Unsupervised Domain Adaptation for Semantic Segmentation using Depth Distribution

Abstract

Recent years have witnessed significant advancements made in the field of unsupervised domain adaptation for semantic segmentation. Depth information has been proved to be effective in building a bridge between synthetic datasets and real-world datasets. However, the existing methods may not pay enough attention to depth distribution in different categories, which makes it possible to use them for further improvement. Besides the existing methods that only use depth regression as an auxiliary task, we propose to use depth distribution density to further support semantic segmentation. Therefore, considering the relationship among depth distribution density, depth and semantic segmentation, we propose a branch balance loss for these three subtasks in multi-task learning schemes. In addition, we also propose a spatial aggregation priors of pixels in different categories, which is used to refine the pseudo-labels for self-training, thus further improving the performance of the prediction model. Experiments on SYNTHIA-to-Cityscapes and SYNTHIA-to-Mapillary benchmarks show the effectiveness of the method. The source code is available at https://github.com/depdis/Depth_Distribution.

1 Introduction

Semantic segmentation refers to the task of assigning semantic categories to each pixel in an image, such as sky, road, car, etc. It is very important for many applications, such as autonomous driving [1] and image editing [2]. In this field, approaches of recent years are mostly based on fully convolutional network (FCN) [3] with modifications designed for pixel-wise prediction [4, 5, 6]. To tackle the challenge of large-scale annotations, unsupervised domain adaptation (UDA) is broadly used. A typical practice of UDA is to adapt the semantic segmentation model trained on synthetic datasets [7] (source domain) to perform on real-world datasets [8, 9] (target domain). In order to obtain better adaptation, the GAN [10] structure is widely used to minimize the feature distribution discrepancy, so that the model can utilize the knowledge learned from the source domain and apply it to the target domain.

As depth information has been proved to be effective in promoting the performance of semantic segmentation [11, 12, 13, 14], it is usually used to help establish the semantic connection between the two domains. SPIGAN [11] makes use of the privileged information in the source data from a simulator through the privileged network, which serves as an auxiliary task and is regularized to the main segmentation network. DADA [12] is a depth-aware domain adaptation scheme to dig deeper into geometry information, which not only executes the depth regression task when training the generator, but also fuses it together with semantic information during adversarial learning. CTRL [13] utilizes the multi-task learning to build relationships between different visual semantic categories and depth levels in UDA context. On the premise of obtaining or generating depth information in advance, CorDA [14] leverages self-supervised depth estimation to bridge the domain gap. The correlations

between semantics and depth greatly improves the performance of target semantic segmentation in the presence of a domain shift. However, the way of using depth information needs to be further explored.

[13] mentions that different semantic categories have discrete depth value ranges, but we find that different semantic classes also have their own depth distribution in images. For example, the sky is at the top of the image, the road is at the bottom of the image, cars and buses are driving on the road, people are always walking on the sidewalk, and so on. According to the above observation, different semantic categories might display relatively consistent depth distribution at their positions in images. Therefore, we try to make use of this structural information in a more accurate way. In this paper, we propose to use the Gaussian mixture models to build the depth distribution for different semantic classes, which can give an estimate of the probabilities of both in-category and out-of-category pixels within the UDA context for semantic segmentation. Concretely, looking into a certain category, e.g. car, the depth distribution of their locations can be learned by a mixture of several Gaussian models, which share common parameters across images and domains. In order to add this information to semantic segmentation, we use the multi-task learning framework to learn three subtasks, i.e. semantic segmentation prediction, depth regression and depth distribution density estimation. In addition, considering the internal relations among three subtasks, we propose to use density estimation to balance the other two subtasks, which is mainly to improve the efficiency of the main task(semantic segmentation). Moreover, we dig the spatial aggregation priors of pixels in different categories of the source domain, so as to refine pseudo-labels and improve the efficiency of self-supervised learning on the target domain. We have demonstrated the effectiveness of our proposed method on the benchmark tasks SYNTHIA-to-Cityscapes and SYNTHIA-to-Mapillary, on which we have obtained new state-of-the-art segmentation performance.

The main technical contributions of our work are made possible as follows:

- We propose to utilize the probability density of depth distribution, which is similar in source domain and target domain, to bridge the domain gap in UDA for semantic segmentation by a more accurate way.

- Based on the proposed density branch, an idea of branch balance training is proposed for our multi-task learning, and a branch balance strategy is designed to promote segmentation performance.

- A pseudo-labels refinement algorithm is proposed, which uses the aggregation priors of pixels in different categories on the source samples.

2   Related Work

Unsupervised domain adaptation. A typical practice of UDA is to adapt a semantic segmentation model trained on synthetic datasets (source domain) to perform on real-world datasets (target domain) [15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24]. Hoffman and colleges are the first to leverage adversarial training to conduct domain adaptation in the semantic segmentation tasks, where features are aligned and the label statistics of the source domain are transferred by category specific adaptation [25]. Then, other methods are to align the distribution of source and target domains through output space [26] or feature space [18, 19], align input pixels of the source and target images [27, 28], or to refine pseudo-labels under the self-training framework [17, 29, 30, 31, 32]. The above methods mainly focus on improving the architecture of the segmentation networks, but may not make use of the rich structure information of the two domains.

