Supplementary Materials: FULLER: Unified Multi-modality Multi-task 3D Perception via Multi-level Gradient Calibration

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A. Asset Acknowledgement

We introduced the dataset in the main text. The used code assets are shown in Tab. 1.

B. Network Architecture

We briefly introduced the network architecture in the Sec. 3.1 of the main text. More design details along with necessary math notations are presented in this section.

Modality Branch. For image branch, the image features extracted from the Swin-T [13] will be transformed to BEV (bird-eye's-view) representation via LSS [15], where each pixel has a discrete depth distribution. The depth is discretized into [1, 60] meters with a step size of 1 meter. For LiDAR branch, the point cloud features coming out from the VoxelNet [27] will be compressed to 1 along the the *z*-axis, forming the BEV representation. The image BEV presentations f^{img} and LiDAR BEV presentations f^{lid} are concatenated and then fed into the fusion block, resulting in the the fusion feature f^{fuse} . The fusion block is a FPN with two down-sample and two up-sample conv blocks, which is implemented as same as BEVFusion [14].

Detection Head. As shown in Fig. 1, both detection head and segmentation head are query-based. Given the fused BEV feature f^{fuse} , the detection head will initial queries by an auxiliary heatmap module, and sort out the top-N candidates as the object queries:

$$Q^{d} = \text{top-n}(\text{heatmap}(f^{fuse})) \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times C^{d}}, \quad (1)$$

where $C^d = 128$ is the feature dimension and N = 200 is the number of queries, which is a little more than the ground truth. The heatmap module is borrowed from Transfusion [1], which screens out the local maxima from the

heatmap to prevent the object queries from scattering spatially too closely. Then, a one-layer transformer decoder is used to update the Q^d , where f^{fuse} is served as key and value, and Q^d itself is served as query, respectively. Finally, a simple feed-forward network predict the boundary boxes *B* using the updated query:

$$\begin{aligned} Q^{d'} &= \texttt{transDec}\left(Q^{d}, f^{fuse}\right), \\ B &= \texttt{ffn}\left(Q^{d'}\right). \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

For the loss functions, we employ the smoothed l_1 loss and standard focal loss as the regression loss and classification loss, respectively. The weights of regression loss, classification loss, and heatmap loss are 0.25, 1.0, and 1.0.

Segmentation Head. To generate the segmentation queries, the semantic classes L is first converted to one-hot vectors, and then projected by a linear layer:

$$Q^s = \text{projector}(\text{one-hot}(L)) \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times C^s},$$
 (3)

where M = 6 is the number of semantic categories and $C^s = 256$ is the embedding dimension. To align with the output shape, the fused BEV feature f^{fuse} will be transformed to the segmentation features $f^{fuse'}$ by an interpolation layer and a 1D conv layer:

$$f^{fuse'} = 1$$
d-conv(intpl(f^{fuse})) $\in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C^s}$, (4)

where H, W = 200 is the spatial size. Similarly, a onelayer transformer decoder is employed to update the Q^s with the input $f^{fuse'}$ and Q^s itself. The updated queries is processed by the MLP to generate mask embeddings K:

$$Q^{s'} = \operatorname{transDec} (Q^s, f^{fuse'}), \qquad (5)$$
$$K = \operatorname{mlp} (Q^{s'}) \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times C}.$$

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URL	Version	Licence
https://github.com/open-mmlab/OpenPCDet	a9c66fe	Apache-2.0
https://github.com/AvivNavon/nash-mtl	6467e30	NA
https://github.com/mit-han-lab/bevfusion	0e5b9ed	Apache-2.0
https://github.com/ADLab-AutoDrive/BEVFusion	be0cb2e	Apache-2.0
https://github.com/facebookresearch/MaskFormer	da3e60d	MIT license

