# Potts Relaxations and Soft Self-labeling for Weakly-Supervised Segmentation

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### Abstract

We consider weakly supervised segmentation where only a fraction of pixels 1 have ground truth labels (scribbles) and focus on a self-labeling approach where 2 soft pseudo-labels on unlabeled pixels optimize some relaxation of the standard 3 unsupervised CRF/Potts loss. While WSSS methods can directly optimize CRF 4 losses via gradient descent, prior work suggests that higher-order optimization 5 can lead to better network training by jointly estimating pseudo-labels, e.g. using 6 discrete graph cut sub-problems. The inability of hard pseudo-labels to represent 7 class uncertainty motivates the relaxed pseudo-labeling. We systematically evaluate 8 standard and new CRF relaxations, neighborhood systems, and losses connecting 9 network predictions with soft pseudo-labels. We also propose a general continuous 10 sub-problem solver for such pseudo-labels. Soft self-labeling loss combining the 11 log-quadratic Potts relaxation and collision cross-entropy achieves state-of-the-art 12 and can outperform full pixel-precise supervision on PASCAL. 13

# 14 **1** Introduction

Full supervision for semantic segmentation requires thousands of training images with complete pixel-15 accurate ground truth masks. Their high costs explain the interest in weakly-supervised approaches 16 based on image-level class tags [21, 4], pixel-level scribbles [26, 36, 35], or boxes [23]. This paper 17 is focused on weak supervision with scribbles, which we also call seeds or partial masks. While 18 only slightly more expensive than image-level class tags, scribbles on less than 3% of pixels were 19 previously shown to achieve accuracy approaching full supervision without any modifications of the 20 segmentation models. In contrast, tag supervision typically requires highly specialized systems and 21 complex multi-stage training procedures, which are hard to reproduce. Our interest in the scribble-22 based approach is motivated by its practical simplicity and mathematical clarity. The corresponding 23 methodologies are focused on the design of unsupervised or self-supervised loss functions and 24 stronger optimization algorithms. The corresponding solutions are often general and can be used in 25 different weakly-supervised applications. 26

### 27 1.1 Scribble-supervised segmentation

Assume that a set of image pixels is denoted by  $\Omega$  and a subset of pixels with ground truth labels is  $S \subset \Omega$ , which we call *seeds* or *scribbles* as subset S is typically marked by mouse-controlled UI for image annotations, e.g. see seeds over an image in Fig.7(a). The ground truth label at any given pixel  $i \in S$  is an integer

31  $i \in S$  is an integer

$$\bar{y}_i \in \{1, \dots, K\} \tag{1}$$

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where K is the number of classes including the background. Without much ambiguity, it is convenient 32 to use the same notation  $\bar{y}_i$  for the equivalent *one-hot* distribution 33

$$\bar{y}_i \equiv (\bar{y}_i^1, \dots, \bar{y}_i^K) \in \Delta_{0,1}^K \quad \text{for} \quad \bar{y}_i^k := [k = \bar{y}_i] \in \{0, 1\}$$
(2)

where  $[\cdot]$  is the *True* operator for the condition inside the brackets. Set  $\Delta_{0,1}^{K}$  represents K possible one-hot distributions, which are vertices of the K-class probability simplex

$$\Delta^K := \{ p = (p^1, \dots, p^K) \mid p^k \ge 0, \sum_{k=1}^K p^k = 1 \}$$

- representing all K-categorical distributions. The context of specific expressions should make it 34
- obvious if  $\bar{y}_i$  is a class index (1) or the corresponding one-hot distribution (2). 35
- Loss functions for weakly supervised segmentation with scribbles typically use negative log-36
- *likelihoods* (NLL) over scribbles  $i \in S \subset \Omega$  with ground truth labels  $\bar{y}_i$ 37

$$-\sum_{i\in S}\ln\sigma_i^{\bar{y}_i}\tag{3}$$

- 38
- where  $\sigma_i = (\sigma_i^1, \dots, \sigma_i^K) \in \Delta^K$  is the model prediction at pixel *i*. This loss is a standard in full supervision where the only difference is that  $S = \Omega$  and usually, no other losses are needed 39

for training. However, in a weakly supervised setting the majority of pixels are unlabeled, and 40

unsupervised losses are needed for  $i \notin S$ . 41

The most common unsupervised loss in image segmentation is the Potts model and its relaxations. It is a pairwise loss defined on pairs of *neighboring* pixels  $\{i, j\} \in \mathcal{N}$  for a given neighborhood system  $\mathcal{N} \subset \Omega \times \Omega$ , typically corresponding to the *nearest-neighbor* grid (NN) [6, 17], or other sparse (SN) [38] and dense neighborhoods (DN) [22]. The original Potts model is defined for discrete segmentation variables, e.g. as in

$$\sum_{\{i,j\}\in\mathcal{N}} P(\sigma_i,\sigma_j) \quad \text{where} \quad P(\sigma_i,\sigma_j) = [\sigma_i \neq \sigma_j]$$

assuming integer-valued one-hot predictions  $\sigma_i \in \Delta_{0,1}^K$ . This *regularization* loss encourages smoothness between the pixels. Its popular *self-supervised* variant is

$$P(\sigma_i, \sigma_j) = w_{i,j} \cdot [\sigma_i \neq \sigma_j]$$

- where pairwise affinities  $w_{ij}$  are based on local intensity edges [6, 17, 22]. Of course, in the context 42
- of network training, one should use relaxations of P applicable to (soft) predictions  $\sigma_i \in \Delta^K$ . Many 43
- types of its relaxation [33, 42] were studied in segmentation, e.g. quadratic [17], bi-linear [36], total 44
- variation [32, 8], and others [14]. 45

