Abstract

Existing fully-supervised person re-identification (ReID) methods usually suffer from poor generalization capability caused by domain gaps. The key to solving this problem lies in filtering out identity-irrelevant interference and learning domain-invariant person representations. In this paper, we aim to design a generalizable person ReID framework which trains a model on source domains yet is able to generalize/perform well on target domains. To achieve this goal, we propose a simple yet effective Style Normalization and Restitution (SNR) module. Specifically, we filter out style variations (e.g., illumination, color contrast) by Instance Normalization (IN). However, such a process inevitably removes discriminative information. We propose to distill identity-relevant feature from the removed information and restitute it to the network to ensure high discrimination. For better disentanglement, we enforce a dual causality loss constraint in SNR to encourage the separation of identity-relevant features and identity-irrelevant features. Extensive experiments demonstrate the strong generalization capability of our framework. Our models empowered by the SNR modules significantly outperform the state-of-the-art domain generalization approaches on multiple widely-used person ReID benchmarks, and also show superiority on unsupervised domain adaptation.

1. Introduction

Person re-identification (ReID) aims at matching/identifying a specific person across cameras, times, and locations. It facilitates many applications and has attracted a lot of attention.

Abundant approaches have been proposed for supervised person ReID, where a model is trained and tested on different splits of the same dataset [51, 38, 54, 8, 34, 53, 18, 17]. They typically focus on addressing the challenge of geometric misalignment among images caused by diversity of poses/viewpoints. In general, they perform well on the trained dataset but suffer from significant performance degradation (poor generalization capability) when testing on a previously unseen dataset. There are usually style discrepancies across domains/datasets which hinder the achievement of high generalization capability. Figure 1 shows some example images from different ReID datasets. The person images are captured by different cameras under different environments (e.g., lighting, seasons). They present a large style discrepancy in terms of illumination, hue, color contrast and saturation, quality/resolution, etc. For a ReID

[1] All faces in the images are masked for anonymization.

[**This work was done when Xin Jin was an intern at Microsoft Research Asia.**]

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system, we expect it to be able to identify the same person even captured in different environments, and distinguish between different people even if their appearance are similar. Both generalization and discrimination capabilities, although seemingly conflicting with each other, are very important for robust ReID.

Considering the existence of domain gaps and poor generalization capability, fully-supervised approaches or settings are not practical for real-world ReID system deployment, where the onsite manual annotation on the target domain data is expensive and hardly feasible. In recent years, some unsupervised domain adaptation (UDA) methods have been studied to adapt a ReID model from source to target domain [43, 40, 26, 33, 5, 50, 48]. UDA models update using unlabeled target domain data, emancipating the labelling efforts. However, data collection and model update are still required, adding additional cost.

We mainly focus on the more economical and practical domain generalizable person ReID. Domain generalization (DG) aims to design models that are generalizable to previously unseen domains [31, 16, 36], without having to access the target domain data and labels, and without requiring model updating. Most DG methods assume that the source and target domains have the same label space [19, 22, 31, 35] and they are not applicable to ReID since the target domains for ReID typically have a different label space from the source domains. Generalizable person ReID is challenging which aims to achieve high discrimination capability on unseen target domain that may have large domain discrepancy. The study on domain generalizable ReID is rare [36, 16] and remains an open problem. Jia et al. [16] and Zhou et al. [61] integrate Instance Normalization (IN) in the networks to alleviate the domain discrepancy due to appearance style variations. However, IN inevitably results in the loss of some discriminative features [14, 32], hindering the achievement of high efficiency ReID.

In this paper, we aim to design a generalizable ReID framework which achieves both high generalization capability and discrimination capability. The key is to find a way to disentangle the identity-relevant features and the identity-irrelevant features (e.g., image styles). Figure 1 illustrates our main idea. Considering the domain gaps among image samples, we perform style normalization by means of IN to eliminate style variations. However, the normalization inevitably discards some discriminative information and thus may hamper the ReID performance. From the residual information (which is the difference between the original information and the normalized information), we further distill the identity-relevant information as a compensation to the normalized information. Figure 2 shows our framework with the proposed Style Normalization and Restitution (SNR) modules embedded. To better disentangle the identity-relevant features from the residual, a dual causality loss constraint is added by ensuring the features after restitution of identity-relevant features to be more discriminative, and the features after compensation of identity-irrelevant features to be less discriminative.