Use of geometric information in semantic segmentation. To further boost the domain adaptation in semantic segmentation, some researches have explored the use of depth information in the source data, which is the additional information available only during training time[11, 12, 33, 13, 14]. The depth information has been increasingly used to help the domain adaptation, but the relationship between depth and semantic segmentation needs to be further explored in a more accurate way. Our method is similar to DADA[12] and CTRL[13], but we use GMMs to learn the depth distribution possibilities for different categories in the images, so as to establish the relationship between synthetic data and real data more accurately.

Multi-task learning. Our work makes use of multi-task learning (MTL) [34], where multiple tasks are predicted by different branches. SPIGAN[11], DADA[12], GIO-Ada[33], CTRL[13] all use the MTL for depth regression and semantic segmentation, and make use of the depth information to

Figure 1: An overview of our network. The backbone is Resnet101, which follows three branches. In the main task branch, the features of the backbone CNN are fed into Deeplab-V2 [6] architectural design with Atrous Spatial Pyramid Pooling (ASPP) for segmentation prediction. In the depth regression branch, the backbone CNN features are continuously forwarded to three convolutional blocks, followed by an average pooling layer, to output depth. We estimate the depth distribution density by using the same network as the depth regression branch. We fuse the features extracted by density estimation with those from semantic segmentation branch for adversarial training.

bridge the domain gap. However, apart from these two tasks, no other new tasks have been proposed to help semantics. Although CTRL adds a refined segmentation branch as the third task, there is no close connection between these tasks. We use the standard multi-task learning, and add a depth distribution density estimation branch to predict a density map which is closely associated with depth and semantic segmentation. Therefore, we design a branch balance loss for the three branches, which can significantly improve the accuracy of segmentation. Compared to CTRL, our method has a simpler network and better prediction performance.

Pseudo-label refinement under self-training frameworks. Our work is also related to self-supervised learning. By iteratively training the network with gradually improved target pseudo-labels, the performance on the target domain can be further improved[17, 23, 20, 13]. Different from their approaches, we explore and add the spatial aggregation scale of pixels in different categories of source domain, as a guide to refine the pseudo-labels for self-training.

3 Methodology

A fitted GMM can give an estimate of the probabilities of both in-sample and out-of-sample data points, which is known as density estimation. On the observation that the depth distribution of the same category between synthetic samples and real samples is very similar, we can utilize this information from source samples and transfer it to target samples using adversarial training. We use standard multi-task learning framework to obtain three subtasks(as shown in Figure 1), i.e. semantic segmentation(main task), depth regression and depth distribution density estimation. In our framework, two auxiliary tasks work together to improve the performance of the main task. Following an adversarial training scheme[25, 26], we train the network in a UDA setting. In addition, we also explore pixel aggregation priors of different categories on the source domain to help refine the pseudo-labels on the target domain, thus further improve the semantic segmentation performance.

3.1 Problem Formulation

Let $\mathfrak{D}_s$ and $\mathfrak{D}_t$ represent the source and target domains, and the samples from them are represented by tuples (I_s, P_s, Z_s) and (I_t) respectively, where $I \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3}$ are color images, $P \in \{1, ...C\}^{H \times W}$ are semantic annotations with C classes, and $Z \in [Z_{min}, Z_{max}]^{H \times W}$ are depth maps from a finite frustum. For the source domain training, we optimize the network cost using supervised loss for semantic segmentation and depth regression. Therefore, an unsupervised adversarial learning scheme on the target domain is within the same training process. In addition, we use a branch balance loss to estimate the depth distribution density on both source and target domains, which is closely related to segmentation and depth results.

3.2 Supervised Learning

For **semantic segmentation prediction**, we adopt the standard cross-entropy loss, which is represented as pixel-wise class probabilities over C classes:

$$\mathcal{L}_{seg}(\hat{P}, P) = -\sum_{i=1}^{C} P_i \log \hat{P}_i. \tag{1}$$

, where $\hat{P}$ and P are the predicted and ground truth segmentation annotations, respectively.

For **depth regression**, we employ the berHu loss:

$$\mathcal{L}_{dep}(\hat{Z}, Z) = berHu\left(\hat{Z} - Z\right). \tag{2}$$

with the reverse Huber loss defined as [35]:

$$berHu\left(e_z\right) = \begin{cases} |e_z|, & |e_z| \leq L \\ \frac{(e_z)^2 + L^2}{2L}, & |e_z| > L \end{cases} \tag{3}$$

$$L = 0.2max\left(|e_z|\right). \tag{4}$$

, where $\hat{Z}$ and Z are the predicted and ground truth depth maps, respectively. Following [33, 12], inverse depth is adopted for the depth regression loss.

3.3 Depth Distribution Density Estimation

For density estimation, a density map of each image should be built first. Since the ground truth segmentation and depth information of source samples have been provided, these information can be used to construct Gaussian mixture models for each semantic category.