Another unsupervised loss highly relevant for training segmentation networks is the entropy of predictions, which is also known as *decisiveness* [7, 18]

$$\sum_{i} H(\sigma_i)$$

where H is the Shannon's entropy function. This loss can improve generalization and the quality of 46 47 representation by moving (deep) features away from the decision boundaries. Widely known in the context of unsupervised or semi-supervised classification, this loss also matters in weakly-supervised 48

segmentation where it is used explicitly or implicitly<sup>1</sup>. 49

Other unsupervised losses (e.g. contrastive), clustering criteria (e.g. K-means), or specialized 50

- architectures can be found in weakly-supervised segmentation [39, 31, 20, 9]. However, a lot can be 51
- achieved simply by combining the basic losses discussed above 52

$$L_{ws}(\sigma) := -\sum_{i \in S} \ln \sigma_i^{\bar{y}_i} + \eta \sum_{i \notin S} H(\sigma_i) + \lambda \sum_{ij \in \mathcal{N}} P(\sigma_i, \sigma_j)$$
(4)

which can be optimized directly by gradient descent [36, 38] or using *self-labeling* techniques 53

<sup>[26, 28, 27]</sup> incorporating optimization of auxiliary *pseudo-labels* as sub-problems. 54

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Interestingly, a unary decisiveness-like term is the difference between convex quadratic and *tight*, but non-convex, bi-linear relaxations [33, 27] of the discrete pairwise Potts model.

### 55 1.2 Soft pseudo-labels: motivation and contributions

We observe that self-labeling with hard pseudo-labels  $y_i$ , which is discussed in the Appendix A, is inherently limited as such labels can not represent the uncertainty of class estimates at unlabeled pixels  $i \in \Omega \setminus S$ . Instead, we focus on *soft* pseudo-labels

$$y_i = (y_i^1, \dots, y_i^K) \in \Delta^K \tag{5}$$

which are general categorical distributions p over K-classes. It is possible that the estimated pseudolabel  $y_i$  in (5) could be a one-hot distribution, which is a vertex of  $\Delta^K$ . In such a case, one can treat  $y_i$  as a class index, but we avoid this in the main part of our paper starting Section 2. However, the ground truth labels  $\bar{y}_i$  are always hard and we use them either as indices (1) or one-hot distributions (2), as convenient.

Soft pseudo-labels can be found in prior work on weakly-supervised segmentation [25, 41] using the 64 65 "soft proposal generation". In contrast, we formulate soft self-labeling as a principled optimization methodology where network predictions and soft pseudo-labels are variables in a joint loss, which 66 guarantees convergence of the training procedure. Our pseudo-labels are auxiliary variables for 67 ADM-based [5] splitting of the loss (4) into two simpler optimization sub-problems: one focused on 68 the Potts model over unlabeled pixels, and the other on the network training. While similar to [28], 69 instead of hard, we use soft auxiliary variables for the Potts sub-problem. Our work can be seen as a 70 study of the relaxed Potts sub-problem in the context of weakly-supervised semantic segmentation. 71 The related prior work is focused on discrete solvers fundamentally unable to represent class estimate 72 uncertainty. Our contributions can be summarized as follows: 73

- convergent *soft self-labeling* framework based on a simple joint self-labeling loss
- systematic evaluation of Potts relaxations and (cross-) entropy terms in our loss
- state-of-the-art in scribble-based semantic segmentation that does not require any modifica tions of semantic segmentation models and is easy to reproduce
- using the same segmentation model, our self-labeling loss with 3% scribbles may outperform
   standard supervised cross-entropy loss with full ground truth masks.

### 80 2 Our soft self-labeling approach

First, we apply ADM splitting [5] to weakly supervised loss (4) to formulate our self-labeling loss (6) incorporating additional soft auxiliary variables, i.e. pseudo-labels (5). It is convenient to introduce pseudo-labels  $y_i$  on all pixels in  $\Omega$  even though a subset of pixels (seeds)  $S \subset \Omega$  have ground truth labels  $\bar{y}_i$ . We will simply impose a constraint that pseudo-labels and ground truth labels agree on S. Thus, we assume the following set of pseudo-labels

$$Y_{\Omega} := \{ y_i \in \Delta^K \mid i \in \Omega, \text{ s.t. } y_i = \bar{y}_i \text{ for } i \in S \}.$$

We split the terms in (4) into two groups: one includes NLL and entropy H terms keeping the original prediction variables  $\sigma_i$  and the other includes the Potts relaxation P replacing  $\sigma_i$  with auxiliary variables  $y_i$ . This transforms loss (4) into expression

$$-\sum_{i \in S} \ln \sigma_i^{\bar{y}_i} + \eta \sum_{i \notin S} H(\sigma_i) + \lambda \sum_{i j \in \mathcal{N}} P(y_i, y_j)$$

