AutoLay: Benchmarking amodal layout estimation for autonomous driving

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Fig. 1: Amodal layout estimation is the task of estimating a semantic occupancy map in bird’s eye view, given a monocular image or video. The term amodal implies that we estimate occupancy and semantic labels even for parts of the world that are occluded in image space. In this work, we introduce AutoLay, a new dataset and benchmark for this task. AutoLay provides annotations in 3D, in bird’s eye view, and in image space. A sample annotated sequence (from the KITTI dataset [1]) is shown below. We provide high quality labels for sidewalks, vehicles, crosswalks, and lanes. We evaluate several approaches on sequences from the KITTI [1] and Argoverse [2] datasets.

Abstract—Given an image or a video captured from a monocular camera, amodal layout estimation is the task of predicting semantics and occupancy in bird’s eye view. The term amodal implies we also reason about entities in the scene that are occluded or truncated in image space. While several recent efforts have tackled this problem, there is a lack of standardization in task specification, datasets, and evaluation protocols. We address these gaps with AutoLay, a dataset and benchmark for amodal layout estimation from monocular images. AutoLay encompasses driving imagery from two popular datasets: KITTI [1] and Argoverse [2]. In addition to fine-grained attributes such as lanes, sidewalks, and vehicles, we also provide semantically annotated 3D point clouds. We implement several baselines and bleeding edge approaches, and release our data and code1.

I. INTRODUCTION

Commercial interest in autonomous driving has led to the emergence of several interesting and challenging problems, particularly in terms of perception. In this work, we focus on the problem of amodal scene layout estimation (introduced in [3]). Amodal perception, as studied by cognitive scientists, refers to the phenomenon of “imagining” or “hallucinating” parts of the scene that do not result in sensory stimulation. In the context of urban driving, we formulate the amodal layout estimation task as predicting a bird’s eye view semantic map from monocular images that explicitly reasons about entities in the scene that are not visible from the image(s).

Amodal scene layout estimation is an emerging area of study where prior efforts [3], [4], [5] have only focused on amodal completion for coarse categories such as roads and sidewalks. While recent efforts have incorporated dynamic objects [3], they fall short of modeling higher-level behaviors in urban driving scenarios such as lane-keeping, merging, etc. Further, each of these efforts [3], [4], [5] lack consensus in problem specifications and evaluation protocols.

We address both the above issues. We first formalize the problem of amodal scene layout estimation that unifies existing work and extends the task to several fine-grained categories. To foster research in this area, we provide AutoLay, a dataset comprising of over 16000 images over a distance of 12 kilometers, annotated with fine-grained amodal completions in 3D as well as in bird’s eye view. AutoLay includes
44 sequences from KITTI [1] and 89 sequences from the Argoverse [2] datasets. We implement several baselines and prior art, and open-source our code, models, and data [3], [4], [6]. We additionally propose VideoLayout, a simple approach that achieves top performance on the AutoLay benchmark by leveraging temporal information across image sequences, advancing the state-of-the-art of amodal layout estimation.

II. RELATED WORK

Interpreting 3D scenes from an RGB image has been a longstanding challenge for computer vision systems. In this section, we enlist a few approaches to amodal perception. For a comprehensive survey of general 3D scene understanding, we refer the interested reader to Ozyeccil et al. [7].

Amodal perception for indoor scene understanding: In the context of indoor 3D scene understanding, a few approaches to amodal perception have been proposed [8], [9]. While these approaches use coarse voxel grids to represent objects, we instead focus on an orthographic top-down view that restricts semantic understanding to road regions. We note that most of the semantic understanding necessary for driving-related tasks can be obtained on the road regions, making this simplification attractive.

