

MULTIMODAL FUSION OF RGB AND COMPLEMENTARY MODALITIES FOR SEMANTIC SEGMENTATION

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ABSTRACT

011 Multi-modal semantic segmentation augments RGB imagery with an auxiliary
 012 sensing stream X (RGB+ X)—such as thermal, LiDAR, event, polarization, or
 013 light field—to enhance robustness under adverse illumination and motion blur.
 014 However, sensor heterogeneity often leads to misaligned features and unstable fu-
 015 sion. To alleviate these issues, we propose a bidirectional polarity-aware cross-
 016 modality fusion (BPCF) module that effectively captures complementary cues
 017 while enhancing feature alignment. We evaluate the framework on five modality
 018 pairings—RGB+Thermal, RGB+LiDAR, RGB+Event, RGB+Polarization, and
 019 RGB+Light Field—and achieve state-of-the-art results on eight public datasets.
 020 Notably, our method delivers a **17%** mIoU absolute improvement over the second-
 021 best approach on the MFNet dataset.

1 INTRODUCTION

025 In autonomous driving and robotic perception,
 026 RGB-only semantic segmentation often suffers
 027 from performance degradation under low illumi-
 028 nation, fast motion, and adverse weather condi-
 029 tions Bijelic et al. (2020). Non-RGB modal-
 030 ities provide complementary cues that can miti-
 031 gate these limitations. For instance, incorporat-
 032 ing thermal, LiDAR, event, light field, and po-
 033 larization data can enhance robustness against
 034 low-light conditions, motion blur, and weather-
 035 induced artifacts Chen et al. (2020a); Bijelic
 036 et al. (2020). Nevertheless, effectively fusing
 037 an increasing number of modalities in a reliable
 038 manner—while fully leveraging the strengths of
 039 each sensor—remains an open challenge.

040 This problem can be considered from two per-
 041 spectives. The first is the efficient utilization
 042 of complementary information. In multi-modal
 043 scenarios such as RGB–Thermal or RGB–Event,
 044 the same object may exhibit reversed attention
 045 responses across modalities.

046 Recognizing that such negative correlations can also provide valuable cues, we propose a bidirec-
 047 tional polarity-aware linear cross-attention (BPLCA) mechanism. BPLCA decomposes features into
 048 positive and negative components and performs cross-modal attention across both branches. This
 049 design enables the model to capture not only shared but also complementary signals across modal-
 050 ities, leading to more complete and balanced feature integration.

051 The second perspective is cross-modal feature alignment. Heterogeneous data sources (e.g., RGB,
 052 thermal, LiDAR, events, and polarization) exhibit distinct statistics and styles, where naive fusion
 053 often leads to inconsistent features or an over-reliance on a single modality Liu et al. (2022); Zhang
 et al. (2023); Cao et al. (2024). To alleviate this issue, we introduce the dual feature consistency con-

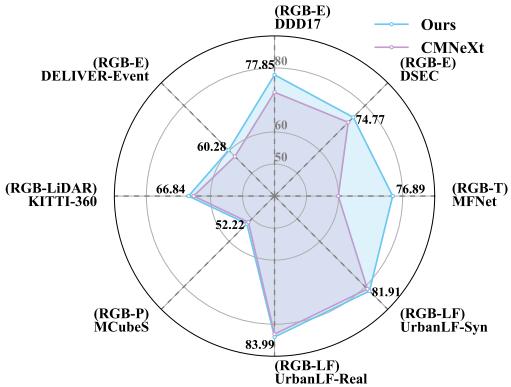


Figure 1: Performance comparison be-
 between our proposed method (Ours) and
 CMNeXt Zhang et al. (2023) across dif-
 ferent modality combinations, including
 RGB–Event, RGB–Thermal, RGB–Light Field,
 RGB–LiDAR, and RGB–Polarization.

054 straint (DFCC), which aligns cross-modal features and promotes coherent semantic representations
 055 across modalities. By integrating the above designs, our framework achieves superior performance
 056 compared to recent state-of-the-art (SOTA) methods across eight multi-modal datasets, as illustrated
 057 in Fig. 1. The main contributions of this work are as follows:

- 059 • We propose a multi-modal semantic segmentation framework that supports flexible modal-
 060 ity combinations. It enables effective representation learning across diverse RGB+X con-
 061 figurations, including RGB+Thermal, RGB+LiDAR, RGB+Event, RGB+Polarization, and
 062 RGB+Light Field.
- 063 • We develop a bidirectional polarity-aware cross-modality fusion (BPCF) module, which
 064 integrates bidirectional polarity-aware linear cross-attention (BPLCA) with a dual feature
 065 consistency constraint (DFCC) to effectively fuse heterogeneous modalities.
- 066 • We introduce a stage-wise constraint loss that progressively enforces consistent cross-
 067 modal feature alignment.
- 068 • We conduct extensive experiments on eight multi-modal datasets covering five auxiliary
 069 modalities. Our method consistently outperforms SOTA approaches across all datasets.

