

Pattern-Structure Diffusion for Multi-Task Learning

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Abstract

Inspired by the observation that pattern structures high-frequently recur within intra-task also across tasks, we propose a pattern-structure diffusion (PSD) framework to mine and propagate task-specific and task-across pattern structures in the task-level space for joint depth estimation, segmentation and surface normal prediction. To represent local pattern structures, we model them as small-scale graphlets¹, and propagate them in two different ways, i.e., intra-task and inter-task PSD. For the former, to overcome the limit of the locality of pattern structures, we use the high-order recursive aggregation on neighbors to multiplicatively increase the spread scope, so that long-distance patterns are propagated in the intra-task space. In the inter-task PSD, we mutually transfer the counterpart structures corresponding to the same spatial position into the task itself based on the matching degree of paired pattern structures therein. Finally, the intra-task and inter-task pattern structures are jointly diffused among the task-level patterns, and encapsulated into an end-to-end PSD network to boost the performance of multi-task learning. Extensive experiments on two widely-used benchmarks demonstrate that our proposed PSD is more effective and also achieves the state-of-the-art or competitive results.

1. Introduction

Dense pixel prediction tasks, e.g., depth estimation, segmentation and surface normal prediction, are fundamental yet challenging in computer vision due to the important applications to intelligent robotic [42], automatic drive [6], etc. Currently, numerous deep learning based methods have obtained great success in each of three tasks. However, the single-task models focus more on the learning of robust regression, but rarely consider the interactions between tasks. As the pixel-level tasks in scene understanding, actually, these three tasks have some common characteristics that can

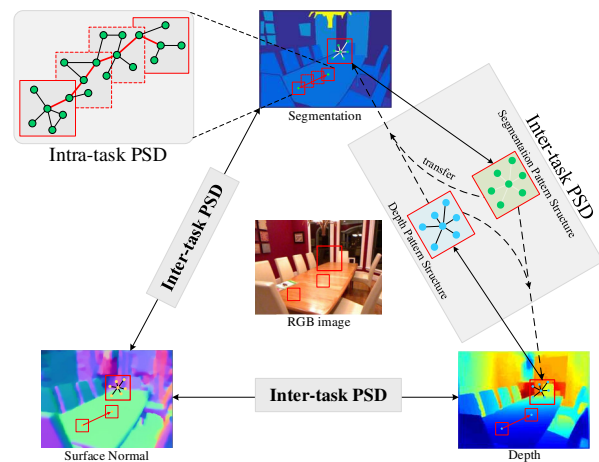


Figure 1: Illustration of our main idea. For multi-task learning, we specifically design intra-task and inter-task pattern-structure diffusion (PSD) to mine and propagate useful pattern structures within/across tasks. Inter-task PSD bridges two tasks to mutually transfer pattern structures for each other through derived correlations, while intra-task PSD propagates within-task patterns through high-order diffusion on graphlets.

share with each other.

Recently joint-task learning methods [29, 55, 8, 38, 53] have sprung up and shown a promising direction to boost the performance through cross-task interactions. Most of them devote to feature fusion (e.g., concatenation) or model sharing (e.g., common network parameters) by following the conventional fusion lines. Due to unintentional integration, these "black-box" methods cannot concern/know what concrete information is transmitted/interacted between multi-tasks. Ultimately, what information could be available to bridge different tasks has not yet been well revealed and utilized in the study of multi-task pixel prediction.

An observation [58] is that local patch patterns high-frequently recur within the same image, as well as different-

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¹Graphlets are small connected subgraphs of a large graph

scaling images. It implicitly indicates the high-degree similarity of a large number of local pattern structures of natural images. The structures of local patterns provide some strong cues for pixel-level predictions, where the matching pattern structures could result in similar prediction values with high probabilities. More importantly, this observation can be extended into the scenes across different tasks as shown in Fig. 1, where a large number of patches have extremely similar pattern structures at the same spatial positions. For example, the patches (red squares) at the same positions from different tasks have similar pattern structures across depth, segmentation and surface normal. They describe the same objects, and endow the similar information about object shapes/boundaries. Therefore, those local pattern-structures hidden in the image also inter-task should be mined and utilized for pixel-level multi-task learning.

Motivated by the observation on the recurrency of pattern structures within intra-task also across tasks, we propose a pattern-structure diffusion (PSD) framework to mine and propagate task-specific and task-across pattern structures in the task-level space for joint multi-task learning across depth estimation, segmentation and surface normal prediction. To characterize local pattern structures, we construct them as small-scale graphlets, whose topologies represent the pixel-level structure layouts while each vertex is anchored at one pixel position. It means that the graph w.r.t a local region encodes the correlations of pixel-level patterns therein. To transmit pattern structures in the task domain, we construct two types of pattern-structure diffusion process, named intra-task and inter-task PSD. For the former, to overcome the limit of locality of pattern-structure, we propose the high-order recursive diffusion to multiplicatively increase the propagation scope through calculating on the adjacent matrix. Such a recursive pattern-structure diffusion can reduce computation burden as well as memory requirement, in contrast to direct larger-scope or global pattern correlations. In the inter-task PSD process, we derive the similarities of those paired pattern structures corresponding to the same spatial positions, and then mutually transfer the counterpart structures into the task itself based on the learnt similarities. As the long-distance diffusion is done in intra-task, actually, inter-task PSD could implicitly borrow those large-scope pattern structures of the counterpart tasks besides the task itself. Finally, the intra-task and inter-task pattern structures are jointly diffused among the task-level patterns, and encapsulated into an end-to-end PSD network to boost the performance of multi-task learning. We conduct extensive experiments of joint depth, segmentation and surface normal estimation on two public datasets, NYUD-v2 [35], SUNRGB-D [40]. The experiments demonstrate that our proposed PSD method is more effective than those baselines and also achieves the state-of-the-art or competitive results.

