

# UniHCP: A Unified Model for Human-Centric Perceptions

Yuanzheng Ci<sup>1\*</sup>, Yizhou Wang<sup>2,3\*</sup>, Meilin Chen<sup>2</sup>, Shixiang Tang<sup>1</sup>, Lei Bai<sup>3†</sup>, Feng Zhu<sup>4</sup>, Rui Zhao<sup>4,5</sup>,  
 Fengwei Yu<sup>4</sup>, Donglian Qi<sup>2</sup>, Wanli Ouyang<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>The University of Sydney, <sup>2</sup>Zhejiang University, <sup>3</sup>Shanghai AI Laboratory, <sup>4</sup>SenseTime Research,  
<sup>5</sup>Qing Yuan Research Institute, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, Shanghai, China

yuanzheng.ci@sydney.edu.au, yizhouwang@zju.edu.cn, bailei@pjlab.org.cn

## Abstract

Human-centric perceptions (e.g., pose estimation, human parsing, pedestrian detection, person re-identification, etc.) play a key role in industrial applications of visual models. While specific human-centric tasks have their own relevant semantic aspect to focus on, they also share the same underlying semantic structure of the human body. However, few works have attempted to exploit such homogeneity and design a general-propose model for human-centric tasks. In this work, we revisit a broad range of human-centric tasks and unify them in a minimalist manner. We propose UniHCP, a **Unified Model for Human-Centric Perceptions**, which unifies a wide range of human-centric tasks in a simplified end-to-end manner with the plain vision transformer architecture. With large-scale joint training on 33 human-centric datasets, UniHCP can outperform strong baselines on several in-domain and downstream tasks by direct evaluation. When adapted to a specific task, UniHCP achieves new SOTAs on a wide range of human-centric tasks, e.g., 69.8 mIoU on CIHP for human parsing, 86.18 mA on PA-100K for attribute prediction, 90.3 mAP on Market1501 for ReID, and 85.8 JI on CrowdHuman for pedestrian detection, performing better than specialized models tailored for each task. The code and pretrained model are available at <https://github.com/OpenGVLab/UniHCP>.

## 1. Introduction

Research on human-centric perceptions has come a long way with tremendous advancements in recent years. Many methods have been developed to enhance the performance of pose estimation [9, 25, 60, 91], pedestrian detection [4, 62, 63, 76], person re-identification [42, 86, 101] (ReID), and many other human-centered tasks. These significant progress play a key role in advancing the applications of vi-

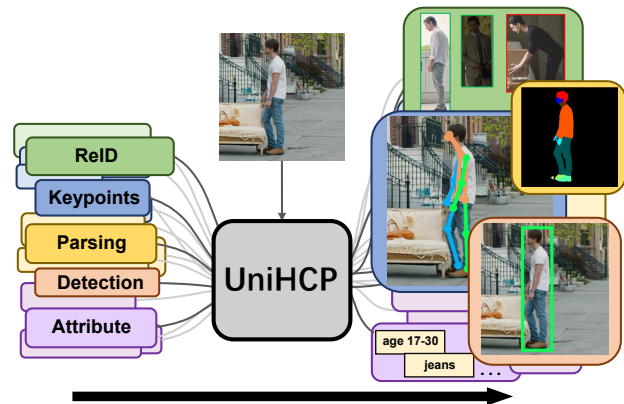


Figure 1. UniHCP unifies 5 human-centric tasks under one model and is trained on a massive collection of human-centric datasets.

sual models in numerous fields, such as sports analysis [11], autonomous driving [97], and electronic retailing [27].

Although different human-centric perception tasks have their own relevant semantic information to focus on, those semantics all rely on the same basic structure of the human body and the attributes of each body part [64, 81]. In light of this, there have been some attempts trying to exploit such homogeneity and train a shared neural network jointly with distinct human-centric tasks [28, 29, 46, 48, 61, 71, 77, 87, 98]. For instance, human parsing has been trained in conjunction with human keypoint detection [46, 61, 98], pedestrian attribute recognition [87], pedestrian detection [48] or person re-identification [28]. The experimental results of these works empirically validate that some human-centric tasks may benefit each other when trained together. Motivated by these works, a natural expectation is that a more versatile all-in-one model could be a feasible solution for general human-centric perceptions, which can utilize the homogeneity of human-centric tasks for improving performance, enable fast adaption to new tasks, and decrease the burden of memory cost in large-scale multitask system deployment compared with specific models to specific tasks.

However, unifying distinct human-centric tasks into a

\*Equal contribution.

†Corresponding author.

general model is challenging considering the data diversity and output structures. From the data’s perspective, images in different human-centric tasks and different datasets have different resolutions and characteristics (e.g., day and night, indoor and outdoor), which calls for a robust representative network with the capability to accommodate them. From the perspective of output, the annotations and expected outputs of different human-centric tasks have distinct structures and granularities. Although this challenge can be bypassed via deploying separate output heads for each task/dataset, it is not scalable when the number of tasks and datasets is large.