Amodal perception for autonomous driving: To the best of our knowledge, there are no previous works that provide a unified approach to obtain an amodal scene layout estimation in bird’s eye view for fine-grained static and dynamic classes like lanes, sidewalks, vehicles, etc. Existing approaches [4], [5], [10], [11] reason about “coarse-grained” static classes such as roads and sidewalks. Schuler et al. [5] obtain occlusion-aware bird’s eye view road layouts by hallucinating behind objects tagged as foreground in an image. Wang et al. [10] develop a parametric representation of road scenes that reason about the number of lanes, width of each lane, presence of an intersection, etc. Lu et al. [4] use a variational autoencoder to predict road, sidewalk, terrain, and non-free space in bird’s eye view. Lu et al. [11] also perform vehicle shape completion, albeit independent of the static layout estimation task. Garnett et al. [12] predict static road and lane layouts by estimating lane boundaries in 3D.

For dynamic scene understanding, several approaches aim to detect object layouts in 3D. While some of these [13], [14], [15] combine information from images and lidar, others [16], [17], [18] operate by converting images to bird’s eye view representations, followed by object detection. However, these techniques are often developed independently of static layout estimation methods.

In earlier work, we presented MonoLayout [3]- perhaps the first approach to amodally reason about the static and dynamic layout of an urban driving scene. While the interest in this nascent area is rapidly increasing, the absence of standardized task specification and evaluation have been slowing down research. This forms the primary motivation behind the AutoLay dataset and benchmark.

III. AMODAL SCENE LAYOUT ESTIMATION

We begin by formally defining the task of amodal scene layout estimation. Given an image (or a sequence of images) $I$, usually in perspective view, we wish to learn a labeling function $\Phi$ of all points within an area $R$ (usually rectangular) around the camera. The region of interest $R$ is often in a different view than that of the perspective image. In this paper, we focus on bird’s eye view, which refers to a top-down orthographic view of the ground plane. The labeling function $\Phi$ must produce a label distribution (over a set of $N$ classes) for world points within the swath $R$, regardless of whether or not they are imaged in $I$.

In particular, we propose the estimation of the following semantic classes tasks in the context of this problem: road, sidewalk, crosswalk, lanes (ego-lane, other lanes), other road, vehicle. Depending on the exact setup used (single-image vs image-sequences, semantic categories to be estimated, etc.), this enables fair evaluation of all approaches. We defer a detailed description of evaluation protocols and its challenges to Sec. VI-D.

IV. AUTOLAY DATASET

Over the last decade, several public datasets [1], [19], [20], [21], [2] have enabled massive strides in autonomous driving research. While nearly all the above datasets provide out-of-the-box support (annotations, evaluation utilities, metrics, benchmarking support) for popular tasks like object detection, semantic segmentation, multi-object tracking, trajectory forecasting, none of these currently benchmark amodal scene layout estimation.

Obtaining training data for the task of amodal layout estimation involves multiple challenges. It involves perceiving scene segments that are not even imaged by the camera. While most datasets have lidar scans that often span a larger sensor swath, such lidar beams are not dense enough to perceive thin scene structures. Approaches such as MonoLayout [3] compensate for this lack of precision training data by adversarial learning, using OpenStreetMap [22] data. More recently, Wang et al. [10] release a dataset that provides a parametric bird’s eye view representation for images from the KITTI [1] and nuScenes [20] datasets, but the top-view representations are synthesized views of a simulated parametric surface model. In summary, there is currently no dataset that provides off-the-shelf support for benchmarking amodal layout estimation. We fill this void with AutoLay, a dataset for amodal layout estimation in bird’s eye view (Fig. 1).

A. Dataset overview

We use 44 video sequences from the KITTI Raw dataset [1] in AutoLay. We provide per-frame annotations in perspective, orthographic (bird’s eye view), as well as in 3D. Of the 44 annotated sequences, 24 sequences—containing 10705 images—are used for training. The other 20 sequences—comprising 5626 images—form the test set. This makes for nearly 16K annotated images, across a distance of 12 Km, and a variety of urban scenarios (residential, city, road) (cf. Fig 2). The semantic classes considered in this dataset are road, sidewalk, vehicle, crosswalk, and lane. Each lane segment is provided a unique id, which we classify
further The lane class is further classified as ego-lane and other lane. We also have an other road class for road areas that do not fall under any of the above categories.