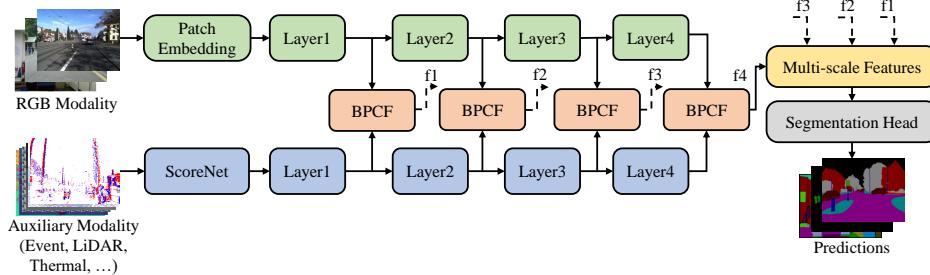
071 2 RELATED WORK

072 Recognizing the auxiliary benefits of non-RGB modalities, prior work has explored a spectrum of fu-
 073 sion strategies, ranging from pairwise integration of complementary modalities to modality-agnostic
 074 frameworks capable of unifying many sensor types. Dual-branch backbones integrate events over
 075 time and use event-count or activity-rate cues, together with bidirectional cross-attention, to synchro-
 076 nize features across modalities and scales Sun et al. (2021); Zhou et al. (2023); Xie et al. (2024);
 077 Zheng et al. (2024a); Li et al. (2025a). Beyond RGB-event fusion, other auxiliary modalities have
 078 also been explored Prakash et al. (2021); Joze et al. (2020); Hazirbas et al. (2016). Moreover,
 079 KTBNet Cai et al. (2025) proposes a parameter-efficient symmetric framework that balances the
 080 contributions between RGB and an additional modality such as thermal, thereby preventing the
 081 dominance of a single branch. Polarization offers informative cues, being particularly sensitive to
 082 specular reflections and material or surface boundaries. However, prior work on RGB-P segmen-
 083 tation has shown only limited performance Liang et al. (2022); Zhang et al. (2023). In parallel,
 084 RoadFormer Huang et al. (2024) integrates RGB and polarization via a dual-branch fusion block
 085 and achieves commendable performance. Nevertheless, the above designs lack modality-agnostic
 086 generalization, as they are tied to fixed modality combinations. CMX Liu et al. (2022) employs
 087 cross-modal feature rectification and fusion modules for long-range context exchange across modal-
 088 ities. Its successor CMNeXt Zhang et al. (2023) extends scalability through a self-query hub and a
 089 parallel pooling mixer, maintaining compactness while adapting to diverse sensor types. Similarly,
 090 Zheng et al. Zheng et al. (2024b) propose a modality-agnostic pipeline that dynamically selects
 091 the most informative modalities, while their follow-up Zheng et al. (2024a) introduces a modality-
 092 agnostic Feature Fusion (MFF) module that synthesizes heterogeneous sensor streams into a uni-
 093 fied representation. GeminiFusion Jia et al. (2024) further refines cross-modal interactions using
 094 pixel-wise intra- and inter-modal attention, and OmniVec2 Srivastava & Sharma (2024) explores
 095 a large-scale shared representation space for multi-modal and multi-task learning. Although these
 096 works have advanced the field, challenges still remain in fully exploiting complementary infor-
 097 mation across modalities and in achieving consistent feature alignment. In this work, we propose a
 098 bidirectional polarity-aware cross-modality fusion (BPCF) module to alleviate these issues.

099 3 METHOD

100 As shown in Fig. 2, our model adopts an encoder-decoder architecture with stage-wise fusion mod-
 101 ules. Each modality is first encoded by a dedicated Transformer backbone Xie et al. (2021). Follow-
 102 ing prior work Liu et al. (2022); Zhang et al. (2023), we incorporate ScoreNet to flexibly integrate
 103 RGB with one or more auxiliary modalities. For multiple auxiliary inputs, ScoreNet selects the most
 104 informative feature at each spatial location. The stage-wise BPCF fusion modules then combine the
 105 hierarchical feature representations from the two modality branches. Finally, the fused multi-scale
 106 features are aggregated by an MLP-based segmentation head to produce dense predictions.

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Figure 2: Overview of the proposed multi-modal semantic segmentation framework. Each modality is independently encoded using a dedicated Transformer backbone. RGB and auxiliary modality features are then progressively fused through the proposed fusion module in a stage-by-stage manner. Finally, the fused multi-scale features are passed to the segmentation head to generate predictions.

3.1 FEATURE EXTRACTION

ScoreNet. To extract the most informative modality features, we employ ScoreNet with a dynamic selection mechanism. Specifically, ScoreNet processes each patch in each auxiliary modality as follows:

$$S_{i,j} = \text{Softmax}(\text{Linear}(\text{GELU}(\text{Linear}(\text{Norm}(X_{i,j})))), i \in [1, M], j \in [1, N]. \quad (1)$$

where $S_{i,j}$ denotes the informative score for the i -th input modality on the j -th patch token, M refers to the number of modalities and $N = H \times W$ refers to the number of patches. For each patch token, the embedding from the modality with the highest score is dynamically selected and fused into a single auxiliary input to complement the primary RGB data:

$$x_a = \{X_{m,j} | j \in H \times W, m = \underset{i}{\text{argmax}}(S_{i,j})\}. \quad (2)$$

Backbone. Subsequently, the primary RGB data and the dynamically selected auxiliary modality are encoded by parallel Transformer backbones (MiT) Xie et al. (2021). The extracted multi-level features are then passed to the proposed stage-wise fusion modules. The process can be formulated as follows:

$$x_r = \text{MiT}(x_r), x_a = \text{MiT}(x_a). \quad (3)$$

3.2 BIDIRECTIONAL POLARITY-AWARE CROSS-MODALITY FUSION MODULE

To effectively integrate heterogeneous cues from RGB and auxiliary modalities, we introduce a bidirectional polarity-aware cross-modality fusion (BPCF) module, as illustrated in Fig. 3. The BPCF is composed of two key parts: bidirectional polarity-aware linear cross-attention (BPLCA) and dual feature consistency constraint (DFCC). The BPLCA facilitates comprehensive cross-modal interaction by employing symmetric cross-gating and polarity-aware cross-linear attention. Meanwhile, the DFCC enhances feature alignment by exploiting statistical correlations and applying the consistency constraint loss $\mathcal{L}_{\text{stage}}$, complemented by a refinement block to generate the final fused output.

Bidirectional polarity-aware linear cross-attention (BPLCA). To comprehensively fuse complementary cues from the RGB stream and the auxiliary modality stream, our BPLCA is designed with

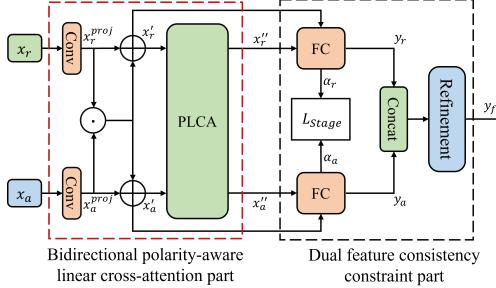


Figure 3: The overall structure of the BPCF module. It consists of a bidirectional polarity-aware linear cross-attention (BPLCA) part and a dual feature consistency constraint (DFCC) part.

