

000 001 002 003 004 005 RECONCILING VISUAL PERCEPTION AND GENERATION 006 IN DIFFUSION MODELS 007 008 009

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ABSTRACT

We present GENREP, a unified image understanding and synthesis model that jointly conducts discriminative learning and generative modeling in one training session. By leveraging Monte Carlo approximation, GENREP distills distributional knowledge embedded in diffusion models to guide the discriminative learning for visual perception tasks. Simultaneously, a semantic-driven image generation process is established, where high-level semantics learned from perception tasks can be used to inform image synthesis, creating a positive feedback loop for mutual boosts. Moreover, to reconcile the learning process for both tasks, a gradient alignment strategy is proposed to symmetrically modify the optimization directions of perception and generation losses. These designs empower GENREP to be a versatile and powerful model that achieves top-leading performance on both image understanding and generation benchmarks. Code will be released after acceptance.

1 INTRODUCTION

Broadly, there are two fundamental goals in the field of computer vision: visual understanding which extracts meaningful cues from scenes, and image generation which aims to create new visual contents. The former is typically solved through visual representation learning, *i.e.*, transforming raw pixel data into features or embeddings that can capture high-level semantics(Bengio et al., 2013) in a discriminative manner. This leads to strong performance in downstream tasks such as visual recognition and semantic segmentation. On the other hand, image generation relies on generative modeling and emphasizes the learning of underlying patterns and distributions within data(Croitoru et al., 2023), thereby enabling the synthesis of new samples that faithfully resemble the original one.

Since visual understanding and synthesis have long been addressed with different paradigms, most existing work excels in either synthesizing realistic outputs or interpreting input data, but seldom do both on a unified basis. This brings several drawbacks: ① Representations learned in a discriminative manner for visual perception tasks often generalize poorly to unseen patterns (Pourpanah et al., 2022) and overlook fine-grained details(Huynh & Elhamifar, 2020). This stems from their narrow focus on decision boundary between classes(Jebara, 2012), rather than capturing the underlying data distribution like generative models. ② Modern generative models such as GANs(Goodfellow et al., 2014) or diffusion models(Sohl-Dickstein et al.; Rombach et al., 2022) exhibit a lower-level understanding of semantics due to the reliance on low-level reconstruction loss(Zhang et al., 2023a). As a result, they tend to underperform discriminative approaches in scene understanding tasks. ③ The divergence in technological protocols for image understanding and synthesis diffuses the research endeavors, and hinders innovations and insights achieved in one paradigm to enhance the other.

This stimulates us to rethink the perceived incompleteness in discriminative-based representation learning and generative modeling, and seek to bridge this gap by preserving both synthesis and understanding abilities within the same model. Our idea is motivated by the observations that: **i**) diffusion models facilitate downstream visual perception tasks(Zhao et al., 2023; Yang & Wang, 2023); **ii**) high-quality discriminative representations accelerate the generative learning of diffusion models(Yu et al., 2024). This reveals the potential commonality of representations learned via two paradigms, and forms the basis for devising a unified visual understanding and generation framework.

Building on this premise, we introduce GENREP, which reconciles the learning processes of downstream visual perception tasks and image generation in diffusion models while enabling the mutual benefits. **First**, to enhance visual understanding, GENREP leverages the distributional knowledge

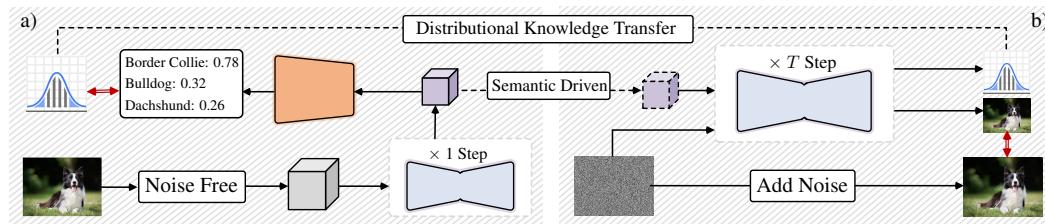


Figure 1: Unified image Understanding and synthesis within diffusion models: a) semantic driven image generation; b) distributional knowledge transfer from diffusion models for visual perception.

captured by generative modeling (Fig. 1(a)). Assuming the diffusion-based image generation can capture object distributions $p(\mathbf{x}|y)$ with class labels as conditional inputs, we approximate it through **Markov Chain** Monte Carlo where intermediate outputs during reverse diffusion are utilized as representative samples. As such, the class-wise posterior probabilities $p(y|\mathbf{x})$ can be retrieved via Bayes' theorem, which serves as a supplementary guidance for the discriminative learning of downstream perception tasks. **Second**, to enable image generation informed by visual understanding, we propose a semantic-driven generation learning strategy to guide image synthesis with high-level semantics derived from perception tasks (Fig. 1(b)). It refines the reverse diffusion process by conditioning the noise distribution on semantic embeddings delivered by the perception branch, encouraging the generated images to faithfully reflect the desired content. **Finally**, GENREP fosters the iteratively mutual enhancement between visual perception and image generation through a joint optimization strategy, which aligns the gradient of the generation loss with the direction of the perception loss at each training step. This aims to harmonize the learned representations for both tasks, so as to deliver a single and cohesive model capable of effectively tackling both visual perception and generation.

By exploring the interplay between visual perception and generation, GENREP offers several compelling advantages over disjointed paradigms: **First**, unlike prior diffusion-based work (Zhu et al., 2024a; Xu et al., 2023; 2024) that often compromises the generation ability for visual understanding, our approach holds superior performance for both tasks. **Second**, it moves from purely deterministic modeling to joint discriminative and generative learning, thereby demonstrating notably low expected calibration errors and benefits perception under open-vocabulary scenarios. **Third**, through joint optimization and gradient alignment, a feedback loop is established, where the unique strengths of two learning paradigms can be leveraged to enhance each other. **Fourth**, the construction of a shared feature space for both perception and generation tasks facilitates the emergence of more robust and transferable representations, which improves the generalization across a variety of downstream tasks.

For thorough examination, we experiment GENREP on both visual perception and generation tasks. It consistently demonstrates remarkable performance across benchmarks, including **57.8** for out-of-the-distribution generalization on ObjectNet (Barbu et al., 2019), **92.9** for fine-grained classification on CUB-200 (Wah et al., 2011), **0.057** AbsRel for monocular depth estimation on NYUv2 (Silberman et al., 2012), **34.7/54.6** mIoU for open/close-set semantic segmentation on ADE-20K (Zhou et al., 2017), and **56.5/36.0** AP for open-vocabulary object detection on MS COCO (Lin et al., 2014)/LVIS v1.0 (Gupta et al., 2019), in leverage of advanced diffusion architectures such as CNN-based Latent Diffusion Models (LDM) (Rombach et al., 2022) and ViT-based Diffusion Transformers (DiT) (Peebles & Xie, 2023). Furthermore, GENREP improves the image generation quality, achieving top-leading performance on CelebA-HQ (Karras et al., 2017), LSUN-Churches (Yu et al., 2015), and ImageNet (Deng et al., 2009) under the class-conditioned setup.

2 RELATED WORK

Diffusion Models for Visual Perception. Work applying diffusion models for downstream perception tasks can be broadly classified into two categories. The first treats the prediction process as a denoising task, where noisy inputs are refined to recover clean ground truth. This paradigm contains noise-to-box for object/action detection (Chen et al., 2023b; Ho et al., 2023; Nag et al., 2023); noise-to-point for object tracking (Xie et al., 2024b) and pose estimation (Shan et al., 2023; Feng et al., 2023); and noise-to-map which directly synthesizes colorful masks for depth estimation (Ke et al., 2024), segmentation (Li et al., 2023b; Ji et al., 2023), and anomaly detection (Zhang et al., 2023b). On the other hand, recent research highlights that diffusion models undergoing large-scale pre-training

108 exhibit certain representation abilities, enabling them to extract meaningful features for downstream
 109 visual perception tasks (Zhao et al., 2023; Yang & Wang, 2023; Kondapaneni et al., 2024). On this
 110 basis, a significant trend has emerged, where the diffusion models are utilized as backbones for
 111 image classification (Clark & Jaini, 2023), image segmentation (Zhu et al., 2024a; Xu et al., 2023),
 112 3D Object Detection (Xu et al., 2024), human-object interaction detection (Li et al., 2024b), and
 113 referring video object segmentation (Zhu et al., 2024b). This also facilitates correspondence matching
 114 by calculating cosine similarity between diffusion features (Tang et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023a).
 115 Though demonstrating promising performance, these work often sacrifices the image generation
 116 capabilities of models. In contrast, our work seeks to enable both image generation and understanding
 117 within the same model, while the distribution knowledge is explicitly transferred from diffusion
 118 models to inform and guide the discriminative learning process.

