SCALING PROPERTIES OF DIFFUSION MODELS FOR PERCEPTUAL TASKS

Anonymous authors

004

010 011

012

013

014

015

016

017

018

019

021

023 024

025

Paper under double-blind review

ABSTRACT

In this paper, we argue that iterative computation, as exemplified by diffusion models, offers a powerful paradigm for not only image generation but also for visual perception tasks. First, we unify few of the mid-level vision tasks as image to image translations tasks ranging from depth estimation to optical flow to segmentation. Then, through extensive experiments across these tasks, we demonstrate how diffusion models scale with increased compute during both training and inference. Notably, we train various dense and Mixture of Expert models up to 2.8 billion parameters, and we utilize increased sampling steps, use various ensembling methods to increase compute at test time. Our work provides compelling evidence for the benefits of scaling compute at train and test time for diffusion models for visual perception, and by studying the scaling properties carefully, we were able to archive same performance of the state-of-the-art with less compute.

1 INTRODUCTION

Recently, Diffusion models and Auto Regressive models have emerged as a powerful technique for generating images and videos. With some loss of generalizations Diffusion models can be viewed as auto regressive models in frequency space (Dieleman, 2024). These models have shown excellent scaling behaviours for image and video generation tasks. One could attribute part of this success to iterative computation, which at inference the model spends more compute, usually about one or two orders of magnitude compared to single forward pass.

While the success story of Diffusion and Auto Regressive models on generative tasks is unprecedented, in this work we ask, can these iterative prediction models be used for perceptual tasks (inverse problems) and leverage the benefits of scaling test time computation. Marigold (Ke et al., 2024) and FlowDiffuser (Luo et al., 2024) partially answered this question for depth estimation and optical flow *individually*, and showed that diffusion models are indeed suited these perceptual tasks. Our work explores a range of perceptual tasks from low-level optical flow to mid-level depth estimation and more complex semantic segmentation and occlusion reasoning, under a unified framework, and we carefully study the compute scaling behaviours at train and test time.

To study the scaling properties of diffusion models for inverse problems both at training and test-040 time, we pre-train various dense models sizes from 14 million to 1.8 billion parameters, and up to 041 2.8 billion parameter mixture of experts models for the class-conditional image generation task. We 042 fine-tune these pre-trained models on various downstream tasks. We study the scaling properties at 043 training by varying model size, data resolution, and pre-training compute. In addition to this, we 044 apply efficient training strategies such as upcycling dense checkpoints to mixture-of-experts models without training them from scratch. At inference, we evaluate our models on downstream tasks, with various test-time compute allocation techniques. These include scaling number of diffusion steps, 046 test-time ensembling, and increasing number of model experts. 047

In summary, this paper argues in favour of iterative feedback computation for visual perception tasks, presenting three key findings. Through extensive ablation studies, we explore various methods to scale computational resources during training and inference. Our results demonstrate that by utilizing these scaling laws, we can achieve competitive performance across a diverse range of perception tasks, from low-level optical flow to complex amodal segmentation. Furthermore, we train a unified model architecture that employs expert routing, enabling it to effectively address multiple perception tasks within a single model.



Figure 1: A Unified Framework: We fine-tune a pre-trained Diffusion Model, for visual perception tasks. We take a RGB image, and a conditional image (i.e. next video frame, occlusion mask, etc.), along with the noised image of the ground truth prediction. Our model generates predictions for various visual tasks such as depth estimation, optical flow prediction, and amodal segmentation, based on the conditional task embedding.

2 RELATED WORK

054

056

060

061 062

063

064

065

066 067

068

Biological Inspirations: Visual information processing in both biological systems involves complex interconnections. In human visual cortices, feedforward connections link low to high-level areas in dorsal and ventral pathways, while feedback connections allow for refined processing over time (Felleman & Van Essen, 1991; Lamme & Roelfsema, 2000; Kravitz et al., 2013). For example, in inferotemporal cortex for the neurons that are selective for face, and their first response for a face stimuli are simple classifier of where the stimuli is a face or not, but with over time, the cells responses will contain expressions and identity (Lamme & Roelfsema, 2000).

076 Generative modeling has been studied under various methods, Generative Modeling: 077 VAEs (Kingma, 2013), GANs (Goodfellow et al., 2014), Normalizing Flows (Rezende & Mohamed, 078 2015), Auto-Regressive models (van den Oord et al., 2016), and Diffusion models (Sohl-Dickstein 079 et al., 2015; Ho et al., 2020). Among these, Denoising Diffusion Probabilistic Models (DDPMs) (Ho 080 et al., 2020) have shown impressive scaling behaviors and have become a de facto generative tool 081 for many image and video generation models. Notable examples include Latent Diffusion Models (Rombach et al., 2022) which enhanced efficiency by operating in a compressed latent space, 083 Imagen (Saharia et al., 2022) which generates samples in pixel space with increasing resolution and Consistency Models (Song et al., 2023) which aim to accelerate sampling while maintaining gener-084 ation quality. Apart from diffusion based models, Parti (Yu et al., 2022) and MARS (He et al., 2024) 085 showcased the potential of auto regressive models image generation tasks and the Muse architecture (Chang et al., 2023) introduced a masked image generation approach using transformers. 087