- equivalent to (4) assuming equality  $\sigma_i = y_i$ . The standard approximation is to incorporate constraint
- se  $\sigma_i \approx y_i$  directly into the loss, e.g. using *KL*-divergence. For simplicity, we use weight  $\eta$  for *KL*( $\sigma_i, y_i$ ) to combine it with  $H(\sigma_i)$  into a single cross-entropy term

$$-\sum_{i\in S} \ln \sigma_i^{\bar{y}_i} + \underbrace{\eta \sum_{i\notin S} H(\sigma_i) + \eta \sum_{i\notin S} KL(\sigma_i, y_i)}_{\eta \sum_{i\notin S} H(\sigma_i, y_i)} + \lambda \sum_{ij\in \mathcal{N}} P(y_i, y_j)$$

defining joint *self-labeling loss* for both predictions  $\sigma_i$  and pseudo-labels  $y_i$ 

$$L_{self}(\sigma, y) := -\sum_{i \in S} \ln \sigma_i^{\bar{y}_i} + \eta \sum_{i \notin S} H(\sigma_i, y_i) + \lambda \sum_{ij \in \mathcal{N}} P(y_i, y_j)$$
(6)

<b>bi-linear</b> ~ "graph cut" $P_{BL}(p,q) := 1 - p^{\top}q$	quadrati $P_{Q}(p,q)$	$\mathbf{c} \sim$ "random walker" $q := \frac{1}{2}   p - q  ^2$		
normalized quadratic				
$P_{NQ}(p,q) := 1 - \frac{p \cdot q}{\ p\  \ q\ }$	≡	$\frac{1}{2} \left\  \frac{p}{\ p\ } - \frac{q}{\ q\ } \right\ ^2$		

Table 1: Second-order Potts relaxations, see Fig.1(a,b,c)

<sup>86</sup> Iterative minimization of this loss w.r.t. predictions  $\sigma_i$  (model parameters training) and pseudo-

 $y_i$  labels  $y_i$  effectively breaks the original optimization problem for (4) into two simpler sub-problems,

assuming there is a good solver for optimal pseudo-labels. The latter seems plausible since the unary

- term  $H(\sigma_i, y_i)$  is convex for  $y_i$  and the Potts relaxations were widely studied in image segmentation
- 90 for decades.

Section 2.1 discusses standard and new relaxations of the Potts model P. Section 2.2 discusses several

robust variants of cross-entropy H for connecting predictions with uncertain (soft) pseudo-labels  $y_i$ estimated for unlabeled points  $i \in \Omega \setminus S$ . Appendix B proposes an efficient general solver for the

<sup>94</sup> corresponding pseudo-labeling sub-problems.

### 95 2.1 Second-order relaxations of the Potts model

We focus on second-order relaxations for two reasons. First, to manage the scope of this study. Second, this includes several important baseline cases (see Table 1): *quadratic*, the simplest convex relaxation popularized by the *random walker* algorithm [17], and *bi-linear*, which is non-convex but *tight* [33] w.r.t. the original discrete Potts model. The latter implies that optimizing it over relaxed variables will lead to a solution consistent with a discrete Potts solver, e.g. *graph cut* [6]. On the contrary, the quadratic relaxation will produce a significantly different soft solution. We investigate such soft solutions.

Figure 2 shows two examples illustrating local minima for (a) the bi-linear and (b) quadratic relaxations of the Potts loss. In (a) two neighboring pixels attempt to jointly change the common soft label from  $y_i = y_j = (1, 0, 0)$  to  $y''_i = y''_j = (0, 1, 0)$ , which corresponds to a "move" where the whole object is reclassified from A to B. This move does not violate smoothness within the region represented by the Potts model. But, the soft intermediate state  $y'_i = y'_j = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0)$  will prevent this move in bi-linear case

$$P_{\rm BL}(y'_i,y'_j) = \frac{1}{2} > 0 = P_{\rm BL}(y_i,y_j) = P_{\rm BL}(y''_i,y''_j)$$

while quadratic relaxation assigns zero loss for all states during this move. On the other hand, the example in Figure 2(b) shows a move problematic for the quadratic relaxation. Two neighboring pixels have labels  $y_i = (1, 0, 0)$  and  $y_j = (0, 0, 1)$  corresponding to the boundary of objects A and C. The second object attempts to change from C to B. This move does not affect the discontinuity between two pixels, but quadratic relaxation prefers that the second object is stuck in the intermediate state  $y'_j = (0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ 

$$P_{\mathsf{Q}}(y_i, y'_j) = \frac{3}{4} < 1 = P_{\mathsf{Q}}(y_i, y_j) = P_{\mathsf{Q}}(y_i, y''_j)$$

while bi-linear relaxation  $P_{BL}(y_i, y_j) = 1$  remains constant as  $y_j$  changes.