119 **Joint Discriminative and Generative Learning.** Substantial research has emerged to combine the
 120 strengths of both discriminative and generative learning even before the deep learning era. To address
 121 the data-intensive and limited generalization inherent in purely discriminative methods, researchers
 122 incorporated generative techniques to manage noisy inputs (Jaakkola & Haussler, 1999) and unlabeled
 123 samples (Bernardo et al., 2007). Similarly, there are interests in the ‘discriminative training’ of
 124 generative models to mitigate mismatches between real and model-specified data distributions (Tu;
 125 Holub & Perona, 2005; Yakhnenko et al., 2005). More recently, complementary learning methods
 126 simultaneously learn data distributions leveraging advanced generative models, such as Generative
 127 Adversarial Networks (GANs) (Xu et al., 2020), Variational Autoencoders (VAEs) (Chen et al., 2023a;
 128 Kolesnikov et al., 2022), and Gaussian Mixture Models (GMMs) (Liang et al., 2022), resulting in
 129 generative classifiers for discriminative tasks. Additionally, generative models are trained to capture
 130 the distribution of known classes in open-vocabulary recognition which facilitates the recognition
 131 of novel classes (Perera et al., 2020), and tuning diffusion models with a discriminative adapter
 132 has proven effective in improving the alignment between text prompts and generated images (Qu
 133 et al., 2024). However, most existing work merely focuses on the one-direction enhancement,
 134 e.g., discriminative learning to improve image generation or generative learning to enhance visual
 135 perception. In contrast, GENREP builds a feedback loop to enable mutual boosts between generative
 136 and discriminative learning, while within a unified model.

137 **Unified Image Understanding and Synthesis.** In recent years, there has been a notable surge in
 138 integrating image comprehension and generation within the same model. The first research direction
 139 is built upon LLMs, and distinguishes itself by implementing image generation in an auto-regressive
 140 manner (Dong et al., 2024), delivering a Tokenizer-Detokenizer framework that enables token-by-
 141 token generation of multimodal outputs for synthesis and understanding tasks (Zhu et al., 2023; Ge
 142 et al., 2024; Fang et al., 2024; Li et al., 2024a; Wu et al., 2025). Another line of work utilizes diffusion
 143 models, which frames perception tasks as the generation of colorful maps (Qi et al., 2024; Wang et al.,
 144 2024; Yang et al., 2025) or text embeddings (Huang et al., 2023). Though retaining the generative
 145 capability, this kind of solution still falls in low-level reconstruction, lacking high-level modeling on
 146 semantics. A notable exception performs discriminative learning using features from diffusion models,
 147 and update the generative component in a mean teacher manner (Zheng et al., 2024). However, the
 148 image generation capability in this approach is primarily optimized for augmenting perception tasks,
 149 leaving its potential for general-purpose image synthesis largely unexplored. To overcome these
 150 limitations, GENREP respects and harnesses the unique characteristics of both paradigms. Specifically,
 151 it enhances representation learning for perception tasks with generative modeling to consummate the
 152 decision boundary, and uses high-level semantics obtained from discriminative learning to instruct
 153 the sampling stage (*i.e.*, reverse diffusion) of image synthesis.

3 METHODOLOGY

3.1 PRELIMINARY: DIFFUSION MODELS FOR VISUAL PERCEPTION

154 Empirical studies (Zhao et al., 2023; Yu et al., 2024) have demonstrated that features processed by
 155 latent diffusion models contain certain visual cues, which can be used to tackle complex perception
 156 tasks. Specifically, given an input sample x and its corresponding textual class label y , x is first
 157 encoded into the latent space using the encoder \mathcal{E} of a pre-trained generator (*i.e.*, VQGAN), yielding
 158 $\mathbf{z} = \mathcal{E}(x)$. After a single noise-free forward pass through the denoising network ϵ_θ with the encoded
 159 label $c_\theta(y)$ as the condition, we obtain $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{z}, 0, c_\theta(y))$ which extracts features distinctive for

162 the given class y . Following (Zhao et al., 2023), the extracted features are enhanced by aggregating
 163 intermediate outputs of four decoder blocks in ϵ_θ at different own-sampling factors with FPN(Lin et al.,
 164 2017), so as to deliver the final input representations for task-specific decoders. GENREP follows this
 165 pipeline to enable downstream visual perception, and further seeks to bridge the historically parallel
 166 image generation and understanding tasks, yielding a single model capable of addressing both tasks.
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168 **3.2 GENREP: RECONCILE VISUAL PERCEPTION AND IMAGE GENERATION**

170 In this section, we first detail how to distill knowledge of visual distributions from diffusion models to
 171 enhance discriminative visual perception, and then outline the perception-inspired image generation
 172 learning, emphasizing how gained insights from visual perception are utilized to improve generative
 173 capabilities. Finally, we address the reconciliation of these dual learning objectives, illustrating how
 174 GENREP yields a balanced and unified model proficient in both tasks.

175 **Generative Visual Perception Learning.** Assuming the diffusion models can capture visual distributions
 176 via generative modeling, the conditional distribution for sample \mathbf{x} (*i.e.*, $p(\mathbf{x}|y)$) can be derived
 177 with class label y as the conditional input. Since the exact computation of $p(\mathbf{x}|y)$ is intractable,
 178 we approximate it following the principle of **Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)** (Geyer, 1992).
 179 Specifically, we observe that during the reverse diffusion process, a sequence of intermediate states
 180 $\mathbf{x}_T \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_{T-1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_0$ naturally constitutes a non-stationary Markov chain(Norris, 1998). The
 181 transition kernel $p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t)$ at each step can be parameterized as:

$$p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}; \mu_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t), \sigma_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t)), \quad (1)$$

183 where \mathcal{N} is a Gaussian distribution, and $\mu_\theta, \sigma_\theta$ are networks parameterized by θ to predict the mean
 184 μ_t and variance σ_t for \mathcal{N} at time t . This structure is analogous to MCMC methods where samples
 185 are drawn from a sequence of transitions rather than independent draws from a static distribution.

186 However, leveraging the chain directly for approximation introduces two challenges: **i**) the initial
 187 states of the reverse chain correspond to nearly pure noise, which would degrade the approximation
 188 quality; and **ii**) samples drawn sequentially from a Markov chain are temporally correlated, which
 189 conflicts the independent assumption that strengthens Monte Carlo methods. To mitigate these issues,
 190 we adopt two techniques, known as **burn-in** and **thinning**, commonly used in MCMC(Link & Eaton,
 191 2012). For the **burn-in** period, we discard the first m uninformative steps of the chain. For **thinning**,
 192 we reduce the correlation by selecting samples at a fixed interval of k -th step. Empirical evaluations
 193 show that $k = 2$ provide a good trade-off between sample quality and quantity. Following the practice
 194 of MCMC, we then leverage the trajectory of a single reverse diffusion process to estimate $p(\mathbf{x}|y)$:

$$p(\mathbf{x}|y) \approx \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \mu_{t,y}, \sigma_{t,y}), \quad (2)$$

195 where T represents the total number of reverse diffusion steps after burn-in and thinning. This allows
 196 for a highly efficient estimation by avoiding the need to generate a large set of fully-denoised samples
 197 \mathbf{x}_0 (*i.e.*, massive full reverse diffusion runs) for each condition y , as required by standard Monte Carlo
 198 methods. The posterior distribution $p(y|\mathbf{x})$ is then computed substitute into the Bayes' theorem:

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(y)p(\mathbf{x}|y)}{\sum_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}} p(y')p(\mathbf{x}|y')}, \quad (3)$$

201 where $p(y) = 1/|\mathcal{Y}|$ is assumed to be uniformly distributed. This is a standard choice(Kingma et al.,
 202 2014; Tran et al., 2019) which creates a non-informative prior that allows the posterior distribution
 203 to be shaped primarily by the learned likelihood $p(\mathbf{x}|y)$, which contains the rich distributional
 204 knowledge we aim to distill. While (Li et al., 2023a) also uses diffusion models to estimate conditional
 205 distributions with Monte Carlo methods, it approximates $\log p(\mathbf{x}|y)$ by averaging the noise prediction
 206 error derived from the forward diffusion process. In contrast, this work directly approximates $p(\mathbf{x}|y)$
 207 by averaging Gaussian PDF values predicted during the reverse generative process (*i.e.*, Eq. 1).
 208 The motivation (*i.e.*, correct conditioning enjoying accurate noise prediction vs patterns of samples
 209 generated with the same conditions being consist), computational basis (*i.e.*, noise prediction error
 210 vs Gaussian probability densities), and diffusion process (*i.e.*, forward noising-adding vs reverse
 211 generation) are all different. Our approach requires significantly fewer diffusion steps (*i.e.*, 1000 vs
 212 200), and thus excels in computational efficiency.