In summary, our contributions are in three aspects: i) We propose a novel pattern-structure diffusion framework to attempt to mine and propagate local pattern structures in/across different task domains, ii) We propose two types of pattern-structure diffusions, i.e., intra-task and inter-task, where the former introduces recursive mechanism to learn long-distance propagation, while the latter derives inter-task correlations to transfer cross-task structures, iii) We validate the effectiveness of our proposed PSD method and achieve the state-of-the-art or competitive performance for depth, segmentation and surface normal estimation on two public multi-task learning datasets.

2. Related Work

Semantic Segmentation: With the great success of deep learning in high-level vision tasks, numerous semantic segmentation approaches [31, 33, 4, 9, 37] are beneficial from CNNs. Long *et al.* [24] proposed a full convolutional neural network (FCN) for semantic segmentation which conduct the pixel-wise classification in an end-to-end fashion. Later, many methods [7, 20, 31] are based on FCN. Due to the large scale RGB-D datasets are published, some RGB-D methods [36, 47, 13, 14] have sprung up. Besides, some methods [44, 15] used the graph-based representation for the problem of segmenting an image into regions. Different from these methods, we only use RGB images as input source and conduct semantic segmentation prediction based on depth prediction rather than depth ground truth. Also, we draw support from other tasks for improving the segmentation prediction.

Depth Estimation. Monocular depth estimation has been studied for a long history, previous works on it generally utilized Markov Random Field (MRF) [3, 2]. Recently, several works [45, 19, 34, 50, 38, 27, 18, 52, 57, 56] with CNN architectures have achieved state-of-the-art results. Eigen *et al.* [11] first used CNN and proposed a multi-stage network to solve the monocular depth estimation. Roy *et al.* [39] utilized the regression forest and constructed shallow architectures at each tree nodes to predict depth. Unlike these depth-only prediction methods, we propose to make use of cues from other tasks to boost depth estimation.

Surface Normal Estimation. Own to the strong feature representation ability of deep neural networks, most methods [30, 16, 17, 26, 48] for surface normal estimation are based on deep neural networks. Eigen andergus [14] adopt a unified coarse-to-fine hierarchical network for depth/normal prediction. Wang *et al.* [46] are the first to regularize dense geometry estimation with planar surface information via only a single RGB image. Recently, Qi *et al.* [38] proposed to use 3D geometric information for predicting surface normal and depth. In our work, our prediction of surface normal is boosted by depth and segmentation

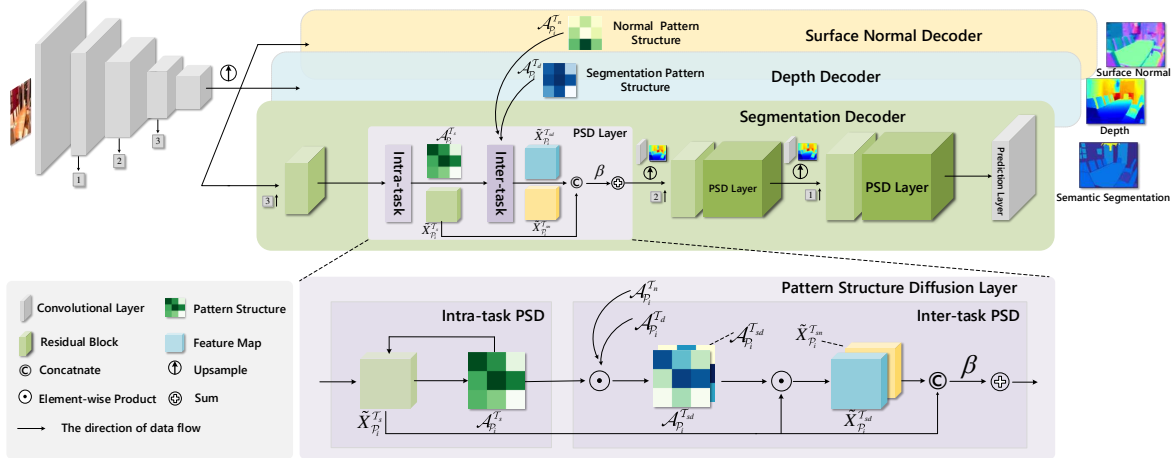


Figure 2: The PSD network architecture for joint prediction of depth, semantic segmentation and surface normal. The whole network is divided into a shared encoder and three task-specific decoder branches. In each branch, we first perform intra-task PSD (Section 3.3) to transmit long-distance pattern-structure information within each task. Then cross-task pattern structures are correlated to transfer to each other, called inter-task PSD (Section 3.4). Finally, intra-task and inter-task PSD are encapsulated into a pattern structure diffusion layer (named PSD layer), which can be stacked in the deep mode for pixel-level multi-task learning.

information.

Multi-task Learning. Many multi-task learning methods [1, 23, 43, 22, 53, 41, 54] have achieved great success. Several researchers [22, 53] proposed multi-task learning mechanisms for feature transmitting. Recently, Zhang *et al.* [55] proposed to learn non-local task-specific pattern affinities and obtain the cross-task affinities with fixed parameters for interactivenss. Our method is different from these approaches in the following aspects: i) transmits pattern structures across tasks rather than simple weighting features, ii) mines local patch pattern structures (i.e., graphlets) and multiplicatively diffuses them from local to global region, which has an incidental advantage of high-efficient computation compared to global affinities [55], iii) models with graph topologies versatile to different tasks.