104 We propose a new relaxation, *normalized quadratic* in Table 1. Normalization leads to equivalence

<sup>105</sup> between quadratic and bi-linear formulations combining their benefits. As easy to check, normalized

collision cross entropy	log-quadratic
$P_{\text{CCE}}(p,q) := -\ln p^{\top} q$	$P_{LQ}(p,q) := -\ln\left(1 - \frac{\ p-q\ ^2}{2}\right)$
collis	sion divergence
$P_{\rm CD}(p,q) := -\ln \frac{p^{\top}q}{\ p\ \ q\ }$	$\equiv -\ln\left(1-\frac{1}{2}\left\ \frac{p}{\ p\ }-\frac{q}{\ q\ }\right\ ^2\right)$

Table 2: Log-based Potts relaxations, see Fig.1(d,e,f)

approximating the original weakly supervised loss (4).



Figure 1: Second-order Potts relaxations in Tables 1 and 2: interaction potentials P for pairs of predictions  $(\sigma_i, \sigma_j)$  in (4) or pseudo-labels  $(y_i, y_j)$  in (6) are illustrated for K = 2 when each prediction  $\sigma_i$  or label  $y_i$ , i.e. distribution in  $\Delta^2$ , can be represented by a single scalar as (x, 1 - x). The contour maps are iso-levels of  $P((x_i, 1 - x_i), (x_j, 1 - x_j))$  over domain  $(x_i, x_j) \in [0, 1]^2$ . The 3D plots above illustrate the potentials P as functions over pairs of "logits"  $(l_i, l_j) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  where each scalar logit  $l_i$  defines binary distribution  $(x_i, 1 - x_i)$  for  $x_i = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-2l_i}} \in [0, 1]$ .

quadratic relaxation  $P_{NQ}$  does not have local minima in both examples of Figure 2. Table 2 also proposes "logarithmic" versions of the relaxations in Table 1 composing them with function  $-\ln(1 - \ln(1 - \ln(1$ 

proposes "logarithmic" versions of the relaxations in Table 1 composing them with function  $-\ln(1 - x)$ . As illustrated by Figure 1, the logarithmic versions in (d-f) addresses the "vanishing gradients" evident in (a-c).



Figure 2: Examples of "moves" for neighboring pixels  $\{i, j\} \in \mathcal{N}$ . Their (soft) pseudo-labels  $y_i$  and  $y_j$  are illustrated on the probability simplex  $\Delta^K$  for K = 3. In (a) both pixels *i* and *j* are inside a region/object changing its label from A to B. In (b) pixels *i* and *j* are on the boundary between two regions/objects; one is fixed to class A and the other changes from class C to B.

### 110 2.2 Cross-entropy and soft pseudo-labels

Shannon's cross-entropy  $H(y, \sigma)$  is the most common loss for training network predictions  $\sigma$  from 111 ground truth labels y in the context of classification, semantic segmentation, etc. However, this loss 112 may not be ideal for applications where the targets y are soft categorical distributions representing 113 various forms of class uncertainty. For example, this paper is focused on scribble-based segmentation 114 where the ground truth is not known for most of the pixels, and the network training is done jointly 115 with estimating *pseudo-labels* y for the unlabeled pixels. In this case, soft labels y are distributions 116 representing class uncertainty. We observe that if such y is used as a target in  $H(y, \sigma)$ , the network 117 is trained to reproduce the uncertainty, see Figure 3(a). This motivates the discussion of alternative 118 "cross-entropy" functions where the quotes indicate an informal interpretation of this information-119 theoretic concept. Intuitively, such functions should encourage decisiveness, as well as proximity 120



(a) standard  $H_{CE}(y,\sigma)$  (b) reverse  $H_{RCE}(y,\sigma)$  (c) collision  $H_{CCE}(y,\sigma)$  (d) empirical comparison

Figure 3: Illustration of cross-entropy functions: (a) standard (7), (b) reverse (8), and (c) collision (9). (d) shows the empirical comparison on the robustness to label uncertainty. The test uses ResNet-18 architecture on fully-supervised *Natural Scene* dataset [30] where we corrupted some labels. The horizontal axis shows the percentage  $\eta$  of training images where the correct ground truth labels were replaced by a random label. All losses trained the model using soft target distributions  $\hat{y} = \eta * u + (1 - \eta) * y$  representing the mixture of one-hot distribution y for the observed corrupt label and the uniform distribution u, following [29]. The vertical axis shows the test accuracy. Training with the reverse and collision cross-entropy is robust to much higher levels of label uncertainty.

between the predictions and pseudo-labels, but avoid mimicking the uncertainty in both directions: from soft pseudo-labels to predictions and vice-versa. We show that the last property can be achieved in a probabilistically principled manner. The following three paragraphs discuss different crossentropy functions that we study in the context of our self-labeling loss (6).

entopy functions that we study in the context of our sen fubering loss (6).

Standard cross-entropy provides the obvious baseline for evaluating two alternative versions that follow. For completeness, we include its mathematical definition

$$H_{\rm CE}(y_i,\sigma_i) = H(y_i,\sigma_i) \equiv -\sum_k y_i^k \ln \sigma_i^k$$
(7)

and remind the reader that this loss is primarily used with hard or one-hot labels, in which case it is also equivalent to NLL loss  $-\ln \sigma_i^{y_i}$  previously discussed for ground truth labels (3). As mentioned earlier, Figure 3(a) shows that for soft pseudo-labels like y = (0.5, 0.5), it forces predictions to mimic or replicate the uncertainty  $\sigma \approx y$ . In fact, label y = (0.5, 0.5) just tells that the class is unknown and the network should not be supervised by this point. This problem manifests itself in the poor performance of the standard cross-entropy (7) in our experiment discussed in Figure 3 (d) (red curve).