213 To inform the discriminative perception process with distributional knowledge, we minimize the
 214 Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence between $p(y|\mathbf{x})$ computed by generative modeling and $q(y|\mathbf{x})$

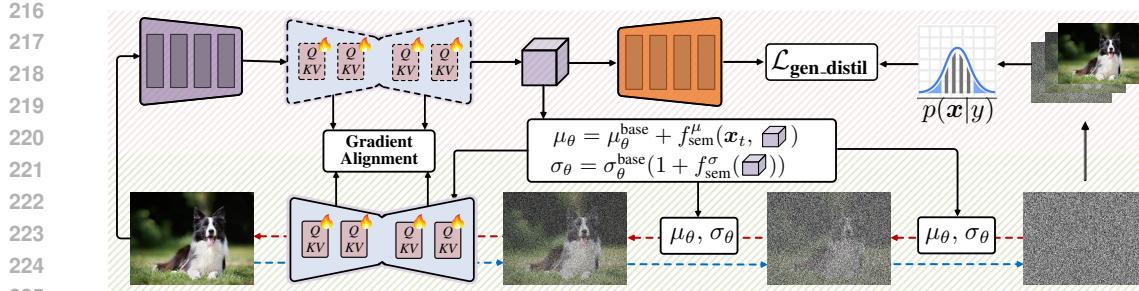


Figure 2: The overall pipeline of GenRep (§3.2). First, our proposed generative visual perception learning (*i.e.*, region on) transfers distribution knowledge from diffusion models, in leverage of intermediate denoised images as samples to approximate the conditional distribution (*i.e.*, $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y})$). Second, semantic-driven generation learning (*i.e.*, region on) utilizes the semantic embeddings (*i.e.*,) learned from visual perception tasks to guide the image generation process. Finally, gradients generated by these two type of losses are aligned via Eq. 16, to deliver a unified model that excels in both image generation and synthesis tasks.

obtained by applying the `softmax` operation to the output logits \mathbf{z} of task-specific decoders:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{gen.distil}} = D_{\text{KL}}(p||q) = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(y|\mathbf{x}) \log \frac{p(y|\mathbf{x})}{q(y|\mathbf{x})}. \quad (4)$$

The final objective combines $\mathcal{L}_{\text{gen.distil}}$ with the conventional discriminative loss $\mathcal{L}_{\text{disc}}$ for each perception task (*e.g.*, Cross Entropy loss for classification, Smooth ℓ_1 loss for bounding box regression):

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{disc}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{gen.distil}}. \quad (5)$$

Eq. 5 bridges the gap between generative and discriminative frameworks with $\mathcal{L}_{\text{gen.distil}}$ as a regularizer. **Unlike standard discriminative loss that encourages overconfident predictions, $\mathcal{L}_{\text{gen.distil}}$ leverages the generative likelihood to create a soft posterior that faithfully reflects ambiguity for similar classes.**

Semantic-Driven Generation Learning. To enhance image generation, we propose a semantic-aware noise adjustment strategy which leverages high-level semantics learned through visual perception. Assuming there is a well-trained denoising network optimized for visual perception (*i.e.*, $\mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}}$ in Eq. 5), the intermediate output representation which contains rich semantic cues is denoted as \mathbf{x}_{sem} . During the reverse diffusion process, the noise parameters (*i.e.*, mean μ_θ and variance σ_θ in Eq. 1) are dynamically modulated according to \mathbf{x}_{sem} . Specifically, the prediction for μ_θ is augmented as:

$$\mu_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t, \mathbf{x}_{\text{sem}}) = \mu_\theta^{\text{base}}(\mathbf{x}_t, t) + f_{\text{sem}}^\mu(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_{\text{sem}}), \quad (6)$$

where $\mu_\theta^{\text{base}}(\mathbf{x}_t, t)$ is the baseline mean value predicted by the underlying diffusion model at time step t and f_{sem}^μ is a semantic correction function implemented as:

$$f_{\text{sem}}^\mu(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_{\text{sem}}) = \mathbf{W}_t^\mu \cdot \text{concat}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_{\text{sem}}), \quad (7)$$

with \mathbf{W}_t^μ being a learned weight matrix. Conceptually, μ_θ determines the primary denoising direction, and adjusts it by steering the denoising trajectory towards the desired semantic target encoded in \mathbf{x}_{sem} . On the other hand, the variance σ_θ controls the uncertainty of reverse diffusion. Dynamically modulating σ_θ allows the model to adaptively control the influence of semantic guidance. The variance prediction network is correspondingly augmented as:

$$\sigma_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t, \mathbf{x}_{\text{sem}}) = \sigma_\theta^{\text{base}}(\mathbf{x}_t, t) \cdot (1 + f_{\text{sem}}^\sigma(\mathbf{x}_{\text{sem}})), \quad (8)$$

where $\sigma_\theta^{\text{base}}(\mathbf{x}_t, t)$ is the baseline variance predicted following the pipeline of improved DDPM(Nichol & Dhariwal, 2021), and $f_{\text{sem}}^\sigma(\mathbf{x}_{\text{sem}})$ is a semantic scaling factor computed as:

$$f_{\text{sem}}^\sigma(\mathbf{x}_{\text{sem}}) = \text{MLP}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{sem}}), \quad (9)$$

where MLP maps the semantic embedding to a scalar. Intuitively, a positive $f_{\text{sem}}^\sigma(\mathbf{x}_{\text{sem}})$ increases variance, encouraging broader exploration towards the semantic target when the current sample is far. Conversely, a negative value reduces variance, promoting finer refinement near the target semantics. The overall training objective combines the standard reconstruction loss for latent diffusion models (*i.e.*, \mathcal{L}_{LDM}) and the representation alignment loss (*i.e.*, $\mathcal{L}_{\text{rep.align}}$):

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{LDM}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{rep.align}}, \quad (10)$$

270 where $\mathcal{L}_{\text{rep-align}}$ minimizes the cosine similarity between \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{x}_{sem} as in (Yu et al., 2024). During
 271 inference, the explicit semantic representation \mathbf{x}_{sem} in Eq.6 and Eq.8 can be directly replaced with the
 272 current noisy sample \mathbf{x}_t , as the enhanced denoising network has already learned to capture necessary
 273 semantic cues with the knowledge preserved in model weights.