Table 2. Comparison to more methods.								
	Modality	VoxelSize	LiDAR	Image	mAP(%)↑	NDS↑	mIoU(%)↑	
3D Detection								
M ² BEV [20]	C	-	-	ResNeXt-101 [21]	41.7	47.0	-	
BEVFormer [9]	C	-	-	ResNet101 [6]	41.6	51.7	-	
PointPillars [‡] [8]	L	0.075	PointPillars	-	52.3	61.3	-	
CenterPoint [23]	L	0.075	VoxelNet	-	59.6	66.8	-	
PointPainting [‡] [19]	C+L	0.075	PointPillars	-	65.8	69.6	-	
MVP [‡] [24]	C+L	0.075	VoxelNet	DLA-34	66.1	70.0	-	
FusionPainting [22]	C+L	-	Cylinder3D [26]	HTCNet [2]	66.5	70.7	-	
AutoAlign [5]	C+L	0.075	CenterPoint	ResNet-50	66.6	71.1	-	
FUTR3D [3]	C+L	0.075	VoxelNet	ResNet-101	64.5	68.3	-	
TransFusion [1]	C+L	0.075	VoxelNet	DLA-34	67.5	71.3	-	
BEVFusion [14]	C+L	0.075	VoxelNet	Swin-T	68.5	71.4	-	
Fuller-det	C+L	0.075	VoxelNet	Swin-T	67.6	71.3	-	
Fuller-det (upper bound)	C+L	0.1	VoxelNet	Swin-T	62.1	66.6	-	
			BEV Map Segme	ntation				
OFT [‡] [16]	C	-	-	ResNet-18	-	-	42.1	
LSS [‡] [15]	C	-	-	EfficientNet-B0 [17]	-	-	44.4	
PointPillars [‡] [8]	L	0.1	-	PointPillars	-	-	43.8	
CenterPoint [‡] [23]	L	0.1	VoxelNet	-	-	-	48.6	
PointPainting [‡] [19]	C+L	0.1	PointPillars	-	-	-	49.1	
MVP [‡] [24]	C+L	0.1	VoxelNet	DLA-34[25]	-	-	49.0	
BEVFusion [14]	C+L	0.1	VoxelNet	Swin-T	-	-	62.7	
Fuller-seg(upper bound)	C+L	0.1	VoxelNet	Swin-T	-	-	62.3	
3D Detection + BEV Map Segmentation								
BEVFusion [†] [14] (share)	C+L	0.1	VoxelNet	Swin-T	-	69.7	54.0	
BEVFusion [†] [14] (sep)	C+L	0.1	VoxelNet	Swin-T	-	69.9	58.4	
Baseline(share)	C+L	0.1	VoxelNet	Swin-T	59.1	65.0	44.0	
Fuller(share)	C+L	0.1	VoxelNet	Swin-T	60.5	65.3	58.4	

Table 2. Comparison to more methods

Finally, mask prediction S is obtained via a dot product between K and $f^{fuse'}$, followed by a sigmoid activation.

$$S = \text{sigmoid} \left(\langle f^{fuse'}, K \rangle \right) \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times H \times W}.$$
 (6)

Here $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is the dot-product operator. The loss function for segmentation head is the standard focal loss [10] with mean reduction.

Data Pre-processing. Following BEVFusion [14], the image resolution is downsampled from 900×1600 to 256×704 . The perception range of point cloud is truncated to [-51.2m, 51.2m] for X and Y axes, and [-5m, 3m] for Z axis, which is further voxelized with the size of (0.1m, 0.1m, 0.2m). The maximum numbers of non-empty voxels for both training and inference are set to 60,000. For point cloud augmentation, we apply randomly global rotation between $[-\pi/8, \pi/8]$, global scaling with a random

factor from [0.95, 1.05], and randomly global translation along X and Y axis within 0.2m. For image augmentation, we adopt random scaling with the factor [0.94, 1.11], random rotation between $[-5.4^{\circ}, 5.4^{\circ}]$, and random flip along H and W.

Backbone Training. The LiDAR backbone (Voxel-Net [27]) is initialized with the pretrained weight from Transfusion-L [1] while the image backbone (Swin-T [13]) is pretrained on ImageNet [7]. Without branch frozen or trained in advance, the whole network is trained in a end-to-end fashion. The reported performance is validated without test-time augmentation.



(b) Segmentation Head Figure 1. Illustration of the task head.

C. More Experimental Results

C.1. Comparison to Benchmark

We compared the Fuller with existing literature in the Tab. 1 of the main text. We compare it with more methods in Tab. 2. The table contains single-modality, multi-modality, single-task, and multi-task methods.

C.2. Optimization of Multi-task Learning

Regarding multi-task optimization, we evaluate several classic methods [12, 4, 11], as shown in Tab. 5. With distinct natures, they improve the model differently. Note that DWA [12] needs to empirically select the initial loss weights, *i.e.*, det:seg=1:10 in our example, while Grad-Norm [4] needs extra learnable parameters. Considering the scalability, we resort IMTL_G [11] as the technique for inter-gradient calibration, which demonstrates significant improvement in map segmentation and the comparable Δ_{MTL} with GradNorm.

C.3. Improvement upon MTL Baseline

Regarding the evaluation metric of multi-task learning, we presented the metric $\Delta_{\rm MTL}$ in the main text based on [18], which is intuitively understood as the average performance drop compared to the single-task upper bound. Here we introduce another metric that measures the performance improvement compared to the multi-task baseline:

Table 3. In addition to the average performance drop $\Delta_{\rm MTL}$ compared to upper bounds, we also list Fuller's average performance improvement $\Lambda_{\rm MTL}$ compared to the multi-task baseline. Here we list three loss weights ratios between detection task and segmentation task.