### 133 **Reverse cross-entropy** switches the order of the label and prediction in (7)

$$H_{\text{RCE}}(y_i, \sigma_i) = H(\sigma_i, y_i) \equiv -\sum_k \sigma_i^k \ln y_i^k$$
(8)

which is not too common. Indeed, Shannon's cross-entropy is not symmetric and the first argument 134 is normally the *target* distribution and the second is the *estimated* distribution. However, in our 135 136 case, both distributions are estimated and there is no reason not to try the reverse order. It is worth 137 noting that our self-labeling formulation (6) suggests that reverse cross-entropy naturally appears when the ADM approach splits the decisiveness and fairness into separate sub-problems. Moreover, 138 as Figure 3(b) shows, in this case, the network does not mimic uncertain pseudo-labels, e.g. the 139 gradient of the blue line is zero. The results for the reverse cross-entropy in Figure 3 (d) (green) 140 are significantly better than for the standard (red). Unfortunately, now pseudo-labels y mimic the 141 uncertainty in predictions  $\sigma$ . 142

143 **Collision cross-entropy** resolves the problem in a principled way. We define it as

$$H_{\rm CCE}(y_i,\sigma_i) \equiv -\ln \sum_k \sigma_i^k y_i^k \equiv -\ln \sigma^\top y \tag{9}$$

which is symmetric w.r.t. pseudo-labels and predictions. The dot product  $\sigma^{\top} y$  can be seen as a probability that random variables represented by the distribution  $\sigma$ , the prediction class C, and the distribution y, the unknown true class T, are equal. Indeed,

$$\Pr(C = T) = \sum_{k} \Pr(C = k) \Pr(T = k) = \sigma^{\top} y.$$

Loss (9) maximizes this "collision" probability rather than the constraint  $\sigma = y$ . Figure 3(c) shows no mimicking of uncertainty (blue line). However, unlike reverse cross-entropy, this is also valid when y

is estimated from uncertain predictions  $\sigma$  since (9) is symmetric. This leads to the best performance 146 in Figure 3 (d) (blue). Our extensive experiments are conclusive that collision cross-entropy is the 147 best option for H in self-labeling loss (6).

148

#### **Experiments** 3 149

We conducted comprehensive experiments to demonstrate the choice of each element (cross-entropy, 150 151 pairwise term, and neighborhood) in the loss and compare our method to the state-of-the-art. In Section 3.1, quantitative results are shown to compare different Potts relaxations. The qualitative 152 153 examples are shown in Figure 7. Then we compare several cross-entropy terms in Section 3.2. Besides, we also compare our soft self-labeling approach on the nearest and dense neighborhood 154 systems in Section 3.3. We summarized the results in Section 3.4. In the last section, we show that 155 our method achieves the SOTA and even can outperform the fully-supervised method. More details 156 on the dataset, implementation, and additional experiments are given in Appendix C. 157

#### Comparison of Potts relaxations 158 3.1

159 choose one cross-entropy term. Motivated 160 shown in Section 3.2, we use  $H_{CCE}$ . The neighbor-161 hood system is the nearest neighbors. The quanti-162 tative results are in Table 3. First, One can see that 163 the pairwise terms with logarithm are better than 164 those without the logarithm because the logarithm 165 166 may help with the gradient vanishing problem in softmax operation. Moreover, the logarithm does 167 not like abrupt change across the boundaries, so the 168 transition across the boundaries is smoother (see 169 Figure 7 in the appendix.). Note that it is reasonable 170 to have higher uncertainty around the boundaries. 171 Second, the results prefer the normalized version, 172

To compare different Potts relaxations under the self-labeling framework, we need to by the properties and empirical results

		scribb	ole length	1 ratio	
	0	0.3	0.5	0.8	1.0
$P_{\rm BL}$	56.42	61.74	63.81	65.73	67.24
$P_{NQ}$	59.01	65.53	67.80	70.63	71.12
$P_0$	58.92	65.34	67.81	70.43	71.05
$P_{\rm CCE}$	56.40	61.82	63.81	65.81	67.41
$P_{\rm CD}$	59.04	65.52	67.84	70.93	71.22
$P_{LQ}$	59.03	65.44	67.81	70.80	71.21

Table 3: Comparison of Potts relaxations with self-labeling. mIoUs on validation set are shown here.

which confirms the points made in Figure 2. Third, the simplest quadratic formulation  $P_0$  can be a 173 fairly good starting point to obtain decent results. Additionally, we specifically test  $H_Q + P_Q$  due to 174 the existing closed-form solution [1, 17]. Since the pseudo-labels generated from this formula tend to 175 be overly soft, we explicitly add entropy terms during the training of network parameters and the 176 mIoU goes up to 68.97% from 67.8%. 177