162 dual cross-modal fusion branches. First, an efficient cross-gating mechanism is applied to activate
 163 relevant features. Second, a symmetric polarity-aware linear cross-attention (PLCA) is introduced
 164 (see Fig. 4), which preserves informative negative evidence while maintaining the linear-time and
 165 linear-memory efficiency of kernelized attention. Formally, let $x_r, x_a \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times C}$ represent the ex-
 166 tracted features from the RGB and auxiliary branches, reshaped into sequences of $N=HW$ tokens
 167 with C channels. Two 1×1 convolutions are then used to perform per-location linear projections:

$$x_r^{\text{proj}} = \text{Conv}_{1 \times 1}(x_r), x_a^{\text{proj}} = \text{Conv}_{1 \times 1}(x_a). \quad (4)$$

170 We then realize bidirectional interaction via symmetric cross-gating using the element-wise
 171 (Hadamard) product \circ :

$$x'_r = x_r^{\text{proj}} + (x_r^{\text{proj}} \circ x_a^{\text{proj}}), x'_a = x_a^{\text{proj}} + (x_r^{\text{proj}} \circ x_a^{\text{proj}}). \quad (5)$$

174 To further enhance cross-modal interaction, the
 175 fused features are passed into the PLCA, as illus-
 176 trated in Fig. 4. Within PLCA, the input features
 177 are projected into four distinct matrices: query
 178 (Q), key (K), value (V), and gating (G). Among
 179 these, the gating matrix G plays a pivotal role
 180 in realizing polarity-aware attention Meng et al.
 181 (2025), whose mechanism will be detailed in the
 182 following section.

$$183 \begin{aligned} Q_r &= x'_r q_r, K_r = x'_r k_r, V_r = x'_r v_r, G_r = x'_r g_r; \\ 184 Q_a &= x'_a q_a, K_a = x'_a k_a, V_a = x'_a v_a, G_a = x'_a g_a. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

186 where $q_r, k_r, v_r, g_r, q_a, k_a, v_a, g_a$ denote the learn-
 187 able linear projections for the RGB and auxiliary
 188 branches, respectively.

189 Following the kernelization strategy
 190 in Katharopoulos et al. (2020), vanilla atten-
 191 tion can be reformulated using a similarity
 192 function defined by a feature map $\phi(\cdot)$. The i -th
 193 row of the attention result is formulated as:

$$195 \text{Attention}(Q, K, V)_i = \frac{\sum_j \text{sim}(Q_i, K_j) V_j}{\sum_j \text{sim}(Q_i, K_j)}, \quad (7)$$

$$200 \text{sim}(x, y) = \kappa(x, y) = \phi(x)^T \phi(y). \quad (8)$$

201 This kernelization renders the similarity function decomposable. By exploiting distributive and
 202 associative properties, the final attention computation becomes:

$$205 \text{Attention}(Q, K, V) = \frac{\phi(Q)^T \left(\sum_j \phi(K_j) V_j \right)}{\phi(Q)^T \left(\sum_j \phi(K_j) \right)}. \quad (9)$$

209 Notably, Eq. 9 avoids the $\mathcal{O}(N^2 D)$ pairwise computations $Q_i^T K_j$ by precomputing the terms
 210 $\sum_j \phi(K_j) V_j$ and $\sum_j \phi(K_j)$, thereby reducing the overall time complexity to $\mathcal{O}(ND^2)$. Standard
 211 non-negative feature maps like ReLU discard negative information. This information is retained by
 212 decomposing queries and keys into positive (Q^+) and negative (Q^-) parts via $Q = Q^+ - Q^-$ where
 213 $Q^+ = \text{ReLU}(Q)$ and $Q^- = \text{ReLU}(-Q)$. The same decomposition is applied to the key matrix K .
 214 Then the inner product can be decomposed into:

$$215 \langle q_i, k_j \rangle = \langle q_i^+, k_j^+ \rangle + \langle q_i^-, k_j^- \rangle - \langle q_i^-, k_j^+ \rangle - \langle q_i^+, k_j^- \rangle. \quad (10)$$

216 Then the linear-decomposable similarity function in Eq. 8 can be derived as
 217

$$219 \text{sim}(x, y) = \phi(q_i)^T \phi(k_j) \\ 220 = ((\phi(q_i)^+)^T \phi(k_j)^+ + (\phi(q_i)^-)^T \phi(k_j)^-) - ((\phi(q_i)^+)^T \phi(k_j)^- + (\phi(q_i)^-)^T \phi(k_j)^+). \\ 221 \quad (11) \\ 222$$

223 Thus, we can accept a non-positive feature map ϕ in the kernel. To process these non-negative
 224 components, we employ a channel-wise learnable feature map, $\phi(x)$, defined as:

$$225 \phi(x) = x^P, \text{ where } P = 1 + \alpha \cdot \text{sigmoid}(W) \\ 226 \quad (12)$$

227 where P is a dynamically computed exponent, determined by a hyperparameter α and a d -
 228 dimensional learnable parameter vector W , which learns to weigh the relative importance of dif-
 229 ferent channels. To explicitly model the interactions between polarities, we first concatenate the
 230 positive and negative components along the channel dimension (denoted by \parallel), then capture the
 231 interactions between Q and K for *same-signed* ($++, --$) and *opposite-signed* ($-, +$) pairs
 232 separately while ensuring all kernelized terms remain non-negative. The value (V) is partitioned
 233 accordingly with $V_r = V_r^s \parallel V_r^o$ and $V_a = V_a^s \parallel V_a^o$, while both split tensors have half of the channels
 234 from the original one. Based on these decompositions, we then compute the intermediate fusion re-
 235 sults for the RGB and auxiliary modalities, distinguishing between *same-signed* and *opposite-signed*
 236 correlations, substituting Eq. 11 into Eq. 9:

$$237 x_r^s = \frac{\phi(Q_a^+ \parallel Q_a^-)^T \sum_j \phi(K_r^+ \parallel K_r^-)_j (V_r^s)_j}{\phi(Q_a^+ \parallel Q_a^-)^T \sum_j \phi(K_r^+ \parallel K_r^-)_j}, x_r^o = \frac{\phi(Q_a^- \parallel Q_a^+)^T \sum_j \phi(K_r^+ \parallel K_r^-)_j (V_r^o)_j}{\phi(Q_a^- \parallel Q_a^+)^T \sum_j \phi(K_r^+ \parallel K_r^-)_j}; \\ 238 x_a^s = \frac{\phi(Q_r^+ \parallel Q_r^-)^T \sum_j \phi(K_a^+ \parallel K_a^-)_j (V_a^s)_j}{\phi(Q_r^+ \parallel Q_r^-)^T \sum_j \phi(K_a^+ \parallel K_a^-)_j}, x_a^o = \frac{\phi(Q_r^- \parallel Q_r^+)^T \sum_j \phi(K_a^+ \parallel K_a^-)_j (V_a^o)_j}{\phi(Q_r^- \parallel Q_r^+)^T \sum_j \phi(K_a^+ \parallel K_a^-)_j}. \\ 239 \quad (13) \\ 240$$