We summarize our main contributions as follows:

- We propose a practical domain generalizable person ReID framework that generalizes well on previously unseen domains/datasets. Particularly, we design a Style Normalization and Restitution (SNR) module. SNR is simple yet effective and can be used as a plug-and-play module for existing ReID architectures to enhance their generalization capabilities.

- To facilitate the restitution of identity-relevant features from those discarded in the style normalization phase, we introduce a dual causality loss constraint in SNR for better feature disentanglement.

We validate the effectiveness of the proposed SNR module on multiple widely-used benchmarks and settings. Our models significantly outperform the state-of-the-art domain generalizable person ReID approaches and can also boost the performance of unsupervised domain adaptation for ReID.

2. Related Work

Supervised Person ReID. In the last decade, fully-supervised person ReID has achieved great progress, especially for deep learning based approaches [38, 21, 54, 8, 34, 53]. These methods usually perform well on the testing set of the source datasets but generalize poorly to previously unseen domains/datasets due to the style discrepancy across domains. This is problematic especially in practical applications, where the target scenes typically have different styles from the source domains and there is no readily available target domain data or annotation for training.

Unsupervised Domain Adaptation (UDA) for Person ReID. When the target domain data is accessible, even without annotations, it can be explored for the domain adaptation for enhancing the ReID performance. This requires target domain data collection and model updating. UDA-based ReID methods can be roughly divided into three categories: style transfer [3, 44, 26], attribute recognition [43, 49, 33], and target-domain pseudo label estimation [5, 37, 58, 40, 52, 50]. For pseudo label estimation, recently, Yu et al. propose a method called multilabel reference learning (MAR) which evaluates the similarity of a pair of images by comparing them to a set of known reference persons to mine hard negative samples [50].

Our proposed domain generalizable SNR module can also be combined with the UDA methods (e.g., by plugging into the UDA backbone) to further enhance the ReID performance. We will demonstrate its effectiveness by combining it with the UDA approach of MAR in Subsection 4.5.

Domain Generalization (DG). Domain Generalization is
a challenging problem of learning models that is generalizable to unseen domains [31, 35]. Muandet et al. learn an invariant transformation by minimizing the dissimilarity across source domains [31]. A learning-theoretic analysis shows that reducing dissimilarity improves the generalization ability on new domains. CrossGrad [35] generates pseudo training instances by perturbations in the loss gradients of the domain classifier and category classifier respectively. Most DG methods assume that the source and target domains have the same label space. However, ReID is an open-set problem where the target domains typically have different identities from the source domains, so that the general DG methods could not be directly applied to ReID.

Recently, a strong baseline for domain generalizable person ReID is proposed by simply combining multiple source datasets and training a single CNN [20]. Song et al. [36] propose a generalizable person ReID framework by using a meta-learning pipeline to make the model domain invariant. To overcome the inconsistency of label spaces among different datasets, it maintains a training datasets shared memory bank. Instance Normalization (IN) has been widely used in image style transfer [14, 42] and proved that it actually performs a kind of style normalization [32, 14]. Jia et al. [16] and Zhou et al. [61] apply this idea to ReID to alleviate the domain discrepancy and boost the generalization capability. However, IN inevitably discards some discriminative information. In this paper, we study how to design a generalizable ReID framework that can exploit the merit of IN while avoiding the loss of discriminative information.

3. Proposed Generalizable Person ReID

We aim at designing a generalizable and robust person ReID framework. During the training, we have access to one or several annotated source datasets. The trained model will be deployed directly to unseen domains/datasets and is expected to work well with high generalization capability.

