has a number of potential applications in the fields of autonomous driving, video surveillance, medical imaging etc. This is a challenging problem as there is often a tradeoff between the accuracy and speed. Since the model eventually needs to be deployed in real world setting, hence both accuracy and speed should be high.

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2 Related Work

State-of-the-art methods on semantic segmentation have heavily relied on CNN models trained on large labeled datasets. Fully convolutional networks (FCN) trained pixels-to-pixels using skip connections that combines semantic information from a deep, coarse layer with appearance information from a shallow, fine layer to produce accurate and detailed segmentations. Convolution layers with a kernel size of 1x1 take the place of fully connected layers, followed by unpooling layers to recover the spatial resolution of the feature maps. The success of FCN is due to the great improvements in performance and because it showed that CNN can efficiently learn how to make dense class predictions for semantic segmentation. After FCN, recent proposed models are mainly designed by (1) bringing out novel decoder structure of the networks (Girshick et al., 2014, Badrinarayanan et al., 2016); (2) adopting more efficient basic classification models (Liu et al., 2016, Bittel et al., 2015); (3) adding integrating context knowledge with some independent modules (Zhu et al., 2015, Ronneberger et al., 2015). SegNet (Badrinarayanan et al., 2016) used an alternative decoder variant, in which an encoder decoder convolution path was proposed. Another deconvolution network was used in (Noh et al., 2015) with a similar decoder path as SegNet, but they adopted deconvolution modules to implement upsampling operations. (Ronneberger et al., 2015) added a 2x2 up-convolution layer, with a concatenation with corresponding pooling layer in U-Net. FCCN (Lin et al., 2016) could also be regarded as an alternative decoder structure.

FCCN (Chen et al., 2018) used atrous spatial pyramid pooling to embed contextual information at various scales which consist of parallel dilated convolutions with different dilation rates. (Zhao et al., 2016) used multi-scale contextual information by combining feature maps generated using different dilated convolutions and pooling operations. (Lin et al., 2017) proposed to fuse mid-level and high-level semantic features using an encoder decoder architecture. (Badrinarayanan et al., 2016). (Paszke et al., 2016) reduced the number of downsampling times to get an extremely tight framework. (Zhao et al., 2018) uses multi-scale images as input and a cascade network to raise efficiency. (Li et al., 2019) uses Subnetwork Aggregation and Sub-stage Aggregation to achieve very high FPS and high accuracy using modified Xception bottleneck. (Yu et al., 2018) uses spatial path to recover spatial information and to implement real-time calculation.

We summarize our main contributions as follows:

- We propose a new model architecture which used dilated convolutional layers in downsampling part and transposed convolutional layers in upsampling at multiple scales.
- We present the layer wise details, optimization and ablation study of our model architecture.
- On evaluating our network on Camvid dataset using mean accuracy per class and IOU, our model outperforms previous state of the art model architectures while running at > 100 FPS.

3 Proposed Method

3.1 Dataset

The Cambridge-driving Labeled Video Database (CamVid) is a collection of videos with object class semantic labels, complete with metadata. The database provides ground truth labels that associate each pixel with one of 32 classes. The images are of size 360*480. A sample image from dataset is shown in Fig 1:

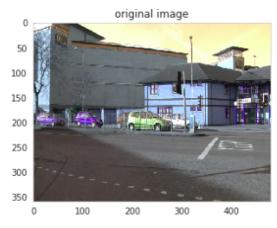


Figure 1: Ground truth image from dataset

The original images are taken as ground truth. For any algorithm, the metrics are always evaluated in comparison to the ground truth data. The ground truth information is provided in the dataset for the training and test set. For semantic segmentation problems, the ground truth includes the image, the classes of the objects in it and a segmentation mask for each and every object present in a particular image.

Since there are a lot of overlaps in between the labels hence for the sake of convenience we have gone with 12 labels. These images are shown in binary format for each label separately in Fig 2:

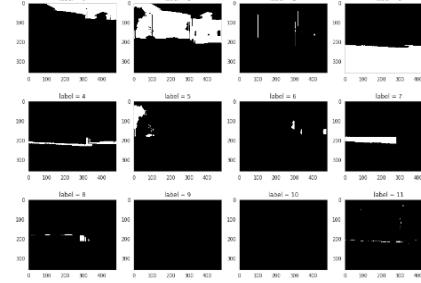


Figure 2: Images converted to binary class mask

The classes chosen from the dataset are Sky, Building, Pole, Road, Pavement, Tree, SignSymbol, Fence, Car, Pedestrian and Bicyclist.

3.2 Model Architecture

We have resized the images to 224*224 pixels which was originally at 360*480 pixels. The reason is that we are using VGG16 as the pretrained backbone which requires input to be of shape 224*224 for training the model instead of training from scratch. We split the dataset into 2 parts with 85 percent images in the training set and 15 percent images in the test set. The loss function used is categorical cross entropy. We used dilated convolution in place of normal convolution layers in downsampling layers. We used transposed convolution in place of normal convolution layers in upsampling layers. We have used four downsampling layers to reduce the feature maps and four upsampling layers to recover the features. We used concat operation in between the layers.