880 Scaling Diffusion Models: Diffusion modeling has shown impressive scaling behaviors in terms of data, model size, and compute. Latent Diffusion Models (Rombach et al., 2022) first showed 089 that, scaling the training with large-scale web datasets and compute can archive high quality im-090 age generation results with U-Net model. DiT (Peebles & Xie, 2023) studied the scaling behavior 091 of diffusion models with transformer architecture and showed that, transformer models have good 092 scaling for class conditional image generation. Later, Li et al. (Li et al., 2024) studied the scaling laws of text-to-image diffusion models for alignment. Recently, Fei et al. (Fei et al., 2024a) trained 094 DiT models up to 16 billion parameters with mixture of experts and achieved high-quality image 095 generation results. Finally, another way to scale transformer models is via upcycling. Komatsuzaki 096 et al. (Komatsuzaki et al., 2022) used sparse upcycling to learn a mixture of experts model from a 097 dense transformer model without needing to pretrain a mixture of experts model. 098

Diffusion Models for Perception Tasks: While diffusion models have an impressive track record 099 of generating images and videos, they have also been used for various downstream visual tasks. 100 For example, diffusion models have been used for estimating depth (Ji et al., 2023; Duan et al., 101 2023; Saxena et al., 2023; 2024; Zhao et al., 2023), and recently Marigold (Ke et al., 2024) and 102 GeoWizard (Fu et al., 2024) showed impressive results by repurposing pretrained diffusion models 103 for monocular depth estimation. Diffusion models with few modifications are used for semantic seg-104 mentation for categorical distributions (Hoogeboom et al., 2021; Brempong et al., 2022; Tan et al., 105 2022; Amit et al., 2021; Baranchuk et al., 2021; Wolleb et al., 2022), instance segmentation (Gu et al., 2024), and panoptic segmentation (Chen et al., 2023). Additionally, diffusion models are also 106 used for optical flow estimation (Luo et al., 2024; Saxena et al., 2024) and 3D understanding (Liu 107 et al., 2023; Jain et al., 2022; Poole et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2023; Watson et al., 2022).

1083GENERATIVE PRE-TRAINING1093

Our approach involves first pre-training diffusion models for conditional image generation task, and we utilize a diffusion transformer (DiT) backbone. For the pre-training we follow DiT recipes (Peebles & Xie, 2023).

Starting with a target image $I \in \mathbb{R}^{u \times u \times 3}$ as an RGB image, where the resolution of the image is $u \times u$, our pretrained, frozen Stable Diffusion variational autoencoder (Rombach et al., 2022) compresses the target to a latent $z_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{w \times w \times 4}$, where w = u/8. Gaussian noise is added at sampled time steps to obtain a noisy target latent and noisy samples are generated as:

$$z_t = \sqrt{\alpha_t} \cdot z_0 + \sqrt{1 - \alpha_t} \cdot \epsilon_t \tag{1}$$

for timestep t. The noise is distributed as $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$, $t \sim \text{Uniform}(T)$, with T = 1000 and $\alpha_t := \prod_{s=1}^t (1 - \beta_s)$, with $\{\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_T\}$ as the variance schedule of a process.

In the denoising process, the class-conditional DiT $f_{\theta}(\cdot)$ parameterized by learned parameters θ gradually removes noise from z_t to obtain z_{t-1} . Parameters θ are updated by noising z_0 with sampled noise ϵ at a random timestep t, and computing the noise estimate

$$\theta^* = \arg\min_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}(z_t, \epsilon_i) = \arg\min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\epsilon_i - \hat{\epsilon}_i)^2$$
(2)

as a mean squared loss applied between the generated noise and noise estimated by the θ parameterized DiT, in an n batch size sample.

We pre-train six different dense DiT models 133 as in Table 1, increasing model size by vary-134 ing the number of layers and hidden dimen-135 sion size. We follow the pre-training recipe in 136 DiT (Peebles & Xie, 2023), using Imagenet-137 1K (Russakovsky et al., 2015) as our pre-138 training dataset with the same amount of total 139 training iterations. we trained all the models 140 for 400k iterations with a fixed learning rate of 141 1e - 4 for all the models and a batch size of 142 256. Fig 2 shows that larger models converge 143 to lower loss with a clear power law behavior. We show the train loss as a function of compute 144 (in MACs), and out predictions show a power 145 law relationships of $\bar{L}(C) = 0.23 \times C^{-0.0098}$. 146



Figure 2: **Scaling at Model Size:** For generative pre-training of DiT models we see a clear scaling behaviors as we increase the model size.

147

118 119

120

121

125

126 127 128

129

130 131

132

148 3.2 MIXTURE OF EXPERTS

149 We pre-train Sparse Mixture of Experts (MoE) models (Shazeer et al., 2017), following the model 150 configurations in (Fei et al., 2024b) for S/2 and L/2 configurations. We use three different MoE 151 configurations listed in table 2, scaling the total parameter count by increasing hidden size, number 152 of experts, layers, and attention heads. Each MoE block activates the top-2 experts per token and 153 has a shared expert that is used by all tokens. To alleviate issues with expert balance, we use the 154 proposed expert balance loss function from (Fei et al., 2024b) to distribute the load across experts 155 more efficiently. Sparse MoE pre-training allows for a higher parameter count while increasing throughput, making it more compute efficient than training a dense DiT model. We train our DiT-156 MoE models with the same training recipe as the dense DiT models, using ImageNet-1K as the 157 pre-training dataset and training for 400K iterations with batch size 256. 158

- 159
- 160

2	Model	Params	Dimension	Heads	Layers
	a1	14.8M	256	16	12
•	a2	77.2M	512	16	16
)	a3	215M	768	16	20
	a4	458M	1024	16	24
	a5	1.2B	1536	16	28
	a6	1.9B	1792	16	32

Model	Active / Total	Dim	Heads	Layers
S/2-8E2A	71M / 199M	384	6	12
S/2-16E2A	71M / 369M	384	6	12
L/2-8E2A	1.0B / 2.8B	1024	16	24

Table 1: **Dense DiT Models:** We scale dense DiT model size by increasing hidden dimension and number of layers linearly while keeping number of heads constant following (Yang et al., 2022; Touvron et al., 2023).