Figure 2 shows the overall flowchart of our framework. Particularly, we propose a Style Normalization and Restitution (SNR) module to boost the generalization and discrimination capability of ReID models especially on unseen domains. SNR can be used as a plug-and-play module for existing ReID networks. Taking the widely used ReID network of ResNet-50 [10, 1, 28] as an example (see Figure 2(a)), SNR module is added after each convolutional block. In the SNR module, we first eliminate style discrepancies among samples by Instance Normalization (IN). Then, a dedicated restitution step is proposed to distill identity-relevant (discriminative) features from those previously discarded by IN, and add them to the normalized features. Moreover, for the SNR module, we design a dual causality loss constraint to facilitate the distillation of identity-relevant features from the information discarded by IN.

3.1. Style Normalization and Restitution (SNR)

Person images for ReID could be captured by different cameras under different scenes and environments (e.g., indoor/outdoors, shopping malls, street, sunny/cloudy). As shown in Figure 1, they present style discrepancies (e.g., in illumination, hue, contrast, saturation, quality), especially...
for samples from two different datasets/domains. Domain discrepancy between the source and target domain generally hinders the generalization capability of ReID models.

A learning-theoretic analysis shows that reducing dissimilarity improves the generalization ability on new domains [31]. Instance Normalization (IN) performs some kinds of style normalization which reduces the discrepancy/dissimilarity among instances/samples [14, 32], so it can enhance the generalization ability of networks [32, 16, 61]. However, IN inevitably removes some discriminative information and results in weaker discrimination capability [32]. To address this problem, we propose to restate the task-specific discriminative features from the IN removed information, by disentangling it into identity-relevant features and identity-irrelevant features with a dual causality loss constraint (see Figure 2(b)). We elaborate on the designed SNR module hereafter.

For an SNR module, we denote the input (which is a feature map) by $F \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w \times c}$ and the output by $F^+ \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w \times c}$, where $h, w, c$ denote the height, width, and number of channels, respectively.

**Style Normalization Phase.** In SNR, we first try to reduce the domain discrepancy on the input features by performing Instance Normalization [41, 4, 42, 14] as

$$
\bar{F} = \text{IN}(F) = \gamma (\frac{F - \mu(F)}{\sigma(F)}) + \beta,
$$

where $\mu(\cdot)$ and $\sigma(\cdot)$ denote the mean and standard deviation computed across spatial dimensions independently for each channel and each sample/instance, $\gamma, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^c$ are parameters learned from data. IN could filter out some instance-specific style information from the content. With IN taking place in the feature space, Huang et al. [14] have argued and experimentally shown that IN has more profound impacts than a simple contrast normalization and it performs a form of style normalization by normalizing feature statistics.

**Style Restitution Phase.** IN reduces style discrepancy and boosts the generalization capability. However, with the mathematical operations being deterministic and task-irrelevant, it inevitably discards some discriminative (task-relevant) information for ReID. We propose to restitution the identity-relevant feature to the network by distilling it from the residual feature $R$. $R$ is defined as

$$
R = F - \bar{F},
$$

which denotes the difference between the original input feature $F$ and the style normalized feature $\bar{F}$.

Given $R$, we further disentangle it into two parts: identity-relevant feature $R^+ \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w \times c}$ and identity-irrelevant feature $R^- \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w \times c}$ through masking $R$ by a learned channel attention vector $a = [a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_c] \in \mathbb{R}^c$:

$$
R^+ (\cdot, \cdot, k) = a_k R(\cdot, \cdot, k),
$$

$$
R^- (\cdot, \cdot, k) = (1 - a_k) R(\cdot, \cdot, k),
$$

where $R(\cdot, \cdot, k) \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w}$ denotes the $k$th channel of feature map $R$, $k = 1, 2, \ldots, c$. We expect the channel attention vector $a$ to enable the adaptive distillation of the identity-relevant features for restitution, and derive it by SE-like [13] channel attention as

$$
a = g(R) = \sigma(W_2 \delta(W_1 \text{pool}(R))),
$$

which consists of a global average pooling layer followed by two FC layers that are parameterized by $W_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{(c/r) \times c}$ and $W_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{c \times (c/r)}$ which are followed by ReLU activation function $\delta(\cdot)$ and sigmoid activation function $\sigma(\cdot)$, respectively. To reduce the number of parameters, a dimension reduction ratio $r$ is used and is set to 16.

