

Accurate 3D Object Detection using Energy-Based Models

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Accurate 3D Object Detection using Energy-Based Models

Fredrik K. Gustafsson, Martin Danelljan (ETH Zürich), Thomas B. Schön (Uppsala University)

- arXiv: https://arxiv.org/abs/2012.04634
- Code (to be uploaded): https://github.com/fregu856/ebms_3dod
- Qualitative results: https://youtu.be/7JP6V818bh0
- These slides: http://www.fregu856.com





Energy-Based Models for Deep Probabilistic Regression Fredrik K. Gustafsson, Martin Danelljan, Goutam Bhat, Thomas B. Schön ECCV 2020

How to Train Your Energy-Based Model for Regression Fredrik K. Gustafsson, Martin Danelljan, Radu Timofte, Thomas B. Schön BMVC 2020

Accurate 3D Object Detection using Energy-Based Models Fredrik K. Gustafsson, Martin Danelljan, Thomas B. Schön Preprint



1. Energy-Based Models

2. Energy-Based Models for Regression

3. Energy-Based Models for 3D Object Detection



1. Energy-Based Models

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Energy-based models [12] have a rich history within machine learning [19, 14, 9, 17].

An energy-based model (EBM) specifies a probability distribution $p(x; \theta)$ over $x \in \mathcal{X}$ directly via a parameterized scalar function $f_{\theta} : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$:

$$p(x; heta) = rac{e^{f_{ heta}(x)}}{Z(heta)}, \quad Z(heta) = \int e^{f_{ heta}(\tilde{x})} d\tilde{x}$$



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EBMs have therefore become increasingly popular within computer vision in recent years, commonly being applied for various generative image modeling tasks [20, 3, 16, 2, 5, 15, 4, 18, 1].



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The EBM $p(x; \theta) = e^{f_{\theta}(x)} / \int e^{f_{\theta}(\tilde{x})} d\tilde{x}$ is thus a highly expressive model that puts minimal restricting assumptions on the true distribution p(x).



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Drawback: the normalizing partition function $Z(\theta) = \int e^{f_{\theta}(\tilde{x})} d\tilde{x}$ is intractable, which complicates evaluating or sampling from $p(x; \theta)$.



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(Compare with normalizing flows which are easy to both evaluate and sample, but impose a specific structure on p(x). EBMs instead prioritize maximum expressivity.)



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This complicates evaluating or sampling from $p(x; \theta)$.

In particular, EBMs are challenging to train. A variety of different approaches have therefore been explored in literature.

A very recent tutorial on the subject:

How to Train Your Energy-Based Models

Yang Song, Diederik P. Kingma arXiv:2101.03288



1. Energy-Based Models

2. Energy-Based Models for Regression

3. Energy-Based Models for 3D Object Detection



While EBMs recently had become increasingly popular within computer vision, they were basically only being employed for generative image modeling.

In **Energy-Based Models for Deep Probabilistic Regression**, we instead explored the application of EBMs to various regression problems (age estimation, head-pose estimation, 2D bounding box regression).



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Regression: learn to predict a continuous target $y^* \in \mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}^K$ from a corresponding input $x^* \in \mathcal{X}$, given a training set \mathcal{D} of i.i.d. input-target pairs, $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N, (x_i, y_i) \sim p(x, y).$



We addressed this task by modelling the distribution p(y|x) with a conditional EBM:

$$p(y|x; heta) = rac{e^{f_{ heta}(x,y)}}{Z(x, heta)}, \quad Z(x, heta) = \int e^{f_{ heta}(x, ilde y)} d ilde y.$$



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Here, $f_{\theta} : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a DNN that maps any input-target pair $(x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ directly to a scalar $f_{\theta}(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}$, and $Z(x, \theta)$ is the input-dependent partition function.



$$p(y|x;\theta) = rac{e^{f_{ heta}(x,y)}}{Z(x, heta)}, \quad Z(x, heta) = \int e^{f_{ heta}(x, ilde y)} d ilde y.$$



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The EBM $p(y|x; \theta)$ can learn complex target distributions directly from data:





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Given an input x^* at test time, we predict the target y^* by maximizing $p(y|x^*;\theta)$: $y^* = \underset{y}{\operatorname{argmax}} p(y|x^*;\theta) = \underset{y}{\operatorname{argmax}} f_{\theta}(x^*,y)$



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In practice, $y^* = \operatorname{argmax}_y f_\theta(x^*, y)$ is approximated by refining an initial estimate \hat{y} via T steps of gradient ascent,

$$y \leftarrow y + \lambda \nabla_y f_{\theta}(x^*, y),$$

thus finding a local maximum of $f_{\theta}(x^*, y)$. Evaluation of the partition function $Z(x^*, \theta)$ is therefore *not* required.

$$y^{*} = \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} p(y|x;\theta) = \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} f_{\theta}(x,y)$$

$$y$$

$$f_{\theta}(x,y) = \frac{y^{y^{*}}}{\int e^{f_{\theta}(x,y)} d\tilde{y}}$$





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$$p(y|x;\theta) = rac{e^{f_{ heta}(x,y)}}{Z(x,\theta)}, \quad Z(x,\theta) = \int e^{f_{ heta}(x,\tilde{y})} d\tilde{y}.$$

The DNN $f_{\theta}(x, y)$ can be trained using various methods for fitting a density $p(y|x; \theta)$ to observed data $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$.