In this work, we aim to explore a simple, scalable formulation for unified human-centric system and, for the first time, propose a Unified model for Human-Centric Perceptions (UniHCP). As shown in Figure.1, UniHCP unifies and simultaneously handles five distinct human-centric tasks, namely, pose estimation, semantic part segmentation, pedestrian detection, ReID, and person attribute recognition. Motivated by the extraordinary capacity and flexibility of the vision transformers [43, 94], a simple yet unified encoder-decoder architecture with the plain vision transformer is employed to handle the input diversity, which works in a simple feedforward and end-to-end manner, and can be shared across all human-centric tasks and datasets to extract general human-centric knowledge. To generate the output for different tasks with the unified model, UniHCP defines Task-specific Queries, which are shared among all datasets with the same task definition and interpreted into different output units through a Task-guided Interpreter shared across different datasets and tasks. With task-specific queries and the versatile interpreter, UniHCP avoids the widely used task-specific output heads, which minimizes task-specific parameters for knowledge sharing and make backbone-encoded features reusable across tasks.

Owing to these designs, UniHCP is suitable and easy to perform multitask pretraining at scale. To this end, we pre-trained an UniHCP model on a massive collection of 33 labeled human-centric datasets. By harnessing the abundant supervision signals of each task, we show such a model can simultaneously handle these in-pretrain tasks well with competitive performance compared to strong baselines relying on specialized architectures. When adapted to a specific task, both in-domain and downstream, our model achieves new SOTAs on several human-centric task benchmarks. In summary, the proposed model has the following properties:

- Unifying five distinct human-centric tasks and handling them simultaneously.
- Shared encoder-decoder network based on plain transformer.
- Simple task-specific queries identifying the outputs.
- Maximum weight sharing (99.97% shared parameters) with a task-guided interpreter.

- Trainable at scale and demonstrates competitive performance compared to task-specialized models.

## 2. Related Works

### 2.1. Human-Centric Perceptions

Human-centric perceptions are essential for substantial real-world applications. Depending on the targeted visual concept, the way of decoding output from image features varies across tasks. Specifically, pose estimation and pedestrian detection are both localization tasks that can be solved by either regression-based methods [37, 96] or heatmap-based methods [33, 34, 84]. Human parsing, as a fine-grained segmentation problem, is usually solved by per-pixel classification. While contour-based methods [65, 85] can also obtain segmentation masks, it requires instance-level mask annotations, which are not always available. PAR is treated as a multi-label classification task [104], and ReID is treated as a feature learning task [74].

Recently, several transformer-based solutions have been proposed for these human-centric tasks, with attention block designs on both backbone [19, 88, 93] and decoding network [40, 44, 54, 59, 87, 102]. However, these methods involve *different* task-specific designs and thus cannot be integrated into one model seamlessly. Built upon the general success of these works, we take a further step and unify human-centric tasks under the *same* architecture based on plain vision transformer.

### 2.2. Unified Models

A general-purpose model that can handle different tasks in a unified manner has long been a coveted alternative to models specifically tailored for different tasks. Pioneering works regarding Natural Language Processing (NLP) [66], vision-language [58], and basic vision tasks [30, 68] have shown the effectiveness of such kind of unified cross-task models. ExT5 [2] and OFA [80] further provide a degree of promise for the performance benefits of large-scale multitask co-training. Among models supporting visual tasks, UniHead [45] and UViM [31] propose a unified architecture for several vision tasks. However, they are only trained and evaluated in a single-task manner.

For methods supporting multitask co-training, UniPerceiver [106] focuses on tasks in which the desired output is inherently language or labels, which does not fit human-centric tasks. While UniT [21], OFA [80], Unified-IO [57], and Pix2Seq v2 [6] further extend the support for detection, keypoint detection, segmentation, and many other visual tasks, they rely on *independent decoder heads* [21, 80] or *autoregressive* modeling [6, 57]. These works do not focus on human-centric vision tasks. Differently, our work introduces a *shared decoder head* (task-guided interpreter) in a *parallelly feedforward* manner for human-centric vision

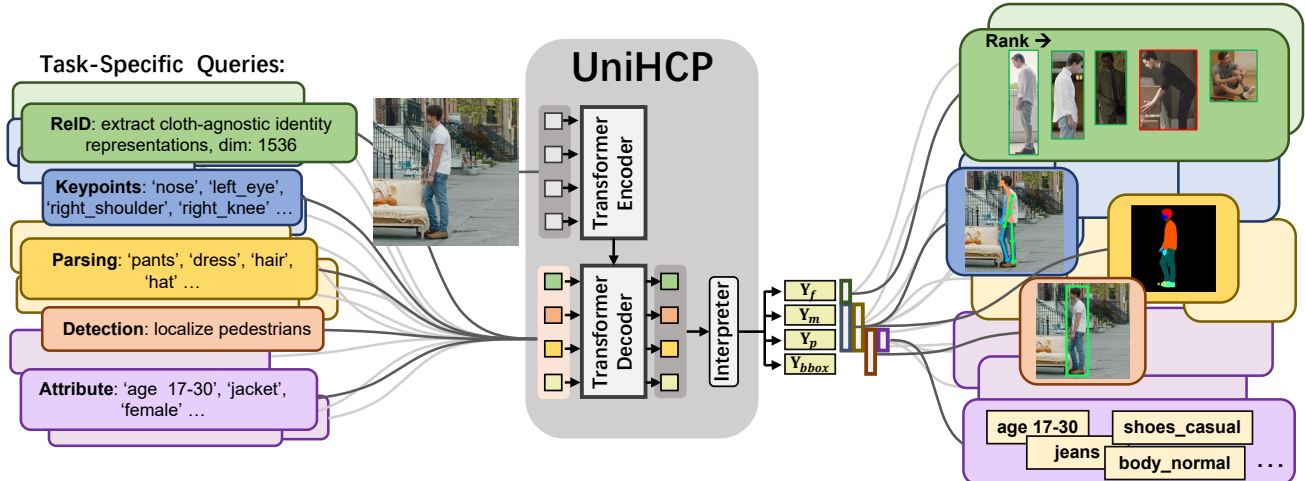


Figure 2. UniHCP handles a massive collection of human-centric tasks uniformly by task-specific queries and a task-guided interpreter, all predictions are yielded in parallel through a simple encoder-decoder transformer architecture.