By adding the distilled identity-relevant feature $R^+$ to the style normalized feature $\bar{F}$, we obtain the output feature $F^+$ of the SNR module as

$$
F^+ = \bar{F} + R^+.
$$

**Dual Causality Loss Constraint.** In order to facilitate the disentanglement of identity-relevant feature and identity-irrelevant feature, we design a dual causality loss constraint by comparing the discrimination capability of features before and after the restitution. As illustrated in Figure 2(c), the main idea is that: after restituting the identity-relevant feature $R^+$ to the normalized feature $\bar{F}$, the feature becomes more discriminative; On the other hand, after restituting the identity-irrelevant feature $R^-$ to the normalized feature $\bar{F}$, the feature should become less discriminative. We achieve this by defining a dual causality loss $\mathcal{L}_{\text{SNR}}$ which consists of clarification loss $\mathcal{L}_{\text{SNR}}^+$ and destruction loss $\mathcal{L}_{\text{SNR}}^-$, i.e., $\mathcal{L}_{\text{SNR}} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{SNR}}^+ + \mathcal{L}_{\text{SNR}}^-$. Within a mini-batch, we sample three images, i.e., an anchor sample $a$, a positive sample $p$ that has the same identity as the anchor sample, and a negative sample $n$ that has a different identity from the anchor sample. For simplicity, we differentiate the three samples by subscript. For example, the style normalized feature of sample $a$ is denoted by $\bar{F}_a$.

Intuitively, adding the identity-relevant feature $R^+$ to the normalized feature $\bar{F}$, which we refer to as enhanced feature $F^+ = \bar{F} + R^+$, results in better discrimination capability — the sample features with same identities are closer and those with different identities are farther apart. We calculate the distances between samples on a spatially average pooled feature to avoid the distraction caused by spatial misalignment among samples (e.g., due to different poses/viewpoints). We denote the spatially average pooled feature of $F$ and $F^+$ as $\bar{f} = \text{pool}(F)$, $\bar{f}^+ = \text{pool}(F^+)$, respectively. The clarification loss is thus defined as

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\text{SNR}}^+ = \text{Softplus}(d(\bar{f}_{ap}^+, \bar{f}_p^+)) + \text{Softplus}(d(\bar{f}_a, \bar{f}_p)),
$$

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\text{SNR}}^- = \text{Softplus}(d(\bar{f}_{ap}, \bar{f}_n)) + \text{Softplus}(d(\bar{f}_a, \bar{f}_n)),
$$

where $\mathcal{L}_{\text{SNR}}^+$ and $\mathcal{L}_{\text{SNR}}^-$ are the clarification and destruction loss, respectively.
where $d(x, y)$ denotes the distance between $x$ and $y$ which is defined as $d(x, y) = 0.5 - x^T y/(2\|x\|\|y\|)$. $\text{Softplus}(\cdot) = \ln(1 + \exp(\cdot))$ is a monotonically increasing function that aims to reduce the optimization difficulty by avoiding negative loss values.

On the other hand, we expect that the adding of the identity-irrelevant feature $R^\top$ to the normalized feature $\tilde{F}$, which we refer to as contaminated feature $\tilde{F}^\top = \tilde{F} + R^\top$, could decrease the discrimination capability. In comparison with the normalized feature $\tilde{F}$ before the compensation, we expect that adding $R^\top$ would push the sample features with same identities farther apart and pull those with different identities closer. We denote the spatially average pooled feature of $\tilde{F}^\top$ as $\tilde{F}^\top = \text{pool}(\tilde{F}^\top)$. The destruction loss is:

$$
\mathcal{L}^-_{SNR} = \text{Softplus}(d(\tilde{f}_a, \tilde{f}_p) - d(\tilde{f}_a, \tilde{f}_n)) + \text{Softplus}(d(\tilde{f}_a, \tilde{f}_n) - d(\tilde{f}_a, \tilde{f}_n)).
$$