3. Pattern-Structure Diffusion

In this section, we first overview the whole network architecture, and then introduce the definition of local pattern structure, intra-task and inter-task pattern-structure diffusion respectively, finally pose the objective function consisting of three different pixel-level prediction tasks.

3.1. Network Architecture

The pattern-structure diffusion is encapsulated into an end-to-end deep network as shown in Fig. 2. The whole network can be divided into a shared encoder and three task-specific decoders in which pattern structures are mutually propagated within intra-task also across tasks. Given one RGB image x , the encoder produces multi-scale hierar-

chical feature maps through convolutional neural networks, e.g., ResNet [21]. We feed the response maps from the last convolutional layer of the encoder into each task-branch to decode pixel-level task-related information. To produce refining high-resolution predictions, we decode this convolutional features into higher-resolution feature maps, and then concatenate with the same-scale features at the encoder to feed into a residual block to produce task-specific features.

Next, we perform pattern-structure diffusion on three task-specific feature maps. Concretely, intra-task PSD (Section 3.3) is first performed on the decoded features to transmit long-distance context information within each task, then inter-task PSD (Section 3.4) is used for two different tasks to mutually absorb the counterpart structures. In order for high-efficient PSD, we construct small graphlets on pixel-level local pattern regions instead of the large-scale or global region, which is introduced in Section 3.2. Further, we derive a recursive process on graphlets to propagate into long-distance positions. For inter-task PSD, we correlate those paired graphlets at the common position and weightedly transfer the structure information into the target task. In virtue of the joint PSD on intra-task and inter-task, pattern structures could be widely spread among long-range contexts within/across the three tasks.

Repeatedly, we can continue to upscale feature maps and perform the above decoding process to produce a higher feature scale of our requirement for the final pixel-level prediction. Such a coarse-to-fine process is supervised under multi-loss functions followed by a convolution prediction layer at each scale, where the details are given in Sec-

tion 3.5.

3.2. Local Pattern-Structure Definition

Let us denote the decoded multi-channel feature maps of depth, segmentation, surface normal tasks respectively with $\mathbf{X}^{T_d}, \mathbf{X}^{T_s}, \mathbf{X}^{T_n} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C}$. Here H, W, C represent height, width and channel number respectively. We characterize each local pattern with the pixel-level correlations therein, which is named as pattern-structure. To conveniently illustrate the construction of the pattern-structure, we omit the superscript \mathcal{T} in the following description.

At each spatial position of the multi-channel feature \mathbf{X} , we can crop out a $l \times l$ square region and denote local pattern as $\mathbf{X}_{P_i} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l \times C}$, where P_i means the cropped pattern at position i . For simplification, we abuse the notation $\text{vec}(\mathbf{X}_{P_i}): \mathbb{R}^{l \times l \times C} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{l^2 \times C}$, which vectorizes the 2D spatial dimensions in the row-by-row stacking way. For each local patch pattern, we construct a graphlet $\mathcal{G}_{P_i} = \{\mathcal{V}_{P_i}, \mathcal{A}_{P_i}, \mathcal{X}_{P_i}\}$, where one vertex $v_i \in \mathcal{V}_{P_i}$ corresponds to one pixel position, the adjacent matrix $\mathcal{A}_{P_i} \in \mathbb{R}^{l^2 \times l^2 \times C}$ defines the edge-connection correlation, and $\mathcal{X}_{P_i} = \text{vec}(\mathbf{X}_{P_i}) \in \mathbb{R}^{l^2 \times C}$ is the feature matrix. Formally, the adjacent matrix \mathcal{A}_{P_i} of local patch pattern is defined as

$$[\mathcal{A}_{P_i}]_{jk} = \exp\left\{-\frac{\|[\text{vec}(\mathbf{X}_{P_i})]_j - [\text{vec}(\mathbf{X}_{P_i})]_k\|^2}{\sigma^2}\right\}, \quad (1)$$

s.t., $i = 1, 2, \dots, H \times W, \quad j, k = 1, 2, \dots, l^2, \quad (2)$

where $[\cdot]_j$ takes the j row of the input matrix, $[\mathcal{A}_{P_i}]_{jk}$ records the pattern-correlation between the position j and k at the i -th patch pattern, and σ ($\sigma^2 = 2$ as default) is an exponential factor. The similar the patterns of node j and k are, the larger the corresponding value in $[\mathcal{A}_{P_i}]_{jk}$ is. Thus, \mathcal{A}_{P_i} represents the local structure, which are recurred high-frequently and can be used for intra-task/inter-task pattern propagation to boost the performance based on our above observation.