274 **Gradient Alignment for Weight Merge.** To reconcile the optimization of visual perception loss
 275 (*i.e.*, $\mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}}$ in Eq. 5) and image generation loss (*i.e.*, $\mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}}$ in Eq. 10) within a single model, a
 276 gradient alignment mechanism is introduced to address potential conflicts between the two training
 277 objectives by symmetrically modifying their respective gradients according to the severity of the
 278 conflict. Let $\nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}}$ and $\nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}}$ denote the gradients derived from $\mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}}$ and $\mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}}$, respectively.
 279 We decompose each gradient into components parallel and orthogonal to the other gradient:

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}}^{\parallel} = \frac{\nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}} \cdot \nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}}}{\|\nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}}\|^2} \nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}}, \quad \nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}}^{\perp} = \nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}} - \nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}}^{\parallel}, \quad (11)$$

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}}^{\parallel} = \frac{\nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}} \cdot \nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}}}{\|\nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}}\|^2} \nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}}, \quad \nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}}^{\perp} = \nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}} - \nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}}^{\parallel}. \quad (12)$$

285 Here the parallel components capture movements in the same or opposite gradient directions of two
 286 tasks, while the orthogonal components are gradient directions that do not affect the objective of the
 287 other task (Farajtabar et al., 2020). The aligned gradients for both tasks are then reconstructed as:
 288

$$\nabla_{\text{genera}}^{\text{aligned}} = \nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}}^{\perp} + \alpha \nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}}^{\parallel}, \quad (13)$$

$$\nabla_{\text{percept}}^{\text{aligned}} = \nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}}^{\perp} + \alpha \nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}}^{\parallel}. \quad (14)$$

292 This approach selectively dampens gradient components parallel to the other, while fully preserving
 293 the orthogonal ones. Consequently, non-conflicting information is retained, and interference is
 294 smoothly reduced based on the conflict level. Here α is a adaptive retention factor governing the
 295 damping and defined according to the cosine similarity between two original gradients:

$$\text{cos_sim} = \frac{\nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}} \cdot \nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}}}{\|\nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}}\| \|\nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}}\|}. \quad (15)$$

299 We want $\alpha = 1$ when $\text{cos_sim} = 1$ (no damping needed) and α to decrease towards 0 as $\text{cos_sim} \rightarrow$
 300 -1 (maximum damping). A simple and effective formulation is the scaled and shifted power function:
 301 $\alpha = ((\text{cos_sim} + 1)/2)^k$. Here, $k = 2$ is a hyperparameter controlling the sharpness of the damping.
 302 The final gradients used for the model update are a weighted sum of aligned gradients:

$$\nabla_{\text{symmetric}}^{\text{aligned}} = w_p \nabla_{\text{percept}}^{\text{aligned}} + w_g \nabla_{\text{genera}}^{\text{aligned}}, \quad (16)$$

305 where $w_p = 0.7$ and $w_g = 0.3$ scale task weights. As such, GENREP effectively manages gradient
 306 conflicts during joint learning, and encourages balanced optimization across two objectives.
 307

3.3 IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

310 **Network Architecture.** GENREP is built upon LDM-8 (Rombach et al., 2022)/DiT-XL (Peebles &
 311 Xie, 2023) with 200/250 DDPM steps during inference. To ensure fair comparisons with existing
 312 work, the diffusion model is initialized with weights pretrained on ImageNet (Deng et al., 2009)
 313 and the LAION dataset (Schuhmann et al., 2022; 2021), respectively. This facilitates comparison
 314 against conventional *discriminative-based perception models* pretrained on ImageNet-1K, and other
 315 *diffusion-based perception approaches* pretrained on large-scale image-text pairs. Task-specific
 316 decoders are designed following representative work with details provided in *Appendix*.

317 **Training Strategy.** GENREP is first optimized with solely task-specific perception loss ($\mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}}$, Eq.5),
 318 yielding in denoising network $\epsilon_{\theta}^{\text{sem}}$ which encodes high-level semantic cues into the intermediate
 319 output \mathbf{x}_t (resulting in \mathbf{x}_{sem}). Subsequently, the images generation loss ($\mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}}$, Eq. 10) steps in. A
 320 new denoising network $\epsilon_{\theta}^{\text{unified}}$ copied from $\epsilon_{\theta}^{\text{sem}}$ is optimized where at each training step:

- 321 • Gradients for both $\mathcal{L}_{\text{percept}}$ and $\mathcal{L}_{\text{genera}}$ are computed using the same input image;
- 322 • Gradients are aligned according to Eq. 16 to update weights of attention blocks in $\epsilon_{\theta}^{\text{unified}}$;
- 323 • Parameters of $\epsilon_{\theta}^{\text{sem}}$ are updated in a momentum manner: $\theta^{\text{sem}} \leftarrow m\theta^{\text{sem}} + (1 - m)\theta^{\text{unified}}$ with
 $m = 0.999$. This maintains stable semantic features \mathbf{x}_{sem} for image generation learning.

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Table 1: Quantitative results for fine-grained bird classification on CUB-200(Wah et al., 2011) `test` and OOD generalization on ObjectNet(Barbu et al., 2019) `test`.

| Model | Pre-Training | CUB-200 | ObjectNet |
|------------------------------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|
| ResNet-50 (He et al., 2016) | ImageNet | 84.5 | 37.2 |
| Swin-S (Liu et al., 2021) | ImageNet | 88.2 | 38.9 |
| ConvNeXt-S (Liu et al., 2022) | ImageNet | 88.5 | 39.5 |
| HorNet-S (Rao et al., 2022) | ImageNet | 89.1 | 39.3 |
| GENREP_{LDM} | ImageNet | 90.5 | 51.1 |
| Swin-B (Liu et al., 2021) | ImageNet | 90.6 | 40.3 |
| ConvNeXt-B (Liu et al., 2022) | ImageNet | 90.9 | 40.9 |
| HorNet-B (Rao et al., 2022) | ImageNet | 91.2 | 40.6 |
| GENREP_{DT} | ImageNet | 92.1 | 54.7 |
| Clark et al. (Clark & Jaini, 2023) | LAION-5B | 91.5 | 49.4 |
| Li et al. (Li et al., 2023a) | LAION-5B | 91.8 | 52.5 |
| GENREP_{LDM} | LAION-5B | 92.9 | 57.8 |

4 EXPERIMENT

Datasets. The experiments are conducted on nine datasets. Concretely, CUB-200 (Wah et al., 2011) for fine-grained bird classification, ObjectNet(Barbu et al., 2019) for out-of-the-distribution generation, NYUv2(Silberman et al., 2012) for depth estimation, ADE20K(Zhou et al., 2017) for open/close set semantic segmentation, MS COCO(Lin et al., 2014) and LVIS v1.0(Gupta et al., 2019) for open-vocabulary object detection, ImageNet(Deng et al., 2009), CelebA-HQ(Karras et al., 2017), and LSUN-Churches(Yu et al., 2015) for image generation. Details are provided in *Appendix*.

Evaluation Metrics. For fine-grained classification on CUB-200 and out-of-the-distribution generalization on ObjectNet, we report the top-1 accuracy. For depth estimation, following (Li et al., 2024c), we report the accuracy under the threshold ($\delta_i < 1.25^i$, $i = 1, 3$) and mean absolute relative error (AbsRel). For close-set and open-vocabulary semantic segmentation, following (Xu et al., 2022a; Cho et al., 2024), GENREP is trained on the training set of ADE20K and COCO Stuff, respectively. The evaluation is conducted on the validation set of ADE20K with the mIoU score reported. For open-vocabulary object detection, consistent with prior work (Zang et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2023a), we report the AP₅₀ score for base, novel, and all classes, denoted as AP₅₀^b, AP₅₀ⁿ, AP₅₀ on MS COCO, AP_r, AP_c, AP_f, and AP for rare (novel), common, frequent, and all categories on LVIS. For image generation, following (Rombach et al., 2022), we report the FID, IS, precision, and recall scores.

Training. For visual classification, we use standard data augmentation techniques, including random cropping and horizontal flipping during training to enhance generalization. The AdamW optimizer with a learning rate of $1e^{-3}$ and a weight decay of 0.05 is adopted. The batch size is set to 256 with 50 epochs training. For depth estimation, following (Li et al., 2024c), we train the model for 40K steps with a batch size of 16, and use the Adam optimizer with a learning rate of $1e^{-4}$ and a weight decay of $5e^{-2}$. For semantic segmentation, following (Cheng et al., 2022; Xie et al., 2024a), the model is optimized with AdamW using a learning rate of $2e^{-4}$ and a weight decay of $1e^{-4}$ for 80K iterations on COCO Stuff for open-vocabulary, and 160K iterations on ADE20K for close-set. Input images are cropped to the 768×768 pixels. For open-vocabulary object detection, following (Zhao et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024), we train GENREP for 40K steps on MS COCO and 80K steps on LVIS v1.0 with a batch size of 16, and adopt the Adam optimizer with a learning rate of $2e^{-3}$ and a weight decay of $1e^{-4}$. Given the simultaneous training of both perception and generation in GENREP, the training procedure for image synthesis is aligned with perception tasks.