Table 2: **MoE DiT Models:** We scale the MoE DiT models by increasing dimension size, number attention heads, layers, and experts following (Fei et al., 2024b).

4 FINE-TUNING FOR PERCEPTUAL TASKS

During fine tuning, we utilize the image-to-image diffusion process from (Ke et al., 2024) and (Brooks et al., 2023) as our training recipe, and we pose all our visual tasks as conditional denoising diffusion generation. Give an RGB image $I \in \mathbb{R}^{u \times u \times 3}$ and it's pair ground truth image $D \in \mathbb{R}^{u \times u \times 3}$, we first project them to latent space, $i_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{w \times w \times 4}$ and $d_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{w \times w \times 4}$ respectively. We only add noise the ground truth latent to get d_t and concatenate it with the RGB latent to get a tensor of $z_t = \{i_0, d_t\}$. The first convolution layer of the DiT model is modified to match the doubled number of channels in the input, and it's values are reduced by half to make sure the predictions are the same if the inputs are just RGB images (Ke et al., 2024). Finally, we simply perform diffusion training by denoising the ground truth image.

This approach allow us to unify all the visual tasks as image-to-image translation. We ablate various fine tuning compute scaling behaviors on the monocular depth estimation task and report absolute error and delta1 accuracy. We use the best configurations from the depth estimation ablation study to fine-tune for other visual tasks.

191 192 193

170

171

172

173

174 175 176

177 178

4.1 EFFECT OF MODEL SIZE

We fine-tune the pre-trained a1-a6 dense models on the depth estimation task to study the effect of
model size. We scale model size as shown in Table 1, increasing total layers and hidden size. We
follow the pre-training recipe of the original DiT (Peebles & Xie, 2023), using ImageNet-1K (Russakovsky et al., 2015) as our pre-training dataset with the same amount of total training iterations.
Fig 3 shows that larger dense DiT models converge to lower fine-tuning loss, presenting a clear
power law scaling behavior. We show the train loss as a function of compute (in MACs), and our
model predictions show a power law relationship in both depth Absolute Relative error and depth
Delta1 error.



Figure 3: Effect of Model Size: We fine-tune a1-a6 models on the Hypersim dataset for 30K iterations with a exponential decay learning rate schedule from 3e - 5 to 3e - 7. We observe a strong correlation between the fine-tuning scaling law and validation metric scaling laws.

2164.2EFFECT OF PRE-TRAINING COMPUTE217

We also investigate the behavior of the fine-tuning process as we scale the number of pre-training steps for the DiT backbone. We train the A4 model with a varied number of pre-training steps while keeping all other hyperparameters constant. We then fine-tune these four models on the same depth estimation dataset. Fig 4 displays the power law scaling behavior of the validation metrics for depth estimation as we increase DiT pre-training steps.



Figure 4: Effect of scaling model pre-training compute on depth estimation: (a) Depth Absolute Relative Error vs. MACs. (b) Depth Delta1 Error vs. MACs. We pre-train four A4 models with 60K, 80K, 100K, and 120K steps with a batch size of 1024 at a fixed learning rate of 1e - 4. These models are then fine-tuned for 30K steps on the Hypersim depth estimation dataset with a batch size of 32. We observe a clear power law as we increase the DiT pre-training compute across depth estimation validation metrics.

240 241 242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

235

236

237

238

239

4.3 EFFECT OF IMAGE RESOLUTION

The total number of tokens per image also affects the total compute spent during training. For each forward pass, we can scale the number of FLOPs used by simply scaling up the resolution of the image, which will increase the number of tokens used to represent the image embedding. By increasing the resolution and the number of tokens, we can increase the amount of information the model can learn from at training time to build stronger internal representations, which can in turn improve downstream performance. We use dense DiT-XL models with resolutions of 256x256 and 512x512 from (Peebles & Xie, 2023) and we pre-train DiT L/2-8E2A models with 256x256 and 512x512 resolutions following the recipe in (Fei et al., 2024b). We then fine-tune each of these models with the corresponding resolution for the depth estimation task. In Fig 5, we present scaling laws for image resolution during fine-tuning on depth estimation.



Figure 5: Effect of Image Resolution. We fine-tune DiT-XL and DiT-MoE L/2 models with resolutions of 256x256 and 512x512. We observe a power law when increasing image resolution during
training. By scaling the number of tokens per image by 4X, we achieve strong performance on Depth
Absolute Error, displaying the effect of increasing total dataset tokens for dense visual perception
tasks such as depth estimation.

270 4.4 EFFECT OF UPCYCLING 271

272 Sparse MoE models are efficient options for increasing the capacity of a model, but pre-training an 273 MoE model from scratch can be expensive. One way to alleviate this issue is Sparse MoE Upcycling 274 (Komatsuzaki et al., 2023). Upcycling converts a dense transformer checkpoint to an MoE model 275 by copying the MLP layer in each transformer block E times, where E is the number of experts, 276 and adding a learnable router module to send each token to the top-k selected experts. The outputs 277 of the selected experts are then combined in a weighted sum at the end of each MoE block.

In Fig 6, we show the effect of up-cycling various dense models after they have been fine-tuned
for depth estimation. We continue the fine-tuning on each up-cycled model, which also tunes the
randomly initialized router module weights. Fig 6 displays the scaling laws for up-cycling, providing
an average improvement of 5.3% on Absolute Relative Error and 8.6% on Delta1 error.