For each category $i \in (1, ..., C)$, the depth value z of the pixel associated with its position (x, y) can form a tuple (x, y, z), which is denoted as $\vec{X}_i$. For each category i, we adopt Expectation-Maximization algorithm [36] to learn the mixture component weights ϕ_{ij}, the component means $\vec{\mu_{ij}}$ and variances/covariances Σ_{ij} of GMMs from the depth distribution information $\vec{X}_i$ on source samples. Therefore, we can learn the GMMs for each semantic class on the source domain.

The density values of each pixel can be calculated by the following formula:

$$p\left(\vec{X}_i\right) = \sum_{j=1}^{K} \phi_{ij}\mathcal{N}\left(\vec{X}_i \mid \vec{\mu_{ij}}, \Sigma_{ij}\right) \tag{5}$$

, where $\sum_{j=1}^{K} \phi_{ij} = 1$, and $\mathcal{N}\left(\vec{X}_i \mid \vec{\mu_{ij}}, \Sigma_{ij}\right)$ means $\vec{X}_i$ is satisfied with the Gaussian distribution. In our experiment, K is defined as 5.

By calculating the density value of all the pixels by channel-wise GMMs, a depth distribution density map $D \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W}$ of the image is constructed, which can be regarded as the ground truth.

Although the density maps of the source samples can be precalculated by the ground truth depth, the ground truth segmentation annotations and the constructed GMMs, considering the branch balance during training, we propose a **branch balance loss** for estimating the depth distribution density. For *source domain training*, we use the ground truth depth, the predicted segmentation annotations and pre-constructed source domain GMMs to generate the density map D_s for each sample. For *target domain training*, we use the estimated depth, the predicted segmentation annotations and pre-constructed source domain GMMs to generate the density map D_t for each sample.

We also use berHu loss (the reversed Huber criterion [35]) to estimate the density. Therefore, the branch balance loss can be expressed as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{bal}(\hat{D}, D) = berHu\left(\hat{D} - D\right). \tag{6}$$

, where $\hat{D}$ is the predicted density map of the density branch, and D is the constructed density map by the other two branches.

Note that, unlike the losses used for semantic segmentation prediction and depth regression, the branch balance loss is suitable for the training of source domain and target domain. There are two advantages to the proposed branch balance loss. On one hand, it can balance the training efficiency of different branches on the source domain and target domain, especially the target domain. Because there exists no ground truth to constrain the subtasks training on the target domain, it may not be easy for each branch to keep balance. In addition, because we use the GMMs of the source domain to calculate density maps of the target samples, we also build a bridge between the two domains.

The network parameters denoted as θ_{net} are learned to minimize the following objective functions on the source domain and target domain:

$$\min_{\theta_{net}} \mathbb{E}_{\mathfrak{D}^{(s)}} \left(\lambda_{seg}\mathcal{L}_{seg} + \lambda_{dep}\mathcal{L}_{dep} + \lambda_{bal}\mathcal{L}_{bal} \right) \tag{7}$$

$$\min_{\theta_{net}} \mathbb{E}_{\mathfrak{D}^{(t)}} \left(\lambda_{tar}\mathcal{L}_{bal} \right) \tag{8}$$

, where hyperparameters λ_{seg}, λ_{dep}, λ_{bal} and λ_{tar} are the weight values. In our experiments, we use $\lambda_{seg} = 1.0$, $\lambda_{dep} = 5 \times 10^{-3}$, $\lambda_{bal} = 10^{-2}$, $\lambda_{tar} = 5 \times 10^{-2}$.

3.4 Adversarial Training

We use a discriminator network to align the source and target domains. Unlike CTRL[13] which designs a Cross-Task Relation Layer to concatenate three entropy maps (semantic segmentation, refined semantic segmentation and depth) together, we follow the DADA fusion strategy. However, different from DADA, we use segmentation to fuse density map instead of depth map.

To be more specific, the weighted self-information maps [19] $F\left(\hat{P}\right)$ is calculated at first by:

$$F\left(\hat{P}\right) = -\hat{P} \odot \log \hat{P} \tag{9}$$

Then, we fuse the C-channel F with the estimated density map $\hat{D}$ to produce a fused C-channel map $\hat{F}$, and feed it forward to a discriminator.

More specifically, the discriminator network parameters $\theta_{\mathcal{D}}$ can be obtained by correctly classifying the sample domain as a source or target during training:

$$\min_{\theta_{\mathcal{D}}} \left\{ \mathbb{E}_{\mathfrak{D}_s} \left[\log \mathcal{D}\left(\hat{F}_s\right) \right] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathfrak{D}_t} \left[\log \left(1 - \mathcal{D}\left(\hat{F}_t\right) \right) \right] \right\} \tag{10}$$

At the same time, the prediction network parameters θ_{net} is updated using the "fooling" objective minimization:

$$\min_{\theta_{net}} \mathbb{E}_{\mathfrak{D}_t} \left[\log \mathcal{D}\left(\hat{F}_t\right) \right] \tag{11}$$

The hyperparameter λ_{adv} is used to weigh the relative importance of the adversarial loss (11), and we set $\lambda_{adv} = 5 \times 10^{-2}$ in our experiment. In our training scheme, the model parameters of the prediction network (θ_{net}) and the discriminator (θ_D) are optimized jointly. At each training iteration, we input a batch of two samples from the source domain and the target domain into the network. All loss gradients are accumulated and then propagated back to update the network.