4.1 COMPARISON WITH STATE-OF-THE-ARTS

Visual Recognition. As shown in Table 1, benefited from the low-level modeling ability of diffusion models, GENREP yields remarkable performance on the bird classification task which prioritizes fine-grained cues. Furthermore, the knowledge transfer from diffusion models allows GENREP to achieve a top-1 accuracy of **54.7%/57.8%** for out-of-distribution generalization on ObjectNet, surpassing prior diffusion-based methods(Clark & Jaini, 2023; Li et al., 2023a) by **8.4%/5.3%**.

Depth Estimation. For depth estimation, as shown in Table 2, GENREP achieves an impressive score of **0.064** in term of AbsRel. This verifies our core design to conduct both generative and discriminative learning. Moreover, after initializing weights from Stable Diffusion pretraining on LAION-5B(Schuhmann et al., 2022), GENREP achieves comparable performance to DepthAnything(Yang et al., 2024) which is pretrained on 1.5M labeled and 62M unlabeled depth samples.

Table 2: Quantitative results for monocular depth estimation on NYUv2(Silberman et al., 2012) `val`.

| Model | Pre-Training | $\delta_1 \uparrow$ | $\delta_3 \uparrow$ | AbsRel \downarrow |
|----------------------------------|--------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| BTS(Lee et al., 2019) | ImageNet | 0.882 | 0.996 | 0.108 |
| P3Depth(Patil et al., 2022) | ImageNet | 0.898 | 0.996 | 0.104 |
| TransDepth(Zhao et al., 2021) | ImageNet | 0.900 | 0.996 | 0.106 |
| AdaBins(Bhat et al., 2021) | ImageNet | 0.903 | 0.997 | 0.103 |
| DPT(Ranftl et al., 2021) | ImageNet | 0.904 | 0.998 | 0.110 |
| BinsFormer(Li et al., 2024c) | ImageNet | 0.925 | 0.997 | 0.094 |
| ZoeDepth(Bhat et al., 2023) | ImageNet | 0.951 | 0.999 | 0.077 |
| GENREP_{LDM} | ImageNet | 0.964 | 0.999 | 0.070 |
| GENREP_{DT} | ImageNet | 0.968 | 0.999 | 0.064 |
| VPD(Zhao et al., 2023) | LAION-5B | 0.964 | 0.999 | 0.069 |
| ECoDepth(Patni et al., 2024) | LAION-5B | 0.978 | 0.997 | 0.059 |
| DepthAnything(Yang et al., 2024) | 62M Depth | 0.984 | 1.000 | 0.056 |
| GENREP_{LDM} | LAION-5B | 0.982 | 1.000 | 0.057 |

378
379 Table 3: Quantitative results for closed-set semantic
380 segmentation on ADE20K(Zhou et al., 2017) val.

| Model | Pre-Training | Backbone | mIoU \uparrow |
|----------------------------------|--------------|------------|-----------------|
| DeepLabV3+ (Chen et al., 2018) | ImageNet | ResNet-101 | 45.5 |
| OCRNet (Yuan et al., 2020) | ImageNet | HRNet-W48 | 45.7 |
| UperNet (Xiao et al., 2018) | ImageNet | Swin-S | 47.7 |
| SegMentor (Strudel et al., 2021) | ImageNet | DeiT-B | 47.1 |
| K-Net (Zhang et al., 2021) | ImageNet | Swin-S | 49.7 |
| SegFormer (Xie et al., 2021) | ImageNet | MiT-B5 | 50.0 |
| Mask2Former (Cheng et al., 2022) | ImageNet | Swin-S | 51.3 |
| GENREP | ImageNet | LDM | 52.2 |
| GENREP | ImageNet | DiT | 52.8 |
| SDN (Tan et al., 2022) | LAION-5B | LDM | 51.1 |
| VPD (Zhao et al., 2023) | LAION-5B | LDM | 53.7 |
| GENREP | LAION-5B | LDM | 54.6 |

378
379 Table 4: Quantitative results for open-vocabulary semantic
380 segmentation on ADE20K(Zhou et al., 2017) val.

| Model | Pre-Training | Backbone | mIoU \uparrow |
|--------------------------------|--------------|------------|-----------------|
| GroupViT (Xu et al., 2022a) | ImageNet | ViT-S | 10.6 |
| ZegFormer (Ding et al., 2022) | ImageNet | ViT-B | 18.0 |
| SimBaseline (Xu et al., 2022b) | ImageNet | ViT-B | 20.5 |
| PACL (Mukhoti et al., 2023) | ImageNet | ViT-B | 31.4 |
| OVSeg (Liang et al., 2023) | ImageNet | ViT-B | 24.8 |
| CAT-Seg (Cho et al., 2024) | ImageNet | ViT-B | 27.2 |
| SED (Xie et al., 2024a) | ImageNet | ConvNeXt-B | 31.6 |
| GENREP | ImageNet | LDM | 32.3 |
| GENREP | ImageNet | DiT | 34.1 |
| OVDiff (Karazija et al., 2024) | LAION-5B | LDM | 14.1 |
| ODISE (Xu et al., 2023) | LAION-5B | LDM | 28.7 |
| GENREP | LAION-5B | LDM | 34.7 |

380
381 Table 5: Open-vocabulary detection on MS COCO(Lin et al., 2014) and LViS v1.0(Gupta et al., 2019) val.

| Model | Visual-Linguistic Models | MS COCO | | | LViS v1.0 | | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|---------------|
| | | AP ₅₀ \uparrow | AP ₅₀ \uparrow | AP ₅₀ \uparrow | AP _r \uparrow | AP _c \uparrow | AP _f \uparrow | AP \uparrow |
| ViLD(Gu et al., 2022) | CLIP | 27.6 | 59.9 | 51.2 | 16.1 | 20.0 | 28.3 | 22.5 |
| OV-DETR(Zang et al., 2022) | CLIP | 29.4 | 61.0 | 52.7 | 17.4 | 25.0 | 32.5 | 26.6 |
| OADP(Wang et al., 2023) | CLIP | 35.6 | 55.8 | 50.5 | 19.9 | 26.0 | 28.7 | 26.0 |
| BARON(Wu et al., 2023a) | CLIP | 34.0 | 60.4 | 53.5 | 23.2 | 29.3 | 32.5 | 29.5 |
| CORA(Wu et al., 2023b) | CLIP | 35.1 | 35.5 | 35.4 | 28.1 | - | - | - |
| BIND(Zhang et al., 2024) | CLIP | 36.3 | 54.7 | 50.2 | 29.4 | 30.6 | 33.5 | 31.4 |
| SAS-Det(Zhao et al., 2024) | CLIP | 37.4 | 58.5 | 53.0 | 29.1 | 32.4 | 36.8 | 33.5 |
| GENREP | LDM | 41.8 | 60.8 | 55.1 | 30.5 | 33.3 | 35.8 | 34.8 |
| GENREP | DiT | 43.4 | 61.5 | 56.5 | 31.6 | 33.7 | 37.3 | 36.0 |

382
383 Table 6: Quantitative results for class-conditional image
384 generation on ImageNet(Deng et al., 2009) 256×256.

| Model | FID \downarrow | IS \uparrow | Precision \uparrow | Recall \uparrow |
|-------------------------------|------------------|---------------|----------------------|-------------------|
| BigGAN(Brock et al., 2018) | 6.95 | 171.4 | 0.87 | 0.28 |
| StyleGAN(Karras et al., 2021) | 2.30 | 265.1 | 0.78 | 0.53 |
| ADM(Dhariwal & Nichol, 2021) | 4.59 | 186.7 | 0.82 | 0.52 |
| CDM(Ho et al., 2022) | 4.88 | 158.7 | - | - |
| RIN(Jabri et al., 2023) | 3.42 | 182.0 | - | - |
| VDM++(Kingma & Gao, 2023) | 2.12 | 267.7 | - | - |
| LDM-8(Rombach et al., 2022) | 7.77 | 201.6 | 0.84 | 0.35 |
| +GENREP | 6.92 | 213.7 | 0.89 | 0.44 |
| DiffXL(Peebles & Xie, 2023) | 2.27 | 278.2 | 0.83 | 0.57 |
| +GENREP | 2.09 | 283.8 | 0.88 | 0.58 |

385
386 Table 7: Quantitative results for image generation on
387 CelebA-HQ and LSUN-Churches 256×256.