For the convolutional layer we didn't use any padding, used 3×3 filter and use relu as the activation function. For the max pooling layer, we used 2×2 filters and strides of 2×2 . We used VGG16 as the pre trained backbone for training the model. This makes the model learn low level features like edges from the pre trained weights. On top of it we have used two convolutional layers with relu as the activation function and strides of 7×7 and 1×1 respectively. In the upsampling path we used four transposed convolutions layers with 4×4 kernel size and strides of 4×4 . The last layer is also a transposed convolution with 8×8 kernel size and 8×8 filter. Softmax is used as the activation function in the last layer to output discrete probabilities of whether an object is present in a particular pixel location or not. We used Adam as the optimizer. We used a batch size value of 4 which we found to be optimal to avoid overfitting. The details comprised of filter size, dilation, receptive field, feature maps and activation function used at every layer is shown in Table 1:

Table 1: Layer wise details

Layer	1	2	3	4	5	6
FilterSize	3×3	3×3	3×3	3×3	3×3	3×3
Dilation(Width, Height)	(1, 1)	(1, 2)	(2, 4)	(4, 8)	(8, 16)	(16, 32)
Receptive Field	3×3	5×7	9×15	17×31	33×63	65×127
Feature Maps	128	128	128	128	128	32
Non Linearity	ReLU	ReLU	ReLU	ReLU	ReLU	ReLU

The network architecture used in this work is shown in Fig 3:

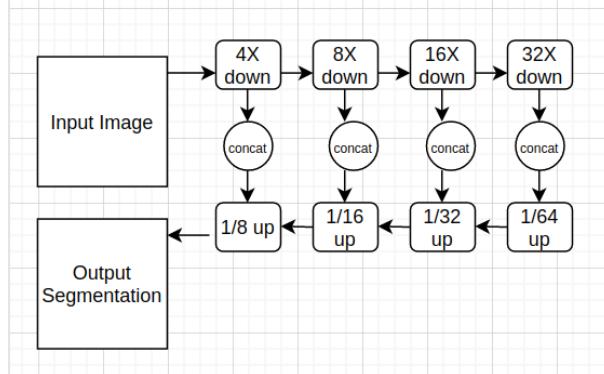


Figure 3: Our Neural network architecture

3.3 Optimization

Suppose given a local feature C , we feed it into a convolution layers to generate two new feature maps B and C respectively. After that we perform a matrix multiplication between the transpose of A and B , and apply a softmax layer to calculate the spatial attention map as shown in Equation 1:

$$s_{ji} = \frac{\exp(A_i \cdot B_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^N \exp(A_i \cdot B_j)} \quad (1)$$

We then perform a matrix multiplication between the transpose of X and A and reshape their results. Then we multiply the result by a scale parameter β and perform an element-wise sum operation with A to obtain the final output as shown in Equation 2:

$$E_j = \alpha \sum_{i=1}^N (s_{ji} D_i) + C_j \quad (2)$$

The Equation 2 shows that the resultant feature of each channel is a weighted sum of the features of all channels and models the semantic dependencies between feature maps at various scales. For a single backbone $\phi_n(x)$, a stage process, the stage in the previous backbone network and sub-stage aggregation method can be formulated as shown in Equation 3:

$$x_n^i = \begin{cases} x_n^{i-1} + \phi_n^i(x_n^{i-1}) \\ [x_n^{i-1}, x_n^i] + \phi_n^i([x_n^{i-1}, x_n^i]) \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

Here i refers to the index of the stage. The effect of the number of pooling layers on Intersection Over Union(IOU) is shown in Table 2. As can be noted, using more pooling layers increases IOU but it's effect is not consistent.

Table 2: Results on Camvid dataset with different numbers of pooling in each stage of the backbone, “ $\times N$ ” means the number of pooling.

Number of pooling	mIoU(%)
Pooling $\times 0$	70.4
Pooling $\times 1$	71.3
Pooling $\times 2$	73.8
Pooling $\times 3$	73.4
Pooling $\times 4$	74.9
Pooling $\times 5$	75.6

The effect of varying the number of branches and fusion methods used in model architecture on IOU is shown in Table 3. Using more number of branches and concat fusion instead of not using one increases the IOU.

Table 3: Results on Camvid dataset with different number of branches and fusion methods.