242 To capture sophisticated relations between *same-signed* and *opposite-signed* parts, we employ a
 243 learnable, element-wise mixing that *weights* the *same-signed* and *opposite-signed* streams via gating
 244 tensors, $G = G^s \parallel G^o$. The final polarity-aware outputs are then produced through gated fusion:

$$246 x_r'' = (x_r^s \circ G_a^s) \parallel (x_r^o \circ G_a^o), x_a'' = (x_a^s \circ G_r^s) \parallel (x_a^o \circ G_r^o) \\ 247 \quad (14)$$

248 Notably, the query matrix Q and gating matrix G are designed to interact with the other modality in
 249 the *cross-modality* design of the PLCA component. This mechanism preserves the integrity of the
 250 original content alignment by mitigating excessive influence from the complementary modality, yet
 251 still allows for the infusion of necessary cross-modal information.

252 **Dual feature consistency constraint (DFCC).** To strengthen cross-modal feature alignment
 253 while maintaining consistency, we introduce the
 254 DFCC. As shown in Fig. 5, DFCC integrates a
 255 feature consistency constraint with a refinement
 256 block in a unified design, jointly enabling seman-
 257 tic alignment and feature enhancement. Specif-
 258 ically, given enhanced RGB and auxiliary fea-
 259 tures x_r' , $x_a' \in \mathbb{R}^{B \times C \times H \times W}$ and fused features
 260 x_r'' , $x_a'' \in \mathbb{R}^{B \times C \times H \times W}$, we first compute fea-
 261 ture statistics to align the feature spaces across
 262 both streams:

$$265 \hat{x}_r = \frac{x_r' - \mu(x_r')}{\sigma(x_r')}, \hat{x}_a = \frac{x_a' - \mu(x_a')}{\sigma(x_a')}; \quad (15) \\ 266 \\ 267$$

268 where,

$$269 \mu(x) = \frac{1}{HW} \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{w=1}^W x, \sigma(x) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{HW} \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{w=1}^W (x - \mu(x))^2}. \\ 270 \quad (16)$$

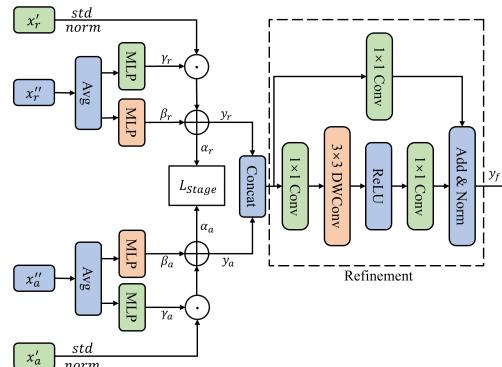


Figure 5: Illustration of DFCC.

270 where $\mu(x)$ and $\sigma(x)$ denote the channel-wise mean and standard deviation, respectively. DFCC
 271 then learns adaptive affine modulation parameters from the fused features x''_r and x''_a . Specifically,
 272 the global average pooling operations are first applied:

$$z_r = \text{AvgPool}(x''_r), z_a = \text{AvgPool}(x''_a). \quad (17)$$

273 Subsequently, MLPs are employed to generate branch-specific modulation parameters:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_r &= \text{MLP}(z_r), \beta_r = \text{MLP}(z_r), \\ 277 \gamma_a &= \text{MLP}(z_a), \beta_a = \text{MLP}(z_a). \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

278 The normalized features are then modulated as:

$$y_r = \gamma_r \cdot \hat{x}_r + \beta_r, y_a = \gamma_a \cdot \hat{x}_a + \beta_a. \quad (19)$$

279 Finally, the two streams are concatenated and fed into the refinement block, which comprises two
 280 parallel paths: a 1×1 convolutional shortcut that preserves identity information, and a nonlinear
 281 transformation branch that enhances feature fusion. The nonlinear branch sequentially applies a
 282 1×1 convolution for channel reduction, a 3×3 depthwise convolution for spatial interaction,
 283 a ReLU activation, and another 1×1 convolution to restore the channel dimension, followed by
 284 normalization. The final output is then obtained by summing the two paths:

$$y_f = \text{Refinement}(y_r \parallel y_a). \quad (20)$$

285 Moreover, to further enhance cross-modal consistency, we incorporate a stage-wise constraint loss
 286 within DFCC. At each fusion stage, the features y_r and y_a are computed by averaging over the
 287 channel dimension:

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_r &= \text{Norm}(\text{Mean}(y_r, \text{dim} = 1)), \\ 293 \alpha_a &= \text{Norm}(\text{Mean}(y_a, \text{dim} = 1)). \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

294 where $\text{Norm}(a) = \frac{a - \min(a)}{\max(a) - \min(a) + \epsilon}$ is applied pixel-wise. The stage-wise constraint loss is then
 295 defined as the mean squared error (MSE) between the normalized features:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{stage}} = \|\alpha_r - \alpha_a\|_2^2. \quad (22)$$

296 This objective encourages both modalities to produce consistent responses, thereby improving fea-
 297 ture alignment.

3.3 LOSS FUNCTION

303 Our proposed model is trained using a combination of segmentation and alignment objectives. For
 304 the primary segmentation task, we employ the standard pixel-wise cross-entropy loss, commonly
 305 used in dense prediction tasks:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \log \frac{\exp(p_{i,y_i})}{\sum_{j=1}^C \exp(p_{i,j})}. \quad (23)$$

310 where $N = H \times W$ denotes the number of valid pixels, C is the number of classes, $p_{i,j}$ represents
 311 the logit for class j at pixel i , and y_i is the corresponding ground-truth label. The overall training
 312 objective combines the segmentation loss with the stage-wise constraint loss as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{total}} = \lambda_1 \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}} + \lambda_2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^4 \mathcal{L}_{\text{stage}}^{(i)}. \quad (24)$$

316 where λ_1 and λ_2 balance the segmentation and stage-level constraint losses. In our experiments, we
 317 set $\lambda_1 = 1$ and $\lambda_2 = 0.1$.