3.5 Spatial Aggregation Priors for Pseudo-labels Refinement

Considering the spatial aggregation scale of pixel in different categories of the source domain, we find that pixels of large objects, such as sky and road, have a large-scale aggregation in images, while pixels of small objects, such as person and bicycle, have relatively small-scale aggregation in images. Therefore, we can use it to set different thresholds which can be used to refine pseudo-labels on the target domain for self-training.

$$thres_i = N_{base0} + \frac{N_i - N_{min}}{N_{max} - N_{min}} \times N_{base1} \tag{12}$$

, where $thres_i$ represents the threshold of different category i, N_{min} and N_{max} represent the minimum and maximum pixel numbers of different categories from all source samples, respectively.

N_i represents the pixel number of the ith category from all source samples. N_{base0} and N_{base1} are two default values, which are set as 50 and 4950 in our experiment, respectively, so that the threshold ranges from 50 to 5000.

We design an algorithm which adds the spatial aggregation priors for refining pseudo-labels. Algorithm 1 is the pseudo-code of refining the pseudo-labels by using the spatial aggregation priors. Detailed illustrations are as follows.

Algorithm 1: Spatial prior pseudo-labels refinement algorithm

---

Input: A target sample with predicted pseudo-labels.
Output: Refined pseudo-labels.
1 Initialize all pixels to set their flags T_{wh}=0.
2 **for** w=0 to W **do**
3   **for** h=0 to H **do**
4   **if** T_{wh}=0 && $Confidence_{wh} \geq$0.9 **then**
5   Search around it for pixels that satisfy the following conditions:
6   Their prediction class is the same as T_{wh}, and their confidence value $\geq$ 0.9.
7   Iterate over taking these points as the fiducial points and search around them outward for the qualified points.
8   Count the number of all qualified pixels, and record as N_c;
9   **if** $N_c \geq thres_i$ **then**
10   Set flags of all these pixels to 1;
11 Pixels labeled with 1 are reserved, and their pseudo-labels can be used for self-supervised learning.

Our prediction model can be further improved by self-training schemes. Follow [17], we first train the prediction and discriminator networks for Q1 iterations. We generate semantic pseudo-labels on the target training samples using the trained prediction network, and then obtain refined pseudo-labels by Algorithm 1 to further train the prediction network on the target training samples using pseudo-labels supervision for Q2 iterations. The above pseudo-labels generation-refinement and self-training process is executed twice to produce higher quality semantics output on the target domain.

4 Experiments

4.1 UDA Benchmarks

To make a fair comparison with previous works[11, 26, 37, 38, 19, 12, 13], especially DADA and CTRL, which are the most similar to our method, we use three standard UDA evaluation protocols to verify our model: SYNTHIA → Cityscapes (16 classes), SYNTHIA → Cityscapes (7 classes), and SYNTHIA → Mapillary (7 classes). Detailed descriptions of these settings can be found in [12] and [13]. In all settings, the SYNTHIA dataset [7] is used as the source domain. Following [12, 13], we use the SYNTHIA-RAND-CITYSCAPES split consisting of 9,400 synthetic images and their corresponding pixel-wise semantic and depth annotations. For target domains, we use Cityscapes [8] and Mapillary Vistas [9] datasets. Similar to [26, 19, 12, 13], we report the performance of semantic segmentation based on "mean Intersection over Union" (mIoU in %) on the 16 classes of the Cityscapes validation set, and also show the mIoU (%) of the 13 classes (mIoU*) excluding classes with *.

Table 1: The quantitative results of different methods for semantic segmentation performance (IoU and mIoU, %) on SYNTHIA→ Cityscapes(16 classes).

Models	Depth	SYNTHIA → Cityscapes (16 classes)																	
		road	sidewalk	building	wall*	fence*	pole*	light	sign	veg	sky	person	rider	car	bus	mbike	bike	mIoU↑	mIoU*↑
SPIGAN[11]	√	71.1	29.8	71.4	3.7	0.3	**33.2**	6.4	15.6	81.2	78.9	52.7	13.1	75.9	25.5	10.0	20.5	36.8	42.4
AdaptSegnet[26]		79.2	37.2	78.8	–	–	–	9.9	10.5	78.2	80.5	53.5	19.6	67.0	29.5	21.6	31.3	–	45.9
AdaptPatch[37]		82.2	39.4	79.4	–	–	–	6.5	10.8	77.8	82.0	54.9	21.1	67.7	30.7	17.8	32.2	–	46.3
CLAN[38]		81.3	37.0	80.1	–	–	–	16.1	13.7	78.2	81.5	53.4	21.2	73.0	32.9	22.6	30.7	–	47.8
Advent[19]		87.0	44.1	79.7	9.6	0.6	24.3	4.8	7.2	80.1	83.6	56.4	23.7	72.7	32.6	12.8	33.7	40.8	47.6
DADA[12]	√	**89.2**	**44.8**	**81.4**	6.8	0.3	26.2	8.6	11.1	81.8	**84.0**	54.7	19.3	79.7	40.7	14.0	38.8	42.6	49.8
CTRL[13]	√	86.9	43.0	80.7	19.2	0.9	27.2	11.6	12.6	81.3	83.2	60.7	24.0	84.2	46.2	22.0	44.2	45.5	52.4
Ours	√	85.3	40.2	79.7	**19.6**	**1.3**	29.4	29.7	32.2	82.5	79.2	64.3	26.7	85.2	49.4	22.7	44.9	48.2	55.5