#### Comparison of cross-entropy terms 3.2 178

In this section, we compare different cross-entropy terms while fixing the pairwise term to 179  $P_0$  due to its simplicity and using the nearest neighborhood system. The results are shown 180

in Figure 4. One can see that  $H_{\text{CCE}}$  performs the 181 best consistently across different supervision levels, 182 i.e. scribble lengths. Both  $H_{\rm CCE}$  and  $H_{\rm RCE}$  are con-183 sistently better than standard  $H_{\rm CE}$  with a noticeable 184 margin because they are more robust, as explained in 185 Section 2.2, to the uncertainty in soft pseudo-labels 186 when optimizing network parameters. We also test the 187 188 performance of using  $H_{\rm CCE} + P_{\rm Q}$  with hard pseudo-189 labels obtained via the *argmax* operation on the soft ones. The mIoU on the validation set is 69.8% under 190 the full scribble-length supervision. 191



### **3.3** Comparison of neighborhood systems 192

Until now, we only used the four nearest neighbors for the pairwise term. In this section, we also use 193 the dense neighborhood and compare the results under the self-labeling framework. 194



Figure 5: Pseudo-labels generated from given network predictions using different neighborhoods.

Firstly, to optimize the pseudo-labels for the dense neighborhood, we still use the gradient descent 195 technique as detailed in Appendix B. The gradient computation employs the bilateral filtering 196 technique following [35]. For the pairwise term, we use  $P_0$ . The cross-entropy term is  $H_{CCE}$ . Note 197 that the bilateral filtering technique only supports quadratic pairwise terms, i.e.  $P_{\rm BL}$  and  $P_{\rm O}$ . Since 198  $P_{\rm BL}$  leads to hard solutions,  $P_{\rm O}$  is the only practical choice for soft self-labeling. We obtained 71.1% 199 mIoU on nearest neighbors while only getting 67.9% on dense neighborhoods (bandwidth is 100). 200 Some qualitative results are shown in Figure 5. Clearly from this figure one can see that a larger 201 neighborhood size induces lower-quality pseudo-labels. A possible explanation is that the Potts 202 model gets closer to cardinality/volume potentials when the neighborhood size becomes larger [37]. 203 The nearest neighborhood is better for edge alignment and thus produces cleaner results. 204

### 205 3.4 Soft self-labeling vs. hard self-labeling vs. gradient descent

In this section, we give a summary in Table 4 as to what is the best framework for the WSSS based on losses regularized by the Potts model. Firstly, to directly optimize

the network parameters via stochastic gradient descent on the regularized loss, one needs a larger
neighborhood size. One possible explanation is
that a larger neighborhood size induces a smoother
Potts model and it helps the gradient descent [28].

However, larger neighborhood size is not preferred
in the self-labeling framework. If we use Potts
model on nearest neighborhoods, the self-labeling

216	optimizati	on shou	ıld b	e applie	ed and	one sl	nould	use
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		,,	V
		NN	DN
0	D	67.0	69.5* [36]
SI	hard	69.6* [27]	63.1 [26]
JC	soft	71.1	67.0

Table 4: Summary of comparisons. "\*" stands for the reproduced results from their code repository.

<sup>217</sup> soft pseudo-labels instead of hard ones. Note that with proper optimization the advantage of the Potts

- model on small neighborhood size can show up. In Figure 6, we also compare these approaches
- 219 across different scribble lengths.

### 220 3.5 Comparison to SOTA

In this section, we use a different network architec-221 ture, ResNet101, to fairly compare our method with 222 the current state-of-the-art. We only compare the 223 results before applying any post-processing steps. 224 The results are shown in Table 5. Note that our 225 results can outperform the fully-supervised method 226 when using 12 as the batch size. We also observe 227 that a larger batch size usually improves the results 228 quite a lot. Our results with 12 batch size can out-229 perform several SOTA methods which use 16 batch 230 size. 231



Figure 6: Comparison of different methods using Potts relaxations. The architecture is DeeplabV3+ with the backbone MobileNetV2.

		Optimization						
Method	Method Architecture Batchsize GD SL				L	] <i>N</i>	mIoU	
				hard	soft	1		
		Full super	vision					
Deeplab* [12]	V3+	16	<ul> <li>✓</li> </ul>	-	-	-	78.9	
Deeplab* [12]	V3+	12	<ul> <li>✓</li> </ul>	-	-	-	76.6	
Deeplab [11]	V2	12	<ul> <li>✓</li> </ul>	-	-	-	75.6	
		Scribble sup	ervision					
	А	rchitectural m	odificatio	n				
BPG [39]	V2	10	<ul> <li>✓</li> </ul>	-	-	-	73.2	
URSS [31]	V2	16	<ul> <li>✓</li> </ul>	-	-	-	74.6	
SPML [20]	V2	16	<ul> <li>✓</li> </ul>	-	-	-	74.2	
PSI [41]	V3+	-	-	-	√	-	74.9	
SEMINAR [9]	V3+	12	<ul> <li>✓</li> </ul>	-	-	-	76.2	
TEL [25]	V3+	16	-	-	$\checkmark$	-	77.1	
	Loss n	nodification - I	Potts relax	ations				
ScribbleSup [26]	VGG16(V2)	8	-	$\checkmark$	-	DN	63.1	
DenseCRF loss* [36]	V3+	12	<ul> <li>✓</li> </ul>	-	-	DN	75.8	
GridCRF loss* [27]	V3+	12	-	<ul> <li>✓</li> </ul>	-	NN	75.6	
NonlocalCRF loss* [38]	V3+	12	<ul> <li>✓</li> </ul>	-	-	SN	75.7	
$\mathbf{H}_{\text{CCE}} + \mathbf{P}_{\text{Q}}$	V3+	12	-	-	$\checkmark$	NN	77.5	
$\mathbf{H}_{\text{CCE}} + \mathbf{P}_{\text{CD}}$	V3+	12	-	-	$\checkmark$	NN	77.7	
$\mathbf{H}_{\text{CCE}} + \mathbf{P}_{\text{CD}}$ (no pretrain)	V3+	12	-	-	$\checkmark$	NN	76.7	
$\mathbf{H}_{\text{CCE}} + \mathbf{P}_{\text{CD}}$	V3+	16	-	-	$\checkmark$	NN	78.1	
$\mathbf{H}_{\text{CCE}} + \mathbf{P}_{\text{CD}}$ (no pretrain)	V3+	16	-	-	$\checkmark$	NN	77.6	