B. Data annotation

Since annotating amodal layout from a single image is a hard task even for professional annotators, we leverage multiple sources of information to guide this procedure. We first build a point cloud map of the entire scene, annotate the map (in full 3D), and then generate the other views (bird’s eye view). To build a map of the entire area, we use the lidar scans corresponding to each frame and register them to a global view. We use the precise odometry information provided in KITTI for registration, to be robust to outliers, as many scenes contain dynamic objects (vehicles/pedestrians). To reduce manual effort, we semi-automate the data annotation pipeline to the extent possible. As a first step, we identify lane markers by choosing a range of remission values of the lidar and thresholding the 3D map. Once a set of lane markers are identified, we tag as lanes the area between pairs of lane markers. Manual verification is performed to ensure no discrepancies creep in. Each identified lane is labeled with a different lane id, unique within a given sequence. Annotators are then presented with this preprocessed map in an orthographic view and asked to amodally complete annotations. Specifically, chunks of missing points in a lane are filled in as lanes, and so on. Other identified chunks are annotated as sidewalk, crosswalk, or other road. We repurpose the annotation tool from Semantic KITTI [23] for this.

Note that the above annotation procedure can only be used for static parts of the scene. For dynamic scene components, such as vehicles, a 3D bounding box annotation is performed per-frame. This entire annotated sequence is then projected into bird’s eye view and semantics are made available in every camera frame in the sequence.

2We perform this subclassification for our specific task, by projecting lane segments to bird’s eye view.

V. APPROACH

Learning the mapping function described in Sec. III which maps the perspective RGB images to the static and dynamic layouts in bird’s eye view is quite a challenging problem. The problem demands an accurate understanding and modeling of the 3D scene which necessitates the requirement for learning good visual features that can encode the depth and the semantics of the 3D scene. Most approaches [5], [3], [4] to monocular layout estimation operate on a single RGB image input, which often leads to temporally inconsistent predictions.

In this section, we tackle the aforementioned problem by proposing a neural network architecture that takes a sequence of images as input and generates temporally consistent layouts as output.

A. VideoLayout: Temporarily Consistent Layout Estimation

Given a sequence of RGB images \( I_1, I_2, ..., I_t \) as input, our model predicts the posterior distribution \( P(S_t, D_t | I_1, I_2, ..., I_t) \), where \( S_t \) and \( D_t \) denote the predicted static and dynamic layouts corresponding to image \( I_t \).

Our network architecture consists of four subparts:

- A feature encoder which takes as input a sequence of RGB images \( I_1, I_2, ..., I_t \) and generates rich multi-scale features maps \( C_1, C_2, ..., C_t \) corresponding to each rgb image.

- A stacked Convolutional LSTM submodule which aggregates image features \( C_1, C_2, ..., C_t \) and encodes a temporal representation useful for estimating consistent layouts.

- Similar to [3], we maintain two set of decoder weights corresponding to the static and dynamic decoders. Both decoders share a similar architecture except for the use of sampling layer at the beginning of the static decoder in order to generate smooth looking road and lane layouts. Instead of directly processing the encoded output representation of convLSTM, we instead sample
from a gaussian distribution with the feature map as the mean values and a fixed standard deviation.

- A Refinement Network, which helps in improving the quality of the output static and dynamic layouts by regularizing the predicted layouts in order to resemble the true data distribution.

B. Consistency Loss

The weights of the VideoLayout architecture are updated via backpropagation using the loss function defined in Eq. 4.