Figure 6: **Effect of Upcycling.** We upcycle A2, A3, and A4 models for a varying number of experts as shown in the figure. We continue fine-tuning each upcycled model for another 15K iterations at a batch size of 128 on the Hypersim depth estimation dataset. We observe a clear scaling law between using more MACs with upcycling and decreasing Absolute Relative and Delta1 error rates. We also observe that upcycling can achieve equivalent or superior performance to our dense A5 and A6 checkpoints, each of which utilize more compute during pre-training and fine-tuning. We also note that increasing the total number of experts and the total active experts improves the downstream performance.

300 301 302

295

296

297

298

299

303 304

305

306

307

308

309

5 SCALING TEST-TIME COMPUTE

Scaling inference compute has been applied for autoregressive Large Language Models (LLMs) to improve performance on long-horizon and complex reasoning tasks (Brown et al., 2024; Snell et al., 2024; El-Refai et al.). In this section, we explore methods for scaling test-time compute for perceptual tasks with diffusion models.

We present the general inference pipeline in Fig 7. We use the original Stable-Diffusion VAE to 310 encode the input image into the latent space (Rombach et al., 2022). Then, we sample a target 311 noise latent from a standard Gaussian distribution, which will be iteratively denoised to generate the 312 downstream prediction using the same noise schedule as fine-tuning. We apply the non-Markovian 313 sampling with re-spaced steps to speed up inference as proposed in DDIM (Song et al., 2021). 314 The target latent is then decoded by the VAE to obtain the final downstream task prediction. For 315 the depth estimation downstream task, we follow the procedure in Marigold by averaging the final 316 decoded prediction across the channel dimension (Ke et al., 2024). In Fig 7, we summarize our three 317 approaches to scaling test-time compute for diffusion.

318

319 5.1 EFFECT OF INFERENCE STEPS320

One natural way of scaling diffusion inference is by increasing denoising steps. Since the model is
 trained to denoise the input at various timesteps, we can scale the number of diffusion denoising steps
 at test-time to produce more accurate predictions. This paradigm is also reflected in the generative
 case, where the corruption process of diffusion pushes the model to learn a coarse-to-fine denoising



Figure 7: Inference Scaling: Diffusion models by design allows scaling of test time compute natively. First, we can simply increase the number of denoising steps to increase the compute spent at inference. Second, since we are estimating deterministic outputs, we can initialize the noise multiple time and combine the predictions to get a better estimate the output. Finally, we can also allocate different compute budget for low and high frequency denoising with cosine schedule.

trajectory. We can exploit this paradigm for the discriminative case by increasing the number of denoising steps, which will generate finer predictions. In Fig 8, we observe that increasing the total test-time compute by simply increasing the number of diffusion sampling steps provides substantial gains in depth estimation performance.



356 Figure 8: Effect of Number of Sampling Steps. (a) Delta1 Error vs. Number of Steps. (b) Absolute 357 Relative Error vs. Number of Steps. We show the effect of scaling test-time compute by increasing the number of diffusion sampling steps. For each model, we sample for $T \in [1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100]$ steps with the DDIM sampler. We show a clear power law scaling behavior in (a) and (b), displaying the effectiveness of simply utilizing the iterative nature of diffusion to improve downstream perfor-360 mance.

5.2 **EFFECT OF TEST TIME ENSEMBLING** 364

365 We also explore scaling inference compute through test-time ensembling. Here, we take advantage of the fact that denoising different noise latent initializations will generate different results. In 366 test-time ensembling, we compute N forward passes for each input sample, and reduce the outputs 367 through one of two methods. The first technique is naive ensembling: simply compute N forward 368 passes and use the pixel-wise median or mean across all outputs as the prediction. This is the me-369 dian/mean aggregation technique, which provides a straightforward method for combining predic-370 tions across multiple noise initializations efficiently. The second ensembling technique presented in 371 (Ke et al., 2024) is median compilation, where we collect predictions $\{\hat{d}_1, \ldots, \hat{d}_N\}$ that are affine-372 invariant, jointly estimate scale and shift parameters \hat{s}_i and \hat{t}_i , and minimize the distances between 373 each pair of scaled and shifted predictions (\hat{d}'_i, \hat{d}'_i) where $\hat{d}' = \hat{d} \times \hat{s} + \hat{t}$. For each optimization step, 374 we take the pixel-wise median $m(x,y) = \text{median}(d'_1(x,y), \ldots, d'_N(x,y))$ to compute the merged 375 depth *m*. This iterative optimization on spatial alignment paired with extra regularization is used 376 to produce the final depth prediction. Since it requires no additional ground truth, we can scale this 377 ensembling technique by increasing N to utilize more test-time compute.

342

333

334

335

336

337

343 344 345





350 351

352 353

354

355

358 359





Figure 9: Effect of Test Time Ensembling. (a) Delta1 Error vs. Number of Forward Passes. (b) Absolute Relative Error vs. Number of Forward Passes. We observe that using an ensembling strategy by merging multiple predictions from distinct noise initializations displays power law scaling behavior. Here, we increase test-time compute by increasing the number of forward passes at each denoising step by denoising N noise latents. We apply this method using values of $N \in [1, 2, 5, 10, 15, 20]$.

5.3 EFFECT OF NOISE VARIANCE SCHEDULE

In diffusion noise schedulers, we can also define a schedule for the variance of the Gaussian noise applied to the image over the total diffusion timesteps T. This schedule determines the noise level applied to the image at each step t. Tuning the noise variance schedule allows for the reorganization of compute by providing the option to spend more FLOPs on denoising steps early or later in the noise schedule. We experiment with using three different noise level settings for DDIM: linear, scaled linear, and cosine. Cosine scheduling from (Nichol & Dhariwal, 2021) linearly declines from the middle of the corruption process, allowing for a more balanced noise schedule that doesn't corrupt the image too quickly as in linear schedules. In Fig 10, we observe that the cosine noise variance schedule outperforms the default linear schedule for DDIM on the depth estimation task.