4 COMPARISON WITH STATE-OF-THE-ARTS

321 We evaluate our approach on eight widely used multi-modal datasets: MFNet Ha et al. (2017),
 322 KITTI-360 Liao et al. (2022), DDD17 Binas et al. (2017), DSEC Gehrig et al. (2021), DE-
 323 LIVER Zhang et al. (2023), UrbanLF Sheng et al. (2022), MCubeS Liang et al. (2022), and ZJU Xi-
 324 ang et al. (2021). Additional dataset details are provided in the **Appendix**.

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326 Table 1: Semantic segmentation results on the MFNet RGB-Thermal dataset.
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Method	Venue	Backbone	mIoU (%)
PAP Zhang et al. (2019)	CVPR'19	ResNet-18	50.5
ABMDRNet Zhang et al. (2021)	CVPR'21	ResNet-18	54.8
GMNet Zhou et al. (2021b)	TIP'21	ResNet-50	57.3
EGFNet Zhou et al. (2022)	AAAI'22	ResNet-152	54.8
DooDLeNet Frigo et al. (2022)	CVPR'22	ResNet-101	57.3
CMX Liu et al. (2022)	TITS'23	MiT-B4	59.7
CMNeXt Zhang et al. (2023)	CVPR'23	MiT-B4	59.9
KTBNet Cai et al. (2025)	CVPR'25	Swin-B	59.9
Ours	-	MiT-B4	76.9

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338 Table 2: Semantic segmentation results on the KITTI-360 RGB-LiDAR dataset.
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Method	Venue	Backbone	mIoU (%)
PMF Zhuang et al. (2021)	ICCV21	SalsaNext	54.5
TransFuser Prakash et al. (2021)	CVPR21	RegNetY	56.6
TokenFusion Wang et al. (2022)	CVPR22	MiT-B2	54.6
HRFuser Broedermann et al. (2023)	ITSC23	HRFormer-T	48.7
CMX Liu et al. (2022)	TITS23	MiT-B2	64.3
CMNeXt Zhang et al. (2023)	CVPR23	MiT-B2	65.3
Ours	-	MiT-B2	66.8

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349 Table 3: Semantic segmentation results on the DDD17 and DSEC RGB-Event datasets.
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Method	Venue	Modal	DDD17		DSEC	
			mIoU (%)	Acc. (%)	mIoU (%)	Acc. (%)
E2VID Rebecq et al. (2019)	TRAMI'19	Event	48.47	85.84	44.08	80.06
OpenESS Kong et al. (2024)	CVPR'24	Event	63.00	91.05	57.21	90.21
KWYAF Li et al. (2025b)	AAAI'25	Event	57.69	90.04	57.75	90.87
ESEG-L Zhao et al. (2025)	AAAI'25	Event	59.97	90.68	57.55	91.47
CMX Liu et al. (2022)	TITS'23	RGB+Event	71.88	95.64	72.42	95.07
CMNeXt Zhang et al. (2023)	CVPR'23	RGB+Event	72.67	95.74	72.54	95.10
HMNet-L Hamaguchi et al. (2023)	CVPR'23	RGB+Event	-	-	55.00	89.80
EISNet Xie et al. (2024)	TMM'24	RGB+Event	75.03	96.04	73.07	95.12
Hybrid-Segmentation Li et al. (2025a)	AAAI'25	RGB+Event	67.31	95.07	66.57	94.27
Ours	-	RGB+Event	77.85	97.10	74.77	95.60

Results on MFNet. We evaluate our method on the MFNet dataset, a popular benchmark for RGB-thermal semantic segmentation. As shown in Tab. 1, our model achieves 76.9% mIoU, significantly outperforming prior methods such as KTBNet Cai et al. (2025) (59.9%) and CMNeXt Zhang et al. (2023) (59.9%). In particular, our approach yields a **17%** absolute improvement over KTBNet, highlighting its superior capability for RGB-thermal segmentation. The proposed method establishes a new SOTA result on the MFNet dataset.

Results on KITTI-360. As shown in Tab. 2, our model achieves 66.8% mIoU, outperforming all competing fusion methods. In particular, PMF Zhuang et al. (2021), TransFuser Prakash et al. (2021), TokenFusion Wang et al. (2022), and HRFuser Broedermann et al. (2023) lag significantly behind. Moreover, our approach surpasses CMX Liu et al. (2022) (64.3%) and CMNeXt Zhang et al. (2023) (65.3%), further demonstrating the effectiveness of the proposed fusion mechanism. These results highlight the superiority of our method for RGB-LiDAR segmentation, particularly in large-scale outdoor scenes.

Results on DDD17 and DSEC. Tab. 3 summarizes the results on the DDD17 and DSEC datasets. Our model achieves 77.85% mIoU and 97.10% Pixel Acc on DDD17 dataset and 74.77% mIoU and

378 Table 4: Semantic segmentation results on the DELIVER RGB-Event dataset.
379

380 Method	381 Venue	382 Modal	383 Resolution	384 mIoU (%)
385 TokenFusion Wang et al. (2022)	386 CVPR’22	387 RGB+Event	388 1024×1024	389 45.6
390 HRFuser Broedermann et al. (2023)	391 ITSC’23	392 RGB+Event	393 1024×1024	394 42.2
395 CMX Liu et al. (2022)	396 TITS’23	397 RGB+Event	398 1024×1024	399 56.5
400 CMNeXt Zhang et al. (2023)	401 CVPR’23	402 RGB+Event	403 1024×1024	404 57.5
405 Any2Seg Zheng et al. (2024a)	406 ECCV’24	407 RGB+Event	408 512×512	409 57.8
410 KTBNet Cai et al. (2025)	411 CVPR’25	412 RGB+Event	413 -	414 58.4
415 Ours	416 -	417 RGB+Event	418 512×512	419 60.3

390 Table 5: Semantic segmentation results on the UrbanLF-real and UrbanLF-syn datasets. “LF80”,
391 “LF33”, and “LF8” denote using 80, 33, and 8 sub-aperture views as auxiliary modalities.
392