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(\bar{S}_i, S_i) + f(\bar{D}_i, D_i) \tag{1}
\]

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\text{short}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{\text{seqlen}-1} f(\bar{S}_{i,j}, S_{i,j+1}) + f(\bar{D}_{i,j}, D_{i,j+1}) \tag{2}
\]

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\text{long}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{\text{seqlen}} \sum_{k=j+2}^{\text{seqlen}+1} f(\bar{S}_{i,j:k}, S_{i,j:k}) + f(\bar{D}_{i,j:k}, D_{i,j:k}) \tag{3}
\]

\[
\mathcal{L} = \lambda_{\text{sup}} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}} + \lambda_{\text{short}} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{short}} + \lambda_{\text{long}} \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{long}} \tag{4}
\]

Here, \(\bar{S}\) and \(\bar{D}\) denote the predicted static and dynamic layouts respectively, \(S\) and \(D\) denote the ground truth (weak/strong) layouts. \(N\) is the mini batch size, \(\text{seqlen}\) is the length of the input image sequence per sample. \(f(\cdot,\cdot)\) is the cross-entropy loss function. \(\mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}}\) is a supervised loss term that penalizes the deviation of the predicted static and dynamic layouts. \(\mathcal{L}_{\text{short}}\) is the short-range consistency loss and \(\mathcal{L}_{\text{long}}\) is the long-range consistency loss. \(\lambda_{\text{sup}}, \lambda_{\text{short}},\) and \(\lambda_{\text{long}}\) are the weights corresponding to the supervised, short-range consistency and long-range consistency losses respectively. Finally, \(\mathcal{L}\) is the total weighted loss used for backpropagating gradients through the network. \(^3\). Consistency loss acts as a soft constraint on the layout prediction objective \(\mathcal{L}_{\text{sup}}\), which enables the model to learn more temporally consistent layout.

\(^3\lambda_{\text{sup}} > \lambda_{\text{short}} >> \lambda_{\text{long}}\)

C. Refinement Network

Similar to [3], we use adversarial regularization in order to restrict the encoder-decoder network into predicting conceivable layouts. For adversarial regularization, we use a Patch Discriminator which takes the output of the encoder-decoder and a sample from the true data distribution. Unlike [3], we make use of ground-truth layouts to do paired training with the discriminator which further improves the performance of the model. Adding the sampling layer in the static decoder converts the Encoder-Decoder network into a generator and further helps in regularization for static layouts.

D. Data Preparation: Weak Supervision

Since the amodal scene layout labels are not provided for almost every autonomous driving dataset, we propose a generic layout generation method to generate noisy or weak supervision layout labels for static classes like roads, lanes, and sidewalks (cf. Fig. 3). Our weak supervision layout generation method is similar to the sensor fusion approach adopted in [3]. Further, we provide a solution to obtain weak supervision layout labels for lanes as well.

The process of aggregating / registering the lidar points for several image frames and projecting them to an orthographic view by assuming a flat plane is shown in Fig. 3. To obtain lanes, we perform the registering process for road and lane marker semantic classes. We then obtain lane boundary curves by isolating individual lane boundaries and lane marker semantic classes. We then obtain lane views by assuming a flat plane is shown in Fig. 3. Our weak supervision generation method is similar to the sensor fusion approach adopted in [3]. Further, we provide a solution to obtain weak supervision layout labels for lanes as well.

VI. EXPERIMENTS

So far, there has been a lack of consensus on datasets and evaluation protocol for amodal layout estimation. We
Fig. 4: Static layout estimation: VideoLayout predicts fine-grained attributes of the road scene including lanes, side roads and ego-lane. Each individual color represents a single lane. Ego-lane is shown in blue and side-roads are shown in light orange. VideoLayout produces decent static layout estimates for both AutoLay and Argoverse datasets. It is able to hallucinate occluded regions in the scene very reliably, especially for Argoverse dataset.

describe the AutoLay evaluation protocol in detail, and evaluate baselines and existing approaches on the benchmark.

A. Datasets

To ensure fair comparison with existing methods, we show our results on the Argoverse [2] and KITTI RAW split used in [3] and [5] respectively. Argoverse [2] provides detailed high-resolution semantic maps in bird’s eye view for roads, vehicles and lanes, which makes it suitable for evaluating on all the tasks proposed in Sec. III. We present a breakdown of the AutoLay benchmark below.