Figure 10: **Effect of Noise Variance (Beta) Schedule.** We fine-tune A4 models with three different beta schedules: linear, scaled linear, cosine. We observe a power law when using different noise variance schedules. Reallocating compute with the cosine schedule to spend more time denoising at earlier timesteps by slowly adding noise provides improved Delta1 and Absolute Relative Error rates.

6 PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER

Using the lessons from our experiments on depth estimation, we train diffusion models for optical
flow prediction and amodal segmentation. Compared to prior methods, we utilize much smaller
models, less training compute, and smaller data resolution, while achieving similar results to stateof-the-art for the respective tasks. We show that using diffusion models while considering efficient
methods to scale training and test-time compute can provide substantial performance benefits on
visual perception tasks. Finally, we train a unified model, capable of performing all three visual

perception tasks previously mentioned, displaying the generalizability of our method. See Fig 11
 for to see the quality of our predicted samples.

6.1 DEPTH ESTIMATION

We combine our findings from the ablation studies on depth estimation to create a model with the best training and inference configuration. We train a DiT-XL model from (Peebles & Xie, 2023) on depth estimation data from Hypersim for 30K steps with a batch size of 1024, resolution of 512x512, and a learning rate exponentially decaying from 1.2e - 4 to 1.2e - 6. We use the median compilation strategy at test-time with a cosine noise variance schedule. As shown in Table 3, our model is able to achieve slightly improved validation performance over Marigold on the Hypersim dataset, while being trained on a lower resolution and less pre-training data.

Metric	Model	Resolution	Value
Delta 1 Accuracy	DiT-XL/2	512x512	0.876
Abs Relative Error	DiT-XL/2	512x512	0.136
Delta 1 Accuracy	Marigold	480x640	0.8754
Abs Relative Error	Marigold	480x640	0.135

Table 3: **Depth Estimation Comparison on Hypersim.** We achieve almost equivalent performance on depth estimation over Marigold. We utilize a smaller resolution and a smaller DiT-XL/2 model that has been trained with less data and parameters than the Stable Diffusion model used in Marigold. These results display the effectiveness of applying our scaling techniques on depth estimation.

6.2 OPTICAL FLOW PREDICTION

We use a similar configuration as the depth estimation model for optical flow training. We train a DiT-XL model on the FlyingChairs dataset for 4K steps with batch size of 1024, resolution of 512x512, and learning rate exponentially decaying from 1.2e - 4 to 1.2e - 6. We compare our model's performance with other specialized optical flow prediction techniques in Table 4.

	Method	Chairs test
-	DeepFlow	3.53
	FlowNetS	2.71
]	FlowNetS+v	2.86
]	FlowNetS+ft	3.04
Fl	lowNetS+ft+v	3.03
	FlowNetC	2.19
]	FlowNetC+v	2.61
I	FlowNetC+ft	2.27
Fl	owNetC+ft+v	2.67
	Ours	5.826

Table 4: Comparison with Specialized Techniques. We evaluate our optical flow model on the
FlyingChairs validation set. We observe our model is able to achieve similar results compared
to specialized methods such as DeepFlow (Weinzaepfel et al., 2013) and FlowNet (Fischer et al.,
2015) in terms of end-point error. Our model is trained on a much smaller dataset compared to the
specialied FlowNet method, which is trained on a variety of optical flow datasets.

482 6.3 Amodal Segmentation

For amodal segmentation, we further scale up our fine-tuning approach. We continue to train a DiT-XL model on the pix2gestalt dataset (Ozguroglu et al., 2024) for 6K steps with a batch size of 4096, resolution of 256x256, and learning rate exponentially decaying from 1.2e - 4 to 1.2e - 6.



Figure 11: Amodal Segmentation and Depth Estimation Examples: On the left, we show the results from our amodal segmentation models, where the model sees RGB image, and segmentation of the occluded object. The task is to predict the amodal image, and out predictions are very similar to the ground truth labels. On the right, we show predictions from our depth estiomation model, with rgb, ground truth and predction on the first, second and thrid columns respectively.

Method	IOU
pix2gestalt	0.88
Ours	0.87

Table 5: Comparison with pix2gestalt. Our model is able to achieve almost equivalent IOU performance as pix2gestalt (Ozguroglu et al., 2024) on their validation set. Our model was pre-trained on only ImageNet-1K, whereas pix2gestalt uses Stable Diffusion, which is trained with at least an order of magnitude more data at a higher resolution and more training compute.

6.4 ONE MODEL FOR ALL

Finally, we train a unified DiT-XL model for each of the different tasks. We train this model on the mixed dataset for 10K steps with a batch size of 1024, resolution of 512x512, and learning rate exponentially decaying from 1.2e - 4 to 1.2e - 6. To train this generalist model, we modify the DiT-XL architecture by replacing the patch embedding layer with a separate PatchEmbedRouter module, which routes each VAE embedding to a specific input convolutional layer based on the dataset from which we sample the VAE embedding. This ensures the DiT-XL model is able to distinguish between the task-specific embeddings during fine-tuning.

CONCLUSION

In our work, we examine the scaling properties of diffusion models for visual perception tasks. We explore various approaches to scale training, including increasing model size, mixture-of-experts models, increasing image resolution, and upcycling. We also realize the effectiveness of scaling test-time compute by exploiting the iterative nature of diffusion to reallocate compute to boost downstream performance. Our experiments provide strong evidence of scaling with power laws across various training and inference scaling techniques. We hope to inspire future work in scaling training and test-time compute for iterative generative paradigms such as diffusion for perception tasks.