As the global representation, we can collect all local structures into an entire graph defined on feature map \mathbf{X} , denoted as $\mathcal{G} = \{\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{X}\}$, where $|\mathcal{V}| = H \times W$ is the set of all vertices w.r.t spatial positions, $\mathcal{X} = \text{vec}(\mathbf{X})$ is the vectorized feature map. The adjacent matrix of the whole graph is written as

$$\mathcal{A} = \text{diag}[\text{vec}(\mathcal{A}_{P_1})^\top; \text{vec}(\mathcal{A}_{P_2})^\top; \dots; \text{vec}(\mathcal{A}_{P_{H^2W^2}})^\top], \quad (3)$$

where $\text{vec}(\mathcal{A}_{P_j}): \mathbb{R}^{l^2 \times l^2 \times C} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{l^4 \times C}$ is similar to the above definition, $\text{diag}(\cdot)$ is the diagonalization on block-wise matrices. Obviously, the global matrix \mathcal{A} is sparse because most values are zeros and only those positions w.r.t local patches are non-zeros values. Concretely, the number of non-zero values is $l^2HW \ll H^2W^2$, where $l \ll H, W$ is size of patch kernels. Thus, the calculation on sparse

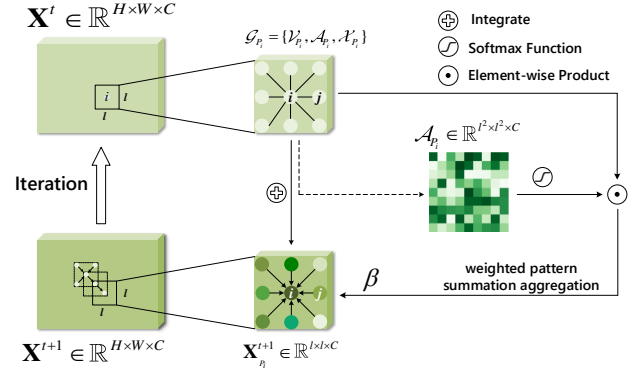


Figure 3: Intra-task diffusion process. A graphlet \mathcal{G}_{P_i} is constructed based on a local region. The pattern structures \mathcal{A}_{P_i} are used to diffuse those adjacent patterns \mathbf{X}_{P_i} to produce new patterns through matrix multiplication, which then are weightedly summarized to original patterns as the enhanced responses. This process is recursively performed for long-distance diffusions.

matrix could be utilized to speed up in practice. The local structures can not only benefit for high-efficient computation and low-memory requirement, but also be spread to global region after high-order calculation as introduced in the following section.

3.3. Intra-Task PSD

The purpose of intra-task diffusion is to capture long-distance semantic information by diffusing local patterns in single task so as to enhance the task-specific patterns. To reduce the influence of scales for different local structures, we normalize the adjacent correlations in each \mathcal{A}_{P_i} to the sum 1, i.e.,

$$\mathcal{A}_{P_i} \leftarrow \mathcal{A}_{P_i} / (\mathbf{1}^\top \mathcal{A}_{P_i} \mathbf{1}), \quad (4)$$

where $\mathbf{1}$ is a column vector with all values equal to 1.

In order to propagate information, we take the summation aggregation to weight the patterns of those adjacent vertices, formally,

$$v_i \leftarrow \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(v_i)} w(v_i, v_j) f(v_j), \quad (5)$$

where the neighbor set $\mathcal{N}(v_i)$ and the weight $w(v_i, v_j)$ are determined by the adjacent relations \mathcal{A}_{P_i} computed above, f denotes the feature extraction function. The intra-task diffusion process is shown in Fig. 3. To propagate long-distance pattern information, we can recursively iterate the aggregation process in Eqn. (5) and spread local patterns to more distant regions. Concretely, we formulate the recursive process in the following matrix formula,

$$[\text{vec}(\mathbf{X}^{(t+1)})]_i =$$

$$[\text{vec}(\mathbf{X}^{(t)})]_i + \beta \cdot \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(v_i)} \mathcal{A}_{ij} \times [\text{vec}(\mathbf{X}^{(t)})]_j, \quad (6)$$

where $t = 1, \dots, T$ is the iterate step, and β (Here $\beta = 0.05$ as [55]) is the balance factor. In the above equation, we take the residual connection, in which the aggregated feature is integrated with the feature of reference vertex by the weight parameter β . For each iteration, the diffused receptive field will enlarge one time. After multi-step iterations, a local pattern can be spread into those distant regions. Due to locality also sparsity of edge connection, the computation complexity of an iteration step depends on the edge number, i.e., $O(l^2|\mathcal{V}|C)$, where $l^2 \ll |\mathcal{V}|$. Thus, the intra-task diffusion with $T \ll |\mathcal{V}|$ iterations has the complexity $O(l^2T|\mathcal{V}|C)$, which is obviously lower than the global connectivity with dense edges $O(|\mathcal{V}|^3C)$. Moreover, the memory requirement, $O(l^2|\mathcal{V}|C)$, is relatively lower in contrast to the global dense connection which is $O(|\mathcal{V}|^2C)$.

Finally, intermediate features of multiple steps is collected to enhance the local patterns, which can be formulated as

$$[\text{vec}(\tilde{\mathbf{X}})]_i = g(\Gamma([\text{vec}(\mathbf{X}^{(1)})]_i, \cdot, [\text{vec}(\mathbf{X}^{(T)})]_i), \Theta), \quad (7)$$

where ' Γ ' means feature concatenation, ' g ' is a non-linear function with the parameter Θ to be learnt, e.g., one 1×1 convolution layer followed by the ReLU activation unit. Therefore, the new produced feature $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}$ ensembles those local pattern structures within different-scale receptive fields.