| Model | FID \downarrow | Precision \uparrow | Recall \uparrow |
|-------------------------------|------------------|----------------------|-------------------|
| CelebA-HQ | | | |
| PGGAN(Karras et al., 2017) | 8.0 | - | - |
| UDM(Meng et al., 2022) | 7.16 | - | - |
| LDM-4(Rombach et al., 2022) | 5.11 | 0.72 | 0.49 |
| +GENREP | 3.84 | 0.78 | 0.54 |
| LSUN-Churches | | | |
| PGGAN(Karras et al., 2017) | 6.42 | - | - |
| StyleGAN(Karras et al., 2019) | 4.21 | - | - |
| LDM-8(Rombach et al., 2022) | 4.02 | 0.64 | 0.52 |
| +GENREP | 3.12 | 0.69 | 0.58 |

408
409 **Semantic Segmentation.** A detailed comparison of GENREP against top-leading approaches for
410 semantic segmentation is provided in Tables 3-4. Built upon LDM(Rombach et al., 2022), GEN-
411 REP achieves a **52.2%/54.6%** mIoU for close-set semantic segmentation on ADE20K, beating all
412 competitors. Moreover, for open-vocabulary semantic segmentation, our method delivers a **6.0%**
413 gain over ODISE (Xu et al., 2023). Leveraging DiT(Peebles & Xie, 2023) as the backbone observes
414 similar trends, and builds new SOTAs on two setups.

415
416 **Object Detection.** As shown in Table 5, GENREP demonstrates remarkable accuracy over existing
417 work for open-vocabulary object detection on MS COCO (e.g., **41.8%** v.s. 37.4% in terms of AP₅₀ \uparrow),
418 and LViS v1.0 (e.g., **30.5%** v.s. 29.1% in terms of AP_r). When using the Transformer-based diffusion
419 models (i.e., DiT(Peebles & Xie, 2023)), the performance boosts to **43.4%** AP₅₀ \uparrow and **31.6%** AP_r.

420
421 **Image Generation.** Image generation results on ImageNet(Deng et al., 2009), CelebA-HQ(Karras
422 et al., 2017), and LSUN-Churches(Yu et al., 2015) are presented in Tables 6-7. As seen, GENREP
423 boosts the performance to new SOTAs across metrics, proving the effectiveness of the overall design.

4.2 QUALITATIVE RESULTS

424
425 Fig.3 presents visualization results for visual perception on ADE20K, NYUv2, MS COCO, and for
426 image generation on ImageNet, CelebA-HQ, LSUN-Churches. It can be observed that GENREP
427 could effectively handle challenging scenarios, while synthesizing high-quality images.

4.3 DIAGNOSTIC EXPERIMENTS

428
429 For in-depth analysis, we conduct ablation studies with LDM(Rombach et al., 2022) as the denoising
430 network. Unless otherwise specified, all experiments use GENREP_{LDM} pretrained on ImageNet.



Figure 3: Visualization results for image understanding on ADE20K(Zhou et al., 2017), NYUv2(Silberman et al., 2012), MS COCO(Lin et al., 2014), and for image generation on ImageNet(Deng et al., 2009), LSUN-Churches(Yu et al., 2015).

Table 8: Analysis of essential components in GENREP.

| Generative Vis. | Semantic-Dri. | Gradient | Top-1↑ mIoU↑ FID↓ |
|-----------------|---------------|----------|-------------------------------------|
| Perception | Generation | Align. | |
| | | | 45.4 27.8 13.27 |
| ✓ | | | 47.8 30.9 12.96 |
| | ✓ | | 44.1 25.6 7.45 |
| ✓ | ✓ | | 49.4 31.5 7.23 |
| ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | 51.1 32.5 6.92 |

Table 9: Analysis of the thinning interval k .

| Interval k | ObjectNet | CUB-200 | ADE20K | MS COCO |
|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| 1 | 50.3 | 89.2 | 30.7 | 53.5 |
| 2 | 51.1 | 90.5 | 32.5 | 55.1 |
| 3 | 51.3 | 90.7 | 31.8 | 54.6 |
| 4 | 50.5 | 90.3 | 31.5 | 53.5 |
| 5 | 48.9 | 90.0 | 30.9 | 52.2 |

Table 10: Analysis of burn-in sample number m .

| m | 25 | 50 | 75 | 100 | 125 |
|-----------|------|-------------|------|------|------|
| ObjectNet | 50.4 | 51.1 | 50.2 | 48.8 | 47.6 |
| ADE20K | 32.3 | 32.5 | 32.1 | 31.3 | 29.2 |

Key Component Analysis. We investigate the essential designs of GENREP, *i.e.*, generative visual perception learning, semantic-driven generation learning, and gradient alignment for weight merge in §3.2 in Table 8. First, our generative visual perception learning strategy proves to be broadly effective across visual perception tasks, yielding notable performance improvements. Second, with semantic-driven generation learning, GENREP delivers promising gains for the image generation task. Third, after combining them (*i.e.*, row #3), both image generation and understanding tasks enjoy further boosts, which reveals a positive feedback loop is established. Finally, with gradient alignment to unify the optimization direction, GENREP achieves the best performance on all three datasets.

Thinning Interval. We analyze the impact of varying thinning intervals k for MCMC approximation in Table 9. As seen, setting $k = 1$, *i.e.*, using all intermediate samples for approximation yields a moderate improvement over the baseline (row #1 in Table 8). When $k = 2$, GENREP enjoys large performance gain. However, further increasing k leads to a decline in performance. **This is because a larger k reduces the number of available samples and leads to a high-variance distributional estimate**, indicating the trade-off between inference efficiency with fewer samples and approximation accuracy.

Burn-in Phase. We examines the impact of discarding first m samples during reverse diffusion that are heavily noised (*i.e.*, the burn-in strategy in standard MCMC) in Table 10, with the thinning interval $k = 2$. Empirically, we find that $m = 50$ provides a favorable balance, which removes sufficiently noisy initial samples while retaining enough samples to support reliable estimation.

Confidence Calibration. We evaluate the expected calibration error (ECE) for predictions output by discriminative visual perception heads. ECE quantifies the alignment between predicted probabilities and the true likelihood of outcomes, serving as a crucial metric for assessing model reliability. As shown in Table 11, the incorporation of generative distillation loss (*i.e.*, $\mathcal{L}_{\text{gen.distil}}$ in Eq.4) leads to a substantial reduction in ECE. This also indicates distribution knowledge in diffusion models can be effectively transferred with $\mathcal{L}_{\text{gen.distil}}$ to improve the reliability of discriminative models.

Table 11: Analysis of expected calibration error (ECE).

| $\mathcal{L}_{\text{gen.distil}}$ | ObjectNet | CUB-200 | ADE20K | MS COCO |
|-----------------------------------|-----------|---------|--------|---------|
| | 0.237 | 0.095 | 0.484 | 0.382 |
| ✓ | 0.208 | 0.076 | 0.425 | 0.343 |

Table 12: Strategies for semantic-driven generation.

| Noise Adjust. | $\mathcal{L}_{\text{rep.align}}$ | Top-1↑ | mIoU↑ | FID↓ |
|---------------|----------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| ✓ | | 49.6 | 30.9 | 7.16 |
| | ✓ | 50.3 | 31.5 | 7.38 |
| ✓ | ✓ | 51.1 | 32.5 | 6.92 |

Table 13: Analysis of directions for gradient alignment.

| Gradient Align. | Top-1↑ | mIoU↑ | FID↓ |
|--|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| $\nabla_{\text{genera}}^{\text{aligned}}$ in Eq. 13 | 48.7 | 30.3 | 6.79 |
| $\nabla_{\text{symmetric}}^{\text{aligned}}$ in Eq. 16 | 50.1 | 32.5 | 6.92 |

Table 14: Analysis of feature robustness on ObjectNet.

| Model | t=0 (Clean) | t=10 | t=20 | t=50 |
|------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Swin-Transformer | 40.3 | 23.1 | 11.5 | 4.6 |
| GENREP | 51.1 | 48.7 | 44.5 | 37.2 |

486 Table 15: Runtime comparison of closed-set semantic segmentation models on ADE20K val.
487

| Method | Backbone | Trainable Params (M) | Training Time (GPU Hours) | Inference Speed (FPS) | mIoU |
|---------------------------------|------------|----------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|-------------|
| DeepLabV3+(Chen et al., 2018) | ResNet-101 | 63 | 83 | 14.2 | 45.5 |
| SETR(Zheng et al., 2021) | ViT-L | 308 | 623 | 9.7 | 46.2 |
| UperNet(Xiao et al., 2018) | Swin-S | 81 | 104 | 15.2 | 47.7 |
| MaskFormer(Cheng et al., 2021) | Swin-S | 63 | 53 | 19.6 | 49.8 |
| GENREP (perception only) | LDM | 54 | 79 | 12.6 | 49.3 |
| GENREP | LDM | 54 | 87 | 12.6 | 52.2 |

495
496 **Semantic-Driven Generation.** We examine the impact of semantic-aware noise adjustment and
497 representation alignment (*i.e.*, $\mathcal{L}_{\text{rep.align}}$) in Table 12. The results demonstrate that both techniques
498 independently contribute to improved generation quality. After combining them together, the FID
499 score shows a significant improvement, highlighting the complementary nature of these two designs.