### 3.2. Joint Training

We use the commonly used ResNet-50 as a base ReID network and insert the proposed SNR module after each convolution block (in total four convolution blocks/stages) (see Figure 2(a)). We train the entire network in an end-to-end manner. The overall loss is

$$
\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{ReID} + \sum_{b=1}^{4} \lambda_b \mathcal{L}^b_{SNR},
$$

where $\mathcal{L}^b_{SNR}$ denotes the dual causality loss for the $b^{th}$ SNR module. $\mathcal{L}_{ReID}$ denotes the widely-used ReID Loss (classification loss [39, 7], and triplet loss with batch hard mining [11]) on the ReID feature vectors. $\lambda_b$ is a weight which controls the relative importance of the regularization at stage $b$. In considering that the features of stage 3 and 4 are more relevant to the task (high-level semantics), we experimentally set $\lambda_3, \lambda_4$ to 0.5, and $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$ to 0.1.

### 4. Experiments

In this section, we first describe the datasets and evaluation metrics in Subsection 4.1. Then, for generalizable ReID, we validate the effectiveness of SNR in Subsection 4.2 and study its design choices in Subsection 4.3. We conduct visualization analysis in Subsection 4.4. Subsection 4.5 shows the comparisons of our schemes with the state-of-the-art approaches for both generalizable person ReID and unsupervised domain adaption ReID, respectively. In Subsection 4.6, we further validate the effectiveness of applying the SNR modules to another backbone network and to cross modality (Infrared-RGB) person ReID.

We use ResNet-50 [10, 1, 53, 28] as our base network for both baselines and our schemes. We build a strong baseline Baseline with some commonly used tricks integrated.

### 4.1. Datasets and Evaluation Metrics

To evaluate the generalization ability of our approach and to be consistent with what were done in prior works for performance comparisons, we conduct extensive experiments on commonly used public ReID datasets, including Market1501 [55], DukeMTMC-reID [57], CUHK03 [24], the large-scale MSMT17 [44], and four small-scale ReID datasets of PRID [12], GRID [27], VIPeR [9], and i-LIDS [45]. We denote Market1501 by M, DukeMTMC-reID by Duke or D, and CUHK03 by C for simplicity.

We follow common practices and use the cumulative matching characteristics (CMC) at Rank-1, and mean average precision (mAP) to evaluate the performance.

### 4.2. Ablation Study

We perform comprehensive ablation studies to demonstrate the effectiveness of the SNR module and its dual causality loss constraint. We mimic the real-world scenario for generalizable person ReID, where a model is trained on some source dataset(s) $A$ while tested on previously unseen dataset B. We denote this as $A \to B$. We have several experimental settings to evaluate the generalization capability, e.g., Market1501 $\to$ Duke and others, Duke $\to$ Market1501 and others, M+D+C+MSMT17 $\to$ others. Our settings cover both single source dataset for training and multiple source datasets for training.

Effectiveness of Our SNR. Here we compare several schemes. Baseline: a strong baseline based on ResNet-50. Baseline-A-IN: a naive model where we replace all the Batch Normalization (BN) [15] layers in Baseline by Instance Normalization (IN). Baseline-IBN: Similar to IBN-Net (IBN-b) [32] and OSNet [61], we add IN only to the last layers of Conv1 and Conv2 blocks of Baseline respectively. Baseline-A-SN: a model where we replace all the BN layers in Baseline by Switchable Normalization (SN). SN [29] can be regarded as an adaptive ensemble version of normalization techniques of IN, BN, and LN (Layer Normalization) [2]. Baseline-IN: four IN layers are added after the first four convolutional blocks/stages of Baseline respectively. Baseline-SNR: our final scheme where four SNR modules are added after the first four convolutional blocks/stages of Baseline respectively.