3.4. Inter-Task PSD

For the same input, the different-task pixel-level predictions own the similar local pattern structures at those corresponding positions, which implies some latent cues to correlate different tasks. To this end, we attempt to transfer local pattern structures from one task to another task to achieve cross-task pattern propagation. In Fig. 4, we show the main process of inter-task pattern-structure diffusion. Below we take segmentation as the target task, and propagate the information of the other two tasks into the segmentation task. Formally, we derive the pattern at the i -th position as follows

$$\begin{aligned} [\text{vec}(\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^{\mathcal{T}_s})]_i &\leftarrow [\text{vec}(\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^{\mathcal{T}_s})]_i \\ &+ \beta_{\mathcal{T}_{sd}} \cdot \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(v_i)} \mathcal{A}_{ij}^{\mathcal{T}_{sd}} \times [\text{vec}(\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^{\mathcal{T}_s})]_j \\ &+ \beta_{\mathcal{T}_{sn}} \cdot \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(v_i)} \mathcal{A}_{ij}^{\mathcal{T}_{sn}} \times [\text{vec}(\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^{\mathcal{T}_s})]_j, \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

$$\text{s.t.}, \mathcal{A}_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_{sd}} = \mathcal{A}_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_s} \odot \mathcal{A}_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_d} / F_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_{sd}}, \quad (9)$$

$$\mathcal{A}_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_{sn}} = \mathcal{A}_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_s} \odot \mathcal{A}_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_n} / F_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_{sn}}, \quad (10)$$

where \odot is the element-wise product operation, $\{\beta_{\mathcal{T}_{sd}}, \beta_{\mathcal{T}_{sn}}\}$ are the balance factors, $\{F_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_{sd}}, F_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_{sn}}\}$ are the normal factors to constrain the sum of all elements

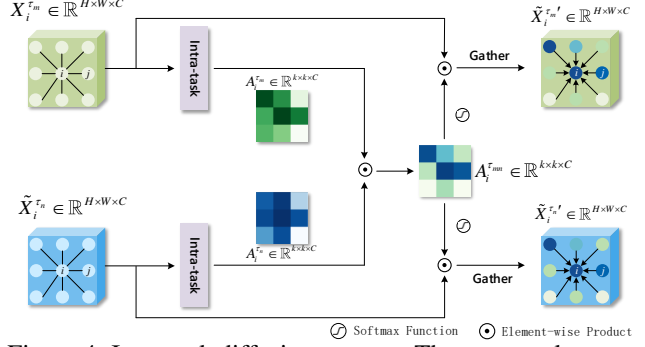


Figure 4: Inter-task diffusion process. The cross-task correlations ($\mathcal{A}_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_{sd}}$) are defined on intra-task pattern structures ($\mathcal{A}_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_s}, \mathcal{A}_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_d}$). According to $\mathcal{A}_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_{sd}}$, local structures can be adaptively transferred from one task to another task.

equal to 1, $\{\mathcal{A}_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_s}, \mathcal{A}_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_n}, \mathcal{A}_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_d}\}$ are the adjacent matrices of the patch P_i for segmentation, surface normal and depth feature maps respectively. In the above Eqns. (9) and (10), the cross-task adjacent structures $\{\mathcal{A}_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_{sd}}, \mathcal{A}_{P_i}^{\mathcal{T}_{sn}}\}$ are the transferred structures from depth and surface normal respectively, which are adaptively regularized by weighting structures therein. The strong weight of the edge can be enhanced while the weak weight can be attenuated further. In Eqn. (8), the inter-task diffusion towards to segmentation absorbs the structure information from depth and surface normal. As the joint learning with intra-task PSD, actually, the inter-task diffusion also integrates the long-distance pattern information of counterpart tasks. Similar to the above Eqn. (7), we concatenate the diffused feature and the original feature (i.e., the intra-task feature) to feed into one 1×1 convolution layer to reduce the number of channels, which followed by non-linear activation unit such as ReLU. Accordingly, the transfer to other tasks follows the same process.

3.5. Loss Function

For different tasks, we take task-specific loss functions. Following a state-of-the-art depth estimation algorithm [27], we use berHu loss for the depth supervision. As for semantic segmentation and surface normal, cross-entropy loss and L1 loss has been adopted respectively.

4. Experiment

4.1. Datasets

NYUD-v2. The NYUD-v2 dataset [35] is a popular indoor-scene RGB image dataset, captured with a Microsoft Kinect. There are only 1449 selected frames from 40 classes labeled for segmentation. Following the standard setting [14], we use 795 images to train our model and 654 images to test the final performance. In addition, we follow the method in [16, 38], randomly sampling around 12k images and generating the surface normal ground truth.

Thus, more data can be used for training the joint depth and surface normal model.

SUNRGB-D. The SUNRGB-D dataset [40] is a very large and challenging dataset containing 10355 RGB-D images of indoor scenes. These images are divided into 37 classes including wall, table, floor, etc. All these images have both segmentation and depth labels but no surface normal labels. Therefore, we train our jointly predicting segmentation and depth model with 5285 images and test on 5050 images according to the official documents.

4.2. Implementation Details

Training. We implement our proposed model on PyTorch with double NVIDIA GeForce RTX2080Ti (12GB of GPU memory for each). We build our framework based on ResNet-50 [21] which is pre-trained on the ImageNet classification task [12]. Our initial learning rate is $1e-4/0.01$ for parameters of pre-trained layers and others respectively and decay to $1e-5/0.01$ during fine-tuning process. We use a momentum of 0.9 and a weight decay of $1e-4$. The network is trained on RGB images for depth, segmentation and surface normal in an end-to-end manner. In order to further speed up and reduce the computation and memory cost, we only concern on the connection of the center node with others within a local graphlet that makes the adjacent matrix more sparse and aggregate all channels of the adjacent matrix instead of taking a channel-wise calculation, *i.e.*, $\mathcal{A}_{P_i} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l}$. The original frames of 640×480 pixels are center-cropped to 416×416 . To increase the diversity of data, we have taken the same data augmentation strategy as [32]: scaling, flipping, cropping and rotating. For SUN-RGBD dataset, we train the model for 50 epochs and fine-tune it for 30 epochs. For NYUD-v2 dataset, the joint depth-segmentation model is trained for 50 epochs and fine-tuned for another 25 epochs with 12k images. As to the three-task joint model, 200 epochs are firstly taken and 100 epochs are for fine-tuning.