540 REFERENCES

558

559

561

562

563 564

565

566

581

582

583

542	Tomer Amit, Tal Shaharbany, Eliya Nachmani, and Lior Wolf. Segdiff: Image segmentation wi	th
543	diffusion probabilistic models. arXiv preprint arXiv:2112.00390, 2021.	

- Dmitry Baranchuk, Ivan Rubachev, Andrey Voynov, Valentin Khrulkov, and Artem Babenko. Label efficient semantic segmentation with diffusion models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2112.03126*, 2021.
- Emmanuel Asiedu Brempong, Simon Kornblith, Ting Chen, Niki Parmar, Matthias Minderer, and
 Mohammad Norouzi. Denoising pretraining for semantic segmentation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pp. 4175–4186, 2022.
- Tim Brooks, Aleksander Holynski, and Alexei A. Efros. Instructpix2pix: Learning to follow image editing instructions, 2023. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2211.09800.
- Bradley Brown, Jordan Juravsky, Ryan Ehrlich, Ronald Clark, Quoc V. Le, Christopher Ré, and
 Azalia Mirhoseini. Large language monkeys: Scaling inference compute with repeated sampling,
 2024. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2407.21787.
 - Huiwen Chang, Han Zhang, Jarred Barber, AJ Maschinot, Jose Lezama, Lu Jiang, Ming-Hsuan Yang, Kevin Murphy, William T. Freeman, Michael Rubinstein, Yuanzhen Li, and Dilip Krishnan.
 Muse: Text-to-image generation via masked generative transformers, 2023. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2301.00704.
 - Ting Chen, Lala Li, Saurabh Saxena, Geoffrey Hinton, and David J Fleet. A generalist framework for panoptic segmentation of images and videos. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF international conference on computer vision*, pp. 909–919, 2023.
 - Sander Dieleman. Diffusion is spectral autoregression, 2024. URL https://sander.ai/ 2024/09/02/spectral-autoregression.html.
- Yiqun Duan, Xianda Guo, and Zheng Zhu. Diffusiondepth: Diffusion denoising approach for
 monocular depth estimation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.05021*, 2023.
- Karim El-Refai, Zeeshan Patel, Jonathan Pei, and Tianle Li. Swag: Storytelling with action guidance.
- Zhengcong Fei, Mingyuan Fan, Changqian Yu, Debang Li, and Junshi Huang. Scaling diffusion
 transformers to 16 billion parameters. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2407.11633*, 2024a.
- Zhengcong Fei, Mingyuan Fan, Changqian Yu, Debang Li, and Jusnshi Huang. Scaling diffusion transformers to 16 billion parameters. *arXiv preprint*, 2024b.
- 577 DJ Felleman and DC Van Essen. Distributed hierarchical processing in the primate cerebral cortex.
 578 *Cerebral cortex (New York, N.Y. : 1991)*, 1(1):1—47, 1991. ISSN 1047-3211. doi: 10.1093/
 579 cercor/1.1.1-a. URL https://academic.oup.com/cercor/article-pdf/1/1/1/
 580 1139605/1-1-1.pdf.
 - Philipp Fischer, Alexey Dosovitskiy, Eddy Ilg, Philip Häusser, Caner Hazırbaş, Vladimir Golkov, Patrick van der Smagt, Daniel Cremers, and Thomas Brox. Flownet: Learning optical flow with convolutional networks, 2015. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/1504.06852.
- Xiao Fu, Wei Yin, Mu Hu, Kaixuan Wang, Yuexin Ma, Ping Tan, Shaojie Shen, Dahua Lin, and
 Xiaoxiao Long. Geowizard: Unleashing the diffusion priors for 3d geometry estimation from a
 single image, 2024. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2403.12013.
- 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.
- Zhangxuan Gu, Haoxing Chen, and Zhuoer Xu. Diffusioninst: Diffusion model for instance segmentation. In *ICASSP 2024-2024 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP)*, pp. 2730–2734. IEEE, 2024.

