

# Supplementary material for: Learning Where to Drive by Watching Others

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## 1 Ablation Studies

We have presented a self-supervised approach for the prediction of drivable areas in images. Our strategy makes use of large collections of unlabeled dashcam videos to teach a FCN which areas are drivable by watching others drive. We now analyze the impact of our contributions on the overall performance of our method by means of ablations. We evaluate several ablation methods: *(I)* Self-supervision via a fixed drivable area. Instead of obtaining self-supervision by tracking patches we fix a drivable area in front of the car bumper and collect self-supervision (e.g. Fig. 2(a) vs. 2(c)). *(II)* Single patch-based training of a binary CNN classifier. As opposed to a spatial-pyramid approach [6], we train a CNN for binary classification of drivable patches obtained via our tracking approach. *(III)* Training of a binary CNN classifier on a spatial-pyramid encoding of drivable patches [6]. *(IV)* Utilizing a FCN with dense up-stream convolutions for predicting pixel-wise labels of drivability obtained by self-supervision. *(V)* Our approach. In Tab. 1 we show different evaluation measures for all the ablation methods. We can see that the biggest performance improvement is obtained when comparing our approach with the fixed area self-supervision strategy, which does not track patches the other cars have driven over. In addition, we show that simple binary classification of drivable patches, even with spatial-pyramid encoding is not as successful as a FCN. Finally, using dilated convolutions gives us a broader context, which further improves results.

	No tracking (I)			Single patch (II)			Context-pyramid (III)			FCN dense upconv. (IV)			Ours (V) Sect. 3		
	UM	UMM	UU	UM	UMM	UU	UM	UMM	UU	UM	UMM	UU	UM	UMM	UU
MaxF	62.4	57.5	68.2	78.4	78.8	72.4	85.3	81.1	84.6	83.4	86.0	80.2	<b>90.9</b>	<b>87.5</b>	<b>88.2</b>
AP	45.7	47.4	55.0	84.7	85.9	79.0	91.2	91.2	91.8	83.5	87.7	81.8	<b>88.6</b>	<b>89.2</b>	<b>87.6</b>
PRE	65.8	72.5	71.9	77.4	82.0	70.1	83.5	83.4	83.8	78.9	83.0	78.7	<b>90.6</b>	<b>88.5</b>	<b>87.6</b>
REC	59.3	47.7	64.8	79.4	75.8	74.8	87.2	78.9	85.4	88.5	89.3	81.8	<b>91.3</b>	<b>86.6</b>	<b>88.7</b>
FPR	6.9	5.5	4.0	4.5	5.1	5.0	3.3	4.8	2.6	4.6	5.6	3.5	<b>1.8</b>	<b>3.4</b>	<b>2.0</b>
FNR	40.7	52.3	35.2	20.6	24.2	25.2	12.8	21.1	14.6	11.5	10.7	18.2	<b>8.7</b>	<b>13.4</b>	<b>11.3</b>

Table 1: Ablation experiments performed on KITTI [3].

28 **2 Extended Quantitative Experimentation on KITTI** 28

29 In addition to the experiments reported in the main submission, we also tested our 29  
 30 approach on the KITTI [3] benchmark suite. In order to do so, we disregard the 30  
 31 training labels provided by the benchmark and only use the 60 unlabeled video 31  
 32 sequences provided with KITTI, utilizing just monocular color images. We then 32  
 33 play the sequences backwards in time and generate the self-supervised labeling 33  
 34 of drivable surfaces, gathering 42000 frames labeled with our self-supervision 34  
 35 strategy. 35

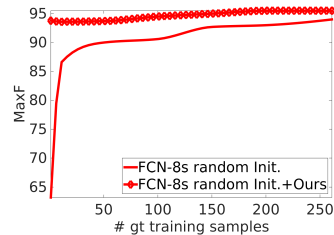
36 **2.1 Zero-shot Learning** 36

37 To assess the performance of our self-supervision method we tackle the problem of 37  
 38 zero-shot learning of drivable areas on KITTI [3]. That is, methods are provided 38  
 39 with 0 ground-truth labeled training images. We compare state-of-the-art fully 39  
 40 convolutional architectures with and without our self-supervision method trained 40  
 41 on the unlabeled sequences of KITTI. Tab. 1 summarizes the performance of 41  
 42 two different architectures with and without our self-supervision method. We 42  
 43 show results for our variant of FCN-8s [7] (with dilated upconvolutional layers), 43  
 44 with and without Imagenet [2] pre-training. In addition, we also make use of 44  
 45 the ResNet-101 model [4] pre-trained on Imagenet. In Tab. 1(a) we observe that 45  
 46 our proposed approach for self-supervision drastically boosts the performance of 46  
 47 zero-shot learning for all different architectures, with a performance improvement 47  
 48 of at least 52%. 48

49 In addition to the zero-shot learning analysis we also show how our approach 49  
 50 behaves when presented with few labeled samples, taking FCN-8s [7] as a partic- 50  
 51 ular instance. Fig. 1(b) shows how performance increases as a function of 51  
 52 the number of labeled training samples. We see how our self-supervision train- 52  
 53 ing greatly amplifies the generalization capabilities of the network, consistently 53  
 54 outperforming the same network without using our self-supervised pre-training 54

Model	UM	UMM	UU
FCN-8s Random Init.	25.5	36.8	22.4
FCN-8s Random Init. + Ours	90.7	85.8	87.0
FCN-8s Imagenet Init.	27.9	37.9	23.9
FCN-8s Imagenet Init + Ours	90.1	85.8	86.4
ResNet-101 Imagenet Init.	29.4	38.7	20.6
ResNet-101 Imagenet Init. + Ours	91.0	85.9	87.6

(a)



(b)

Fig. 1: (a) Zero-shot MaxF results for KITTI benchmark, where our model was trained on the unlabeled sequences of KITTI. (b) MaxF score as a function of the number of labeled ground-truth training samples. FCN-8s is trained from random weight initialization with and without our self-supervised pre-training.