Table 5: Comparison to SOTA methods (without CRF postprocessing) on scribble-supervised segmentation. The numbers are mIoU on the validation dataset of Pascal VOC 2012 and use full-length scribble. The backbone is ResNet101 unless stated otherwise. V2: deeplabV2. V3+: deeplabV3+.  $\mathcal{N}$ : neighborhood. "\*": reproduced results. GD: gradient descent. SL: self-labeling. "no pretrain" means the segmentation network is not pretrained using cross-entropy on scribbles.

## 232 4 Conclusions

This paper proposed a convergent soft self-labeling framework based on a simple well-motivated loss 233 (6) for joint optimization of network predictions and soft pseudo-labels. The latter were motivated 234 as auxiliary optimization variables simplifying optimization of weakly-supervised loss (4). Our 235 systematic evaluation of the cross-entropy and the Potts terms in self-labeling loss (6) provides 236 clear recommendations based on the discussed conceptual advantages empirically confirmed by our 237 experiments. Specifically, our work recommends the collision cross-entropy, log-quadratic Potts 238 relaxations, and the earest-neighbor neighborhood. They achieve the best result that may even 239 outperform the fully-supervised method with full pixel-precise masks. Our method does not require 240 any modifications of the semantic segmentation models and it is easy to reproduce. Our general 241 framework and empirical findings can be useful for other weakly-supervised segmentation problems 242 (boxes, class tags, etc.). 243

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### 371 A Self-labeling and hard pseudo-labels

One argument motivating self-labeling approaches to weakly-supervised segmentation comes from well-known limitations of gradient descent when optimizing the Potts relaxatons, e.g. [28]. But even when using convex Potts relaxations [17, 32, 8], they are combined with the concave entropy term in (4) making their optimization challenging.

Typical self-labeling methods, including one of the first works on scribble-based semantic segmentation [26], introduce a sub-problem focused on the estimation of *pseudo-labels* over unlabeled points, separately from the network training by such labels. Pseudo-labeling is typically done by optimization algorithms or heuristics balancing unsupervised or self-supervised criteria, e.g. the Potts, and proximity to current predictions. Then, network fine-tuning from pseudo-labels and pseudo-labeling steps are iterated.

We denote pseudo-labels  $y_i$  slightly differently from the ground truth labels  $\bar{y}_i$  by omitting the bar. It is important to distinguish them since the ground truth labels  $\bar{y}_i$  for  $i \in S$  are given, while the pseudo-labels  $y_i$  for  $i \in \Omega \setminus S$  are estimated. The majority of existing self-labeling methods [26, 2, 28, 3, 24, 27, 40] estimate *hard* pseudo-labels, which could be equivalently represented either by class indices

$$y_i \in \{1, \dots, K\} \tag{10}$$

<sup>387</sup> or by the corresponding one-hot categorical distributions

$$y_i \equiv (y_i^1, \dots, y_i^K) \in \Delta_{0,1}^K$$
 for  $y_i^k := [k = y_i] \in \{0, 1\}$  (11)

analogously with the hard ground truth labels in (1) and (2). In part, hard pseudo-labels are motivated
by the network training where the default is NLL loss (3) assuming discrete labels. Besides, there are
powerful discrete solvers for the Potts model [6, 32, 8]. We discuss the potential advantages of soft
pseudo-labels in the next Section 1.2.

Joint loss vs "proposal generation": The majority of self-labeling approaches can be divided into two groups. One group designs pseudo-labeling and the network training sup-problems that are not formally related, e.g. [26, 25, 41]. While pseudo-labeling typically depends on the current network predictions and the network fine-tuning uses such pseudo-labels, the lack of a formal relation between these sub-problems implies that iterating such steps does not guarantee any form of convergence. Such methods are often referred to as *proposal generation* heuristics.

Alternatively, the pseudo-labeling sub-problem and the network training sub-problem can be formally derived from a weakly-supervised loss like (4), e.g. by ADM *splitting* [28] or as high-order *trustregion* method [27]. Such methods often formulate a *joint loss* function w.r.t network predictions and pseudo-labels and iteratively optimize it in a convergent manner that is guaranteed to decrease the loss. We consider this group of self-labeling methods as better motivated, more principled, and numerically safer.