Table 1. Network details of UniHCP

	Layers	Dimension	Params
Encoder	12	768	91.1M
Decoder	9	256	14.5M
Task-guided Interpreter			3.5M
Task-specific queries		256	<0.03M
Total			109.1M
Task-agnostic params / total params			99.97%

tasks, which is simple yet maximizes the parameter sharing among different tasks.

In the case of human-centric tasks, many works have shown great success by co-training a pair of human-centric tasks [28, 29, 46, 48, 61, 71, 77, 87, 98]. However, there is no work exploring a general unified model that can handle all representative human-centric tasks. Our work is the first attempt at designing, training, and evaluating a unified human-centric model with a large-scale multitask setting.

### 3. UniHCP

To share the most knowledge among various human-centric tasks, we attempt to maximize weight sharing among all tasks in UniHCP. Specifically, our UniHCP, as shown in Figure 2, consists of three components: (1) A task-agnostic transformer encoder  $E$  to extract image features. (2) A transformer decoder  $D$  that attends to task-specific information according to task-specific queries  $\{Q^t\}$ , where  $t$  denotes a specific task. (3) A task-guided interpreter  $\mathcal{I}$  produces output units, in which we decompose the output of multiple human-centric perception tasks into shorable units of diverse granularities, *i.e.*, feature representation, lo-

cal probability map, global probability, bounding box coordinates. Since only the queries to the decoders are not shared among tasks, we can learn human-centric knowledge across different granularities by the designed interpreters and achieve maximum parameter sharing among all tasks, *i.e.*, **99.97%** shared parameters, as shown in Table 1. The pipeline for our UniHCP is described as follows.

*Step 1:* Given an image  $X$  sampled from the dataset in task  $t$ , extract encoded features  $F$  by the task-agnostic transformer encoder  $E$  (Sec. 3.1).

*Step 2:* A transformer decoder  $D$  with task-specific queries  $Q^t$  extracts task-specific features from encoded features  $F$  (Sec. 3.2).

*Step 3:* Generate output units according to the queried task, *i.e.*, attended features  $Y_f$ , local probability map  $Y_m$ , global probability  $Y_p$  and bounding box coordinates  $Y_{bbox}$  by a task-guided interpreter  $\mathcal{I}$  (Sec. 3.3). For example, for human parsing, two units: local probability map  $Y_m$  (for semantic part segmentation) and global probability  $Y_p$  (for existence of body part in the image), are generated.

*Step 4:* Calculate the loss of the corresponding task for optimizing the encoder  $E$ , the decoder  $D$ , the task-specific queries  $Q^t$  and task-guided interpreter  $\mathcal{I}$  by backward propagation (Sec. 3.4).

#### 3.1. Task-agnostic Transformer Encoder

UniHCP uses a plain Vision Transformer [14] (ViT) as the encoder. To handle input images of different resolutions, we use a shared learnable positional embedding with the size of  $84 \times 84$  and interpolate it based on the spatial size of the input image after patch projection. The encoded feature  $F$  can be mathematically calculated as

$$F = E(X, P_E), \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{P}_E$  is the positional embedding after interpolation and  $E$  denotes the task-agnostic transformer encoder.

### 3.2. Decoder with Task-specific Queries

To obtain the most discriminative feature for each task while maximizing knowledge sharing, we design task-specific queries to guide the transformer decoder only attending to task-relevant information.

**Task-specific Queries.** Task queries for task  $t$  are denoted as

$$\mathbf{Q}^t = [\mathbf{q}_1^t, \mathbf{q}_2^t, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{N^t}^t], \quad (2)$$

where  $N^t$  denotes the number of queries representing  $N^t$  different semantic meanings in task  $t$ . For pedestrian attribute recognition, pose estimation, human parsing, and ReID, the number of queries respectively equals to the number of attributes, the number of pose joints, the number of semantic parsing classes, and the length of desired ReID features. For pedestrian detection, we follow the implementation in [82], with details provided in the supplementary material. We randomly initialize the task-specific query  $\mathbf{Q}^t$  as learnable embeddings  $\mathbf{Q}_0^t$  and refine it with the following decoder blocks.

Following the common practice as in [8, 78, 82], all  $\mathbf{Q}^t$  are also associated with a positional embedding  $\mathbf{Q}_p^t$ , which has the same dimension as  $\mathbf{Q}^t$  and is not shared across tasks. Different from  $\mathbf{Q}^t$  that will be progressively refined in the decoder blocks,  $\mathbf{Q}_p^t$  is shared across decoder blocks. For tasks other than pedestrian detection,  $\mathbf{Q}_p^t$  is simply a learnable positional embedding that is randomly initialized. For pedestrian detection, we have

$$\mathbf{Q}_p^t = \text{proj}(\mathcal{A}_Q), \quad (3)$$

where  $\mathcal{A}_Q \in \mathbb{R}^{N^t \times 2}$  refers to  $N^t$  learnable anchor points that are initialized with a uniform distribution following [82], and  $\text{proj}$  is a projection from coordinates to positional embeddings (more details about the projector are elaborated in the supplementary materials).