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The DNN $f_{\theta}(x, y)$ can be trained using various methods for fitting a density $p(y|x; \theta)$ to observed data $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$.

Generally, the most straightforward such method is probably to minimize the negative log-likelihood $\mathcal{L}(\theta) = -\sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p(y_i|x_i; \theta)$, which for the EBM $p(y|x; \theta)$ is given by,

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \left(\int e^{f_{\theta}(x_i, y)} dy \right) - f_{\theta}(x_i, y_i).$$



$$p(y|x;\theta) = \frac{e^{f_{\theta}(x,y)}}{Z(x,\theta)}, \quad Z(x,\theta) = \int e^{f_{\theta}(x,\tilde{y})} d\tilde{y}.$$
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The integral $\int e^{f_{\theta}(x_i,y)} dy$ is however intractable, preventing exact evaluation of $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$.



$$p(y|x; heta) = rac{e^{f_{ heta}(x,y)}}{Z(x, heta)}, \quad Z(x, heta) = \int e^{f_{ heta}(x, ilde y)} d ilde y.$$
 $\mathcal{L}(heta) = -\sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p(y_i|x_i; heta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \left(\int e^{f_{ heta}(x_i,y)} dy\right) - f_{ heta}(x_i,y_i).$

The integral $\int e^{f_{\theta}(x_i,y)} dy$ is however intractable, preventing exact evaluation of $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$.

In **Energy-Based Models for Deep Probabilistic Regression**, we simply approximated this intractable integral using importance sampling.

2. Energy-Based Models for Regression - Training



$$p(y|x; heta) = rac{e^{f_{ heta}(x,y)}}{Z(x, heta)}, \quad Z(x, heta) = \int e^{f_{ heta}(x, ilde y)} d ilde y.$$
 $\mathcal{L}(heta) = -\sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p(y_i|x_i; heta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \left(\int e^{f_{ heta}(x_i,y)} dy\right) - f_{ heta}(x_i,y_i).$

Importance sampling:

$$\begin{split} -\log p(y_i|x_i;\theta) &= \log \left(\int e^{f_\theta(x_i,y)} dy \right) - f_\theta(x_i,y_i) \\ &= \log \left(\int \frac{e^{f_\theta(x_i,y)}}{q(y)} q(y) dy \right) - f_\theta(x_i,y_i) \\ &\approx \log \left(\frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=1}^M \frac{e^{f_\theta(x_i,y^{(k)})}}{q(y^{(k)})} \right) - f_\theta(x_i,y_i), \quad y^{(k)} \sim q(y). \end{split}$$

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Various alternative techniques could however also be employed to train the DNN $f_{\theta}(x, y)$, including noise contrastive estimation (NCE) [6, 13] and score matching [10].



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Various alternative techniques could however also be employed to train the DNN $f_{\theta}(x, y)$, including noise contrastive estimation (NCE) [6, 13] and score matching [10].

In **How to Train Your Energy-Based Model for Regression**, we therefore studied in detail how EBMs should be trained specifically for regression problems.



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In **How to Train Your Energy-Based Model for Regression**, we therefore studied in detail how EBMs should be trained specifically for regression problems.

We compared six methods on the task of 2D bounding box regression, and concluded that a simple extension of NCE should be considered the go-to training method.


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Noise contrastive estimation (NCE) entails learning to discriminate between observed data examples and samples drawn from a noise distribution.



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Noise contrastive estimation (NCE) entails learning to discriminate between observed data examples and samples drawn from a noise distribution.

