On the calibration of underrepresented classes in LiDAR-based semantic segmentation

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\textbf{Abstract—} The calibration of deep learning-based perception models plays a crucial role in their reliability. Our work focuses on a class-wise evaluation of several model’s confidence performance for LiDAR-based semantic segmentation with the aim of providing insights into the calibration of underrepresented classes. Those classes often include VRUs and are thus of particular interest for safety reasons. With the help of a metric based on sparsification curves we compare the calibration abilities of three semantic segmentation models with different architectural concepts, each in a in deterministic and a probabilistic version. By identifying and describing the dependency between the predictive performance of a class and the respective calibration quality we aim to facilitate the model selection and refinement for safety-critical applications.

\section{I. INTRODUCTION}

Environment perception allows an autonomous vehicle to detect and understand the behavior of other participants and enables it to adapt its own behavior accordingly. Deep learning methods took the performance in environment perception to a new level by evaluating large amounts of data gathered by various sensors with different modalities. Besides cameras and RADAR sensors, in the past years the LiDAR sensor gained relevance in the context of environment perception for autonomous vehicles due to the added value of highly precise depth information [1].

Besides other perception tasks, semantic segmentation plays a crucial role in scene understanding for autonomous vehicles. The task of a semantic segmentation model is conducting a point-wise multi-class classification of LiDAR point clouds [2], [3]. Despite major advances in this field, the task of semantic segmentation comes with the challenge of handling severely imbalanced data [4], [5]. This is due to the natural distribution of spaces and objects, i.e. in a traffic scene there always will be significantly more measurements of the road or buildings than of persons or bicyclists.

These class imbalances have to be considered when developing and training a semantic segmentation model. While there have been approaches on overcoming this issue [6], [7], what remains unclear is the effect of class imbalance on the calibration of the model. In the context of autonomous driving, not only the detection of smaller instance classes is crucial but also having information about the reliability of those classifications. Ideally, the confidence should match the actual performance [8] and thus allow downstream tasks like sensor fusion or behavior planning to reliably interpret the models abilities. Thus, the effect of class imbalances on the calibration of a model is of particular interest regarding the safety of autonomous vehicles.

This work focuses on the analysis of underrepresented classes in terms of calibration in unmodified and probabilistic LiDAR-based semantic segmentation models. Our contributions can be summarized as follows:

- Design of a suitable calibration metric for semantic segmentation models
- Analysis of model calibration given different confidence measures
- Comparison of three semantic segmentation models and their probabilistic versions in terms of class-wise calibration on LiDAR point clouds

\section{II. RELATED WORK}

\subsection{A. Semantic Segmentation of LiDAR point clouds}

In the last years, various approaches on the semantic segmentation of point clouds have been proposed. Some operate in 3D space by utilizing voxels [9], [10] or unordered point clouds [11], [12], [13]. Other approaches project the point cloud into the 2D space in order use Convolutional Neural Networks developed for the camera-domain for the semantic segmentation of e.g. range view images [7], [14], [15], [16], [17].

Independently of the sensor modality, class imbalance is a problem which needs to be addressed in the semantic segmentation. Common ways to deal with it during training is to weight the loss function in favor of underrepresented classes [6], [18] or to construct an architecture which is able to overcome the issues imposed by smaller instances [7], [19]. In terms of performance evaluation, the well-established mean Intersection over Union (mIoU) evaluation metric accounts for class imbalances and ensures that under-represented classes are taken into account appropriately.

\subsection{B. Calibration of Deep Learning Models}

In [8], Guo et al. investigate the calibration of the traditional softmax probability and proved in a series of experiments its tendency towards overconfidence. This inspired a new field of research - uncertainty estimation in deep learning [20]. Ensembling techniques like Monte-Carlo Dropout (MCD) [21] or Deep Ensembles [22] are commonly used to approximate the unknown posterior of the model weights and are known to capture the model uncertainty well. Additionally, Kendall et al. [23] introduced a technique to...
use probabilistic logits to learn the data uncertainty directly from the input.

Works like [24] and [21] argue that the softmax probabilities are less reliable even in models with additional uncertainty estimation techniques and propose using the entropy over the softmax probability distribution as uncertainty estimates. Yet, the raw entropy is not a probability and thus cannot be converted directly into a confidence measure. This results in the majority of works using the (calibrated) softmax as confidence measure instead [25], [26], [27], [28], [29].