**Decoder.** The transformer decoder aims to attend to task-specific features according to the task queries. We follow the standard design of transformer decoders [78]. In the decoder, each transformer block  $D_l$  for  $l = 1, 2, \dots, L$  consists of a cross-attention module, a self-attention module, and a feed-forward module (FFN), where  $L$  denotes the number of transformer blocks. We place cross-attention before self-attention as adopted by [8, 36]. For each block  $D_l$ , we attend to task-specific information from the encoded feature by task queries, which can be formulated as

$$\mathbf{Q}_l^t = D_l(\mathbf{Q}_{l-1}^t, \mathbf{Q}_p^t, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{F}_p), \quad (4)$$

$$\text{where } \mathbf{F}_p = \text{proj}(\mathcal{A}_F), \quad (5)$$

$\mathcal{A}_F \in \mathbb{R}^{H_F W_F \times 2}$  is the coordinates with respect to the original image for all feature tokens in  $\mathbf{F} \in \mathbb{R}^{H_F \times W_F}$ . For

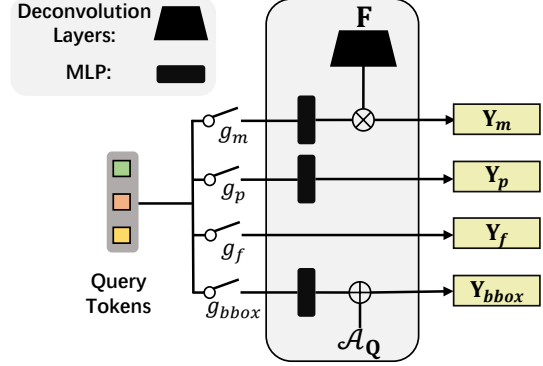


Figure 3. Task-guided interpreter.  $\otimes$  denotes a dynamic convolution module [7] that takes the projected query feature as the kernel and takes the tokens  $\mathbf{F}$  from the encoder as the feature map, where  $\mathbf{F}$  is upscaled to the desired resolution  $H' \times W'$ ,  $\oplus$  denotes addition, for which the inputs are the projected query feature in the format of  $[\nabla cx, \nabla cx, h, w]$  and  $\mathcal{A}_Q$ , which contains the anchor point  $[cx, cy]$  (see supplementary materials for details).

the cross-attention in the decoder  $D_l$ , the query is  $\hat{\mathbf{Q}}_l^t = \mathbf{Q}_{l-1}^t + \mathbf{Q}_p^t$ , the key is  $\hat{\mathbf{K}} = \mathbf{F}' + \mathbf{F}_p$ , and the value is  $\hat{\mathbf{V}} = \mathbf{F}'$ , where  $\mathbf{F}'$  is linearly projected from the features of the encoder  $\mathbf{F}$  to align channel dimensions. The result of cross-attention is then passed for self-attention in  $D_l$ .

### 3.3. Task-guided Interpreter

Task-guided interpreter  $\mathcal{I}$  interprets query tokens  $\mathbf{Q}^t$  into four output units subject to the request of a specific task. As shown in Figure 3, these four output units are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{feature vector unit} : \mathbf{Y}_f &\in \mathbb{R}^{N^t \times C} \\ \text{global probability unit} : \mathbf{Y}_p &\in \mathbb{R}^{N^t \times 1} \\ \text{local probability map unit} : \mathbf{Y}_m &\in \mathbb{R}^{N^t \times H' \times W'} \\ \text{bounding box unit} : \mathbf{Y}_{bbox} &\in \mathbb{R}^{N^t \times 4}, \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

where  $C$  is the output dimension of the decoder,  $H' \times W'$  denotes the desired resolution for the local probability map. Given task  $t$  and output interpreter  $\mathcal{I}$ , the output of the Uni-HCP is defined as follows:

$$\{\mathbf{Y}_u | g_u^{\mathbf{t}_t} = 1, u \in \{f, p, m, bbox\}\} = \mathcal{I}(\mathbf{Q}^t, \mathbf{g}^{\mathbf{t}_t}), \quad (7)$$

where  $\mathbf{t}_t \in \{reid, \dots, pose\}$  denotes the task type of task  $t$ ,  $\mathbf{g}^{\mathbf{t}_t} = \{g_u^{\mathbf{t}_t}\}$  is a set of task-specific binary gates ( $g \in \{0, 1\}$ ) that represents the desired output units for task type  $\mathbf{t}_t$ .

**Guidance from tasks to output units.** For human parsing, local probability map (for semantic part segmentation) and global probability (for existence of body part in the image) are activated, corresponding to  $g_m^{seg} = 1$  and  $g_p^{seg} = 1$  respectively. For person ReID, feature vectors are used, corresponding to  $g_f^{reid} = 1$ . For pose estimation,  $g_m^{pose} = 1$



(for localizing key points) and  $g_p^{pose} = 1$  (for existence of keypoints in the image). For detection,  $g_{bbox}^{det} = 1$  (for bounding box prediction) and  $g_p^{det} = 1$  (for existence of object). For pedestrian attribute prediction,  $g_p^{par} = 1$  (for existence of attributes in the image). Therefore, the output unit of global probabilities is shared among pose estimation, human parsing, pedestrian detection, and attribute recognition. The output unit of local probability maps is shared among pose estimation and human parsing.