Baseline-A-IN: our final scheme where four SNR modules are added after the first four convolutional blocks/stages of Baseline respectively (see Figure 2(a)). We also refer to it as SNR for simplicity. Table 1 shows the results. We have the following observations/conclusions:

1. Baseline-A-IN improves Baseline by 4.3% in mAP for Market1501 $\to$ Duke, and 4.7% in mAP for Duke $\to$ Market1501. Other IN-related baselines also bring gains, which demonstrates the effectiveness of IN for improving the generalization capability for ReID. But, IN also inevitably discards some discriminative (identity-relevant) information and we can see it clearly decreases the performance of Baseline-A-IN, Baseline-IBN and Baseline-IN for the same-domain ReID (e.g., Market1501 $\to$ Market1501).
Baseline-A-SN learns the combination weights of IN, BN, and LN in the training dataset and thus has superior performance in the same domain, but it does not have dedicated design for boosting the generalization capability. 2) Thanks to the compensation of the identity-relevant information through the proposed restitution step, our final scheme Baseline-SNR achieves superior generalization capability, which significantly outperforms all the baseline schemes. In particular, Baseline-SNR outperforms Baseline-IN by 8.5%, 6.7%, 15.0% in mAP for M→D, D→M, and D→GRID, respectively.

3) The generalization performance on previously unseen target domain increases consistently as the number of source datasets increases. When all the four source datasets are used (the large-scale MSMT17 [44] also included), we have a very strong baseline (i.e., 52.1% in mAP on VIPeR dataset vs. 37.6% when Market1501 alone is used as source). Interestingly, our method still significantly outperforms the strong baseline Baseline, even by 21.0% in mAP on PRID dataset, demonstrating SNR’s effectiveness.

4) The performance of different schemes with respects to PRID/GRID varies greatly and the mAPs are all relatively low, which is caused by the large style discrepancy between PRID/GRID and other datasets. For such challenging cases, our scheme still outperforms Baseline-IN significantly by 7.5% and 4.7% in mAP for M→D and D→M, respectively. Such constraints facilitate the disentanglement of identity-relevant/identity-irrelevant features. In addition, both the clarification loss $L_{SNR}^\ast$ and the destruction loss $L_{SNR}^\ast$, are vital to SNR and they are complementary and jointly contribute to a superior performance.

Complexity. The model size of our final scheme SNR is very similar to that of Baseline (24.74 M vs. 24.56 M).

### 4.3. Design Choices of SNR

#### Which Stage to Add SNR?

We compare the cases of adding a single SNR module to a different convolutional block/stage, and to all the four stages (i.e., stage-1 ~ 4) of the ResNet-50 (see Figure 2(a)). The module is added after the last layer of a convolutional block/stage. As Table 2b shows, in comparison with Baseline, the improvement from adding SNR is significant on stage-3 and stage-4 and is a little smaller on stage-1 and stage-2. When SNR is added to all the four stages, we achieve the best performance.

#### Influence of Disentanglement Design.

In our SNR module, as described in (3)(4) of Subsection 3.1, we use $g(\cdot)$, and its complementary one $1 - g(\cdot)$ as masks to extract identity-relevant feature $R^+$ and identity-irrelevant feature $R^-$ from the residual feature $R$. Here, we study the influence of different disentanglement designs within SNR. $SNR_{conv}$: we disentangle the residual feature $R$ through $1 \times 1$ convolutional layer followed by non-linear ReLU activation, i.e., $R^+ = ReLU(W^+ R)$, $R^- = ReLU(W^- R)$. $SNR_{g(\cdot)}$: we use two unshared gates $g(\cdot)^+$, $g(\cdot)^-$ to obtain $R^+$ and $R^-$ respectively. Table 2c shows the results. We observe that (1) ours outperforms $SNR_{conv}$ by 3.9% and 4.5% in mAP for M→D and D→M, respectively, demonstrating the benefit of content-adaptive design; (2) ours outperforms $SNR_{g(\cdot)}$ by 2.4%/2.9% in mAP on the unseen target Duke/Market1501, demonstrating the benefit of the design which encourages interaction between $R^+$ and $R^-$.  