C. Evaluation of Calibration Measures

Guo et al. [8] proposed the Expected Calibration Error to assess the calibration of a given neural network, which is roughly speaking the correlation between the confidence and the accuracy of a model. While this produces an absolute measure and works well for tasks which actually use the accuracy as the performance metric, this approach tends to overestimate the performance for underrepresented classes. Nixon et al. [30] adapt this approach to multiclass settings, which in theory make it possible to calculate this metric for semantic segmentation tasks and weighting out the class-imbalances in the final score, but not solving the initial problem of the class-imbalances.

Mukhoti et al. [24] suggested a metric to capture particular parts of the calibration abilities of a semantic segmentation model. Their developed technique evaluates each frame patch-wise, which are labeled regarding their accuracy and uncertainty based on variable thresholds. This means, that this method requires some tuning which makes it difficult to use it for benchmarking different models.

Originally designed for the optical flow task, [31] proposed a calibration metric based on sparsification curves. It follows the same idea as [8], that the confidence should coincide with the actual performance. Thus, they define the area under the sparsification error curve (AUSE) as a relative measure for a model’s calibration. This has been applied to the task of semantic segmentation as well [25], [26] using the Brier score of the softmax probabilities to rate the predictive performance.

III. METHODS

A. Semantic Segmentation Model and Training

We want to uncover which role the architecture choice plays in the calibration of underrepresented classes, thus we chose three very differently designed models for the semantic segmentation task: 1. a DeeplabV3+ model with a ResNet-50 encoder as backbone [14], 2. a SalsaNeXt [27] and 3. a LiLaNet, which was specifically designed for dealing with LiDAR point clouds [7]. While the former one uses residual blocks and intense pooling to reduce computational complexity, the latter one does not use pooling in order to conserve finer structures despite the low resolution.

All models work on 2D data, thus the 3D point clouds are projected onto an image plane using the method published in [32]. We use the SemanticKITTI dataset for autonomous vision tasks [4] as a database. Both models are trained with a class-weighted cross-entropy loss based on [6] to account for the class imbalances and early stopping to avoid overfitting.

For all deterministic models we employ probabilistic versions by using MCD [21] (30 samples) and probabilistic logits [23] (5 samples) to model both aleatoric (data) and epistemic (model) uncertainty. For that, we add dropout layers (dropout rate of 0.5) in the middle part of the (encoder) model, following the findings of [33] and [24].

B. Confidence Measures

As calibration measures we evaluate both the softmax and the entropy. It has to be noted that the softmax produces a probability distribution over the classes, summing up to 1. The entropy in turn does not inherently exhibit the characteristics of a probability, but could be turned into one by normalizing with the theoretical maximum of $\log(K)$. Yet, it produces only one confidence estimate conditioned on the given prediction instead of a distribution.

C. Model Calibration

Investigating the effects of underrepresented classes related to the calibration, we opted for a class-wise evaluation. Therefore, we need a metric which allows for a class-wise evaluation of any given confidence measure. At the same time, we want to decouple the calibration performance from the predictive performance as much as possible to avoid biases induced by the softmax.

Sparsification plots have been previously used to evaluate confidence measures [34]. The idea is to evaluate the pointwise confidences by creating a ranking of the confidence values. The contributing factors of the sparsification curve are illustrated in Figure 1. The performance measure only depends on the prediction and is depicted on the $x$-axis. The confidence measure is depicted on the $y$-axis implicitly by ordinal sorting. The pixels with the lowest confidence are gradually removed and the performance on the remainder of points is evaluated. If the confidence measure actually reflects the true performance, the sparsification curve should monotonically increase. Furthermore, Ilg et al. [31] suggest a normalization based on the best possible ranking according to the ground truth labels to remove the dependence on the model performance, referred to as the oracle curve. The Area Under the Sparsification Error curve (AUSE) is defined as the area under the difference between the sparsification and the oracle curve. Intuitively, the closer the sparsification curve to the ground-truth-based oracle curve is, the smaller are

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**Fig. 1: Elements of the AUSE metric.** Each point on the sparsification curve is determined by three factors (marked in blue): the prediction to determine the predictive performance on the $y$-axis and the confidence, which will be implicitly entered on the $x$-axis through ordering.
A. Performance Evaluation

We calculate the IoU values to evaluate the predictive performance of all models and their variations. The results are listed in Table I. It is not surprising that in most cases the probabilistic versions performed better on the validation split than their deterministic counterparts. For the smaller instance classes, e.g., bicycle, person or traffic sign, the LiLaNet outperforms the other models due to its architecture. Contrary, the well represented classes like car, road or building are better learned by the SalsaNeXt model.