594 595 596	Wanggui He, Siming Fu, Mushui Liu, Xierui Wang, Wenyi Xiao, Fangxun Shu, Yi Wang, Lei Zhang, Zhelun Yu, Haoyuan Li, Ziwei Huang, LeiLei Gan, and Hao Jiang. Mars: Mixture of auto-regressive models for fine-grained text-to-image synthesis, 2024. URL https://arxiv.
597	org/abs/2407.07614.
598	Ionothan Ho. Alay Join and Pieter Abbael. Denoising diffusion probabilistic models. Advances in
599	neural information processing systems, 33:6840–6851, 2020.
600	
601	Emiel Hoogeboom, Didrik Nielsen, Priyank Jaini, Patrick Forré, and Max Welling. Argmax flows
602	Processing Systems 34:12454_12465, 2021
604	<i>Trocessing Systems</i> , 54.12454–12405, 2021.
605	Ajay Jain, Ben Mildenhall, Jonathan T Barron, Pieter Abbeel, and Ben Poole. Zero-shot text-guided
606	object generation with dream fields. In <i>Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer</i>
607	vision and pattern recognition, pp. 867–876, 2022.
608	Yuanfeng Ji, Zhe Chen, Enze Xie, Lanqing Hong, Xihui Liu, Zhaoqiang Liu, Tong Lu, Zhenguo Li,
609	and Ping Luo. Ddp: Diffusion model for dense visual prediction. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF
610	International Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 21741–21752, 2023.
611	Bingxin Ke, Anton Obukhov, Shengyu Huang, Nando Metzger, Rodrigo Caye Daudt, and Kon-
612	rad Schindler. Repurposing diffusion-based image generators for monocular depth estimation.
613	In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, pp.
614	9492–9502, 2024.
615	Diederik P Kingma. Auto-encoding variational bayes. arXiv preprint arXiv:1312.6114, 2013.
616	
619	Aran Komatsuzaki, Joan Pulgcerver, James Lee-Inorp, Carlos Kiquelme Kuiz, Basil Mustara, Joshua Ainslie, Yi Tay, Mostafa Dehghani, and Nail Houlsby. Sparse upgygling: Training
610	mixture-of-experts from dense checkpoints. arXiv preprint arXiv:2212.05055, 2022.
620	
621	Aran Komatsuzaki, Joan Puigcerver, James Lee-Thorp, Carlos Riquelme Ruiz, Basil Mustafa,
622	josnua Ainsile, Yi Tay, Mostara Dengnani, and Neil Houisby. Sparse upcycling: Iraining mixture of experts from dense checkpoints 2023 UBL https://arxiv.org/abc/2212
623	05055.
624	
625	Dwight J. Kravitz, Kadharbatcha S. Saleem, Chris I. Baker, Leslie G. Ungerleider, and Mortimer
626	guality Trends in Cognitive Sciences 17(1):26–49 2013 ISSN 1364-6613 doi: https://doi
627	org/10.1016/i.tics.2012.10.011. URL https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/
628	article/pii/S1364661312002471.
629	Victor A F I amme and Pieter P. Roelfsema. The distinct modes of vision offered by feedforward
631	and recurrent processing. <i>Trends in Neurosciences</i> , 23(11):571–579, 2000. ISSN 0166-2236.
632	
633	Hao Li, Yang Zou, Ying Wang, Orchid Majumder, Yusheng Xie, R Manmatha, Ashwin Swami-
634	text_to_image generation. In <i>Proceedings of the IEEE/CVE Conference on Computer Vision and</i>
635	Pattern Recognition, pp. 9400–9409, 2024.
636	
637	Ruoshi Liu, Rundi Wu, Basile Van Hoorick, Pavel Tokmakov, Sergey Zakharov, and Carl Vondrick.
638	conference on computer vision pp. 9298_9309, 2023
639	conjerence on computer vision, pp. 7270-7507, 2025.
640	Ao Luo, Xin Li, Fan Yang, Jiangyu Liu, Haoqiang Fan, and Shuaicheng Liu. Flowdiffuser: Advanc-
641	ing optical flow estimation with diffusion models. In <i>Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference</i>
642	on Computer vision and Fattern Recognition, pp. 19107–19176, 2024.
043 644	Alex Nichol and Prafulla Dhariwal. Improved denoising diffusion probabilistic models, 2021. URL
645	https://arxiv.org/abs/2102.09672.
646	Ege Ozguroglu, Ruoshi Liu, Dídac Surś, Dian Chen, Achal Dave, Pavel Tokmakov, and Carl Von-
647	drick. pix2gestalt: Amodal segmentation by synthesizing wholes. Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF
	Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), 2024.

651

682

683

684

685

688

689

- 648 William Peebles and Saining Xie. Scalable diffusion models with transformers. In Proceedings of 649 the IEEE/CVF International Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 4195–4205, 2023. 650
- Ben Poole, Ajay Jain, Jonathan T Barron, and Ben Mildenhall. Dreamfusion: Text-to-3d using 2d diffusion. arXiv preprint arXiv:2209.14988, 2022. 652
- 653 Danilo Rezende and Shakir Mohamed. Variational inference with normalizing flows. In Interna-654 tional conference on machine learning, pp. 1530–1538. PMLR, 2015.
- 655 Robin Rombach, Andreas Blattmann, Dominik Lorenz, Patrick Esser, and Björn Ommer. High-656 resolution image synthesis with latent diffusion models. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF confer-657 ence on computer vision and pattern recognition, pp. 10684–10695, 2022. 658
- Olga Russakovsky, Jia Deng, Hao Su, Jonathan Krause, Sanjeev Satheesh, Sean Ma, Zhiheng 659 Huang, Andrej Karpathy, Aditya Khosla, Michael Bernstein, Alexander C. Berg, and Li Fei-660 Fei. Imagenet large scale visual recognition challenge, 2015. URL https://arxiv.org/ 661 abs/1409.0575. 662
- Chitwan Saharia, William Chan, Saurabh Saxena, Lala Li, Jay Whang, Emily L Denton, Kamyar 663 Ghasemipour, Raphael Gontijo Lopes, Burcu Karagol Ayan, Tim Salimans, et al. Photorealistic text-to-image diffusion models with deep language understanding. Advances in neural informa-665 tion processing systems, 35:36479–36494, 2022. 666
- 667 Saurabh Saxena, Abhishek Kar, Mohammad Norouzi, and David J Fleet. Monocular depth estima-668 tion using diffusion models. arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.14816, 2023.
- 669 Saurabh Saxena, Charles Herrmann, Junhwa Hur, Abhishek Kar, Mohammad Norouzi, Deqing Sun, 670 and David J Fleet. The surprising effectiveness of diffusion models for optical flow and monocular 671 depth estimation. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 36, 2024. 672
- Noam Shazeer, Azalia Mirhoseini, Krzysztof Maziarz, Andy Davis, Quoc Le, Geoffrey Hinton, 673 and Jeff Dean. Outrageously large neural networks: The sparsely-gated mixture-of-experts layer, 674 2017. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/1701.06538. 675
- 676 Charlie Snell, Jaehoon Lee, Kelvin Xu, and Aviral Kumar. Scaling llm test-time compute optimally 677 can be more effective than scaling model parameters, 2024. URL https://arxiv.org/ abs/2408.03314. 678
- 679 Jascha Sohl-Dickstein, Eric Weiss, Niru Maheswaranathan, and Surya Ganguli. Deep unsupervised 680 learning using nonequilibrium thermodynamics. In International conference on machine learn*ing*, pp. 2256–2265. PMLR, 2015.
 - Jiaming Song, Chenlin Meng, and Stefano Ermon. Denoising diffusion implicit models. In International Conference on Learning Representations, 2021. URL https://openreview.net/ forum?id=St1giarCHLP.
- Yang Song, Prafulla Dhariwal, Mark Chen, and Ilya Sutskever. Consistency models. arXiv preprint 686 arXiv:2303.01469, 2023. 687
 - Haoru Tan, Sitong Wu, and Jimin Pi. Semantic diffusion network for semantic segmentation. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 35:8702–8716, 2022.
- Hugo Touvron, Louis Martin, Kevin Stone, Peter Albert, Amjad Almahairi, Yasmine Babaei, Niko-691 lay Bashlykov, Soumya Batra, Prajjwal Bhargava, Shruti Bhosale, Dan Bikel, Lukas Blecher, 692 Cristian Canton Ferrer, Moya Chen, Guillem Cucurull, David Esiobu, Jude Fernandes, Jeremy 693 Fu, Wenyin Fu, Brian Fuller, Cynthia Gao, Vedanuj Goswami, Naman Goyal, Anthony Hartshorn, Saghar Hosseini, Rui Hou, Hakan Inan, Marcin Kardas, Viktor Kerkez, Madian Khabsa, Isabel Kloumann, Artem Korenev, Punit Singh Koura, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Thibaut Lavril, Jenya Lee, 696 Diana Liskovich, Yinghai Lu, Yuning Mao, Xavier Martinet, Todor Mihaylov, Pushkar Mishra, 697 Igor Molybog, Yixin Nie, Andrew Poulton, Jeremy Reizenstein, Rashi Rungta, Kalyan Saladi, Alan Schelten, Ruan Silva, Eric Michael Smith, Ranjan Subramanian, Xiaoqing Ellen Tan, Binh Tang, Ross Taylor, Adina Williams, Jian Xiang Kuan, Puxin Xu, Zheng Yan, Iliyan Zarov, Yuchen 699 Zhang, Angela Fan, Melanie Kambadur, Sharan Narang, Aurelien Rodriguez, Robert Stojnic, 700 Sergey Edunov, and Thomas Scialom. Llama 2: Open foundation and fine-tuned chat models, 2023. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2307.09288.