Number of branches	Fusion methods	mIoU(%)
1	None	74.4
1	concat	75.8
2	None	75.7
2	concat	77.5

4 Experimental Results

In this section we present the results of our work and compare the results we achieved with that of others. The model is trained for 40 epochs and reaches a training mean pixel accuracy of 93 percent and validation mean pixel accuracy of 88 percent. The loss and pixel wise accuracy (both training and test) are plotted as a function of epochs in Fig 4:

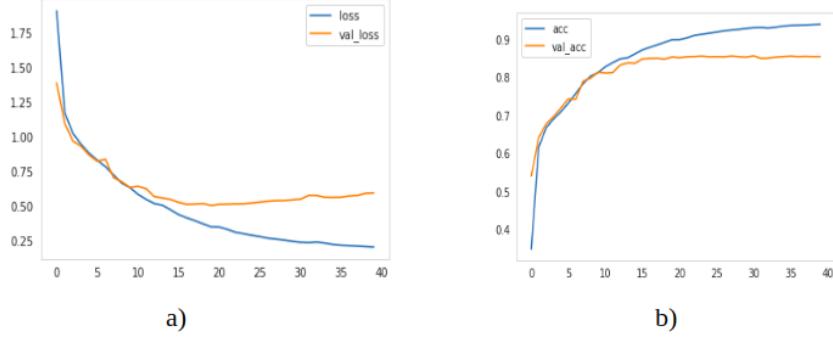


Figure 4: a) Loss vs epochs b) Accuracy vs epochs

For evaluating the performance of our model architecture, we have used two evaluation metrics:

1. Mean Accuracy per-class - This metric outputs the class wise prediction accuracy per pixel.
2. Mean IOU - It is a segmentation performance parameter that measures the overlap between two objects by calculating the ratio of intersection and union with ground truth masks. This metric is also known as Jaccard Index.

The class wise IOU values were calculated using Equation 4.

$$IoU = \frac{TP}{(TP + FP + FN)} \quad (4)$$

Where TP denotes true positive, FP denotes false positive, FN denotes false negative and IOU denotes Intersection over union value.

We next present the class wise IOU values for all the twelve classes present in Table 4.

Table 4: IOU values for all classes

Class	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
IOU	0.923	0.905	0.232	0.947	0.831	0.344	0.569	0.792	0.283	0.261	0.457	0.527

The effect of using multiple blocks, FLOPS and parameters on IOU is shown in Table 5. Here FLOPS and parameters are a measure of computation required by our model architecture.

Table 5: Detailed performance comparison of our proposed aggregation strategy. ' $\times N$ ' means that we replicate N backbones to implement feature aggregation

Model	FLOPs(G)	Params(M)	mIoU(%)
Backbone A	1.4	2.2	64.7
Backbone A $\times 2$	2.3	4.5	65.3
Backbone A $\times 3$	2.7	7.4	62.1
Backbone A $\times 4$	2.9	10.6	57.8
Backbone B	0.8	1.4	59.5
Backbone B $\times 2$	1.2	3.3	61.5
Backbone B $\times 3$	1.4	4.7	56.4
Backbone B $\times 4$	1.5	6.1	52.7

A comparative analysis on FPS and IOU achieved by previous state of the art model architectures vs ours is shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Accuracy and speed analysis on CamVid test dataset. Ours is 512×768 input and others are 768×1024 input.

Model	Frame(fps)	mIoU(%)
DPN [39]	1.2	60.1
DeepLab [43]	4.9	61.6
ENet [44]	-	51.3
ICNet [40]	27.8	67.1
BiSeNet1 [38]	-	65.6
BiSeNet2 [38]	-	68.7
DFANet A [41]	120	64.7
DFANet B [41]	160	59.3
SwiftNet pyr [42]	-	72.85
SwiftNet [42]	-	73.86
Ours	124	74.12

The results comparing the predicted segmentations vs ground truth image from dataset is shown in Fig 5.

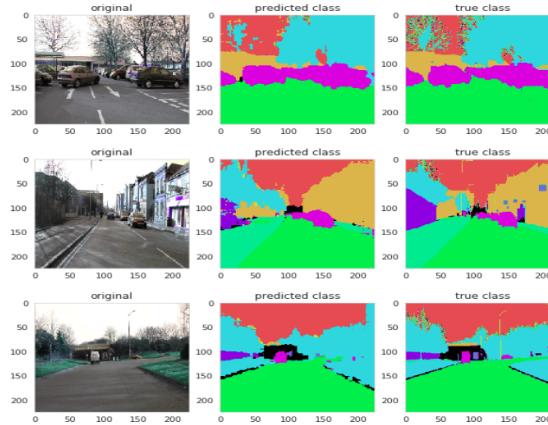


Figure 5: Results for predicted image - original image from dataset, predicted image from our model architecture and ground truth image from dataset

5 Conclusions

In this paper, we proposed a semantic segmentation network using multi scale attention feature maps and validated its performance on Camvid semantic segmentation dataset. We used a downsampling and upsampling structure with dilated and transposed convolutional layers respectively with combinations between corresponding pooling and unpooling layers. This result produced from the model gives a training class wise pixel accuracy of 93 percent, validation class wise pixel accuracy of 88 percent and mean IOU value of 74.12 which is better than the previous state of the art on semantic segmentation while running at >30 FPS.

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