Specifically, the DNN $f_{\theta}(x, y)$ is trained by minimizing the loss $J(\theta) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} J_i(\theta)$,

$$J_{i}(\theta) = \log \frac{\exp \{f_{\theta}(x_{i}, y_{i}^{(0)}) - \log q(y_{i}^{(0)}|y_{i})\}}{\sum_{m=0}^{M} \exp \{f_{\theta}(x_{i}, y_{i}^{(m)}) - \log q(y_{i}^{(m)}|y_{i})\}},$$

where $y_i^{(0)} \triangleq y_i$, and $\{y_i^{(m)}\}_{m=1}^M$ are M samples drawn from a noise distribution $q(y|y_i)$ that depends on the true target y_i .



$$\begin{split} J(\theta) &= -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} J_i(\theta), \quad J_i(\theta) \!=\! \log \! \frac{\exp \left\{ f_{\theta}(x_i, y_i^{(0)}) \!-\! \log q(y_i^{(0)} | y_i) \right\}}{\sum_{m=0}^{M} \exp \left\{ f_{\theta}(x_i, y_i^{(m)}) \!-\! \log q(y_i^{(m)} | y_i) \right\}}, \\ y_i^{(0)} &\triangleq y_i, \quad \{ y_i^{(m)} \}_{m=1}^{M} \sim q(y|y_i) \text{ (noise distribution)}. \end{split}$$



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Effectively, $J(\theta)$ is the softmax cross-entropy loss for a classification problem with M + 1 classes (which of the M + 1 values $\{y_i^{(m)}\}_{m=0}^M$ is the true target y_i ?).



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Effectively, $J(\theta)$ is the softmax cross-entropy loss for a classification problem with M + 1 classes (which of the M + 1 values $\{y_i^{(m)}\}_{m=0}^M$ is the true target y_i ?).

A simple yet effective choice for the noise distribution $q(y|y_i)$ is a mixture of K Gaussians centered at y_i ,

$$q(y|y_i) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \mathcal{N}(y; y_i, \sigma_k^2 I).$$
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This is achieved by designing a differentiable pooling operator for 3D bounding boxes y, and adding an extra network branch to the state-of-the-art 3D object detector SA-SSD [7].



In Accurate 3D Object Detection using Energy-Based Models, we extend our energy-based regression approach from 2D to 3D bounding box regression.

This is achieved by designing a differentiable pooling operator for 3D bounding boxes y, and adding an extra network branch to the state-of-the-art 3D object detector SA-SSD [7].

We evaluate our proposed detector on the KITTI dataset and consistently outperform the SA-SSD baseline detector across all 3D object detection (3DOD) metrics.







We integrate a conditional EBM $p(y|x;\theta) = e^{f_{\theta}(x,y)} / \int e^{f_{\theta}(x,\tilde{y})} d\tilde{y}$ into the SA-SSD 3D object detector.



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We design a differentiable pooling operator that, given a 3D bounding box y, extracts a feature vector from the SA-SSD output. This feature vector is processed by fully-connected layers, outputting $f_{\theta}(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}$.







The differentiable pooling operator is required when using gradient ascent to maximize the EBM $p(y|x; \theta)$ at test-time, as this requires the scalar DNN output $f_{\theta}(x, y)$ to be differentiable w.r.t. the 3D bounding box y.



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For 2D bounding boxes, this was achieved by applying a pooling operator [11] on image features, but this technique is not directly applicable to 3D bounding boxes.









The BEV version y^{BEV} of the 3D bounding box y is pooled with the BEV feature map produced by SA-SSD, extracting a feature vector. Since y^{BEV} is an oriented 2D box and not necessarily axis-aligned, we here employ a modified variant of RolAlign [8].









The z coordinate c_z and height h of the 3D bounding box y are processed by two small fully-connected layers, extracting a feature vector each. Finally, all three feature vectors are concatenated.



The extra fully-connected layers are added onto a pre-trained and fixed SA-SSD detector. The parameters θ in $f_{\theta}(x, y)$ thus only stem from these added fully-connected layers, and the SA-SSD backbone and detection networks are kept fixed during training of the DNN f_{θ} .



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To train f_{θ} , we use NCE as previously described. We employ the same training parameters (batch size, data augmentation etc.) as for SA-SSD, only replacing the original detector loss with the NCE loss.



At test-time, the input LiDAR point cloud x^* is first processed by the SA-SSD detector. SA-SSD outputs a set $\{(\hat{y}_i, s_i)\}_{i=1}^D$ of D detections, where \hat{y}_i is a 3D bounding box and s_i is the associated classification confidence score.



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We then take all bounding boxes $\{\hat{y}_i\}_{i=1}^{D}$ as initial estimates and refine these via T steps of gradient ascent, producing $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^{D}$. The initial 3D bounding boxes $\{\hat{y}_i\}_{i=1}^{D}$ are thus refined by being moved toward different local maxima of $f_{\theta}(x^*, y)$.