Method	weight ratio	mAP(%)↑	NDS(%)↑	mIoU(%)↑	$\Delta_{\rm MTL}(\%)\downarrow$	$\Lambda_{\rm MTL}(\%)\uparrow$
Upper bounds	-	62.1	66.6	62.3	-	-
Baseline	1.1	59.1	65.0	44.0	18.3	-
Fuller	1.1	60.5	65.3	58.4	5.4	5.4
Baseline	1.5	59.8	65.5	55.7	8.0	-
Fuller	1.5	60.1	65.6	58.2	5.7	1.0
Baseline	1.10	59.3	65.0	57.9	14.0	-
Fuller	1.10	59.9	65.2	59.2	5.3	0.7

Table 4. Experiments with different image backbones.

	Image Backbone	LiDAR Pretrain	mAP(%)↑	NDS(%)↑	mIoU(%)↑
Baseline Fuller	EfficientNet-B0	TransFusion-L	60.3 60.1	66.0 66.0	43.8 51.6
Baseline Fuller	ResNet-50	TransFusion-L	58.8 59.1	65.3 65.6	43.7 51.5

Table 5. DWA needs to empirically select the initial loss weights while GradNorm uses extra learnable parameters. Considering scalability and performance, we select the IMTL_G as the intergradient calibration.

Method	mAP(%)↑	NDS↑	mIoU(%)↑	$\Delta_{\rm MTL}(\%)\downarrow$
Baseline	59.1	65.0	44.0	18.3
GradNorm [4]	58.3	64.4	57.2	8.8
DWA [12]	59.3	65.1	57.7	7.1
IMTL_G [11]	57.1	63.3	59.4	8.9
Fuller (Ours)	60.5	65.3	58.4	5.4

$$\Lambda_{\rm MTL} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{i=1}^{T} (M_{m,i} - N_{n,i}), \tag{7}$$

where T is the task number, $M_{b,i}$ and $N_{n,i}$ are the performance of *i*-th task of the evaluated method and the multitask baseline, respectively. Specifically, we evaluate Fuller under three settings of loss weights. The result is shown in Tab. 3. As the loss weight of segmentation task is increased, the performance gap between the baseline and the upper bounds is narrowed, *i.e.*, lower Δ_{MTL} . Regardless the settings of loss weights, Fuller proves to be able to improve the baseline, as indicated by the Λ_{MTL} metric.

C.4. Ablation Study of Image Backbone

For the experiments of the main text, we empirically find that the pretrained weights of Transfuion L [1] is favorable for LiDAR branch and Swin Transformer [13] is a strong backbone for image feature extraction. We report more ablation studies using different image backbones, as shown in Tab. 4. Generally, EfficientNet-B0 [17] is more advantageous than ResNet50 [6] for 3D detection. When compared



Figure 2. Evaluated task performances in absence of LiDAR scans. Table 6. Comparison between task heads.

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Method	mAP(%)↑	NDS↑	mIoU(%)↑	Params↓
CenterPoint[23]	58.6	64.8	-	1.6m
Fuller-det (Ours)	62.1	66.6	-	1.0m
BEVFusion[14]	-	-	62.7	4.7m
Fuller-seg (Ours)	-	-	62.3	2.7m

to the baseline, Fuller performs either superiorly or comparably in terms of 3D detection. Notably, Fuller surpasses the baseline by a large margin in the case of map segmentation.

C.5. Analysis of Modality Bias

In the main text, we conducted the experiment to inspect the modality bias, in which a model trained with both modalities is evaluated by dropping off the image input. We observed that in the absence of image input, 3D detection can be supported by LiDAR scan without losing too much performance. In contrast, the performance of segmentation task drops drastically without image input. Here we show another experiment that evaluates the trained model without LiDAR scan. As shown in Fig. 2, 3D detection suffers extremely that it does not even work properly while map segmentation has a relatively normal result. This phenomenon reveals the issue of modality bias that LiDAR dominates the detection performance and camera may work as an auxiliary modality for refinement. Additionally, our proposed gradient calibration significantly improve the performance of segmentation task. Improving detection performance in such difficult situation is deferred to furture work.

C.6. Comparison between task heads.

To demonstrate the introduced task heads, we compare the accuracy and parameter amount with widely-used detection and segmentation heads in Tab. 6. For 3D detection, Fuller-det surpasses CenterPoint[23] while saving 37.5% parameters. Similarly, for map segmentation, Fuller-seg achieves comparable result to BEVFusion[14] with 42.6% parameters reduction.

D. Limitation.

Currently, our analysis focuses on the concatenation fusion strategy. To generalize our model, we would like to investigate more fusion schemes in future. Besides, as shown in Fig. 2, Fuller still can be improved to deal with the situation of sensor failure in real-world scenarios.

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