### **404 B Optimization Algorithm**

In this section, we will focus on the optimization of (6) in steps iterating optimization of y and  $\sigma$ . 405 The network parameters are optimized by standard stochastic gradient descent in all our experiments. 406 Pseudo-labels are also estimated online using a mini-batch. To solve y at given  $\sigma$ , it is a large-scale 407 constrained convex problem. While there are existing general solvers to find global optima, such 408 as projected gradient descent, it is often too slow for practical usage. Instead, we reformulate our 409 410 problem to avoid the simplex constraints so that we can use standard gradient descent in PyTorch library accelerated by GPU. Specifically, instead of directly optimizing y, we optimize a set of new 411 variables  $\{l_i \in \mathbb{R}^K, i \in \Omega\}$  where  $y_i$  is computed by  $softmax(l_i)$ . Now, the simplex constraint on 412 y will be automatically satisfied. Note that the hard constraints on scribble regions still need to be 413 considered because the interaction with unlabeled regions through pairwise terms will influence the 414 optimization process. Inspired by [44], we can reset  $softmax(l_i)$  where  $i \in S$  back to the ground 415 truth at the beginning of each step of the gradient descent. 416

However, the original convex problem now becomes non-convex due to the Softmax operation. Thus,
 initialization is important to help find better local minima or even the global optima. Empirically, we
 observed that the network output logit can be a fairly good initialization. The quantitative comparison



(b) Pseudo-labels using different Potts relaxation

Figure 7: Illustration of the difference among Potts relaxations. The visualization of soft pseudolabels uses the convex combination of RGB colors for each class weighted by pseudo-label itself.

uses a special quadratic formulation where closed-form solution and efficient solver [1, 17] exist. 420 We compute the standard soft Jaccard index for the pseudo-labels between the solutions given by 421 our solver and the global optima. The soft Jaccard index is 99.2% on average over 100 images. 422 Furthermore, our experimental results for all other formulations in Figure 7, 5, and Section 3 confirm 423 424 the effectiveness of our optimization solver. In all experiments, the number of gradient descent steps for solving y is 200 and the corresponding learning rate is 0.075. To test the robustness of the number 425 of steps here, we decreased 200 to 100 and the mIoU on the validation set just dropped from 71.05 426 by 0.72. This indicates that we can significantly accelerate the training without much sacrifice of 427 accuracy. When using 200 steps, the total time for the training will be about 3 times longer than the 428 SGD with dense Potts [36]. 429

# 430 C Experimental settings

431 **Dataset and evaluation** We mainly use the standard PASCAL VOC 2012 dataset [16] and scribble-432 based annotations for supervision [26]. The dataset contains 21 classes including background. Following the common practice [10, 35, 36], we use the augmented version which has 10,582 training 433 images and 1449 images for validation. We employ the standard mean Intersection-over-Union 434 (mIoU) on validation set as the evaluation metric. We also test our method on two additional datasets 435 in Section 3.5. One is Cityscapes [13] which is built for urban scenes and consists of 2975 and 500 436 fine-labeled images for training and validation. There are 19 out of 30 annotated classes for semantic 437 segmentation. The other one is ADE20k [43] which has 150 fine-grained classes. There are 20210 438 and 2000, images for training and validation. Instead of scribble-based supervision, we followed [25] 439 to use the block-wise annotation as a form of weak supervision. 440

**Implementation details** We adpoted DeepLabv3+ [12] framework with two backbones, ResNet101 441 [19] and MobileNetV2 [34]. We use ResNet101 in Section 3.5, and use MobileNetV2 in other 442 sections for efficiency. All backbone networks (ResNet-101 and MobileNetV2) are pre-trained on 443 Imagenet [15]. Unless stated explicitly, we use batch 12 as the default across all the experiments. 444 Following [35], we adopt two-stage training, unless otherwise stated, where only the cross-entropy 445 loss on scribbles is used in the first stage. The optimizer for network parameters is SGD. The learning 446 rate is scheduled by a polynomial decay with a power of 0.9. Initial learning is set to 0.007 in the first 447 stage and 0.0007 in the second phase. 60 epochs are used to train the model with different losses 448 where hyperparameters are tuned separately for them. For our best result, we use  $\eta = 0.3, \lambda = 6$ , 449

Method	Architecture	Cityscapes	ADE20k			
	Full supervision					
Deeplab [12]	V3+	80.2	44.6			
Block-scribble supervision						
DenseCRF loss [36]	V3+	69.3	37.4			
GridCRF loss* [27]	V3+	69.5	37.7			
TEL [25]	V3+	71.5	39.2			
$\mathbf{H}_{\mathrm{CCE}} + \mathbf{P}_{\mathrm{CD}}$	V3+	72.4	39.7			

 $H_{CCE}$  and  $P_{CD}$ . The color intensity bandwidth in the Potts model is set to 9 across all the experiments on Pascal VOC 2012 and 3 for Cityscapes and ADE20k datasets.

Table 6: Comparison to SOTA methods (without CRF postprocessing) on segmentation with blockscribble supervision. The numbers are mIoU on the validation dataset of cityscapes [13] and ADE20k [43] and use 50% of full annotations for supervision following [25]. The backbone is ResNet101. "\*": reproduced results. All methods are trained in a single-stage fashion.

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576	the dataset).
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