393 Method	394 Venue	395 Modal	396 Real	397 Syn
			398 mIoU (%)	399 mIoU (%)
400 SegFormer Xie et al. (2021)	401 NeurIPS’21	402 RGB	403 82.20	404 78.53
405 OCR Yuan et al. (2020)	406 TCSVT’22	407 RGB	408 78.60	409 79.36
410 DAVSS Zhuang et al. (2020)	411 TCSVT’20	412 Video	413 75.91	414 74.27
415 TMANet Wang et al. (2021)	416 ICIP’21	417 Video	418 77.14	419 76.41
420 SA-Gate Chen et al. (2020b)	421 ECCV’20	422 RGB-D	423 -	424 79.53
425 PSPNet-LF Zhao et al. (2017)	426 CVPR’17	427 RGB+LF33	428 78.10	429 77.88
430 OCR-LF Sheng et al. (2022)	431 TCSVT’22	432 RGB+LF33	433 79.32	434 80.43
435 CMNeXt Zhang et al. (2023)	436 CVPR’23	437 RGB+LF8	438 83.22	439 80.74
440 CMNeXt Zhang et al. (2023)	441 CVPR’23	442 RGB+LF33	443 82.62	444 80.98
445 CMNeXt Zhang et al. (2023)	446 CVPR’23	447 RGB+LF80	448 83.11	449 81.02
450 Ours	451 -	452 RGB+LF8	453 82.59	454 80.98
455 Ours	456 -	457 RGB+LF33	458 83.30	459 81.22
460 Ours	461 -	462 RGB+LF80	463 83.99	464 81.91

411 95.60% Pixel Acc on DSEC dataset. Compared with the second-best RGB+Event fusion method,
412 EISNet Xie et al. (2024), our approach consistently outperforms it in both mIoU and Pixel Acc.
413 In contrast, event-only models such as ESEG-L Zhao et al. (2025), KWYAF Li et al. (2025b), and
414 OpenESS Kong et al. (2024) achieve considerably lower scores, underscoring the importance of
415 multi-modal fusion. These results validate the effectiveness of our method and set a new SOTA on
416 the DDD17 and DSEC datasets.

417
418
419 **Results on DELIVER.** We further evaluate our approach on the DELIVER dataset, which pro-
420 vides high-resolution (1024×1024) RGB-event pairs for semantic segmentation. Owing to GPU
421 memory limitations, we train and evaluate our model on resized inputs of 512×512 . As shown in
422 Tab. 4, our method achieves 60.3% mIoU. Notably, even at half the original resolution, it surpasses
423 recent SOTA methods such as KTBNet Cai et al. (2025) (58.4%), Any2Seg Zheng et al. (2024a)
424 (57.8%), and CMNeXt Zhang et al. (2023) (57.5%). These results underscore the robustness of our
425 fusion framework, even under reduced input resolution.

426
427
428 **Results on UrbanLF.** As shown in Tab. 5, our model achieves 83.99% mIoU on UrbanLF-real
429 and 81.91% mIoU on UrbanLF-syn, outperforming CMNeXt Zhang et al. (2023) (83.22%/80.74%).
430 Even under different sub-aperture configurations, our framework maintains strong performance,
431 achieving 83.30%/81.22% with LF33 and 82.59%/80.98% with LF8. Compared with RGB-only
432 and video-based methods, our approach delivers substantial improvements, underscoring the advan-
433 tage of integrating sub-aperture views with RGB guidance.

432 Table 6: Semantic segmentation results on the MCubeS dataset with different modality combina-
 433 tions. “A” denotes AoLP, “D” denotes DoLP, and “N” denotes NIR.

Method	Venue	Modal	mIoU (%)
MCubeSNet Liang et al. (2022)	CVPR’22	RGB+A	39.10
CMNeXt Zhang et al. (2023)	CVPR’23	RGB+A	48.42
Ours	-	RGB+A	50.09
MCubeSNet Liang et al. (2022)	CVPR’22	RGB+A+D	42.00
CMNeXt Zhang et al. (2023)	CVPR’23	RGB+A+D	49.48
Ours	-	RGB+A+D	51.14
MMTM Joze et al. (2020)	CVPR’20	RGB+A+D+N	39.71
DRConv Chen et al. (2021)	CVPR’21	RGB+A+D+N	34.63
DDF Zhou et al. (2021a)	CVPR’21	RGB+A+D+N	36.16
TransFuser Prakash et al. (2021)	CVPR’21	RGB+A+D+N	37.66
MCubeSNet Liang et al. (2022)	CVPR’22	RGB+A+D+N	42.86
CMNeXt Zhang et al. (2023)	CVPR’23	RGB+A+D+N	51.54
Ours	-	RGB+A+D+N	52.22

451 **Results on MCubeS.** Tab. 6 presents the results on the MCubeS dataset. Using all four modalities
 452 (RGB+A+D+N), our method outperforms all compared approaches, including CMNeXt Zhang
 453 et al. (2023) and MCubeSNet Liang et al. (2022). Experiments with different modality combinations
 454 further demonstrate that each additional modality (A, D, and N) contributes to improved segmen-
 455 tation performance. Overall, fusing all four modalities yields the best results. The results for the ZJU
 456 dataset are provided in the **Appendix**.

457 4.1 ABLATION STUDIES

458 Tab. 7 summarizes the ablation results on the
 459 MFNet, DSEC, and DDD17 datasets, highlight-
 460 ing the contributions of each proposed com-
 461 ponent in terms of mIoU. Models are trained
 462 for 60 epochs on MFNet and DSEC, and 40
 463 epochs on DDD17. Specifically, introducing
 464 BPLCA yields substantial gains, with a **+6.45%**
 465 **mIoU** improvement on MFNet, demonstrating
 466 that BPLCA effectively enhances cross-modal
 467 interaction.

468 Incorporating DFCC further boosts performance—particularly on MFNet (76.36%)—by refining
 469 feature consistency. The dense stage-wise loss \mathcal{L}_{stage} provides additional supervision and sta-
 470 bilizes optimization, leading to further improvements across all datasets. Finally, combining BPLCA,
 471 DFCC, and \mathcal{L}_{stage} achieves the best performance: 76.74% mIoU on MFNet, 74.77% on DSEC,
 472 and 77.85% on DDD17. Overall, these results confirm that the three components are comple-
 473 mentary: BPLCA strengthens modality fusion, DFCC enforces feature consistency, and \mathcal{L}_{stage} supplies
 474 multi-level supervision—together delivering significant segmentation improvements.

475 5 CONCLUSION

476 In this work, we presented a multi-modal semantic segmentation framework that flexibly integrates
 477 RGB with diverse auxiliary modalities, including thermal, LiDAR, event, light field, and polarization
 478 data. Our approach features a selective fusion mechanism that dynamically activates the most
 479 informative auxiliary modality at each spatial location, a bidirectional polarity-aware linear cross-
 480 attention (BPLCA) combined with a dual feature consistency constraint (DFCC) for feature-aligned
 481 fusion, and a stage-wise supervision loss that progressively enforces cross-modal consistency. Ex-
 482 tensive experiments on eight public benchmarks demonstrate that our method consistently outper-
 483 forms SOTA approaches.