500 **Gradient Alignment.** We probe different gradient alignment strategies in Table 13. As seen, while
501 projecting perception loss in the direction of generation loss (*i.e.*, $\nabla_{\text{percept}}^{\text{aligned}}$) obtains better image
502 generation performance, there is a significant drop in perception performance. After balancing the
503 trading off, we adopt a symmetric strategy which treats both tasks equally during conflict resolution
504 (*i.e.*, $\nabla \mathcal{L}_{\text{symmetric}}^{\text{aligned}}$) and performs better in perception tasks while maintaining good generation quality.

505 **Representation Robustness.** To probe whether GENREP preserves good representation capabilities
506 under noisy inputs, we provide it with latents corrupted by $t = 10$, $t = 20$, and $t = 50$ forward
507 diffusion steps. The results summarized in Table 14 offer empirical evidence for the robustness of
508 learned representations, which stems directly from our model design. The perception module uses the
509 denoising network as the backbone, which is trained to extract semantic structure from noisy input,
510 and remains effective when operating on corrupted latents. Furthermore, the conditional distribution
511 $p(x|y)$ for knowledge distillation aggregates noised states throughout the reverse diffusion. This
512 encourages the model to learn noise-tolerant features that are predictive of the correct semantic labels.

513 4.4 RUNTIME ANALYSIS

515 We present a detailed runtime analysis in Table 15. It is important to emphasize that GENREP is
516 designed as a truly unified model that simultaneously masters visual perception and image generation
517 within a single training process. The competitors, in contrast, are optimized exclusively for segmentation.
518 From this unified perspective, the efficiency of GENREP is remarkable. With a total training
519 cost of 87 GPU hours, it not only learns a strong image generator but also delivers a SOTA perception
520 model that achieves 52.2% mIoU, surpassing all listed specialist models. To further isolate the cost of
521 our proposed generative distillation, we compare the full GENREP to a perception-only variant that
522 removes the MCMC-based approximation. As seen, the full model incurs a modest 10.1% increase in
523 training time, yet elevates mIoU by a significant of 2.9 points.

525 5 CONCLUSION

527 In this work, we reconcile visual perception and image generation within a unified model, termed
528 GENREP. This leads to joint discriminative and generative learning, where the unique properties
529 of both paradigms are preserved and utilized to enhance each other. To achieve an optimal state
530 for both image understanding and synthesis tasks, a gradient alignment strategy is proposed to
531 pull close the weights optimized for two tasks. Empirical results suggest that GENREP achieves
532 superior performance on six perception benchmarks, and greatly improves the image generation
533 ability. **Beyond the strong empirical results, our framework naturally inherits the flexible multimodal**
534 **conditioning capabilities from LDM.** This positions GENREP as a promising foundation to reconcile
535 **multimodal understanding and generation in one unified model, a key direction for future work.**

536 **Ethics Statement.** This paper explores the reconciliation of visual perception and generation in
537 diffusion models. It does not introduce new ethical concerns beyond those well established in the
538 community. We do not identify any specific risks that warrant ethical review. For the potential misuse
539 in deepfake generation, we encourage responsible deployment and support discussions on policy and
regulatory frameworks to ensure the ethical application of generative models.

540 **Reproducibility.** GENREP is implemented in PyTorch and trained on four Tesla A100 GPUs. Testing
 541 is carried on the same machine. Our code shall be released after acceptance.
 542

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864 **A APPENDIX**
865866 **A.1 DECLARATION OF LLM USAGE**
867868 The LLM was used solely for grammar checking and did not contribute to the core methodological
869 design or the originality of the research.
870871 **A.2 LIMITATIONS**
872873 One potential limitation of GENREP is its computational cost, which introduces a trade-off between
874 model performance and inference efficiency. Our reliance on a diffusion model backbone results in a
875 lower inference speed compared to highly specialized perception architectures. As detailed in Table
876 15, GENREP operates at 12.6 FPS for semantic segmentation, whereas models like MaskFormer
877 achieves 19.6 FPS and DeepLabV3+ achieves 14.2 FPS. This may constrain the usage of GENREP
878 in latency-sensitive applications, such as real-time analysis or autonomous systems. This trade-off
879 is motivated by the substantial benefits our unified approach provides, including a 2.3% mIoU
880 improvement over MaskFormer and, crucially, stronger generalization to out-of-distribution data. Our
881 work aligns with the growing trend of using large-scale generative models to unlock new capabilities
882 in visual understanding, which often involves an initial focus on performance over efficiency. We
883 consider the optimization of unified models a vital direction for future research. Promising avenues
884 include knowledge distillation to yield lightweight architectures, developing more efficient diffusion
885 sampling techniques tailored for perception, and model quantization. Bridging this efficiency gap will
886 benefit the deployment of powerful unified perception and generation models in practical scenarios.
887888 Furthermore, in diffusion models, the mean of the data distribution is far more dominant than the
889 variance (Nichol & Dhariwal, 2021). Consequently, the learned variance can be less precise. Our
890 method mitigates this by considering $p(x|y)$ as a regularizer for the discriminative task, rather than
891 to obtain an exact posterior. Therefore, even the approximate dominated by an accurate mean, it can
892 still offer a smoother and richer supervisory signal than relying solely on a one-hot label.
893894 **A.3 DATASET**
895896

- **CUB-200** Wah et al. (2011) is a widely-used fine-grained dataset for bird species classification. It
897 comprises 200 bird species with 5,994/5,749 samples for training/testing.
- **ObjectNet** Barbu et al. (2019) is a challenging dataset designed to evaluate object recognition
898 robustness in real-world scenarios. It contains 50,000 images of 313 classes for out-of-the-
899 distribution evaluation.
- **ADE20K** Zhou et al. (2017) is a densely annotated scene parsing dataset for the semantic seg-
900 mentation task. It contains 20,210/2,000 images divided into 150 object and stuff categories for
901 training/validation.
- **MS COCO** Lin et al. (2014) is a large-scale dataset contains 80 object categories with pixel-
902 wise and bounding box annotations. It contains 118,287 and 5,000 images used for training and
903 validation. For open-vocabulary detection, following Gu et al. (2022), the object categories is split
904 into 48 base and 17 novel.
- **LVIS v1.0** Gupta et al. (2019) is a long-tail distribution benchmark containing
905 100,000/19,800/20,000 for train/val/test. Following prior work for open-vocabulary
906 object detection Gu et al. (2022), the model is trained on 461 common and 405 frequent classes.
907 The rest 337 rare classes are considered as novel and used for testing.
- **NYUv2** Silberman et al. (2012) is a popular benchmark for indoor scene understanding. It contains
908 RGB-D images captured using a Microsoft Kinect sensor in 464 indoor environments. Following
909 existing work, 24,231/652 image-depth pairs are used for training/validation.
- **ImageNet** Deng et al. (2009) is a large-scale dataset commonly used for object recognition. It
910 contains 1.2M images for training and 50,000 for validation, covering a wide range of 1,000
911 categories.
- **CelebA-HQ** Karras et al. (2017) is a high-quality version of the CelebA dataset, comprising 30,000
912 images at a resolution of 1024×1024 pixels. It is widely used in computer vision research areas
913 like image generation, super-resolution, and face synthesis.
- **LSUN-Church** Yu et al. (2015) is a subset of the Large-scale Scene Understanding (LSUN) dataset
914 which focuses specifically on outdoor church scenes. It contains over 126,000 high-resolution
915 images, each resized such that the shorter side measures 256 pixels.