Metrics. For the evaluation of depth estimation, we follow the previous works [14, 27] and use the metrics including: root mean square error (RMSE), average relative error (REL), root mean square error in log space (RMSE-Log) and the accuracy with threshold δ , where $\delta \in \{1.25, 1.25^2, 1.25^3\}$. For semantic segmentation, we take the same metrics as [10, 31]: pixel accuracy (PixAcc), mean accuracy (mAcc) and mean intersection over union (mIoU). As for surface normal, we use the following metrics: mean of angle error (Mean), medians of the angle error (Median), root mean square error for normal (Nor-RMSE), and pixel accuracy as percentage of pixels with angle error below threshold η , where $\eta \in \{11.25^\circ, 22.50^\circ, 30^\circ\}$.

4.3. Comparison with the State-of-the-Arts

In this section, we compare our proposed method with various state-of-the-art methods for depth estimation, se-

mantic segmentation and surface normal respectively. In each experiment, we set node number = 9 (*i.e.*, region size = 3×3) and the iteration step is 9. All the following experiments adopt ResNet-50 as backbone.

Semantic segmentation. The comparisons of semantic segmentation are made on widely-used NYUD-v2 and SUNRGB-D dataset. The superior or competitive comparison results on NYUD-v2 dataset are shown in Table 1. Note that here most methods are RGB-D methods which directly take depth map as a source of input. Conversely, our model trained for three tasks only takes 795 RGB images as input which achieves the best PixAcc (outperform TRL [53] by 0.8%) and mIoU (outperform D-CNN [47] by 2.6%) but slightly poor in mAcc than D-CNN [47]. This may due to imperfect depth predictions. Although our PSD can obtain impressive depth estimation results, the predictions are still not as precise as ground truth which results in negative effects on the segmentation predictions. For SUNRGB-D dataset, we train our model for depth and segmentation. As illustrated in Table 2, we can observe that our method is slightly weaker than RDF-ResNet152 [36] on mAcc but superior on PixAcc and mIoU. This is may due to the aforementioned reason as well. Meanwhile, RDF-ResNet152 uses stronger network backbone than ours with ResNet-50. Quantitative results are shown in Fig. 5. All these results demonstrate that our PSD can boost segmentation via information from other tasks.

Depth estimation. We mainly compare the proposed PSD with state-of-the-arts for depth estimation on NYUD-v2 dataset. As illustrated in Table 3, our model trained jointly for three tasks (PSD- $\mathcal{T}_d + \mathcal{T}_s + \mathcal{T}_n$) is able to deliver comparable results against previous state-of-the-art methods though only using 795 images for training. As to the model trained jointly for depth and normal (PSD- $\mathcal{T}_d + \mathcal{T}_n$) with more data (12k images), the performance gets better and achieves the best on most metrics except REL and δ_1 . Actually, AdaD-S [34] and DORN [18] use large scale data (120k/100k images) for training which is highly beneficial for the model. As quantitative results are shown in Fig. 6, the predictions are more precise which demonstrates that the performance of our proposed PSD is superior.

Surface normal. We mainly evaluate our method for surface normal prediction on NYUD-v2 dataset. The results are listed in Table 4. Our PSD consistently outperforms previous approaches on most metrics except $\eta_3 = 30^\circ$. The results well indicate PSD can utilize the task-specific and cross-task correlations for improving the current task performance. Quantitative results are shown in Fig. 7 from which we can find that predictions of our PSD are better and contain more details.

Table 1: Comparisons with state-of-the-art semantic segmentation approaches on NYUD-v2 dataset

Method	data	PixAcc	mAcc	mIoU
FCN [24]	RGB	60.0	49.2	29.2
Lin <i>et al.</i> [32]	RGB	70.0	53.6	40.6
Mousavian <i>et al.</i> [33]	RGB	68.6	52.3	39.2
TRL [53]	RGB	76.2	56.3	46.4
RefineNet [31]	RGB	72.8	57.8	44.9
3DGNN [37]	RGBD	-	55.7	43.1
RDFNet-ResNet50 [36]	RGBD	74.8	60.4	47.7
Cheng <i>et al.</i> [10]	RGBD	71.9	60.7	45.9
Deng <i>et al.</i> [13]	RGBD	63.8	-	31.5
Eigen & Fergus [14]	RGBD	65.6	45.1	34.1
D-CNN [47]	RGBD	-	61.1	48.4
PSD-ResNet50	RGB	77.0	58.6	51.0

Table 2: Comparisons with state-of-the-art semantic segmentation approaches on SUNRGB-D dataset

Method	data	PixAcc	mAcc	mIoU
SegNet [4]	RGB	72.6	44.8	31.8
Lin <i>et al.</i> [32]	RGB	78.4	53.4	42.3
Bayesian-SegNet [25]	RGB	71.2	45.9	30.7
RefineNet [31]	RGB	80.4	57.8	45.7
TRL [53]	RGB	83.6	58.9	50.3
PAP [55]	RGB	83.8	58.4	50.5
Cheng <i>et al.</i> [10]	RGBD	-	58.0	-
3DGNN [37]	RGBD	-	57.0	45.9
D-CNN [47]	RGBD	-	53.5	42.0
RDF-ResNet152 [36]	RGBD	81.5	60.1	47.7
PSD-ResNet50	RGB	84.0	57.3	50.6