B. Calibration Evaluation with AUSE

To gain insights about the calibration of the models, we calculate the AUSE across the full validation split. This ensures that even for the underrepresented classes enough pixels are evaluated. The mean values for both confidence measures over all frames and all classes can be seen in Table II. The probabilistic SalsaNeXt achieves the best calibration, although the deterministic LiLaNet exhibits a similar AUSE value. Interestingly, in most cases the softmax probability actually outperformed the entropy in terms of calibration.

To gain deeper insights about the calibration of each class, we calculate the AUSE for all classes independently. Since the softmax performs slightly better than the entropy in terms of calibration, we focus further class-wise evaluations on the softmax. The results can be seen in III.

At first glance, no predominant tendency can be recognized from the calibration performance. When analyzing the AUSE in combination with the IoU values, the reason becomes obvious: some models were not able to learn some classes (e.g. motorcyclist), resulting in an IoU of 0.0. Thus, for this class the oracle as well as the sparsification curve will constantly be 0.0, resulting in a perfect calibration score. This effect is depicted in Figure 2. We expect the relation between the predictive and the calibration performance to be roughly an inverse linear correlation.

To gain some deeper insights into this phenomenon, we filter those cases (IoU < 0.03, marked with a orange line) and re-evaluate the best calibration performances. After that, a similar pattern arises as in the IoU values in Table I: since the LiLaNet is better calibrated on smaller instance classes it’s deterministic version exhibits a similar overall calibration performance as the probabilistic SalsaNeXt. It should be noted that the filtered classes are not necessarily underrepresented classes but rather classes which are hard to learn from the available data.

IV. RESULTS

A. Performance Evaluation

The authors of [25] and [26] have used the Brier score using the softmax probabilities to rate the predictive performance in terms of IoU. Thus, we expect the AUSE to be inversely correlated to the predictive performance.

This imposes two issues with our setting:

1) The Brier score requires the full probability distribution over all classes, which some confidence measures other than the softmax may not provide. Thus, it would not be possible to calculate the Brier score based on the entropy.

2) Using the entropy for the ranking (x-axis) but the softmax for the Brier score on the y-axis introduces a mixing of both measures into the metric (compare traces in Figure 1). As a result, we would not know what influences the result most: the softmax probabilities or the actual uncertainty estimation method. This makes it difficult to draw conclusions from the results in order to further improve the model.

Due to these reasons, we use the IoU for each class as measure for the predictive performance. Additionally, we investigate both the softmax probability of the argmax prediction and the entropy over the softmax as confidence measures.

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We did not evaluate semantic segmentation models in this work, focusing instead on the role of calibration. Contrary to the other two models, the DeeplabV3+ did not perform well on LiDAR data, suggesting that heavy pooling might not be beneficial when working with sparse and fine-grained structured data.

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1) The SalsaNeXt performed best regarding the predictive and calibration performance, followed closely by the LiLaNet: The probabilistic version of the SalsaNeXt model exhibits the best calibration performance. Interestingly, the next best calibration performance is achieved by the deterministic LiLaNet. This might be due to its design, which inherently produces more calibrated softmax values. It illustrates that a probabilistic model with uncertainty estimation not necessarily exhibits a better calibration. It has to be noted that this finding is only supported by an evaluation on in-domain data. Contrary to the other two models, the DeeplabV3+ did not perform well on LiDAR data, suggesting that heavy pooling might not be beneficial when working with sparse and fine-grained structured data.

2) The difference in calibration between softmax and entropy within a model is surprisingly small: We did not observe significant differences between the softmax and the entropy with respect to their calibration abilities. This indicates that the softmax probabilities are able to capture uncertainty to some extend. It should also be noted that the calibration quality of the softmax influences the entropy, since it depends on the softmax probability distribution itself.