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**Table 1:** Performance (%) comparisons of our scheme and others to demonstrate the effectiveness of our SNR module for generalizable person ReID. The rows denote source dataset(s) for training and the columns correspond to different target datasets for testing. We mask the results of supervised ReID by gray where the testing domain has been seen in training. Due to space limitation, we only show a portion of the results here and more comparisons can be found in Supplementary.
Table 2: Effectiveness of dual causality loss constraint (a), and study on design choices of SNR (b) and (c).

(a) Study on the dual causality loss constraint.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>M→D mAP</th>
<th>D→M mAP</th>
<th>Rank-1 mAP</th>
<th>Rank-1 mAP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baseline</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>48.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNR w/o $\mathcal{L}_{SNR}$</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>57.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNR w/o $\mathcal{L}_{SNR}^*$</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>48.9</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>59.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNR w/o $\mathcal{L}_{SNR}$</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>59.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNR</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) Study on which stage to add SNR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>M→D mAP</th>
<th>D→M mAP</th>
<th>Rank-1 mAP</th>
<th>Rank-1 mAP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baseline</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>48.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stage-1</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>57.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stage-2</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>58.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stage-3</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>60.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stage-4</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>45.8</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>59.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stages-all</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c) Disentanglement designs in SNR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>M→D mAP</th>
<th>D→M mAP</th>
<th>Rank-1 mAP</th>
<th>Rank-1 mAP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baseline</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>48.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNR</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>51.1</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>61.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNR $g_T^2$</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>52.9</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>63.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNR</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3: (a) Activation maps of different features within an SNR module (SNR 3). They show SNR can disentangle the identity-relevant/irrelevant features well. (b) Activation maps of our scheme (bottom) and the strong baseline Baseline (top) corresponding to images of varied styles. Our maps are more consistent/invariant to style variants.

4.4. Visualization

Feature Map Visualization. To better understand how an SNR module works, we visualize the intermediate feature maps of the third SNR module (SNR 3). Following [61, 56], we get each activation map by summarizing the feature maps along channels followed by a spatial $\ell_2$ normalization.

Figure 3(a) shows the activation maps of normalized feature $\tilde{F}$, enhanced feature $\tilde{F}^+ = \tilde{F} + R^+$, and contaminated feature $\tilde{F}^- = \tilde{F} + R^-$, respectively. We see that after adding the identity-irrelevant feature $R^-$, the contaminated feature $\tilde{F}^-$ has high response mainly on background. In contrast, the enhanced feature $\tilde{F}^+$ with the restitution of identity-relevant feature $R^+$ has high responses on regions of the human body, better capturing discriminative regions.

Moreover, in Figure 3(b), we further compare the activation maps $\tilde{F}^+$ of our scheme and those of the strong baseline scheme Baseline by varying the styles of input images (e.g., contrast, illumination, saturation). We can see that, for the images with different styles, the activation maps of our scheme are more consistent/invariant than those of Baseline. In contrast, the activation maps of Baseline are more disorganized and are easily affected by style variants. These indicate our scheme is more robust to style variations.

Visualization of Feature Distributions. In Figure 4, we visualize the distribution of the features from the 3rd SNR module of our network using t-SNE [30]. They denote the distributions of features for (a) input $F$, (b) style normalized feature $\tilde{F}$, and (c) output $\tilde{F}^+$ of the SNR module. We observe that, (a) before SNR, the extracted features from two datasets (‘red’: source training dataset Market1501; ‘green’: unseen target dataset Duke) are largely separately distributed and have an obvious domain gap. (b) Within the SNR module, after IN, this domain gap has been eliminated. But the samples of the same identity (‘yellow’ and ‘purple’ colored nodes denote two identities respectively) become dispersive. (c) After the restitution of identity-relevant features, not only has the domain gap of feature distributions been shrunk, but also the feature distribution of samples with same identity become more compact than that in (b).