Table 2: The quantitative results of different methods for semantic segmentation performance (IoU and mIoU, %) on SYNTHIA→ Cityscapes(7 classes) and SYNTHIA → Mapillary (7 classes) in low-resolution and full-resolution.

Res.	Model	Depth	(a) SYNTHIA → Cityscapes (7 classes)								(b) SYNTHIA → Mapillary (7 classes)							
			flat	const	object	nature	sky	human	vehicle	mIoU↑	flat	const	object	nature	sky	human	vehicle	mIoU↑
320*640	SPIGAN[11]	√	91.2	66.4	9.6	56.8	71.5	17.7	60.3	53.4	74.1	47.1	6.8	43.3	83.7	11.2	42.2	44.1
	Advent[19]		86.3	72.7	12.0	70.4	81.2	29.8	62.9	59.4	82.7	51.8	18.4	67.8	79.5	22.7	54.9	54.0
	DADA[12]	√	89.6	76.0	16.3	74.4	78.3	43.8	65.7	63.4	83.8	53.7	20.5	62.1	84.5	26.6	59.2	55.8
	CTRL[13]	√	90.8	77.5	15.7	77.1	**82.9**	45.3	68.6	65.4	**86.6**	57.4	19.7	**73.0**	**87.5**	**45.1**	**68.1**	**62.5**
	Ours	√	**92.6**	**78.2**	**23.4**	**77.2**	**82.9**	**49.6**	**69.8**	**67.7**	86.2	**58.7**	19.4	68.9	86.1	40.4	62.4	60.3
Full	Advent[19]		89.6	77.8	22.1	76.3	81.4	54.7	68.7	67.2	86.9	58.8	30.5	74.1	85.1	48.3	72.5	65.2
	DADA[12]	√	92.3	78.3	25.0	75.5	82.2	58.7	72.4	70.4	86.7	62.1	**34.9**	75.9	88.6	51.1	73.8	67.6
	CTRL[13]	√	**92.4**	80.7	27.7	78.1	**83.6**	59.0	**78.6**	71.4	**88.5**	59.2	27.8	**79.4**	85.7	**64.4**	**79.6**	69.2
	Ours	√	**92.4**	**81.8**	**34.3**	**78.9**	82.0	**64.5**	74.1	**72.6**	87.7	**68.6**	33.7	74.8	**93.0**	61.4	73.4	**70.4**

Table 3: Ablation study of different components of our method in Section 4.4

Model	SegPre	DepRes	DenEst	SelfTra	SpaPri	mIoU(%)↑
M1	√	√				41.7
M2	√	√	√			44.8
M3	√	√	√	√		47.6
M4	√	√	√	√	√	**48.2**

Table 4: Additional analysis in Section 4.5

Situation	mIoU(%)↑
S1	44.1
S2	43.4
S3	37.8
S4	**44.8**

4.2 Experimental Setup

The experiments in this paper are conducted on a single NVIDIA 1080Ti GPU with a memory of 11GB. Our network is implemented on PyTorch [39]. Backbone is a ResNet-101 [40] initialized with ImageNet [41] weights. In addition, we use DC-GAN [42] as our domain discriminator for adversarial learning. The learning rates of the prediction and discriminator networks are set as 2.5×10^{-4} and 1.0×10^{-3} respectively. In self-training, the parameters are: Q1 = 54K, Q2 = 30K.

4.3 Comparison to Other Methods

4.3.1 SYNTHIA → Cityscapes(16 classes)

Table 1 reports semantic segmentation performance of our proposed model on SYNTHIA → Cityscapes(16 classes). It shows our method achieves SOTA performance on both 16 and 13 classes, outperforming other methods by large margins. Compare to the SOTA works, we have improvements on 11 classes. Compare with the SOTA CTRL[13], which maps depth to a discrete probability space, our main gains come from the following classes – "light" (+18.1%), "sign" (+19.6%), "person" (+3.6%), "bus" (+3.2%), "rider" (+2.7%) and "pole" (+2.2%). Besides, our method shows consistent improvements on the following classes in the target domain: "wall" (+0.4%), "fence" (+0.4%), "bicycle" (+0.7%), "vegetation" (+1.2%), "car" (+1.0%) and "motorbike" (+0.7%). Fig. 2 shows the results of the qualitative comparison of our method with DADA[12] and CTRL[13].