484 Table 7: Ablation study of different architectures
 485 on the MFNet, DSEC, and DDD17 datasets.

Architecture	MFNet mIoU (%)	DSEC mIoU (%)	DDD17 mIoU (%)
Baseline	67.21	74.26	76.91
+ BPLCA	73.66	74.04	77.57
+ BPLCA + DFCC	76.36	74.29	77.73
+ BPLCA + \mathcal{L}_{stage}	76.57	74.37	77.63
+ BPLCA + DFCC + \mathcal{L}_{stage}	76.74	74.77	77.85

486 ETHICS STATEMENT
487488 This research adheres to the ethical standards of the ICLR community. The datasets used in our
489 experiments are publicly available and widely adopted in prior works and do not contain personally
490 identifiable or sensitive information. Our models are developed solely for academic research
491 purposes. We acknowledge that semantic segmentation and multimodal perception techniques may
492 potentially be applied in sensitive domains (e.g., surveillance, autonomous driving), and we encourage
493 responsible use of our methods.494
495 REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT
496497 To ensure reproducibility, we provide detailed descriptions of our model architecture, training set-
498 tings, and experimental protocols in the paper. All hyperparameters and loss functions are explicitly
499 specified. Furthermore, we will release the source code, pretrained models, and instructions for
500 reproducing the reported results upon publication. This allows other researchers to validate our
501 findings and extend our work.502
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648 **A APPENDIX**
649650 **A.1 USE OF LLMs**
651652
653 We used ChatGPT (OpenAI) solely for grammar polishing and improving readability in the intro-
654 duction and related work sections. No content generation, data analysis, or result creation was
655 performed using large language models (LLMs).
656657 **A.2 DATASETS**
658659 An overview of the datasets used in our experiments is provided in Tab. 8.
660661 **Table 8: Summary of multi-modal datasets used in our experiments.**
662

Dataset	Modality	Classes	Train / Test	Resolution
MFNet Ha et al. (2017)	RGB-Thermal	8	784 / 392	480 × 640
KITTI-360 Liao et al. (2022)	RGB-LiDAR	19	49004 / 12276	1408 × 376
DDD17 Binas et al. (2017)	RGB-Event	5	15950 / 3890	200 × 346
DSEC Gehrig et al. (2021)	RGB-Event	11	8082 / 2809	440 × 640
DELIVER Zhang et al. (2023)	RGB-Event-Depth	25	3893 / 1897	1024 × 1024
UrbanLF Sheng et al. (2022)	RGB-Light Field	14	580 / 80 (Real), 172 / 28 (Syn)	623 × 432, 640 × 480
MCubeS Liang et al. (2022)	RGB-AoLP-DoLP-NIR	20	302 / 102	1224 × 1024
ZJU Xiang et al. (2021)	RGB-Polarization	8	344 / 50	1224 × 1024

671
672 **RGB-T MFNet** Ha et al. (2017) is a driving-scene dataset with 1,569 aligned RGB-thermal pairs
673 across 8 semantic classes. It provides 784/392/392 images for training, validation, and testing,
674 respectively, covering both daytime and nighttime conditions.
675676 **RGB-L KITTI-360** Liao et al. (2022) is a suburban driving dataset, providing 49,004 training and
677 12,276 validation images with a resolution of 1408 × 376. Following the Cityscapes dataset Cordts
678 et al. (2016), it defines 19 semantic classes.
679680 **RGB-E DDD17** Binas et al. (2017) includes over 12 hours of driving data collected with a
681 DAVIS346B sensor, providing event streams and grayscale images at 200 × 346 resolution. We
682 generate pseudo-labels using EV-SegNet Alonso & Murillo (2019), resulting in 5 semantic classes
683 and splits of 15,950/3,890 samples.
684685 **RGB-E DSEC** Gehrig et al. (2021) contains over 10k RGB-event frames with 11 categories, cap-
686 tured from stereo cameras in urban and rural environments. We follow Xie et al. (2024) for prepro-
687 cessing and dataset splits (8082/2809 for training/testing).
688689 **RGB-X DELIVER** Zhang et al. (2023) is a large-scale synthetic benchmark built in the CARLA
690 simulator, supporting multi-modal segmentation across RGB, depth, event, and LiDAR streams.
691 It contains over 47k annotated frames from six camera views under diverse conditions, including
692 challenging weather (fog, rain, night) and five sensor degradation types (e.g., motion blur, exposure
693 imbalance, LiDAR jitter). The dataset defines 25 semantic classes covering urban elements such as
694 vehicles, roads, pedestrians, and vegetation.
695696 **RGB-LF UrbanLF** Sheng et al. (2022) is a light-field dataset for urban-scene segmentation, in-
697 cluding both real (580/80/164) and synthetic (172/28/50) subsets, each with 14 semantic classes.
698 Central-view annotations are used for supervision.
699700 **RGB-P MCubeS** Liang et al. (2022) consists of 500 samples with aligned RGB, NIR, and polariza-
701 tion cues (DoLP, AoLP), annotated with 20 material categories. The dataset is split into 302/96/102
702 for training, validation, and testing.
703704 **RGB-P ZJU** Xiang et al. (2021) is a polarization semantic segmentation dataset collected in outdoor
705 scenes. Each sample contains four polarized RGB images at 0°, 45°, 90°, and 135°, from which
706 AoLP and DoLP are derived using Stokes parameters. It provides 344 training and 50 validation
707 samples across 8 semantic classes, with image resolution of 1224 × 1024.
708