4.5. Comparison with State-of-the-Arts

Thanks to the capability of reducing style discrepancy and restitution of identity-relevant features, our proposed SNR module can enhance the generalization ability and maintain the discriminative ability of ReID networks. It can be used for generalizable person ReID, i.e., domain generalization (DG), and can also be used to build the backbone networks for unsupervised domain adaptation (UDA) for person ReID. We evaluate the effectiveness of SNR on both DG-ReID and UDA-ReID by comparing with the state-of-the-art approaches in Table 3.

Domian generalizable person ReID is very attractive in practical applications, which supports “train once and run everywhere”. However, there are very few works in this field [36, 16, 61, 20]. Thanks to the exploration of the style normalization and restitution, our scheme SNR(Ours) significantly outperforms the second best method OSNet-IBN [61] by 6.9% and 7.8% for Market1501→Duke and Duke→Market1501 in mAP, respectively. OSNet-IBN adds Instance Normalization (IN) to the lower layers of their proposed OSNet following [32]. However, this does not overcome the intrinsic shortcoming of IN and is not optimal.

Song et al. [36] also explore domain generalizable
person ReID and propose a Domain-Invariant Mapping Network (DIMN) to learn the mapping between a person image and its identity classifier with a meta-learning pipeline. We follow [36] and train SNR on the same five datasets (M+D+C+CUHK02[23]+CUHK-SYSU[47]). SNR outperforms DIMN by 14.6%/16.6%/12.4%/11.5% in mAP and 12.9%/10.9%/1.7%/13.9% in Rank-1 on the PRID/GRID/VIPeR/Hi-LIDS.

Unsupervised domain adaptation for ReID has been extensively studied where the unlabeled target data is also used for training. We follow the most commonly-used source→target setting [59, 26, 61, 50, 48] for comparison. We take SNR (see Figure 2(a)) as the backbone followed by a domain adaptation strategy MAR [50] for domain adaptation, which we denote as SNR(Ours)+MAR [50]. For comparison, we take our strong Baseline as the backbone followed by MAR, which we denote as Baseline+MAR, to evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed SNR modules. We can see that SNR(Ours)+MAR [50] significantly outperforms the second-best UDA ReID method by 3.8%, 3.4% in mAP for Market1501+Duke(U)→Duke and Duke+Market1501(U)→Market1501, respectively. In addition, SNR(Ours)+MAR outperforms Baseline+MAR by 22.9%, 24.5% in mAP. Similar trends can be found for MSMT17+Duke(U)→Duke and MSMT17+Market1501(U)→Market1501.

In general, as a plug-and-play module, SNR clearly enhances the generalization capability of ReID networks.

4.6. Extension

Performance on Other Backbone. We add SNR into the recently proposed lightweight ReID network OSNet [61] and observe that by simply inserting SNR modules between the OS-Blocks, the new scheme OSNet-SNR outperforms their model OSNet-IBN by 5.0% and 5.5% in mAP for M→D and D→M, respectively (see Supplementary).

RGB-Infrared Cross-Modality Person ReID. To further demonstrate the capability of SNR in handling images with large style variations, we conduct experiment on a more challenging RGB-Infrared cross-modality person ReID task on benchmark dataset SYSU-MM01 [46]. Our scheme which integrates SNR to Baseline outperforms Baseline significantly by 8.4%, 8.2%, 11.0%, and 11.5% in mAP under 4 different settings, and also achieves the state-of-the-art performance (see Supplementary for more details).

5. Conclusion

In this paper, we propose a generalizable person ReID framework to enable effective ReID. A Style Normalization and Restitution (SNR) module is introduced to exploit the merit of Instance Normalization (IN) that filters out the interference from style variations, and restitute the identity-relevant features that are discarded by IN. To efficiently disentangle the identity-relevant and -irrelevant features, we further design a dual causality loss constraint in SNR. Extensive experiments on several benchmarks/SETTINGS demonstrate the effectiveness of SNR. Our framework with SNR embedded achieves the best performance on both domain generalization and unsupervised domain adaptation ReID. Moreover, we have also verified SNR’s effectiveness on RGB-Infrared ReID task, and on another backbone.

6. Acknowledgments

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3152