703 704 705 706	Aäron van den Oord, Nal Kalchbrenner, and Koray Kavukcuoglu. Pixel recurrent neural net- works. In Maria Florina Balcan and Kilian Q. Weinberger (eds.), <i>Proceedings of The 33rd</i> <i>International Conference on Machine Learning</i> , volume 48 of <i>Proceedings of Machine Learn-</i> <i>ing Research</i> , pp. 1747–1756, New York, New York, USA, 20–22 Jun 2016. PMLR. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v48/oord16.html.
707 708 709 710	Haochen Wang, Xiaodan Du, Jiahao Li, Raymond A Yeh, and Greg Shakhnarovich. Score jaco- bian chaining: Lifting pretrained 2d diffusion models for 3d generation. In <i>Proceedings of the</i> <i>IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition</i> , pp. 12619–12629, 2023.
711 712 713	Daniel Watson, William Chan, Ricardo Martin-Brualla, Jonathan Ho, Andrea Tagliasacchi, and Mo- hammad Norouzi. Novel view synthesis with diffusion models. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.04628</i> , 2022.
714 715 716 717	Philippe Weinzaepfel, Jerome Revaud, Zaid Harchaoui, and Cordelia Schmid. Deepflow: Large displacement optical flow with deep matching. In <i>Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Computer Vision (ICCV)</i> , December 2013.
718 719 720	Julia Wolleb, Robin Sandkühler, Florentin Bieder, Philippe Valmaggia, and Philippe C Cattin. Diffusion models for implicit image segmentation ensembles. In <i>International Conference on Medical Imaging with Deep Learning</i> , pp. 1336–1348. PMLR, 2022.
721 722 723 724	Greg Yang, Edward J. Hu, Igor Babuschkin, Szymon Sidor, Xiaodong Liu, David Farhi, Nick Ry- der, Jakub Pachocki, Weizhu Chen, and Jianfeng Gao. Tensor programs v: Tuning large neural networks via zero-shot hyperparameter transfer, 2022. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/ 2203.03466.
725 726 727 728	Jiahui Yu, Yuanzhong Xu, Jing Yu Koh, Thang Luong, Gunjan Baid, Zirui Wang, Vijay Vasudevan, Alexander Ku, Yinfei Yang, Burcu Karagol Ayan, et al. Scaling autoregressive models for content- rich text-to-image generation. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2206.10789</i> , 2(3):5, 2022.
729 730	Wenliang Zhao, Yongming Rao, Zuyan Liu, Benlin Liu, Jie Zhou, and Jiwen Lu. Unleashing text- to image diffusion models for visual percention. In <i>Proceedings of the IEEE/CVE International</i>
731	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736 737	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736 736 737 738 739 740 741	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736 736 737 738 739 740 741 742	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743 744	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743 744 745	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743 744 745 746	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743 744 745 746 747	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743 744 745 746 747 748	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743 744 745 746 745 746 747 748 749	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743 744 745 746 745 746 747 748 749 750	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743 744 745 744 745 746 747 748 749 750 751	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743 744 745 744 745 746 747 748 749 750 751 752	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743 744 745 746 744 745 746 747 748 749 750 751 752 753	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.
731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743 744 745 744 745 746 747 748 749 750 751 752 753 754	Conference on Computer Vision, pp. 5729–5739, 2023.