1) KITTI split: The KITTI split of AutoLay comprises 10705 train images and 5626 test images. We report results for models trained using weak (proposed data preparation) and strong (ground-truth) supervision.

2) KITTI RAW split: For fair evaluation with Schulter et al. [5], we use the KITTI RAW split comprising 16269 train images and 2305 test images.

3) Argoverse split: The Argoverse [2] split contains 6722 train images and 2418 test images.

B. Implementation Details

1) PseudoLidar input: We evaluate the performance of a set of approaches that take PseudoLidar[18] as input for amodal scene layout estimation. The PseudoLidar representation is a processed point cloud obtained by projecting the RGB image pixels to the camera coordinate system using the per-pixel depth values obtained from unsupervised monocular depth estimation methods like [24]. We substitute the remission value by the normalized mean of RGB channel intensities. We then obtain a voxel representation of the point cloud by slicing it vertically along the X-Z plane with a resolution of 0.15625 m and horizontally along the Y-axis into 10 channels starting from 0.4 m above the camera to 2 m below the camera. This PseudoLidar representation is provided as the input to ENet [25] or Unet [26] for amodal scene layout estimation.

2) Lane layout convention: In order to convert lane estimation, which is essentially an instance segmentation/detection task in bird’s eye view to an occupancy prediction task, we adhere to the following convention while performing lane layout estimation. While creating the per frame training labels using both weak and strong supervision,
we classify the individual lane layouts on the road with the ego-vehicle, (ego-road), as either ego lane or other lanes. The ego lane and the other lanes are provided individual lane ids. The lane ids to the other lanes are given on the basis of their position with respect to the ego-lane.

### C. Evaluation Metrics

1) **Vehicle Layout**: Similar to [3], we evaluate the vehicle layouts on both mean intersection-over-union (mIoU) and mean average-precision (mAP). Since we are evaluating different methods on the task of vehicle occupancy prediction in bird’s eye view, we don’t go for the traditional evaluation metric ($\text{AP}_{\text{IoU}>0.7}$ or $\text{AP}_{\text{IoU}>0.5}$) used by 3D object detection methods or object detection methods in bird’s eye view.

2) **Road Layout**: We adopt mean intersection-over-union (mIoU) and mean average-precision (mAP) as our metric for evaluating road layouts on the datasets. To evaluate hallucination capabilities of different methods, we also make use of the occluded mean intersection-over-union (IoU) used in [5], [3]. This involves calculating IoU for only the portions of the road which are occluded.

3) **Lane Layout**: As mentioned in Sec. III, Lane Layouts are evaluated on two separate tasks: Ego-lane estimation and Overall lane detection.

1) **Ego-Lane Estimation**: Ego-Lane estimation task is evaluated on the mean intersection-over-union (mIoU) and mean average-precision (mAP) metric.

2) **Overall Lane Detection**: For this task, we use $\text{AP}_{\text{IoU}>0.7}$, a popular metric used for evaluating object detection and instance segmentation methods. A predicted lane is counted as a detection if its intersection-over-union (IoU) with one of the ground truth lanes is greater than 0.7 (70%). $\text{AP}_{\text{IoU}>0.7}$ provides information about the average-precision of predicted detections. We also report Recall$_{\text{IoU}>0.7}$, which gives us an idea about the prediction capability of the method.

### D. Evaluated Methods

We evaluate the performance of the following approaches.

- **Schulter et al.**: The static scene layout estimation approach proposed in [5].
- **MonoOccupancy**: The static scene layout estimation approach proposed in [4].
- **MonoOccupancy-ext**: We extend MonoOccupancy [4] to predict vehicle occupancies.
- **PseudoLidar-ENet**: A ENet [25] architecture with PseudoLidar input for amodal scene layout estimation.
- **PseudoLidar-UNet**: A UNet [26] architecture with PseudoLidar input for amodal scene layout estimation.
- **MonoLayout**: Amodal scene layout estimation architecture proposed in [3].
- **VideoLayout**: The full VideoLayout architecture trained with temporal-consistency loss and the adversarial refinement network.