Figure 5: Visual results of semantic segmentation on SUNRGB-D dataset. (a) original RGB images; (b) ground truth; (c) our predictions

Table 3: Comparisons with state-of-the-art depth estimation approaches on NYUD-v2 dataset

Method	data	Lower is better			Higher is better		
		RMSE	REL	RMSE-log	$\delta_1 = 1.25$	$\delta_2 = 1.25^2$	$\delta_3 = 1.25^3$
PAD-Net [49]	795	0.582	0.120	-	0.817	0.954	0.987
Wang <i>et al.</i> [45]	795	0.745	0.220	0.262	0.605	0.890	0.970
Li <i>et al.</i> [29]	795	0.821	0.232	-	0.621	0.886	0.968
Xu <i>et al.</i> [51]	795	0.593	0.125	-	0.806	0.952	0.986
Lee <i>et al.</i> [28]	795	0.538	0.148	0.180	0.837	0.971	0.994
PAP [55]	795	0.530	0.142	0.190	0.818	0.957	0.988
Eigen <i>et al.</i> [11]	120k	0.877	0.214	0.285	0.611	0.887	0.971
Eigen & Fergus [14]	120k	0.641	0.158	0.214	0.769	0.950	0.988
DORN [18]	120k	0.509	0.115	-	0.828	0.965	0.992
AdaD-S [34]	100k	0.506	0.114	-	0.856	0.966	0.991
Multi-scale CRF [50]	95k	0.586	0.121	-	0.811	0.954	0.987
GeoNet [38]	16k	0.569	0.128	-	0.834	0.960	0.990
Laina <i>et al.</i> [27]	12k	0.573	0.127	0.194	0.811	0.953	0.988
TRL [53]	12k	0.501	0.144	0.181	0.815	0.962	0.992
PSD- $\mathcal{T}_d + \mathcal{T}_s + \mathcal{T}_n$	795	0.510	0.149	0.184	0.810	0.958	0.990
PSD- $\mathcal{T}_d + \mathcal{T}_n$	12k	0.488	0.132	0.172	0.840	0.966	0.994

4.4. Ablation Study

In this section, we perform extensive experiments to verify the efficacy of our method. All the following exper-

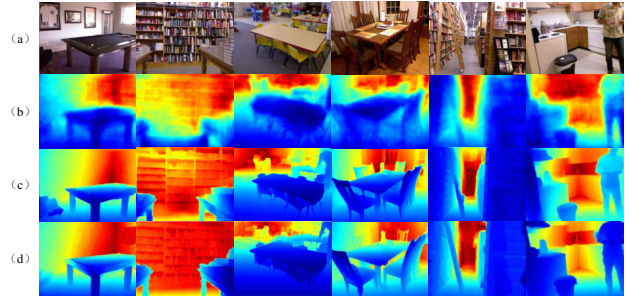


Figure 6: Visual results of depth on NYUD-v2 dataset. (a) original RGB images; (b) predictions of [51]; (c) our predictions; (d) ground truth.

Table 4: Comparisons with state-of-the-art surface normal approaches on NYUD-V2 dataset

Method	Lower is better			Higher is better		
	Mean	Median	Nor-RMSE	$\eta_1 = 11.25^\circ$	$\eta_2 = 22.5^\circ$	$\eta_3 = 30^\circ$
3DP [16]	35.3	31.2	-	16.4	36.6	48.2
3DP(MV) [16]	36.3	19.2	-	39.2	52.9	57.8
Eigen & Fergus [14]	23.7	15.5	-	39.2	62.0	71.1
UNFOLD [17]	35.1	19.2	-	37.6	53.3	58.9
Deep3D [48]	26.9	14.8	-	42.0	61.2	68.2
SkipNet [5]	19.8	12.0	28.2	47.9	70.0	77.8
Discr. [26]	33.5	23.1	-	27.7	49.0	58.7
SURGE [46]	20.6	12.2	-	47.3	68.9	76.6
Liao <i>et al.</i> [30]	19.7	12.5	-	45.8	72.1	80.6
GeoNet [38]	19.0	11.8	26.9	48.4	71.5	79.5
PSD-ResNet50	18.2	11.5	24.9	48.9	72.7	79.9

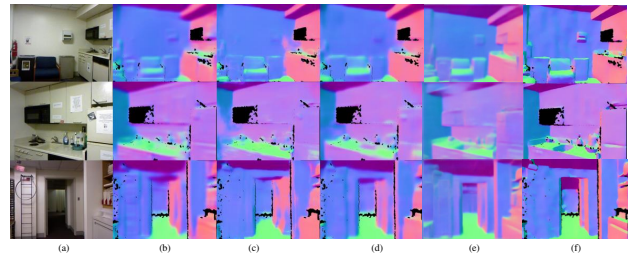


Figure 7: Visual results of surface normal on NYUD-v2 dataset. (a) original RGB images; (b) predictions of [14]; (c) predictions of [5]; (d) predictions of [38]; (e) our predictions; (f) ground truth.

iments adopt ResNet-18 as backbone and are trained for three tasks on the NYUD-v2 dataset.