**Discussion.** The task-guided interpreter interprets each query token independently. Previous works focused on autoregressive decoding with tokenization [6, 57] or task-specific heads [21, 92] to handle different output units required by specific tasks. In contrast, the task-guided interpreter can handle tasks involving a varying number of classes, yield all results in parallel, and do not require task-specific heads. This is achieved by two designs in our UniHCP framework: 1) Class/instance information is self-contained in queries. As mentioned in Section 3.2, a query represents a particular semantic class in pose estimation, attribute prediction, human parsing, and pedestrian detection. We only need to retrieve a scalar probability value from a query to obtain the confidence information for a particular class/human instance. 2) Outputs of the same modality share the same output unit. For example, the heatmap for a particular joint in pose estimation and the heatmap for a particular body part in human parsing have the same dimension. Although these outputs have different meanings, experimental results in Section 4.3 show that it is suitable to obtain them through the same output unit and fully let the task-specific queries handle the differences in preferred information to be represented.

### 3.4. Objective Functions

In this section, we will introduce the objective functions for training diverse human-centric tasks together and illustrate how these objectives are related to the output units defined in Eq. 6. Unless otherwise specified, we omit the GT inputs in loss functions for brevity.

**Overall Objective Function.** Given a collection of datasets  $\mathbb{D} = \{\mathcal{D} | \mathbf{t}_{\mathcal{D}} \in \{reid, \dots, pose\}\}$ , where  $\mathbf{t}_{\mathcal{D}}$  denotes the task type of dataset  $\mathcal{D}$ , we also note  $t_{\mathcal{D}}$  as the task of dataset  $\mathcal{D}$ , we have the overall loss defined as:

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{\mathcal{D} \in \mathbb{D}} w_{\mathcal{D}} \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{t}_{\mathcal{D}}}(\mathcal{I}(\mathbf{Q}^{t_{\mathcal{D}}}, \mathbf{g}^{t_{\mathcal{D}}}), \quad (8)$$

where  $w_{\mathcal{D}}$  is the loss weight for dataset  $\mathcal{D}$ , which is calculated based on the task type and batch size (calculations are elaborated in supplementary materials).

**ReID.** Person ReID is a feature learning task for extracting identification information. Therefore, we directly supervised the features after the decoder by identity annotations.

Specifically, for ReID task, the extracted feature is a simple concatenation of all feature vectors  $\mathbf{Y}_f = [y_f^1; \dots; y_f^{N^t}]$ , where  $N^t = 6$  by default. The loss function is a combination of ID loss [103] and triplet loss [52] written as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{reid} = \mathcal{L}_{ID}(\mathbf{Y}_f) + \mathcal{L}_{triplet}(\mathbf{Y}_f). \quad (9)$$

**PAR.** Pedestrian attribute recognition only predicts whether an attribute exists in the global image. Therefore, we only supervise the output unit of global probabilities  $\mathbf{Y}_p$  from the task-guided interpreter. Specifically, following the common practice [40, 75], we adopt the weighted binary cross-entropy loss. Given the probability predictions  $\mathbf{Y}_p$  associated with  $N^t$  attributes, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{par} &= \sum_{n=1}^{N^t} w_n (y_n \log(y_p^n) + (1 - y_n) \log(1 - y_p^n)), \\ w_n &= y_n e^{1-\gamma_n} + (1 - y_n) e^{\gamma_n}, \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

where  $y_n$  denotes the annotation of  $n$ -th attribute and  $\gamma_n$  denotes the positive example ratio of  $n$ -th attribute.

**Human Parsing.** Human parsing can be considered as semantic segmentation of human part. We view the presence of semantic classes as predictable attributes since the semantic classes are not always present in an image. Therefore, the global probability  $\mathbf{Y}_p$  and local probability map  $\mathbf{Y}_m$  are selected from the output units to describe whether a semantic part exists on the image level (global) and pixel level (local), respectively. Given a query  $\mathbf{q}_l$  defined in Eq. 2 which corresponds to a semantic class in human parsing, we adopt the binary cross entropy loss as  $\mathcal{L}_{par}$  in pedestrian attribute recognition to constrain the global probability  $\mathbf{Y}_p$ , and a combination of binary cross-entropy loss and dice loss [8] to supervised local probability map  $\mathbf{Y}_m$  as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{seg} = \lambda_{par} \mathcal{L}_{par}(\mathbf{Y}_p) + \mathcal{L}_{bce}(\mathbf{Y}_m) + \mathcal{L}_{dice}(\mathbf{Y}_m),$$

where  $\lambda_{par}$  denotes the loss weight for  $\mathcal{L}_{par}(\mathbf{Y}_p)$ .