918 A.4 IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS FOR TASK-SPECIFIC DECODERS
919

920 The task-specific decoders are designed following representative work. Specifically, the classification
921 head for visual recognition is a single-layer MLP. To enable generalization to out-of-the-distribution
922 classes, the model computes the similarity between pooled features and text embeddings of class labels.
923 For semantic segmentation, GENREP leverages Mask2FormerCheng et al. (2022), and calculates
924 cosine similarities between class queries and label embeddings for open-vocabulary prediction. In
925 open-vocabulary object detection, we follow Wu et al. (2023a) to adopt a region proposal network,
926 and map region features into pseudo words, which are then compared with class labels. The design
927 of the object decoder follows Zhang et al. (2024) which utilizes a DETR-style Transformer-decoder
928 with 6 layers each containing 8 attention heads and a hidden dimension of 256. For depth estimation,
929 we follow Li et al. (2024c) which employs a MaskFormer-like architecture, and predicts the depth
930 value as a linear combination of bin centers.

931 A.5 MONTE CARLO APPROXIMATION
932

933 We study the impact of varying sampling interval k while keeping the total number of samples used
934 for approximation constant in Table 16. As shown, when the number of samples is held constant,
935 performance consistently improves with a larger stride k . This validates that more independent
936 samples (larger k) yield a better distributional approximation. It also confirms that the performance
937 decline in Table 9 is caused by the diminishing sample size, not inherent flaw in the thinning strategy.

938
939 Table 16: Analysis of the thinning interval k with fixed number of sampled intermediate states.

| k | N_{sample} | T | ObjectNet (Top-1 Acc \uparrow) | ADE20K (mIoU \uparrow) |
|-----|---------------------|-------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 2 | 75 | 75*2+50=200 | 51.1 | 32.5 |
| 3 | 75 | 75*3+50=275 | 51.6 | 33.0 |
| 4 | 75 | 75*4+50=350 | 51.9 | 33.2 |

940 Since intermediate outputs of reverse diffusion are noisy or partially denoised versions of the data, it
941 may cause mismatch to the target distribution $p(x|y)$. We explore two strategies to mitigate this: **i**)
942 discarding the first m samples that noised heavily (*i.e.*, **burn-in**); **ii**) importance re-weighting to assign
943 higher weights to later denoising steps in Equation 2. For importance re-weighting, we explore 3
944 re-weight approaches, which are:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Linear Scaling (LS): } w_t &= \frac{t}{\sum_{i=1}^T i} = \frac{t}{\frac{T(T+1)}{2}}, \\
 \text{Exponential Scaling (ES): } w_t &= \frac{e^{(t-1)}}{\sum_{i=1}^T e^{(i-1)}}, \\
 \text{Power Scaling (PS): } w_t &= \frac{t^p}{\sum_{i=1}^T i^p}.
 \end{aligned} \tag{17}$$

945 The experimental results are summarized below, with the **thinning interval** $k = 2$, power factor $p = 2$.
946 As observed, importance re-weighting leads to poor performance, possibly due to over emphasis on a
947 small number of samples.

948
949 Table 17: Analysis of different important re-weight approaches for sample aggregation.

| re-weighting | N/A | LS | PS | ES |
|--------------|-------------|------|------|------|
| ObjectNet | 51.1 | 49.2 | 49.8 | 48.7 |
| ADE20K | 32.5 | 29.3 | 30.0 | 29.1 |

950 A.6 ABLATION ON HYPERPARAMETER
951

952 The key hyperparameters of GENREP are the task weights (w_p, w_g in Eq. 17) and the alignment
953 damping factor (α in Eq. 14-15). We ablate these hyperparameters below. As shown, the performance
954 is relatively robust to minor variations. To obtain a balanced performance between perception and
955 generation, we set $w_p = 0.7$, $w_g = 0.3$, and use the squared formulation for α .

Table 18: Analysis of task weights (w_p , w_g in Eq.16) and the damping factor (α in Eq.13-14).

| w_p | w_g | α | ObjectNet (Top-1 Acc↑) | ImageNet 256 (FID↓) |
|-------|-------|------------------|------------------------|---------------------|
| 0.7 | 0.3 | (*) ² | 51.1 | 6.92 |
| 0.6 | 0.4 | (*) ² | 50.8 | 6.84 |
| 0.8 | 0.2 | (*) ² | 51.5 | 7.12 |
| 0.7 | 0.3 | (*) ¹ | 50.7 | 6.98 |
| 0.7 | 0.3 | (*) ³ | 51.3 | 7.04 |

A.7 PSEUDO CODE

For easier understanding, we provide the pseudo code for generative visual perception learning with knowledge distillation in Algorithm 1.

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Algorithm 1 Generative Visual Perception Learning via Knowledge Distillation.

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1033 **1: Hyperparameters:**
1034 2: $T \leftarrow$ total diffusion steps
1035 3: $k \leftarrow 2 \{\text{Thinning interval}\}$
1036 4: $m \leftarrow 50 \{\text{Burn-in steps}\}$
1037 **5: Initialize models:**
1038 6: diffusion_model \leftarrow PretrainedDiffusionModel()
1039 7: task_decoder \leftarrow TaskSpecificDecoder()
1040 8: hot_params \leftarrow diffusion_model.attention_blocks[:]
1041 9: **Freeze all parameters except attention blocks:**
1042 10: freeze_all_parameters(diffusion_model)
1043 11: unfreeze_parameters(hot_params)
1044 12: **for** each (x, y_{true}) in training_data **do**
1045 13: **Step 1: Reverse diffusion process**
1046 14: $x_T \leftarrow$ sample_noise(x)
1047 15: reverse_samples $\leftarrow \emptyset$
1048 16: **for** $t = T, T - 1, \dots, 1$ **do**
1049 17: $x_t \leftarrow$ diffusion_model.reverse_step(x_t, t, y_{true})
1050 18: **if** $t < T - m$ **and** $T \bmod k = 0$ **then**
1051 19: reverse_samples.append(x_t)
1052 20: **end if**
1053 21: **end for**
1054 22: **Step 2: Estimate** $p(x|y)$
1055 23: $\mu_{\text{list}} \leftarrow \{(s.\text{mean}) \mid s \in \text{reverse_samples}\}$
1056 24: $\sigma_{\text{list}} \leftarrow \{(s.\text{variance}) \mid s \in \text{reverse_samples}\}$
1057 25: $p(x|y) \leftarrow 0$
1058 26: **for** $\mu, \sigma \in (\mu_{\text{list}}, \sigma_{\text{list}})$ **do**
1059 27: $p(x|y) \leftarrow p(x|y) + \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$ (Add Gaussian component)
1060 28: **end for**
1061 29: $p(x|y) \leftarrow p(x|y)/(T//k)$
1062 30: **Step 3: Compute generative posterior** $p(y|x)$
1063 31: prior $\leftarrow 1/\text{num_classes}$
1064 32: logits_gen $\leftarrow p(x \mid y).\text{log_prob}(x) + \log(\text{prior})$
1065 33: $p(y \mid x) \leftarrow \text{softmax}(\text{logits}_{\text{gen}})$
1066 34: **Step 4: Compute discriminative probability** $q(y|x)$
1067 35: logits_disc \leftarrow task_decoder(x)
1068 36: $q(y \mid x) \leftarrow \text{softmax}(\text{logits}_{\text{disc}})$
1069 37: **Step 5: Loss computation**
1070 38: $\text{loss}_{\text{disc}} \leftarrow \text{cross_entropy}(q(y \mid x), y_{\text{true}})$
1071 39: $\text{loss}_{\text{gen_distil}} \leftarrow \text{KL_divergence}(p(y \mid x), q(y \mid x))$
1072 40: total_loss $\leftarrow \text{loss}_{\text{disc}} + \text{loss}_{\text{gen_distil}}$
1073 41: **Step 6: Backpropagation**
1074 42: optimizer.zero_grad()
1075 43: total_loss.backward()
1076 44: optimizer.step(hot_params, task_decoder)
1077 45: **end for**
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