4.3.2 SYNTHIA → Cityscapes (7 classes) and SYNTHIA → Mapillary (7 classes)

Table 2 shows the semantic segmentation results in SYNTHIA → Cityscapes and SYNTHIA → Mapillary benchmarks, which are trained and evaluated on their common 7 classes. We also train and evaluate our model on the 320 × 640 resolution to get a fair comparison with the reference low-resolution models. In the low-resolution model in SYNTHIA → Mapillary benchmark, CTRL is superior to other methods, and our model ranks second with mIoU loss of -2.2% than CTRL. Besides, our proposed method is superior to previous works. Compared to CTRL, our mIoU gains is +2.3% and +1.2% for low-resolution and full-resolution of SYNTHIA → Cityscapes, and +1.2% for full-resolution of SYNTHIA → Mapillary. Fig. 3 shows the results of the qualitative comparison of our method with DADA[12] and CTRL[13] on these two protocols in full-resolution.

| (a) Test Image | (b) GT | (c) DADA | (d) CTRL | (e) Ours |

Figure 2: Qualitative semantic segmentation results on SYNTHIA → Cityscapes (16 classes). (a)Test Images from Cityscapes validation set; (b) ground truth annotations; (c) DADA[12] results; (d) CTRL[13] results; (e) our results. Compared to theirs, our method demonstrates notable improvements on "light and sign", "vegetation", "person" and "bus" classes as highlighted using the yellow boxes.

4.4 Ablation Studies

In order to verify the effectiveness of our proposed components, we trained four different models for comparison, denoted as M1,...M4. An ablation study is shown in Table 3. "SegPre" represents segmentation prediction branch, "DepRes" represents depth regression branch, "DenEst" represents density estimation branch, "SelfTra" means the self-training scheme in our paper without using spatial prior pseudo-labels refinement algorithm, "SpaPri" means the spatial prior pseudo-labels refinement algorithm. All the models are trained and evaluated on SYNTHIA → Cityscapes (16 classes).

M1 is backbone network with segmentation predict branch and depth regression branch. Unlike DADA, we didn't fuse features for adversarial training in M1. The result shows that segmentation result (mIoU 41.7) is lower than that of DADA (mIoU 42.6). M2 adds the branch of density estimation. This is our model. The segmentation result is 44.8 (mIoU), which is a satisfactory improvement. Note that, for a fair comparison, if without self-training, CTRL result is 42.1(mIoU), which can be found in their ablation study table[13]. Apart from three subtasks, CTRL has an additional Cross-Task Relation Layer, but we choose a more concise MTL framework. Compared to DADA, M2 have a mIoU gain of +2.2%. Compared to CTRL without self-training, M2 have a mIoU gain of +2.7%. This demonstrates the effectiveness of the depth distribution density branch proposed by us. M3 adds our self-training scheme by commonly used pseudo-labels refinement based on confidence, and M4 adopts our proposed spatial prior refinement algorithm on the basis of M3. The results of M3 demonstrates our model can obtain consistent improvements by using self-supervised training. In addition, compared to M3, M4 has a mIoU gain of +0.6%, which shows the effectiveness of our proposed algorithm to obtain higher quality pseudo-labels.

4.5 Additional Experimental Analysis

Branch balance loss for density estimation. By further using semantic segmentation and depth information, we propose the branch balance loss for multi-task learning. This is different from the SOTA methods. The branch balance loss is to use the density map calculated from the other two branches to constrain the predicted density map. Considering the relationship among these three branches, we use it for density estimation. To demonstrate the effectiveness of our designed loss, we tested the density estimation on the source domain by using the pre-constructed density map as the

Figure 3: Qualitative semantic segmentation results on: SYNTHIA → Cityscapes (7 classes) (upper two lines) and SYNTHIA → Mapillary (7 classes) (lower two lines). (a) Test Images from Cityscapes and Mapillary validation sets; (b) ground truth annotations; (c) DADA[12] results; (d) CTRL[13] results; (e) our results. Compared to theirs, our method demonstrates notable improvements on "object", "human", "sky" and "construction" classes as highlighted using the yellow boxes.

ground truth for supervised training, and an unsupervised adversarial learning scheme on the target domain. The mIoU result of this model is 44.1 (S1 in Table 4). Note that S4 is the result of our model, and all results in Table 4 are without the self-training scheme.

Ground truth depth for density map calculation during source domain training. For comparison, we use the predicted depth to calculate the density map in the source domain training. The result of mIoU is 43.4 (S2 in Table 4), which is lower than the method we proposed. It is known that the density map is closely related to the segmentation annotations and the depth map. In our source domain training, we eliminate the influence of depth by using its ground truth, but transfer the influence to segmentation by using the predicted segmentation results. This change makes the density map closely related to semantic segmentation, and thus improving the segmentation prediction performance.

Features fused from density maps and semantic segmentation. In our approach, we only fuse the features from density branch and segmentation branch, and then feed them forward for adversarial training. It is not only different from DADA, which fuses depth map and segmentation results, but also different from CTRL, which concatenates the features of three branches together. Therefore, we trained a model which fused all results from three branches together for comparison. The result of mIoU is 37.8 (S3 in Table 4). In fact, considering that the density map and the depth map have similar information, our fusion strategy can highlight the effect of the main task.