**Pose Estimation.** We follow the common top-down setting for pose estimation, i.e., predicting keypoints based on the cropped human instances. We predict the heatmap w.r.t. the keypoints via mean-squared error. Similar to human parsing formulation, we also select the global probability  $\mathbf{Y}_p$  and local probability map  $\mathbf{Y}_m$  to predict whether a keypoint exists in the image level and pixel level, respectively. Mathematically, we have:

$$\mathcal{L}_{pose} = \lambda_{par} \mathcal{L}_{par}(\mathbf{Y}_p) + \mathcal{L}_{mse}(\mathbf{Y}_m). \quad (11)$$

**Pedestrian Detection.** Pedestrian Detection is a local prediction task but in a sparse manner. Following the widely adopted designs in end-to-end transformer-based detection [5, 102], ground-truth for  $N^t$  query features in  $\mathbf{Q}_l$  are determined by optimal bipartite matching between all  $N^t$  predictions and GT boxes. Given output units  $\mathbf{Y}_p$  and  $\mathbf{Y}_{bbox}$ , we adopt the identical cost formulation and loss as in [102],

$$\mathcal{L}_{peddet} = \lambda_{cls} \mathcal{L}_{cls}(\mathbf{Y}_p) + \lambda_{iou} \mathcal{L}_{iou}(\mathbf{Y}_{bbox}) + \lambda_{L1} \mathcal{L}_{L1}(\mathbf{Y}_{bbox}). \quad (12)$$

where  $\mathcal{L}_{cls}$ ,  $\mathcal{L}_{iou}$  and  $\mathcal{L}_{L1}$  are focal loss [50], GIoU loss [67], and  $L1$  loss, respectively. Their corresponding loss weights  $\lambda$  are also identically set as in [102].

## 4. Experiments

### 4.1. Implementation details

**Datasets.** To enable general human-centric perceptions, we pretrain the proposed UniHCP at scale on a massive and diverse collection of human-centric datasets. Specifically, the training splits of 33 publically available datasets are gathered to form the training set for UniHCP, including nine datasets for pose estimation and six datasets for ReID, Human Parsing, Attribute Prediction, Pedestrian Detection, serapately. For ReID, there are two different sub-tasks: general ReID and cloth-changing ReID, where the difference is how cloth-changing is treated. We empirically found it is best to view them as different tasks with different task queries, hence, we opted for this setup.

We carefully follow the de-duplication practices as introduced in [95] to remove the samples that could appear in the evaluation datasets. We also remove images whose groundtruth labels are not given, leading to 2.3M distinct training samples in total. For evaluation, apart from the available validation or test splits of the 33 training sets, we also included several out-of-pretrain downstream datasets for each type of human-centric task. More details about dataset setups can be found in supplementary materials.

**Training.** We use the standard ViT-B [14] as the encoder network and initialize it with the MAE pretrained [18] weights following [43, 88]. For the main results, we use a batch size of 4324 in total, with the dataset-specific batch size being proportional to the size of each dataset. Unless otherwise specified, the image resolution used in pretraining is  $256 \times 192$  for pose estimation and attribute prediction,  $256 \times 128$  for ReID,  $480 \times 480$  for human parsing, and a maximum height/width of 1333 for pedestrian detection.

For computational efficiency, each GPU only runs one specific task, and each task can be evenly distributed to multiple GPUs whereas a single GPU is not capable of handling its workloads. To further save the GPU memory during the training time, we adopt the gradient checkpointing [3] in the

Table 2. Representative datasets used in multitask co-training.

Task Type	Datasets	Number of samples
ReID (6 datasets)	CUHK03 [41]	268,002
	PRCC [89]	
	...	
Pose Estimation (9 datasets)	COCO-Pose [51]	1,261,749
	AI Challenger [83]	
	...	
Human Parsing (6 datasets)	LIP [16]	384,085
	DeepFashion2 [15]	
	...	
Attribute Prediction (6 datasets)	PA-100K [56]	242,880
	RAPv2 [35]	
	...	
Pedestrian Detection (6 datasets)	COCO-Person [51]	170,687
	CrowdHuman [69]	
	...	

encoder forward pass among all tasks and additionally use accumulative gradients for detection tasks. Due to the high GPU-memory demand of detection datasets, the batch size for the detection task is timed by 0.6.

We use Adafactor [70] optimizer and follow the recommended modifications [94] for adopting it to ViT, we set  $\beta_1 = 0.9$ ,  $\beta_2$  clipped at 0.999, disables the parameter scaling and decoupled weight decay to 0.05. We linearly warm up the learning rate for the first 1.5k iterations to  $1e-3$ , after which the learning rate is decayed to 0 following a cosine decay scheduler. We also use a drop-path rate of 0.2 and layer-wise learning rate decay [43, 88] of 0.75 in the ViT-B encoder. The whole training process takes 105k iterations which are approximately 130 epochs for detection datasets and 200 epochs for other datasets. The whole training takes 120 hours in total on 88 NVIDIA V100 GPUs.

### 4.2. Main Results

To demonstrate the capability of UniHCP as a unified model for human-centric perceptions, we first evaluate our UniHCP on thirteen datasets that appear in the pretraining stage (in Section 4.2.1), *e.g.*, CIHP. Furthermore, we employ five datasets whose training splits are not included in the pretraining stage to evaluate the cross-datasets transferability of UniHCP (in Section 4.2.2). We also demonstrate that UniHCP has the potential to efficiently transfer to new datasets that do not appear in pretraining with only a few images (in Section 4.2.3). For detailed evaluation configuration, please refer to the supplementary.

#### 4.2.1 In-pretrain Dataset Results

We conduct extensive evaluations on thirteen in-pretrain datasets to demonstrate the effectiveness of our UniHCP. Table 3-7 summarize the evaluation results of UniHCP on five representative human-centric tasks, *i.e.*, person ReID,

Table 3. Person ReID evaluation on Market1501, MSMT, CUHK03 with mAP. †indicates using additional camera IDs.