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The refined boxes $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^{D}$ are finally combined with the original confidence scores, returning the detections $\{(y_i, s_i)\}_{i=1}^{D}$.



```
Algorithm 1 Gradient-based refinement.
Input: x^{\star}, \{\hat{y}_i\}_{i=1}^{D}, T, \lambda, \eta.
 1: for i = 1, ..., D do
 2: y \leftarrow \hat{y}_i.
  3: for t = 1, ..., T do
 4: PrevValue \leftarrow f_{\theta}(x^{\star}, y).

5: \tilde{y} \leftarrow y + \lambda \nabla_y f_{\theta}(x^{\star}, y).
 6: NewValue \leftarrow f_{\theta}(x^{\star}, \tilde{y}).
 7: if NewValue > PrevValue then
 8:
                y \leftarrow \tilde{y}.
 <u>9</u>.
                else
                      \lambda \leftarrow \eta \lambda.
10:
11:
           y_i \leftarrow y.
12: Return \{y_i\}_{i=1}^{D}.
```



TABLE I

RESULTS ON KITTI TEST IN TERMS OF 3D AND BEV AP.

	Easy	3D @ 0.7 Moderate	Hard	Easy	BEV @ 0.7 Moderate	7 Hard
Part-A ² [2]	87.81	78.49	73.51	91.70	87.79	84.61
SERCNN [64]	87.74	78.96	74.30	94.11	88.10	83.43
EPNet [65]	89.81	79.28	74.59	94.22	88.47	83.69
Point-GNN [66]	88.33	79.47	72.29	93.11	89.17	83.90
3DSSD [67]	88.36	79.57	74.55	92.66	89.02	85.86
STD [1]	87.95	79.71	75.09	94.74	89.19	86.42
SA-SSD [24]	88.75	79.79	74.16	95.03	91.03	85.96
3D-CVF [14]	89.20	80.05	73.11	93.52	89.56	82.45
CLOCs-PVCas [13]	88.94	80.67	77.15	93.05	89.80	86.57
PV-RCNN [3]	90.25	81.43	76.82	94.98	90.65	86.14
SA-SSD	88.80	79.52	72.30	95.44	89.63	84.34
SA-SSD+EBM	91.05	80.12	72.78	95.64	89.86	84.56
Rel. Improvement	+2.53%	+0.75%	+0.66%	+0.21%	+0.26%	+0.26%



TABLE II

RESULTS ON KITTI VAL IN TERMS OF 3D AND BEV AP.

	3D @ 0.7			BEV @ 0.7			
	Easy	Moderate	Hard	Easy	Moderate	Hard	
SA-SSD [24]	93.23	84.30	81.36	-	-	-	
CLOCs-PVCas [13]	92.78	85.94	83.25	93.48	91.98	89.48	
PV-RCNN [3]	92.57	84.83	82.69	95.76	91.11	88.93	
SA-SSD	93.14	84.65	81.86	96.56	92.84	90.36	
SA-SSD+EBM	95.45	86.83	82.23	96.60	92.92	90.43	
Rel. Improvement	+2.48%	+2.58%	+0.45%	+0.04%	+0.09%	+0.08%	



TABLE III												
Further comparison of our proposed detector and the SA-SSD baseline on KITTI val.												
	3D @ 0.75		3D @ 0.8		3D @ 0.85			3D @ 0.9				
	Easy	Moderate	Hard	Easy	Moderate	Hard	Easy	Moderate	Hard	Easy	Moderate	Hard
SA-SSD	84.48	73.91	70.99	60.89	50.08	47.37	24.29	19.58	18.05	2.06	1.58	1.33
SA-SSD+EBM	87.85	74.96	71.95	66.70	54.32	51.36	31.02	23.91	21.95	3.45	2.74	2.26
Rel. Improvement	+3.99%	+1.42%	+1.35%	+9.54%	+8.47%	+8.42%	+27.7%	+22.1%	+21.6%	+67.5%	+73.4%	+69.9%
	BEV @ 0.75		BEV @ 0.8			BEV @ 0.85			BEV @ 0.9			
	Easy	Moderate	Hard	Easy	Moderate	Hard	Easy	Moderate	Hard	Easy	Moderate	Hard
SA-SSD	95.41	87.47	84.79	87.12	79.07	74.65	61.53	54.15	50.39	17.48	15.71	14.58
SA-SSD+EBM	95.47	87.54	84.88	88.31	80.06	77.25	68.40	58.62	54.48	26.60	22.03	19.48
Rel. Improvement	+0.06%	+0.08%	+0.11%	+1.37%	+1.25%	+3.48%	+11.2%	+8.25%	+8.12%	+52.2%	+40.2%	+33.6%





Fig. 5. Impact of the number of gradient ascent iterations T on detector performance (3D AP with 0.7 threshold, averaged over easy, moderate and hard) and detector inference speed (FPS), on KITTI *val.*





Fig. 6. Visualization of the DNN scalar output $f_{\theta}(x, y)$ when a predicted 3D bounding box y (6) is rotated $\Delta \phi$ rad, demonstrating that the trained EBM $p(y|x;\theta)$ captures the inherent multi-modality in p(y|x).

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