3) Investigating the model calibration independently of the model performance exhibits several advantages: Our modified AUSE metric assesses the calibration performance independently of the chosen calibration metric and the model’s predictive performance. Thus, it provides the basis for further investigations regarding the handling of underrepresented classes. Furthermore, it facilitates the model choice for any given task by enabling a custom mixing of the calibration with any predictive performance metric.

4) The analysis of a mean calibration value over all classes might give misleading hints on the calibration performance: We observed the phenomenon of perfect calibration on unlearned classes which comes with decoupling the calibration performance from the predictive performance. That means, if a model is always wrong on a given class, the calibration will always be perfect. This effect can be avoided by constructing a model with a better performance on underrepresented classes or by filtering those classes.

VI. Conclusion and Outlook

In this paper we provided some insights about the role of class imbalance on the calibration of semantic segmentation models. We compared three models with different architectural characteristics, each in a deterministic and a probabilistic fashion. To evaluate the class-wise calibration performance, we modified sparsification-metric in order to decouple the predictive performance from the calibration. Furthermore, we gained some insights about the softmax compared to the entropy as confidence measures. Our key findings revealed that our metric is able to assess the calibration independently of the predictive performance, but in reality, the calibration and the predictive performance are influenced by each other. Furthermore, the calibration abilities depend on the structure of a model.

With this work we aim to promote research on the calibration on underrepresented classes and their effect on model performance and selection. Further research could include the evaluation of more model architectures, training strategies and uncertainty estimation methods. Additionally, it would be of interest to refine the proposed metric related to the outlier filter which influences the calibration performance.

|                | DeeplabV3+ deter.| SalsaNeXt deter. | LiLaNet deter. |
|----------------|------------------|------------------|---------------|
|                | prob.            | prob.            | prob.         |
| car            | 0.12             | 0.10             | 0.08          | 0.05          |
| bicycle        | 0.53             | 1.32             | 2.13          | 2.12          | 2.15          | 1.99          |
| motorcyle      | 1.77             | 2.08             | 2.77          | 2.87          | 2.13          | 2.78          |
| truck          | 3.53             | 1.33             | 0.75          | 0.15          | 1.33          | 1.72          |
| other-vehicle  | 2.69             | 2.75             | 5.00          | 2.89          | 2.19          | 2.19          | 2.61          |
| person         | 2.48             | 2.06             | 0.92          | 0.82          | 0.81          | 0.76          |
| bicyclist      | 2.56             | 2.56             | 1.42          | 0.54          | 1.30          | 1.06          |
| motorcyclist   | 0.00             | 0.00             | 0.00          | 0.04          | 0.04          | 0.52          |
| road           | 0.08             | 0.11             | 0.07          | 0.04          | 0.05          | 0.05          |
| parking        | 3.32             | 2.75             | 3.28          | 2.74          | 2.31          | 2.47          |
| sidewalk       | 0.58             | 0.70             | 0.48          | 0.43          | 0.43          | 0.59          | 0.52          |
| other-ground   | 0.05             | 0.01             | 0.10          | 0.30          | 0.74          | 1.03          |
| building       | 0.31             | 0.23             | 0.11          | 0.10          | 0.21          | 0.16          |
| fence          | 2.48             | 1.87             | 1.35          | 1.91          | 2.13          | 2.19          |
| vegetation     | 0.50             | 0.51             | 0.20          | 0.17          | 0.26          | 0.23          |
| trunk          | 1.35             | 1.13             | 1.21          | 0.83          | 0.89          | 0.77          |
| terrain        | 0.54             | 0.70             | 0.52          | 0.47          | 0.43          | 0.41          |
| pole           | 1.53             | 1.41             | 1.01          | 1.14          | 1.63          | 1.35          |
| traffic-sign   | 1.69             | 1.55             | 1.58          | 1.29          | 1.27          | 1.18          |
| all (filtered) | 1.44             | 1.32             | 1.26          | 1.15          | 1.15          | 1.16          |

Table III: Per-class AUSE on the validation split of the SemanticKITTI dataset for all models. The per-class AUSE is calculated for softmax probability as confidence measure. The best performances for each class are marked in bold, the underlined values indicate the best performances after filtering for outlier (marked in gray) in terms of predictive performance.