Method	Market1501	MSMT17	CUHK03
HOReID [79]	84.9	-	-
MNE [39]	-	-	77.7
SAN [26]	88.0	55.7	76.4
TransReID [19]	86.8	61.0	-
TransReID† [19]	88.9	<b>67.4</b>	-
UniHCP (direct eval)	80.7	55.2	68.6
UniHCP (finetune)	<b>90.3</b>	67.3	<b>83.1</b>

Table 4. Pedestrian attribute recognition evaluation on PA-100K and RAPv2 test sets with mA.

Method	PA-100K	RAPv2
SSC [23]	81.87	-
C-Tran [32]	81.53	-
Q2L [54]	80.72	-
L2L [40]	82.37	-
DAFL [24]	83.54	81.04
UniHCP (direct eval)	79.32	77.20
UniHCP (finetune)	<b>86.18</b>	<b>82.34</b>

Table 5. Human parsing evaluation on Human3.6M, LIP and CIHP val sets with mIoU.

Method	H3.6M	LIP	CIHP
HCMOCO [20]	62.50	-	-
SNT [22]	-	54.73	60.87
PCNet [99]	-	57.03	61.05
SCHP [38]	-	59.36	-
CDGNet [53]	-	60.30	65.56
UniHCP (direct eval)	65.90	63.80	68.60
UniHCP (finetune)	<b>65.95</b>	<b>63.86</b>	<b>69.80</b>

Table 6. Pedestrian detection evaluation on Crowd-Human val set. Compared with the SOTA, UniHCP achieves comparable mAP and better JI.

Method	mAP	MR <sup>-2</sup> (↓)	JJ
DETR [5]	75.9	73.2	74.4
PEDR [49]	91.6	43.7	83.3
Deformable-DETR [105]	91.5	57.0	83.1
Sparse-RCNN [73]	91.3	44.8	81.3
Iter-Deformable-DETR [102]	92.1	<b>41.5</b>	84.0
Iter-Sparse-RCNN [102]	<b>92.5</b>	41.6	83.3
UniHCP (direct eval)	90.0	46.6	82.2
UniHCP (finetune)	<b>92.5</b>	41.6	<b>85.8</b>

Table 7. Pose estimation evaluation on COCO, Human3.6M, AI Challenge and OCHuman. Following [88], we report the results on COCO val set, Human3.6M, AI Challenge val set, and OCHuman test set. †denotes the results reported by MMPose [10]. ‡denotes the results achieved using multi-dataset training.

Method	COCO/mAP	H3.6M/EPE(↓)	AIC/mAP	OCHuman/mAP
HRNet-w32† [72]	74.4	9.4	-	-
HRNet-w48† [72]	75.1	7.4	-	-
TokenPose-L/D24 [44]	75.9	-	-	-
HRFormer-B [93]	75.6	-	-	-
ViTPose-B [88]	75.8	-	-	-
ViTPose-B‡ [88]	<b>77.1</b>	-	32.0	87.3
UniHCP (direct eval)	76.1	6.9	32.5	<b>87.4</b>
UniHCP (finetune)	76.5	<b>6.6</b>	<b>33.6</b>	N/A

pedestrian attribute recognition, human parsing, pedestrian detection, and pose estimation. We report two kinds of evaluation results of our UniHCP: (1) **direct evaluation**, where the pre-trained model with cross-task shared encoder-decoder weights and task-specific queries are directly used for evaluation on the target dataset, and (2) **finetuning**, where the pretrained UniHCP are first finetuned with the train split of the target dataset and then evaluated.

As observed, the direct evaluation results of UniHCP show promising performance on most human-centric tasks, especially on human parsing and pose estimation tasks, which show better or on-par performance with the State-Of-The-Art (SOTA). The exception is the person ReID task, which observes noticeable performance gaps with the SOTA. We suggest this is due to its huge disparity from other tasks and can be remedied with quick finetuning.

With finetuning, our UniHCP achieves new SOTAs on nine out of the total twelve datasets and on par performance on the rest three datasets, even without task-specific design in architecture or task-specific priors, showing that UniHCP extracts complementary knowledge among human-centric tasks. Concretely, Table 4 shows that in the human attribute recognition task, UniHCP significantly surpasses previous SOTA DAFL [24] by **+3.79%** mA on PA-100K and **+1.20%** mA on RAPv2 datasets, respectively, which indicates that UniHCP well extracts the shared attribute information among using the output unit of global probabilities in the interpreter. Second, UniHCP also pushes

Table 8. Transfer performance on ATR [47], SenseReID [100], Caltech [13], MPII [1] and PETA [12]. Results with †are achieved by using additional data. DE - direct evaluation. FT - finetuning.

Methods	Parsing	ReID	Detection	Pose	Attribute
	ATR	SenseReID	Caltech(↓)	MPII	PETA
SOTA	97.39 [53]	34.6 [100]	46.6 [17]	92.3 [90]	87.07 [24]
SOTA†	-	-	28.8 [17]	<b>93.3 [88]</b>	-
UniHCP (DE)	-	<b>46.0</b>	37.8	-	-
UniHCP (FT)	<b>97.74</b>	N/A	<b>27.2</b>	93.2	<b>88.78</b>

the performance of another important human task, *i.e.*, human parsing, to a new level. Specifically, **+3.45%** mIoU, **+3.56%** mIoU, and **+4.24%** mIoU performance gains are observed on Human3.6M, LIP, and CIHP datasets, respectively. We suggest the newly-added global supervision  $\mathcal{L}_{par}$  will help UniHCP to suppress the false prediction on not appeared semantic parts. UniHCP also shows superior performance to previous methods on pose estimation. On person ReID, UniHCP outperforms TransReid [19] on Market1501 and MNE [39] on CUHK03 without the help of any additional camera information and training images during evaluation. For pedestrian detection, our UniHCP achieves **+1.8%** JJ performance gain compared with Iter-Deformable-DETR [102] and on-par performance with the Iter-Sparse-RCNN [102] on mAP. These strong performances on diverse datasets across five tasks demonstrate the feasibility and powerfulness of the unified human-centric model and large-scale pretraining.