Single-task versus multi-task learning. To verify the effectiveness of jointly predicting segmentation, depth and surface normal with our PSD method, we first predict each task separately and then jointly predict three tasks with our intra-task and inter-task PSD. To reflect the essential comparisons, we conduct the experiments on a single scale ($\frac{1}{16}$ scale of input). As is shown in Table 5, the performance of joint-task model outperforms the single-task model by 7.0% totally, and each task is indeed promoted after joint learning.

Analysis on network settings. We perform a series of experiments to evaluate the influence of each module in our

Table 5: Results of single-task versus multi-task learning

Settins	mIoU	RMSE	Nor-RMSE
Sementation only	42.4	-	-
Depth only	-	0.572	-
Surface normal only	-	-	29.0
Three task jointly	44.9	0.548	26.9

Table 6: Analysis on network settings on NYUD-v2 dataset

Model	mIoU	RMSE	Nor-RMSE
baseline	40.9	0.585	29.2
naive fusion	42.1	0.576	28.7
cross-stitch [22]	43.4	0.554	28.4
+ intra-task PSD	42.2	0.578	28.3
+ inter-task PSD	43.1	0.565	27.8
+ intra&inter-task PSD on small scale	44.9	0.548	26.9
+ intra&inter-task PSD on middle scale	46.3	0.534	26.6
+ intra&inter-task PSD on big scale	47.2	0.526	26.1
+ intra&inter-task PSD on all scales	50.0	0.498	25.8

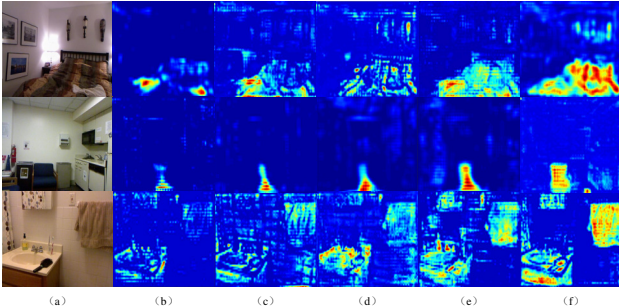


Figure 8: Visualization of response maps. (a) original RGB image; (b) baseline; (c) naive fusion; (d) intra-task PSD; (e) inter-task PSD; (f) intra&inter-task PSD on middle scale

proposed network. As shown in Table 6, the first five rows show results of experiments conducted on $\frac{1}{16}$ scale of the input. The **baseline** denotes the model jointly trained on three tasks without any interactivensess. We also compare two feature-fusion approaches under the same settings, i.e., **naive fusion** and **cross-stitch** [22]. The former directly concatenates cross-task features. The latter adds the cross-stitch unit to baseline. We can observe that both performances are poorer than ours. The reason behind it should be that, these two methods just combine features, but not mine/utilize pattern structures. Next, we add intra-task or inter-task PSD to baseline. The performance improvement indicates the benefit of each module. Further, we study the influence of different scales. The results are reported in the last four rows of Table 6. The larger scale results in a better performance, because the finer patterns at larger scale can be decoded to better estimate pixel-level subtle information. In addition, we show some qualitative visual results in Fig. 8. We can find that both intra-task and inter-task PSD can well boost pixel-level semantic understanding.

Analysis on graphlet size. Here we perform experiments to investigate the influence of graphlet size (i.e., the node number). From Fig. 9, we can observe that the perfor-

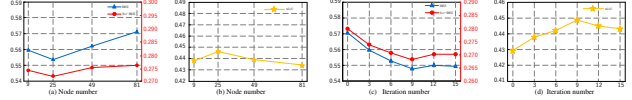


Figure 9: (a) RMSE (left axis, lower the better) and Nor-RMSE (right axis, lower the better) and (b) mIoU (higher the better) of PSD w.r.t graphlet size; (c) RMSE and Nor-RMSE and (d) mIoU of PSD w.r.t iteration numbers.

mance becomes better as the graphlet size increases, then reaches the best at the size of 25. The reason should be two folds: i) as the graphlet size increases, more pattern structures will be diffused which makes the correlations become more complicated and is more sensitive to feature response, ii) to some extent, some details may be fuzzed up as the diffused receptive field becomes larger. In addition, the size of 25 brings limited improvements over size of 9 while cost heavier memory and computation, which can be seen as a trade-off.

Analysis on the iteration number of diffusion. In Fig. 9, we show the results of different iteration numbers. Here we set intra-task and inter-task PSD only on the $\frac{1}{16}$ scale of input with the graphlet size 9. We can observe that the performance increases at first and tends to saturate when the iteration number is 9. It reveals that the model can capture longer distance correlations as the iteration number increases. Nevertheless, transmitting too long-distance patterns might bring negative impacts for the current region pattern to a certain extent. This reason might be that, in the pixel-level prediction task, each pixel highly depends on its neighbours instead of too far away pixels unless the similar pattern structures.

5. Conclusion

In this paper, we proposed the pattern-structure diffusion (PSD) framework for multi-task learning. Two types of pattern-structure diffusion stage were designed to effectively mine and propagate the relationships within/across tasks. In virtue of these two PSD strategies, the interactions across tasks can be connected with pattern-structures as well as the correlations. Besides, graphlets are utilized to model the pattern-structures which can bring the additional benefit of low computation and memory burden. Finally, all these diffusion models were capsulated into a PSD layer, which can be flexible to be incorporated those general deep networks. Extensive experiments verified we can benefit from pattern-structure diffusion for joint prediction of depth, segmentation and surface normal. In the future, we may generalize our method to other tasks in computer vision.

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