Fig. 2: Sample score maps of drivable areas for zero-shot learning on KITTI.

Method	#gt labeled samples	UM	UMM	UU	ALL
MultiNet [10]	289	93.99	96.15	93.69	94.88
DDN [8]	289	93.65	94.17	91.76	93.43
Up-Conv-Poly [9]	289	92.20	95.52	92.65	93.83
FTP [5]	289	91.20	92.98	89.62	91.61
FCN-8s Random Init. + GT	289	89.50	92.81	84.50	89.83
FCN-8s Random Init. + Ours	0	87.39	86.14	84.96	85.74
Alvarez et. al [1]	1	73.69	86.21	72.25	79.02

Table 2: MaxF score for different method on the KITTI test server.

55 training. Finally, we show few score maps of drivable area yielded by our self- 55  
 56 supervised approach on KITTI [3] in Fig. 2. Note that our method does not use 56  
 57 any ground-truth labeled image during training. 57

58 To put our approach into context with state-of-the-art methods we report 58  
 59 the results obtained by our self-supervised strategy on the test server of KITTI 59  
 60 [3]. Since source code for top performing methods of KITTI is not available we 60  
 61 take the widely used FCN-8s architecture as a study case. We then see that 61  
 62 training FCN-8s using the KITTI ground-truth yields 5% worse performance than 62  
 63 the top method. This situation is understandable since [10] is a more complex 63  
 64 model than FCN-8s. To asses the quality of our approach we now train FCN-8s 64  
 65 using self-supervision on the unlabeled KITTI video sequences, and compare 65  
 66 it to FCN-8s trained on ground truth. We then see that the performance gap 66  
 67 between using the KITTI training set and our self-supervised approach is 4%, 67  
 68 despite using no labeled samples at all. In addition, we compare our approach 68  
 69 with the one-shot method of Alvarez et. al [1] (which requires similar quantities 69  
 70 of supervision as our approach) obtaining a performance improvement of 14% 70  
 71 over it. 71

## 72 2.2 Transfer Learning 72

73 Conversely to Sect. 4.3 of the main submission in which we evaluate the potential 73  
 74 of transferring a model trained on KITTI to Cityscapes, we now evaluate how a 74  
 75 model trained on CityScapes transfers to KITTI. 75

The underlying rationale is that if a model is performing well on CityScapes it should also perform equivalently on KITTI. Therefore, we utilize the unlabeled sequences of KITTI for pre-training the FCNs using our self-supervised strategy, before using the CityScapes ground-truth labels to perform supervised learning. We evaluate transfer learning based on two separate network architectures, FCN-8s [7] and ResNet-101 [4]. In Tab. 3 we show the MaxF and IoU scores of the different models with and without our self-supervised pre-training. We can see that our self-supervised pre-training is extremely useful when transferring models between datasets, boosting performance by at least 10%. This performance improvement is due to the regularization properties of our self-supervision, which prevents the model from over-fitting to CityScapes-like scenarios, thus improving the capability to generalize to previously unseen scenarios.

### 3 Qualitative Results

In addition to the previous quantitative evaluation we also report qualitative results in the form of video sequences for different tasks.

#### 3.1 Self-supervision

We now show how our training data is collected. We therefore take the unlabelled video sequences from KITTI and Cityscapes and apply our self-supervision strategy. To clearly illustrate our self-supervision approach we include few video sequences showing qualitative results in the folder `./self_supervision`. In these sequences, blue patches denote regions that have been driven over by the car equipped with the daschcam, while green patches are the ones driven over by other cars. Not drivable areas of the image are marked with red patches. Note how by playing videos back in time and tracking the patches that different cars have driven over, rich supervision can be obtained to learn which regions of an image are drivable.

#### 3.2 Zero-shot learning

In addition, we also show how our FCN-8s performs when trained using our self-supervision strategy, without requiring tedious pixel-wise annotations of drivable areas. We collect few test sequences, which were not used for extracting

Model	MaxF	IoU
FCN-8s Random Init.	43.4	27.7
FCN-8s Random Init. + Ours	55.1	38.0
FCN-8s Imagenet Init.	50.1	33.4
FCN-8s Imagenet Init. + Ours	74.2	59.0
ResNet-101 Imagenet Init.	72.5	56.8
ResNet-101 Imagenet Init. + Ours	82.0	69.5

Table 3: Transfer Learning results from KITTI to Cityscapes benchmark.

106 self-supervision on neither KITTI or Cityscapes and let the network predict 106  
 107 pixel-wise estimations of drivability. These zero-shot learning predictions can be 107  
 108 found in ./zero\_shot\_pred. 108

### 109 3.3 Difficult scenarios: Snow and Sand 109

110 Finally, we include two sample sequences where our classifier was trained to 110  
 111 predict drivable areas on both on a road completely covered in snow and on a 111  
 112 dessert trail. In order to do this we had two different instances of our network 112  
 113 trained on several YouTube dashcam sequences with roads covered in snow, and 113  
 114 in different sandy desert videos. We then show our results in two video sequences 114  
 115 which were not used during the training process. Our goal is to illustrate that 115  
 116 our method is not bounded to predict drivability on asphalt regions, but can 116  
 117 learn a general notion of drivability when trained with suitable data. 117

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