Table 9. One-shot human parsing and human pose estimation transfer results under different tuning settings. Every method uses only 1 image per class to transfer. We repeat each experiment for 10 times and report the mean and standard deviation.

Methods	Learnable params ratio	Parsing	Pose
		ATR/pACC	MPII/mAP
One-shot finetuning	100%	90.49±1.22	70.6±7.53
One-shot prompt tuning	<1%	93.65±0.77	83.8±5.08
Full-data finetuning	100%	97.74	93.2

Table 10. Comparison of different parameter-sharing schemes. We report the average scores of direct evaluation results on in-pretrain human-centric datasets. “by  $t_t$ ” denotes sharing decoder and interpreter across task types  $t_t$ . For more detailed results on each dataset, please refer to the supplementary.

Methods	Total params.	Shared params.	Shared module			Avg.
			Encoder	Decoder	Task-guided Interpreter	
Baseline	109.32M	109.08M	✓	✓	✓	67.4
(a)	156.17M	105.60M	✓	✓		67.4
(b)	489.67M	91.07M	✓			60.6
(c)	170.83M	109.08M	✓	by $t_t$	by $t_t$	65.0

#### 4.2.2 Cross-datasets Transfer Results

As the task-guided interpreter formulates all task requests into four output units, knowledge learned behind these units can be easily transferred to unseen datasets. We conduct evaluations on five datasets that do not appear during pre-training to evaluate the transferability of UniHCP. UniHCP is finetuned to adapt to new datasets except for SenseReID, on which the performance is tested by direct evaluation. As shown in Table 8, UniHCP outperforms existing SOTAs in 4 out of 5 datasets. Specifically, UniHCP achieves **+0.35%** pACC, **+11.4%** top-1, **-1.6%** heavy occluded  $MR^{-2}(\downarrow)$ , **+0.1%** mAP, and **+1.71%** mA on ATR, SenseReID, Caltech, MPII, and PETA, respectively. On MPII, UniHCP achieves on-par performance with multi-datasets trained SOTA while improving single-dataset trained SOTA by **+0.9%** mAP. Notably, even without finetuning, UniHCP achieves a **-8.8%** heavy occluded  $MR^{-2}(\downarrow)$  performance gain on single-dataset trained SOTA. Consistent improvements on transfer tasks provide strong support to the decent transferability of UniHCP.

#### 4.2.3 Data-Efficient Transferring

As UniHCP achieves SOTAs on full-data finetuning setting, we further evaluate its potential for transferring to new datasets with extremely scarce training images, *e.g.*, only one image per class for training. As summarized in Table 9, by conducting prompt tuning with one image per class, UniHCP achieves **93.65%** pACC on ATR for parsing and **83.8%** mAP on MPII for pose estimation, respectively.

For prompt tuning on ATR, we follow [55]. For prompt tuning on MPII, we only update queries and their associate position embeddings. The prompt tuning results are close to that of the full-data finetuning setting and suppress the results of finetuning the whole model with one image per class for a large margin. Moreover, UniHCP with prompt tuning shows much lower standard deviations than one-shot finetuning on human parsing and pose estimation tasks, verifying that UniHCP learns generic human-centric representation which is beneficial for data-efficient transferring with low computation cost.

#### 4.3. Ablation Study on Weight Sharing

As UniHCP achieves desirable performance on various human-centric tasks while sharing most parameters among different tasks, one problem remains whether more task-specific parameters benefit learning. To answer the question, we ablate three weight sharing variants of UniHCP during pretraining using a 60k-iteration training schedule with 1k batch size. Results in Table 10(b) show that compared to the original UniHCP *i.e.*, the *Baseline*, unifying task-guided interpreters among all tasks resulted in an average performance on par with using specific heads while reducing about **30%** of the parameters. We also note that using task-specific or task-type-specific decoders and interpreters leads to an obvious (**-6.8%** and **-2.4%**, respectively) performance drop on average when compared to the original UniHCP (see results in Table 10(b) and (c)). We speculate that in these ablation settings, complementary human-centric knowledge can not be properly shared among tasks, which leads to performance drops on most tasks.

### 5. Conclusions

In this work, we present a Unified Model for Human-Centric Perceptions (UniHCP). Based on a simple query-based task formulation, UniHCP can easily handle multiple distinctly defined human-centric tasks simultaneously. Extensive experiments on diverse datasets demonstrate that UniHCP pretrained on a massive collection of human-centric datasets delivers a competitive performance compared with task-specific models. When adapted to specific tasks, UniHCP obtains a series of SOTA performances over a wide spectrum of human-centric benchmarks. Further analysis also demonstrate the capability of UniHCP on parameter and data-efficient transfer and the benefit of weight sharing designs. We hope our work can motivate more future works on developing general human-centric models.

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