### E. Road Layout Estimation

We evaluate PseudoLidar based (PseudoLidar-UNet, PseudoLidar-ENet) and RGB image based architectures (MonoOccupancy [4], MonoLayout and VideoLayout) for the task of road layout estimation using the ground truth labels. Table I provides a detailed benchmark of these methods on the *AutoLay* and Argoverse [2] datasets. We also perform state-of-the-art comparison (Table II) with previously proposed methods in literature on KITTI RAW split proposed in [5] on the task of road and lane layout estimation. For this comparison, we use the weak data generation method mentioned in Sec V-D.

We observe that MonoLayout and VideoLayout perform better than PseudoLidar-based methods for road layout estimation. This can be attributed to the sparsity of the PseudoLidar points as the distance from camera increases. Also, PseudoLidar based inputs don’t allow the use of deep feature encoders like ResNet[27] needed to extract the rich visual features necessary for hallucinating amodal scene layouts. From Table I it can be seen that MonoOccupancy-ext performs better than the PseudoLidar counterparts. This further exemplifies the narrative that with better supervision, an RGB image-based architecture can reason for occluded regions better than pseudo-lidar based approaches.

Within the RGB image based approaches, we observe that VideoLayout outperforms MonoLayout, MonoOccupancy [4] by considerable margins for all the evaluation metrics. The same can be also be observed in the results on KITTI RAW (cf. Table II).

### F. Vehicle Layout Estimation

From Table I, we can see that PseudoLidar-based methods have inferior performance in comparison to monocular...
TABLE I: Quantitative results: We benchmark VideoLayout, MonoLayout [3], MonoOccupancy-ext and PseudoLidar based approaches on KITTI and Argoverse datasets.

| Dataset | Method               | Vehicle Layout | Static Layout Estimation |
|---------|----------------------|----------------|-------------------------|
|         |                      |                | Ego-Lane | Overall |
|         |                      | mIoU | mAP | mIoU | mAP | AP_{iou>0.5} | Recall_{iou>0.5} | mIoU | mAP | AP_{iou>0.5} | Recall_{iou>0.5} |
| KITTI   | PseudoLidar-UNet     | 20.10 | 32.47 | 57.02 | 70.90 | 51.98 | 68.94 | 8.53 | 19.09 |
|         | PseudoLidar-ENet     | 15.26 | 40.05 | 55.70 | 67.62 | 54.42 | 68.15 | 13.01 | 24.50 |
|         | MonoOccupancy-ext    | 27.03 | 42.92 | 63.10 | 77.56 | 58.39 | 69.16 | 26.11 | 35.36 |
|         | MonoLayout[3]        | 30.88 | 53.63 | 63.83 | 77.53 | 58.27 | 72.08 | 16.09 | 34.91 |
|         | VideoLayout          | 34.60 | 52.87 | 68.73 | 84.89 | 62.68 | 76.80 | 38.56 | 44.33 |
| Argoverse | MonoOccupancy-ext   | 16.22 | 38.66 | 72.41 | 79.62 | 75.26 | 85.51 | 39.76 | 51.65 |
|         | MonoLayout[3]        | 28.31 | 46.07 | 73.25 | 84.56 | 71.73 | 82.00 | 26.18 | 42.61 |
|         | VideoLayout          | 32.77 | 50.48 | 76.42 | 88.01 | 77.62 | 87.77 | 46.03 | 54.86 |

TABLE II: State-of-the-art comparison for static layout (Road, Sidewalk and Lane) with weak supervision (cf. Sec. V-D) on KITTI RAW split used in [5].