5   Conclusion

We use depth distribution to build a bridge between synthetic datasets and real-world datasets for semantic segmentation in UDA context, and achieve new SOTA segmentation performance. We predict three tasks using the standard MTL framework. The two auxiliary tasks are designed to improve the performance of semantic segmentation. We use the same branch network as the previous works for depth regression. Like theirs, we find that our depth regression results can not be compared with the works focused on depth estimation. This is the limitation of our work. However, depth density is closely related to depth, so in our method, a more accurate depth and its distribution density should be able to further improve the semantic segmentation performance. We plan to redesign the branch networks of depth and depth density in the MTL framework, which is our further work.

References

[1] Andreas Geiger, Philip Lenz, and Raquel Urtasun. Are we ready for autonomous driving? the kitti vision benchmark suite. In *2012 IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 3354–3361. IEEE, 2012.

[2] Yi-Hsuan Tsai, Xiaohui Shen, Zhe Lin, Kalyan Sunkavalli, Xin Lu, and Ming-Hsuan Yang. Deep image harmonization. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 3789–3797, 2017.

[3] Jonathan Long, Evan Shelhamer, and Trevor Darrell. Fully convolutional networks for semantic segmentation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 3431–3440, 2015.

[4] Fisher Yu and Vladlen Koltun. Multi-scale context aggregation by dilated convolutions. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1511.07122*, 2015.

[5] Hengshuang Zhao, Jianping Shi, Xiaojuan Qi, Xiaogang Wang, and Jiaya Jia. Pyramid scene parsing network. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 2881–2890, 2017.

[6] Liang-Chieh Chen, George Papandreou, Iasonas Kokkinos, Kevin Murphy, and Alan L Yuille. Deeplab: Semantic image segmentation with deep convolutional nets, atrous convolution, and fully connected crfs. *IEEE transactions on pattern analysis and machine intelligence*, 40(4):834–848, 2017.

[7] German Ros, Laura Sellart, Joanna Materzynska, David Vazquez, and Antonio M Lopez. The synthia dataset: A large collection of synthetic images for semantic segmentation of urban scenes. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 3234–3243, 2016.

[8] Marius Cordts, Mohamed Omran, Sebastian Ramos, Timo Rehfeld, Markus Enzweiler, Rodrigo Benenson, Uwe Franke, Stefan Roth, and Bernt Schiele. The cityscapes dataset for semantic urban scene understanding. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 3213–3223, 2016.

[9] Gerhard Neuhold, Tobias Ollmann, Samuel Rota Bulo, and Peter Kontschieder. The mapillary vistas dataset for semantic understanding of street scenes. In *Proceedings of the IEEE international conference on computer vision*, pages 4990–4999, 2017.

[10] Ian Goodfellow, Jean Pouget-Abadie, Mehdi Mirza, Bing Xu, David Warde-Farley, Sherjil Ozair, Aaron Courville, and Yoshua Bengio. Generative adversarial nets. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 27, 2014.

[11] Kuan-Hui Lee, German Ros, Jie Li, and Adrien Gaidon. Spigan: Privileged adversarial learning from simulation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1810.03756*, 2018.

[12] Tuan-Hung Vu, Himalaya Jain, Maxime Bucher, Matthieu Cord, and Patrick Pérez. Dada: Depth-aware domain adaptation in semantic segmentation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF International Conference on Computer Vision*, pages 7364–7373, 2019.

[13] Suman Saha, Anton Obukhov, Danda Pani Paudel, Menelaos Kanakis, Yuhua Chen, Stamatios Georgoulis, and Luc Van Gool. Learning to relate depth and semantics for unsupervised domain adaptation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 8197–8207, 2021.

[14] Qin Wang, Dengxin Dai, Lukas Hoyer, Luc Van Gool, and Olga Fink. Domain adaptive semantic segmentation with self-supervised depth estimation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF International Conference on Computer Vision*, pages 8515–8525, 2021.

[15] Yang Zhang, Philip David, and Boqing Gong. Curriculum domain adaptation for semantic segmentation of urban scenes. In *Proceedings of the IEEE international conference on computer vision*, pages 2020–2030, 2017.

[16] Swami Sankaranarayanan, Yogesh Balaji, Arpit Jain, Ser Nam Lim, and Rama Chellappa. Unsupervised domain adaptation for semantic segmentation with gans. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1711.06969*, 2(2):2, 2017.

[17] Yang Zou, Zhiding Yu, BVK Kumar, and Jinsong Wang. Unsupervised domain adaptation for semantic segmentation via class-balanced self-training. In *Proceedings of the European conference on computer vision (ECCV)*, pages 289–305, 2018.

[18] Yuhua Chen, Wen Li, and Luc Van Gool. Road: Reality oriented adaptation for semantic segmentation of urban scenes. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 7892–7901, 2018.

[19] Tuan-Hung Vu, Himalaya Jain, Maxime Bucher, Matthieu Cord, and Patrick Pérez. Advent: Adversarial entropy minimization for domain adaptation in semantic segmentation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 2517–2526, 2019.

[20] Javed Iqbal and Mohsen Ali. Mlsl: Multi-level self-supervised learning for domain adaptation with spatially independent and semantically consistent labeling. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Winter Conference on Applications of Computer Vision*, pages 1864–1873, 2020.