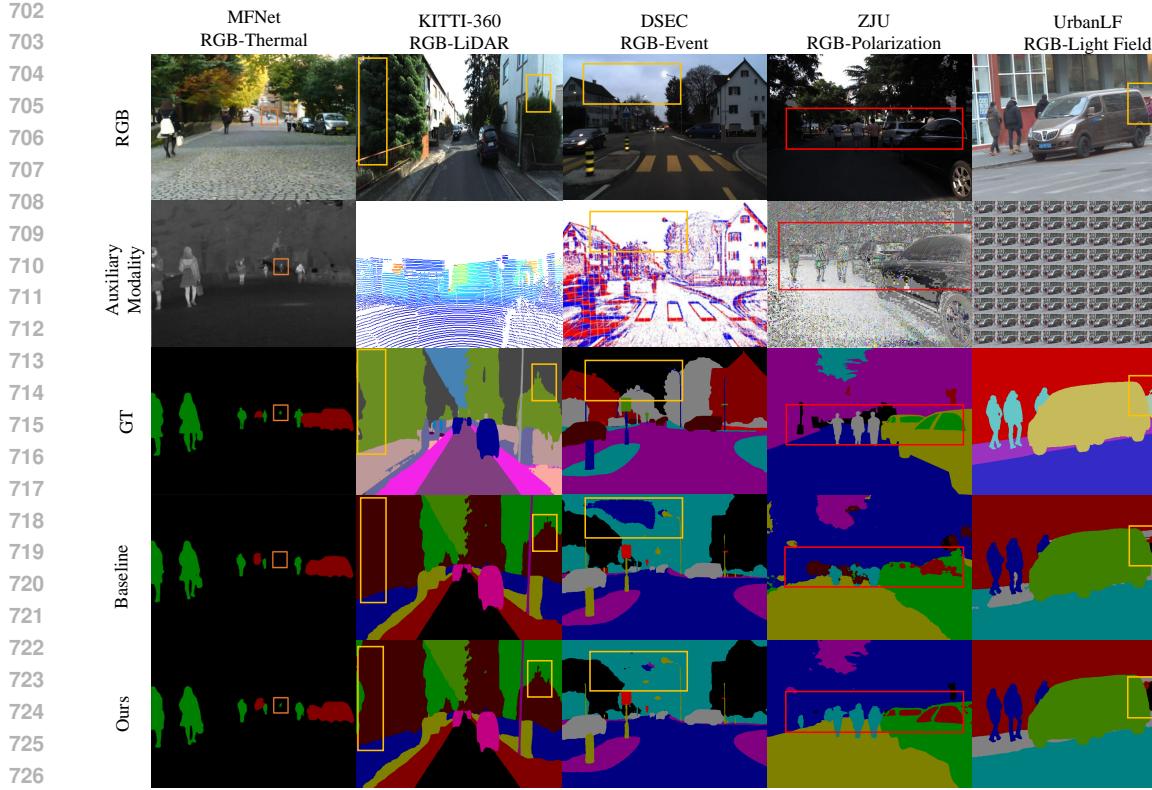


Figure 6: Qualitative results across multiple modalities. Our model consistently produces sharper boundaries and more accurate object recognition under challenging conditions.

A.3 IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

All models are trained on a single NVIDIA RTX 3090 GPU with a batch size of 2. We adopt AdamW Loshchilov & Hutter (2019) as the optimizer, with an initial learning rate of 6×10^{-5} , momentum of 0.9, weight decay of 0.01, and epsilon of 1×10^{-8} . The learning rate is scheduled using polynomial decay with a power of 0.9, preceded by a 10-epoch linear warm-up. Input images are resized to dataset-specific resolutions. Moreover, standard data augmentations are applied, including random resizing within [0.5, 2.0], horizontal flipping, color jitter, Gaussian blur, and random cropping.

A.4 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

In Fig. 6, we present qualitative comparisons on five representative datasets: MFNet Ha et al. (2017) (RGB-Thermal), KITTI-360 Liao et al. (2022) (RGB-LiDAR), DSEC Gehrig et al. (2021) (RGB-Event), ZJU-RGBP Xiang et al. (2021) (RGB-Polarization), and UrbanLF-real Sheng et al. (2022) (RGB-LightField). On MFNet, our method more clearly distinguishes pedestrians—particularly small and distant ones—that the baseline often fails to separate from the background. On KITTI-360, it delineates roadside trees with sharper boundaries and smoother transitions between vegetation and surrounding regions. On DSEC, our model suppresses spurious responses in the background sky, yielding more stable predictions under fast-motion conditions. On ZJU-RGBP, improvements are evident around reflective surfaces, where pedestrians and vehicle windows are predicted with higher accuracy and fewer artifacts. On UrbanLF-real, our approach provides more consistent segmentation of riders, pedestrians, and background elements, maintaining coherent parsing even under occlusion. Across all benchmarks, these qualitative visualizations show that our fusion strategy consistently produces more reliable results, underscoring its superiority across diverse sensing scenarios.

756 Table 9: Semantic segmentation results on the ZJU RGB-P dataset. “P(A+D)” denotes using both
 757 AoLP and DoLP as auxiliary input.
 758

759 Method	760 Venue	761 Backbone	762 Modal	763 mIoU (%)
764 SwiftNet Orsic et al. (2019)	765 CVPR’19	766 -	767 RGB	768 80.3
769 CMX Liu et al. (2022)	770 TITS’23	771 MiT-B4	772 RGB+A	773 92.6
774 Ours	775 -	776 MiT-B4	777 RGB+A	778 92.8
779 CMX Liu et al. (2022)	780 TITS’23	781 MiT-B4	782 RGB+D	783 92.5
784 Ours	785 -	786 MiT-B4	787 RGB+D	788 93.1
789 NLFNet Yan et al. (2021)	790 ROBIO’21	791 -	792 RGB+P(A+D)	793 84.4
794 EAFNet Xiang et al. (2021)	795 OE’21	796 -	797 RGB+P(A+D)	798 85.7
799 RoadFormer+ Huang et al. (2024)	800 TIV’24	801 -	802 RGB+P(A+D)	803 93.0
804 Ours	805 -	806 MiT-B4	807 RGB+P(A+D)	808 93.8

771 A.5 FURTHER RESULTS ANALYSIS

772 **Results on ZJU.** On the ZJU dataset, our method achieves 93.8% mIoU with both A and D inputs,
 773 surpassing all competing methods (see Tab. 9). Under different modality settings, it attains 92.8%
 774 with RGB+A and 93.1% with RGB+D, outperforming CMX Liu et al. (2022) in both cases. These
 775 results highlight the complementary role of polarization cues and demonstrate the effectiveness of
 776 our fusion strategy.
 777

778 A.6 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE WORK

779 Despite these promising results, several limitations remain. The computational overhead of
 780 transformer-based dual encoders is still significant, especially at high resolutions or when handling
 781 multiple modalities simultaneously. Future work may explore lightweight backbones, efficient at-
 782 tention mechanisms, or model compression techniques to improve scalability.
 783