| Method            | Road            | Sidewalk        | Road + Sidewalk | Lane | mIOU | mIOU | occ | mIOU | AP_{iou>0.7} |
|-------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|------|------|------|-----|------|---------------|
| MonoOccupancy[4]  | 56.16           | 18.18           | 28.24           | 26.64 |
| Schuler et al. [5]| 68.89           | 30.35           | 61.06           | 16.20 |
| MonoLayout[3]     | 73.86           | 32.86           | 67.42           | 36.60 |
| VideoLayout       | 75.92           | 37.74           | 71.01           | 36.64 |

TABLE III: Analyzing effect of various subparts of the VideoLayout architecture on Lane Layout estimation performance. The sampling layer and adversarial regularization improve performance.

| Method                          | Ego-Lane          | Overall           |
|---------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
|                                 | mIOU | mAP | AP_{iou>0.5} | Recall_{iou>0.5} | mIOU | mAP | AP_{iou>0.5} | Recall_{iou>0.5} |
| VideoLayout(no samp., no reg.)  | 59.81 | 73.13 | 20.95 | 36.55 |
| VideoLayout(no reg.)            | 61.15 | 75.72 | 35.89 | 41.92 |
| VideoLayout(full)               | 62.68 | 76.80 | 38.56 | 44.33 |

TABLE IV: Analyzing Lane layout scores at IoU thresholds of 0.5 and 0.7. AP denotes average precision. R denotes Recall. VideoLayout consistently performs better across IoU thresholds.

H. Ablation Studies

We conduct ablation studies to analyze the performance of various components in the pipeline. These lead to a number of interesting observations that we enlist below.

1) Sensitivity of lane estimates to IoU thresholds: In Table IV, we analyze the sensitivity of lane estimates to IoU thresholds. At lower thresholds (AP_{iou>0.5} and R_{iou>0.5}), PseudoLidar-based techniques have similar performance to that of MonoLayout [3]. But as the threshold increases (AP_{iou>0.7} and R_{iou>0.7}), PseudoLidar methods exhibit a dramatic performance drop, particularly in terms of recall. We attribute this to the fact that PseudoLidar relies on monocular depth estimates which are sparse and inaccurate for vehicles farther from the camera. On the other hand, VideoLayout performs consistently across both IoU thresholds. Particularly at AP_{iou>0.5}, we observe a significant performance increase compared to MonoLayout.

2) Effect of Sampling and Adversarial Refinement: Table III shows the performance of different variants of VideoLayout for lane layout estimation. VideoLayout (no samp., no reg.) refers to a variant without a sampling layer in the static decoder and without adversarial regularization. VideoLayout (no reg.) uses sampling layer in the static decoder. VideoLayout (full) uses both sampling layer and an adversarial regularizer. It can be seen that each component meaningfully contributes to performance boosts. The sampling layer enhances the capability of the model to capture
I. Failure cases

Despite its impressive performance, VideoLayout fails in multiple scenarios. A few representative failure cases are shown in Fig. 6. Often, such failures are due to high-dynamic range conditions, where shadows are mistaken for lanes, or in heavy traffic scenarios.

J. Runtime

On an NVIDIA RTX 1080Ti, the inference rate of VideoLayout is slightly over 40 frames per second, which is suitable for real-time performance.

VII. Conclusion

Amodal layout estimation is an emerging perception task for autonomous driving. Solving this task necessitates an understanding of not just entities present in an image, but also a reasoning of occluded portions. Benchmarks have driven progress in allied perception tasks such as object detection, segmentation, tracking, depth estimation, and more. In that spirit, we introduce a new benchmark (AutoLay) for amodal layout estimation. We implement several baselines and prior art, and make all our code and data available. We further propose VideoLayout, a simple yet effective technique, and demonstrate that reasoning about image sequences leads to coherent and robust layout estimates. We hope the dataset and benchmark serve as a breeding ground for a new class of approaches that will take us a step closer to understanding the 3D world from a sequence of its projections.

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