[21] Jinyu Yang, Weizhi An, Sheng Wang, Xinliang Zhu, Chaochao Yan, and Junzhou Huang. Label-driven reconstruction for domain adaptation in semantic segmentation. In *European conference on computer vision*, pages 480–498. Springer, 2020.

[22] Qianyu Zhou, Zhengyang Feng, Qiqi Gu, Guangliang Cheng, Xuequan Lu, Jianping Shi, and Lizhuang Ma. Uncertainty-aware consistency regularization for cross-domain semantic segmentation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2004.08878*, 2020.

[23] Sujoy Paul, Yi-Hsuan Tsai, Samuel Schulter, Amit K Roy-Chowdhury, and Manmohan Chandraker. Domain adaptive semantic segmentation using weak labels. In *European conference on computer vision*, pages 571–587. Springer, 2020.

[24] Jinyu Yang, Weizhi An, Chaochao Yan, Peilin Zhao, and Junzhou Huang. Context-aware domain adaptation in semantic segmentation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Winter Conference on Applications of Computer Vision*, pages 514–524, 2021.

[25] Judy Hoffman, Dequan Wang, Fisher Yu, and Trevor Darrell. Fcns in the wild: Pixel-level adversarial and constraint-based adaptation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1612.02649*, 2016.

[26] Yi-Hsuan Tsai, Wei-Chih Hung, Samuel Schulter, Kihyuk Sohn, Ming-Hsuan Yang, and Manmohan Chandraker. Learning to adapt structured output space for semantic segmentation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 7472–7481, 2018.

[27] Judy Hoffman, Eric Tzeng, Taesung Park, Jun-Yan Zhu, Phillip Isola, Kate Saenko, Alexei Efros, and Trevor Darrell. Cycada: Cycle-consistent adversarial domain adaptation. In *International conference on machine learning*, pages 1989–1998. PMLR, 2018.

[28] Yanchao Yang and Stefano Soatto. Fda: Fourier domain adaptation for semantic segmentation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 4085–4095, 2020.

[29] Qing Lian, Fengmao Lv, Lixin Duan, and Boqing Gong. Constructing self-motivated pyramid curriculums for cross-domain semantic segmentation: A non-adversarial approach. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF International Conference on Computer Vision*, pages 6758–6767, 2019.

[30] Zhedong Zheng and Yi Yang. Rectifying pseudo label learning via uncertainty estimation for domain adaptive semantic segmentation. *International Journal of Computer Vision*, 129(4):1106–1120, 2021.

[31] Pan Zhang, Bo Zhang, Ting Zhang, Dong Chen, Yong Wang, and Fang Wen. Prototypical pseudo label denoising and target structure learning for domain adaptive semantic segmentation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 12414–12424, 2021.

[32] Wilhelm Tranheden, Viktor Olsson, Juliano Pinto, and Lennart Svensson. Dacs: Domain adaptation via cross-domain mixed sampling. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Winter Conference on Applications of Computer Vision*, pages 1379–1389, 2021.

[33] Yuhua Chen, Wen Li, Xiaoran Chen, and Luc Van Gool. Learning semantic segmentation from synthetic data: A geometrically guided input-output adaptation approach. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 1841–1850, 2019.

[34] Simon Vandenhende, Stamatios Georgoulis, Wouter Van Gansbeke, Marc Proesmans, Dengxin Dai, and Luc Van Gool. Multi-task learning for dense prediction tasks: A survey. *IEEE transactions on pattern analysis and machine intelligence*, 2021.

[35] Iro Laina, Christian Rupprecht, Vasileios Belagiannis, Federico Tombari, and Nassir Navab. Deeper depth prediction with fully convolutional residual networks. In *2016 Fourth international conference on 3D vision (3DV)*, pages 239–248. IEEE, 2016.

[36] Geoffrey J McLachlan and Thriyambakam Krishnan. *The EM algorithm and extensions*, volume 382. John Wiley & Sons, 2007.

[37] Yi-Hsuan Tsai, Kihyuk Sohn, Samuel Schulter, and Manmohan Chandraker. Domain adaptation for structured output via discriminative patch representations. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF International Conference on Computer Vision*, pages 1456–1465, 2019.

[38] Yawei Luo, Liang Zheng, Tao Guan, Junqing Yu, and Yi Yang. Taking a closer look at domain shift: Category-level adversaries for semantics consistent domain adaptation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 2507–2516, 2019.

[39] Adam Paszke, Sam Gross, Soumith Chintala, Gregory Chanan, Edward Yang, Zachary DeVito, Zeming Lin, Alban Desmaison, Luca Antiga, and Adam Lerer. Automatic differentiation in pytorch. 2017.

[40] Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun. Deep residual learning for image recognition. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 770–778, 2016.

[41] Jia Deng. A large-scale hierarchical image database. *Proc. of IEEE Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, 2009*, 2009.

[42] Alec Radford, Luke Metz, and Soumith Chintala. Unsupervised representation learning with deep convolutional generative adversarial networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1511.06434*, 2015.